

МИНИСТЕРСТВО ОБЩЕГО И ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНОГО  
ОБРАЗОВАНИЯ РОССИЙСКОЙ ФЕДЕРАЦИИ  
САМАРСКИЙ ГОСУДАРСТВЕННЫЙ УНИВЕРСИТЕТ

Кафедра иностранных языков

Учебно-методический материал

*по теме*

**«Изучение иностранных языков  
и общения»**

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Предлагаемый материал предназначен для управления самостоятельной работой студентов (психологов, социологов и культуроведов) по изучению оригинальных английских текстов. Выбор тематики обусловлен необходимостью осознания будущим специалистом всей сложности речевого общения и его функций в деятельности человека.

Мы надеемся, что знакомство с технологией усвоения и обучения иностранным языкам на заключительных этапах их работы над речью, нацелит студентов на более внимательные отношения как к своим высказываниям, так и к высказываниям собеседника, будет в целом способствовать их культуре общения.

Тем, кто обучает, данная работа даст возможность предъявить студентам интересный материал для чтения, а также осуществить "следающий" контроль за его усвоением как содержательной, так и языковой сторон.

Материал разбит на три части. Первую группу текстов (современных авторов) следует прочесть и проверить свое понимание с помощью заданий в конце каждого текста. Вторую часть ("классику зарубежной методологии") надо прочесть и подготовиться к свободному общению. Задания в конце каждого текста помогут Вам в обсуждении информации. И, наконец, третья часть (тех же авторов или других) дополнит запас знаний студентов по теме, позволит им поупражняться как в прямом (устно, с листа) переводе, так и в обратном (письменно).

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## Part I

Read the texts and be ready for comprehension check up.

### TEXT 1. ON LEARNING ENGLISH

Learning English is like learning to swim or learning to play ball. We learn to swim by swimming, to play ball by playing ball, and to speak English by speaking English.

A good ball-player spends hours, days, month, and even years practising. The more he practises, the better he plays. He has to learn to meet the situations of the game as they arise and react to them immediately. And so it is when we are talking. The ideas we wish to express come instantly to our mind, but there is no time for us to stop and think of how to put together the words we need. Acquiring the ability to use a language automatically, that is without stopping to think, is a process of habit formation. Forming a habit, any kind of habit, requires much practice.

Every language has patterns that are basic and fundamental. Every language has a body of common words used by all the speakers of that language and thousands of other words that are used less frequently. We can understand and read many words and structures that we cannot use in speaking and writing. Every language has many ways of saying the same things. If you wish to ask the time, you say: "What time is it?", "Do you have the time?", "What time have you got", "Will you tell me the time?", etc..

Learning English efficiently requires that you put your mind on what you are doing and have the intention and the will to learn. The time you have is so short that you cannot afford to waste it by giving less than your full cooperation in class and in home study. In other words, you have to build up language habits in English just as you built up language habits in your mother tongue. Knowing English, as well as knowing your own language, is a relative matter. You will never finish learning either. Your freedom in each of them is something to be learned through your own effort.

Good luck to you then, in your learning of English. It's up to you. Nobody can learn to swim for you. Nobody can learn English for you. You have to learn for yourself, and you will learn if you really want to and are willing to practise.

Language is not to be taught, language is to be learnt.

### Check up for comprehension:

1. What does the author mean saying that learning English is like learning to swim?
2. Do you have any opportunity to speak English?
3. What do you like better to read English or to speak English?
4. What does it mean: "to acquire the ability to use a language automatically"?
5. What does it mean: "the process of habit formation"?
6. What does the author mean saying that "Language is not to be taught, language is to be learnt"?

## TEXT 2. "I WAS PETER, YOU WERE THE WOLF." LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THE GAME OF PRETENCE.

*by Renzo Titone*

Language teaching, or rather the art and science of language teaching and learning must take inspiration from the model offered by the psycholinguistic reality of a child's linguistic development...

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...It must build its methodology from the child's experience (in nursery and primary school).

It must maintain the age-old pedagogical principle held up by the medieval **Magistri** up until the time of Comenius: "ars naturam sequitur".

It is therefore our duty to follow the example of the infant's linguistic development as soon as "nature" reveals it to us. Contrary to the first research into psycholinguistic theories in the '50s and '60s which concentrated on evolutionary analysis and linguistic, and for the most part grammatical, competence, the last two decades have seen research go in a different direction, towards the development of "communicative competence", and in a way the functional fusion of pragmatic capabilities. The child's actions, seen as a union of speech and play, have become the object of investigation. The child needs to explore its social reality in both its human and physical aspects through play and nominalising what he/she comes across. The child is almost biblical in its denomination, seen as conquering and possessing, of what is around him/her.

It is therefore logical to base structures for language learning in children on the dialectic relationship between speech and play. The analysis laid out below is based on this fundamental relationship.

## Children's Speech As a Game

Why do children speak? This is the question Catherine Garvey asks at the start of her excellent essay (1985). They speak out of a social need for development and survival but the ultimate reason is that they are biologically programmed to do so, they are to walk or to play. The immediate reasons are many and varied. Garvey writes that children speak for many reasons. They speak in order to share their feelings and ideas with others, to exercise their influence on others and to find out what they want to know; sometimes they speak to keep themselves company or put order in and understand the world which surrounds them: sometimes they speak to enjoy themselves, or because speech is an integral part of whatever activity they are doing. Last but not least, many children speak because they are encouraged to do so by the adults who are looking after them.

The functions and uses of language, described by the English linguist Michael Halliday, can be seen and are developed partly in early childhood, partly during the first years at school. We can define the various functions of speech as follows: instrumental, whose purpose is to satisfy any needs or desires; regulative, to control both self and others through speech; interactive, to establish and maintain contact with others; personal, used for self expression; procedural, to discover reality and the learning process; imaginative, to create with one's fantasy; mathematical, to teach and take in information; textual, to create texts; metalinguistic, to gather all the essential and analytical parts of a language through evolved thinking capabilities.

All of these functions detailed above are present when the child is at play. When the child is very young the imaginative function is usually dominant and controls and permeates all the other ones, especially the procedural one. If speech is action for all human beings (cf. John Austin's thesis in **How to do things with words**), speech is therefore action in all normal children's play as they try to learn to speak.

If children learn a language by speaking, if we say that speech is a mixture of capability, knowledge and motivation which create and develop the linguistic system and if children first speak, not only to communicate but to express themselves then play is the driving force behind speech. Consequently, if Garvey's affirmation that "speech is a central event compared to many other aspects of a child's life", then we must add that every incidence of speech takes on, either directly or indirectly, but always unintentionally, the guise of play, with all its vivacity, creativity and ingenuousness. The above confirms the fact that in any instance of language learning in children, play and language are inseparable and that the only valid method of language learning is one based on a functional use of play.

## Children's Play As Speech

Scholars of speech-play in children classify word games in different categories: from ritualised games to pretend games, role games, noise games, fantasy games and mothering games. These different types of games are described below.

### Ritualised Games

Speech rituals are represented by a rhythmic form of exchange and each incidence has its own tone and content models which are more or less determined by the situation. One example, extracted from a longer episode taped by Garvey, is a good example of a ritualised game played by two three-year-olds. One of the two started by saying "No! Not me." The other one replied "Yes! You to". Each intervention lasted between 0.5 and 0.9 seconds with pauses varying between 0.5 and 0.7 seconds. The intonation was identical each time. The children exchanged a total of 11 phrases, each one pronounced in exactly the same rhythmic and singsong way. Unlike conversation, ones the content is establishes and each child knows the "rules", ritualised games allow for automatic pat exchanges.

### Pretence Games

Certain pretence games can stimulate children to choose specific words as you will see in the following example. A little girl (37 months) was playing with her friend/child and decided to go and do some shopping. She started asking her child if he needed any milk, if there was butter at home, if they had to get bread, waiting for a positive or negative answer from her child each time. Children usually use generic words which indicate a group or class, such as things or stuff for groups of objects, and people or children for more than one individual. Choosing specific words, however, can take place during more complicated pretence games.

The pretence game is a way of introducing children to a kind of social life, which they act out in their imaginations. In the table below two friends are getting ready to play a pretence game. Anne (35 months) is talking on the telephone and Jack (33 months) is looking at her.

For children of two years and older speech becomes more and a central part of events for them and their dialogues vary everyday. In most of the pairs of children Garvey observed their ever improving conversational skills become part of their play: they joke, make gently fun of people and have funny pretend dialogues. It is at times difficult, however, to distinguish where play actually stops.

**TABLE 1**

**Anne**

Hello? Hello!(*on the phone*).

It was daddy...

It was daddy.

We are going to go for a walk with daddy.

Let's pretend.

Let's pretend.

That's mine. Mine (*she takes the book from him*).

I'm bringing the brush (*She gets the brush which Jack has dropped*).

Over there (*She points to the other side of the room*).

Okay?

I have to go to the toilet.

Me. We have to go to daddy.

**Jack**

Who is it?

What?

Daddy?

Okay. Let's pretend.

I'm going to bring this (*he gets the brush*). And this (*he gets a book*).

Then I'll bring this (*he gets Anne's rag doll*).

Okay.

Who...who has to go to the toilet?

Games often make use of a specific set of verbal signals to distinguish the characters involved. "Pretence games" can be organized in many ways-sometimes they are organized in a democratic fashion, otherwise they are organized by a leader whose ideas and initiatives will most likely be accepted and expected by the rest of the group. There is always some type of group dynamics present. Different researchers have made analogous observations on the two ways that pretence games are organized. The dramatic element is fundamental to these games-roles have to be played and activities carried out. Another type of interaction common to these games has been defined as the deliberate acknowledgment of the pretence, or rather the laying down of the terms around which the action is to be carried out and the relative rules applied. This interaction is generally metacommunicative- it solely regards the game and any organization of it. Speech can become quite complex at this point and may include a series of statements which define the various roles and activities to be carried out. Here is an example:

- *Defining the situation* : " let's play houses".
- *Assigning the roles*: " I'm daddy and you're mummy"... " who'll he be" (pointing to a third child)... " he's the baby".
- *Defining the place*:" this is the kitchen" .
- *Preparing a plan of action*:"I'm going to prepare the baby's food and you go and do the shopping".

- *Assigning props:* "this is my bag".
- *Correction of plan and touching up of the script:* "daddies don't have bags"..."my daddy has a bag".
- *Adding details to the other's roles:* "no, you have to really shout at him" (said by a little girl when the little boy who was daddy wasn't cross enough with the bold 'baby').
- *Resorting to rules take from a real-life context:* "you can't really go out!" (said by the little girl when the little boy was heading out the playroom door to do the shopping).
- *Ending the game or moving to another one:* "Okay. Dinner's over..." "What will we play now?"
- *Commenting on the relationships within the group:* "We're playing together because we're friends, aren't we?" "Yes" (taken from Garvey 1985).

Dialogue is essential to the development of the game. Firstly, it defines and co-ordinates the actions of the participants.

Secondly, the dialogue within the group serves to establish who belongs to the group as well as being essential for the organisation and development of the game. We can therefore conclude that speech within a game is of vital social as well as linguistic importance.

## ROLE GAMES

At three years of age little girls are not only capable of carrying out adult type conversations but also of playing at being "mummy". They begin these role games by copying the other persons behaviour and voice. The classic formula of pretending to be different people "I'll be mummy and you be babby" is usually a forerunner of role games. It is interesting to note that when they play, the "baby's" voice has usually a higher tone than the "mother's" one and that the "mother" talks much more than the "baby". If the "baby" is meant to be very small than he/she usually cries etc. The "baby" often says "no" when either the "mother" or "father" ask him/her to do something and tends to be moody. He/she addresses his/her "parents" as if they were the real ones. The first roles that children generally play out are those of the family nucleus. The roles are usually divided according to sex. The relationships within the games are based on real-life situations, with the "children" asking the "parents" permission to do things and "husbands" and "wives" discussing" their day-to-day lives.

Mothering games are linked to these role games. Children pretend to feed their dolls and put them to sleep. They carry out quite complex actions such as resting their doll's head its back to get its wind up. Mothers of young girls tend to encourage this game and soon the little girls have a whole repertoire of maternal gestures with their dolls, using the same language as

their own mothers use with them. This capacity to be able to identify yourself with another person is at the basis of social development.

## FANTASY GAMES

Friendships are created and reinforced through play even though at times there may also be disagreements. Games played in early infancy generally leave affectionate memories which will remain in later life. When friends play together they usually let their imaginations go much more easily than when children who don't know each other well play. This is probably due to the fact that their understanding, their exchanges, the history of their game and their lives are all based on mutual agreement and reciprocity and this allows them to transcend the limits of organisation and rules and explore their personal fantasy words together.

In short, speech in play is a natural part of a child's social, emotional, knowledge and expressive development. There is no need to add anything more in order to underline the importance of its function in the growth of the child's personality and its continual development. How would it then be possible to imagine the learning of either a first or second language outside the dynamics of games. It is acceptable for the teaching methodology to make play the basis for different types of systematic learning and linguistic - communicative competence. The teacher must not forget that play is the driving force behind the learning process, it is the very reason for learning, in essence, they are one and the same.

All that remains is to note some practical applications of this "child's size" language teaching and learning process, even if it must be said that the child is already well on the way of scholastic learning.

A synthesis of the two principles could be summed up in the double formulas - "don't do anything that can't be said and don't say anything that can't be done". This latter was not taken into consideration by J. Asher in his "**Total Physical Response**" method which assumes that the starting point in learning a language is carrying out situational activities which leads to a type of situational reinforcement ("Resource" № 1, 1995).

### Check up for comprehension:

1. What did the first research into psycholinguistic theories in the '50s and '60s concentrate on?
2. Have the last two decades seen research go towards the development of «communicative competence» and the functional fusion of linguistic and social capabilities?
3. Does the child need to explore its social reality in both its human and physical aspects through play and nominalising what he/she comes across?

4. Children language learning is based on the dialectic relationship between speech and play, isn't it?
5. What are the reasons for children's speaking?
6. What are the various functions of speech?
7. What does the author consider to be the only valid method of language learning?
8. What kinds of different types of games are described in this article?
9. What is typical of ritualised games?
10. What is the pretence game?
11. The role game is based on pretending to be different people, isn't it?
12. Are fantasy games impossible without imagination, mutual agreement and reciprocity?
13. What is speech in play?
14. Do you think this article interesting and helpful?

### TEXT 3. HOW LANGUAGE IS LEARNED

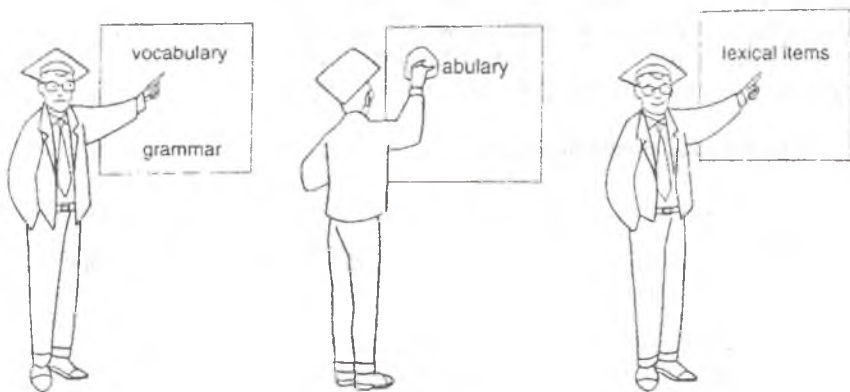
Language is not learned as grammar and vocabulary. It is very unfortunate that nearly all of us teachers of languages in the world teach language as grammar and vocabulary. It is very unfortunate that modern research shows very clearly that language is not learned in this way. Language is not learned in the way it is taught.

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Let us take a look at how a language is learned?

#### Lexical Items

Language is experienced, stored, recalled, and used, not as vocabulary and grammar, but as lexical items.



There are 5 kinds of lexical items:

1. **Single words**, like "Exit", that are meaningful in themselves. You can act on them individually. "Cafeteria" is equally helpful.
2. **Polywords** are phrases that work as single meanings. e.g. "by the way", "on the other hand".
3. **Collocations** are word partnerships. words that belong together. e.g. "loose" and "tight", in comparisons.
4. **Institutional Utterances**. These are fixed phrases or sentences", e.g. "I'll get it". "It's here, somewhere".

Native speakers store, recall and use these fixed utterances. You have a repertoire of 100, 000 or so in your native language. You have learned them by heart. They comprise the majority of all your communication. They are triggered appropriately by circumstances and out they come - e.g. "out they come"!

The fifth type of lexical item is:

5. **Sentence Frames**. These are much more a part of the written language. They are rhetorical structures unique to each language. In very literal translations from one language to another, these sentence frames are what make the translation seem most foreign.

### Content, and Process

The single words, polywords and collocations are the content of language - "referential" items used to express what we are talking about.

The institutional utterances and sentence frames are the process. They are the "pragmatic" items used to communicate what we are doing with the language. They are the functions.

### A New Syllabus?

In order to teach language in the way it is learned, should we do away with vocabulary and grammar, and replace them with institutional utterances?

If so, there are 100,000 or so to learn and to use appropriately. If we taught 10 per hour, it would take 10,000 hours. Consider a school situation, with 3 lesson hours per week for 36 weeks of the year, that results in 108 hours per year. Consequently it would take about 100 years to teach the language that way! Imagine the final exam with the centenarian student doing a 100,000 gap-fill exercises. The exam would take a few weeks in itself!

### Be Selective?

Why not choose just the most frequent and useful institutional utterances? The most popular system of teaching languages through institutional utterances in the USA selects the 3,000 most common utterances

as their syllabus to **teach**. However, their students **learn** 10,000 institutional utterances.

### **Correlating Learning with Teaching**

The teachers teach 3,000 the learners learn 10,000!

Yes, languages can be taught. We all know that.

Unfortunately, research shows there is no correlation between the teaching and the learning!

### **Taught but not Learned**

The learner's brain learns a new item not because the teacher has presented, explained, or translated it. The learner's brain learns when the item is **meaningful to that learner at that moment**.

A new word item may be meaningful to one learner but not to another at that moment.

"Why can't you remember it?! I taught it to you yesterday!"

Yes, you **taught** it, but your learners didn't **learn** it.

It's almost as difficult to make someone learn something as to stop them learning something.

The learner doesn't learn that new item because he or she is simply not ready to do so. The research shows clearly that the learner learns the new item or doesn't learn it, and it has no correlation with how you taught it. If you focus on the new item (teaching), the learner may learn it or not, i.e. teaching does not guarantee learning.

### **The Learner's Brain**

Research into brain helps to clarify this. To learn "rain", the learner needs to **experience** rain, then nominalise "rain", i.e. to name the experience. Then the learner needs to narrate, i.e. use the named experience to communicate it- "Oh dear, it's raining!" Only then can the learner explain "rain".



This brain sequence of learning is a fixed order. It is the organising principle.

Without the experience, the learner can't nominalise. Without nominalising, the learner can't narrate. Without narrating, the learner can't explain.

1. experience- > 2. nominalise- > 3. narrate- > 4. explain.

If we, teachers, explain before naming, or name before the learner experiences, or demand narration before the learner experiences, the learner simply doesn't learn, he can't learn.

### An Analogy

Let's take an image, an analogy, to explore this further.

The hungry child sees the sweet in its wrapper. The hungry child unwraps the sweet, eats the sweet, and throws away the wrapper. The human brain operates on understanding meaning. When the meaning has been understood, the human brain is satisfied.

The meaning is the sweet.

The words are the wrapper. The human brain can't be bothered with the words when it understands the meaning. It doesn't learn the words. If you throw away the words you can't learn the language.



The role of the teacher is to help the learner become aware of and interested in the wrappers, as well as the sweets, the lexical items as well as the meanings.



### “Catch 22”?

A teacher who focuses on the wrapper- the words - making the learner consciously and analytically aware of the detail, creates the biggest obstacle to learning. The learner “can’t see the wood for the trees”, can’t see the sweets because he is too interested in the wrappers.

You can imagine how boring minute analysis of sweet wrappers could be! It would also be very slow.

The brain’s left hemisphere is the analytical one that does the step-by-step sequenced logical thinking. It “sees the trees”.

The brain’s right hemisphere does the opposite. It does the global, holistic thinking, the overview. It “sees the wood”.

By encouraging learners to focus on the words, the teacher activates their left hemispheres and deactivates their right ones.

This is most unfortunate, because **the right hemisphere learns 1,600 times faster than the left one.**

So, does the very process of **teaching** language work against the learners **learning** language? The answer is “yes”. If the process of teaching activates only the left hemisphere of the brain.

### Learner’s Expectations

Your learners **expect** you to teach.

Their assumption is, “If our teacher works hard, we will learn”! Their assumption is that you **will** focus on the wrappers and analyse and explain and **teach** all the words in every text and coursebook lesson.

### Learner’s Needs: How Learners Really Learn

However, what the learners **need** is usually very different from what they expect.

What they need for the way they really learn is an enormous amount of exposure to an enormous amount of language. That is the opposite of the coursebook’s minute and detailed work on a very small amount of language.

Remember, the learners **learned** 10,000 institutionalised utterances when **taught** only 3,000 of them. Learners can learn much more than they are taught.

Therefore a volume of exposure, a breadth of exposure to language is much more effective than depth of exposure or analysis.

## **How to Teach in the Way They Learn**

### **a. Don't Read the Text**

One way is to give learners insufficient time to read any text, but just enough time to skim it rapidly for information. Ask them two "questions" and your learners then skim for the answers, e.g. "What were the names of two of Charlie Chaplin's wives?" That way they'll skim a whole text on Charlie Chaplin's life, taking in globally a lot more than just the two names. They will also **not** worry about the many words they don't know.

### **b. Don't Listen to the Text**

Likewise, give your learners only two "questions" when they are about to listen. Again, they will listen for meaning and information, taking in much more in the process.

### **c. Don't do the Exercises**

It is not worth doing the exercises in the coursebook or workbook. Doing exercises is the equivalent of too many "trees", i.e. too close and detailed left hemisphere focus resulting in an inability to see the wood. It is slow and very ineffective. It has a negative effect on the rate of learning. It's **much** better to present a second or third text for rapid listening or reading (see a. and b.) in which the new lexical items appear again (see 3 contexts below in f.).

### **d. Don't Simplify**

The way learners really learn requires no simplification of language or text, no sense of progressive steps from simple to complex, no concessions to ideas of levels. All the activities in a., b., c., d., and e. in this article are best done with authentic texts at native - speaker level. The human brain works best when presented with the "real thing" right from the beginning, i.e. you make all the language available from Day One.

### **e. Read Aloud Meaningfully**

Remember, only 7% of communication is the words alone. The remaining 93% is a combination of the way the words are pronounced along with body and facial gestures. Your learners are already experts at the 93%. Even total beginners in a foreign language are already experts at the 93% of communication in that language. Therefore, you should read aloud any text rapidly and expressively, using your voice and body and face to **experience the meaning yourself**. Then your learners will "experience" the text themselves, and will not need **teaching** of the vocabulary and grammar.

It is much, much more effective for you to fill a lesson with...

## f. Awareness-Raising Activities

At the same time as speeding up and increasing the amount of language content your learners encounter, you need to help them look at the words, to help them be aware of the process, the language. For instance, encourage them to look for chunks or clumps of language, i.e. the polywords, collocations, institutionalised utterances, and to collect them.

### i) Three Contexts Experience

Research shows that when learners meet a word or phrase or piece of grammar in three different contexts, they understand it with no need for translation or explanation (i.e. with no need for a teacher to teach it). Therefore, to find texts where the same lexical item occurs 3 or more times is the most natural way to enable your learners to learn that item (if they are ready to learn it). This is what happens when learners read Marvel-type comics. In the adventures of Batman, for instance, they meet a new word in the first context and they don't panic, they register it in their memory and absorb some information about it. The second context adds to the information and narrows down the meaning. The third context confirms their correct unconscious ideas of the meaning, and eliminates incorrect ideas. The new word is learned. "Holy sniffing, Batman, don't descend into the sewer!"

"Fear not, Robin, if our quarry is a rat we will pursue him to his sewer home".

"But in that stink, how will we sniff him out?"

"Each evil creature leaves his own trail, Robin. Even in the sewers he will be distinktive".

Unconsciously the learner associates the new word, "sewer", first with sniff and negativity, then with fear, rat, home, then with somewhere a non-smell trail can be followed. The new word is experienced and nominalised enough to narrate it pretty accurately. Each subsequent encounter with the new word will confirm and define it more precisely. It will also build up the collocations, e.g. "sewer rat", "down/ descend into the sewer".

### ii) Collecting "Experience", "Nominalise"

Some teachers teach grammar by awareness only. They point to one example in a text, e.g. "He had counted on it" (the past perfect) and ask the learners simply to find other examples of the same structure in that text.

That is whole-brain "experience" and "nominalisation" and "3 contexts". Your learners don't need to have a grammar explanation, a rule or a pattern explained. They will automatically seek to understand the meaning and usage of the new structure in context. Let them write down the 3 or more sentences the new structure occurs in, and they are then building their awareness towards being able to use the structure to "narrate" (and much later "explain").

### iii) Lexical Items on "Cards" (Narration)

You can extract useful lexical items from the texts your learners have encountered (however rapidly and "superficially"), and consequently can raise

their awareness of them by writing the items down on a piece of paper they can all see.

When your learners have a conversation on a new lesson topic they can use those items in their conversation wherever possible, if they so wish. There is no pressure, only awareness.

Again, those items don't need to be taught in any way. If your learners are not ready to use them, they won't. If they ask you to explain, don't.

*iv) No Explanations Necessary.*

In learning their first language your learners didn't need to explain any language items. To pass exams in the new language they don't need to explain the language. Therefore, to **receive or give explanations is unnecessary** for your learners.

If your teaching has, up to now, been based on explanations of vocabulary or grammar, please perceive now that explanations are not only unnecessary, but slow your learners down, and prevent them from learning ("Resource" № 1, 1995).

**Check up for comprehension:**

1. How is language not learned?
2. How many lexical items are there?
3. What is unique to each language?
4. Is there correlation between the teaching and the learning?
5. When does the learner's brain learn the item?
6. Is a new word item always meaningful to all the learners?
7. Is it possible to nominalise without the experience?
8. The learner can't narrate without nominalising, can he?
9. What is the role of the teacher in learning the words?
10. What does the brain's left hemisphere do?
11. What does the brain's right hemisphere do?
12. What is the way to teach a language in the way learners learn?
14. When don't learners need any translation or explanation?

**TEXT 4. LATERAL THINKING**

When a problem comes up, many people practise 'Lateral Thinking'. You'll see them frown, then smile and possibly laugh. For instance, here's a problem "shall I go to the party, or do my homework?" There are many arguments on both sides and you can't resolve your dilemma... so, use 'lateral thinking', for example ask yourself "what would a cat do? What would a dog do?" Perhaps you see the cat slinking off to the party and the dog doggedly doing the homework. In those images you may well find your own decision.

For example, think of a problem you have. State it clearly, e.g. by writing it down. Now look at these two photos. There's a New Yorker playing

at being Father Christmas, and another one dressed as the Statue of Liberty. Ask yourself what and in what ways each of them would do in your situation. Ask yourself in what ways your problem resembles the man and in what ways your problem resembles the statue.

### Lateral Listening

To aid your concentration and understanding build a lateral image while you listen, for example how would either the Father Christmas or Statue of Liberty be affected by listening to what you are listening to.

### Lateral Reading

You can use the two photos while reading, asking yourself how would they read and understand it. Or you can ask how each point you read is either 'a cat point' or 'a dog's point'? Try creating your own lateral ideas.



### Why 'Lateral'?

The question has two parts. 'Lateral' means 'of a side'. Lateral thinking as you have seen above, is thinking to a different side, in a different direction, unlimited by the situation.

The second part of the question is "Why use lateral thinking?"

Lateral thinking uses both sides of the brain. The right hemisphere of the brain is creative, intuitive and random, the left one is logical, rational and analytical.

When you have a problem and "can't find a solution", the left hemisphere of your brain has probably analysed the problem and got stuck in

the left-brain processes, by using lateral thinking, you open the problem up to your **whole** brain. You attract the analogical powers of the right hemisphere of the brain. If it seems random, that's because it is random. It's very craziness is what makes it a whole-brain process.



### **Lateral Speaking**

You may have met lateral speakers. They bring in a seemingly irrelevant or challenging example, yet the example has some unexpected wisdom, or unexpected insight. Just thinking of the strange example frees up new ways of thinking. Those who use Zen thinking make this into a philosophy. Surrealists make it into an art form. Try it, let your mind be free and open, and while you speak, allow yourself to express the seemingly random thoughts and images that occur to you.

You can introduce such unexpected ideas by saying "This may or may not be helpful, but I just thought...". This thought may open things up...". Such unusual ideas can make lively titles for your speeches or talks.

### **Lateral Writing**

Clearly when you write formal essays or compositions or reports, your readers expect logical, connected prose. In poems, however, seemingly unconnected images can interact interestingly.

The extra power of a poem can be added to your prose by you allowing yourself to have 'original' ideas and 'new' images.

For example, to create an eye-catching, snappy title for an essay or composition often requires a piece of lateral thinking. "The future of oil as a world fuel" doesn't catch the interest, whereas "Is oil burnt out?" does. Even

more lateral is "Our future fried in oil?" where the petroleum oil and cooking oil ambiguity is exploited.

Now, you try creating several lateral titles for "The future of oil as a world fuel" using the Father Christmas and Statue of Liberty images. Write your titles down. Now, look at them and plan how your essay or composition could develop from there.

You may find yourself continuing to develop that lateral thought through the whole essay. Your writing then becomes whole-brain writing with images which interest and stimulate your readers.

### **"How far should I go?"**

If your formal essay becomes analogical poetry, it will fail to achieve a good mark. So where should you 'draw the line'? One answer is to take your essay topic and write a totally lateral 'poem' for a few minutes to begin with. Then be analytical and logical. You will find the lateral thinking feeds and nourishes the analytical, logical thinking. You will find you work faster and more fluently and effectively. Why? Because you are respecting and using both sides of your brain, and you are therefore using the whole of your brain ("Sure" № 4 January 1996, p. 8-9).

**Note:** Zen is a Japanese form of Buddhahism that emphasizes the importance of controlling or concentrating the mind more than learning from religious books.

### **Check up for comprehension:**

1. Can you give any explanation to "lateral thinking" after having read the first paragraph?

2. Do you agree with the definition given below: "Lateral thinking is a way of solving problems by considering a range of ideas that may not seem logical or relevant at first"?

3. Does building a lateral image aid our concentration and understanding while we listen?

4. How does lateral thinking proceed in the brain?

5. If you let your mind be free and open will you be able to grasp new ways of thinking and become lateral speakers?

6. What is the difference between writing formal essays or compositions and poems?

7. How may we create the titles for our papers or reports?

8. What is the advantage of using both sides of our brain when writing an essay?

## TEXT 5. THE EMOTIONAL POWER OF WORDS

### Reading, Writing, Listening, Speaking.

Do you want to be 'with it', part of the 'in crowd'? Then 'tune in' to the power of prepositions.

The prepositions 'in, on, up, with, over' have positive connotations. They translate as 'me'/'us'.

But the prepositions 'out, off, down, under' are usually negative. They translate as 'them'.

When you meet a new phrasal verb, be aware of the emotional power of the preposition. That will help you with guessing the meaning in context.

Likewise one person says to you "Come with me to the cinema". another says "Go with me to the cinema". The word 'come' is more positive, more friendly. It means the person has already projected himself or herself to the cinema in his or her mind and is inviting you to join them.

In the same way 'this' is more positive, more 'me'/'us', than 'that'. Usually, when we compare two things the one we prefer is 'this', the one we like less is 'that' and the distance seems not to be relevant.

If you were taught 'this' means 'here', 'that' means 'there', the distance is not always physical, but can be emotional. I **feel** more distant from **that** thing I don't like, than from **this** thing I do like.

Consider once more 'some' and 'any'. In most other languages there is only one word. In English there are two. Why? Because we have a subtlety of expectation in English.

If I say "Can you lend me some money?" I'm expecting you to say "yes" because we are friends. If I say "Can you lend me any money?" I'm setting myself up for you to say "no" even if I know you've got lots of money.

In fact 'some' refers to a small number, while 'any' refers to all or none. English native speakers say any of these sentences as correct, even if your grammar books say some of them are wrong.

1. Do you like some pop videos? (a number).
2. Do you like any pop videos? (all or none).
3. I like some pop videos (a number).
4. I like any pop videos (all).
5. I don't like some pop videos (a number).
6. I don't like any pop videos (none).

Therefore if I go into a shop and ask "have you got some eggs?" It's an eggs shop, or a grocer's shop, where I expect the answer "yes". But if I go into a shop and ask "Have you got any eggs?" It's a shop where I don't expect the answer "yes", e.g. a garage shop. A few UK garages sell eggs. Most don't.

Words are not facts. They have emotional loading. In English we have more synonyms than any other language. We also have more monosyllabic words than any other language. To the English ear the monosyllables have more force, are stronger words. Their polysyllabic synonyms are more formal and cold.

Compare:

love→ affection  
hate→ odium  
late→ tardy  
good→ beneficial  
bad→ detrimental

Be aware, then, that style in the English that you read, write, hear or say depends a lot on whether you use strong, short words, or longer, more formal ones.

You have a choice when you use English, between the Latin-based words and the Saxon-based ones.

Compare:

nice things→ beautiful objects  
strike → industrial action  
smell → odour/ perfume

Here's the committee report on poor Mrs Gatting. Feel how unemotionally it reports in Latin terminology what she said and the equivalent below in good strong Saxon words.

"The members **assembled** at Mr Gatting's residence. Mrs Gatting **stated** that the society should find an alternative location for its meetings, or **recompense** her for the use of her front room".

"She said the **alcoholic refreshments** that Mr Gatting **served** them could have **purchased** her a mink coat and an indoor swimming-pool instead of filling her house with **inebriates** every second Tuesday. She then departed".

"Why do you always have to **meet in my house**? Why can't you find **another place**? Or **pay** me. The **drinks** my husband **gives** you could have **bought** me a mink coat or a swimming-pool by now. Instead my house is filled with **drunks**. I'm going".

In effect, we 'translate' from Saxon English into Latin English to make what we write or say more formal, more objective and more precise. In doing so we remove much of the emotional power.

Conversely, as we become more passionate, more emotional, we unconsciously or consciously select more Saxon words to give what we say or write more power and intensity.

Look through one or more articles in this issue of **Sure!**, and notice the emotional power of the prepositions, of 'come' and 'go', of 'this' and 'that', and of the Saxon compared with the Latin words.

Observe especially what people say, quoted in the articles (such as in interviews). Are they trying to be precise and formal (Latin) or direct and informal (Saxon)?

If you like, change the style by reexpressing (write or say it) Saxon sentences into latin, or Latin sentences into Saxon ("Sure", December 1995, p. 6-7).

### Check up for comprehension:

1. Can the prepositions have any emotional power?
2. What distance do 'this' and 'that' mean?
3. What number do 'some' and 'any' refer to? Give the examples illustrating their emotional loading.
4. Can you explain the difference between monosyllables and their polysyllabic synonyms?
5. What should you be aware using strong, short words or longer, more formal ones?
6. How does the committee report quoted in the text sound in Latin terminology and in good strong Saxon words?
7. In what case do we select more Saxon-based words, when we are trying to be precise and formal or direct and informal?

## TEXT 6. IT'S NOT WHAT YOU SAY, BUT HOW YOU SAY IT

Making the right impression in different cultures is not difficult, it's just as hard as learning a new language. A little mistake can put you in embarrassment. So as Bruce Martin writes: "keep sentences short and simple, but *avoid oversimplifying*".

Ralph Waldo Emerson's view 150 years ago that "no man should travel until he has learned the language of the country he visits" is reflected in the boom of language learning for business in the other person's language.

But unless you can really cope in a language, it may be best to save it *for social chat*. A little learning is dangerous although a few phrases, say, in Swedish, Hungarian or Russian are always *appreciated*.

Much more important, the psychologists say, is your "non-verbal behaviour" or body language. This must take into account different notions of politeness, manners and social rituals. *Actions speak louder than words*. Saying

the wrong things. eye contact. hand gestures. touching. bowing. using first names. how you eat and drink can be *a minefield for the unwary*.

**"A little learning is dangerous, although a few phrases, say, in Swedish, Hungarian or Russian are always appreciated."**

You first need to know whether you are dealing with people from the so called "low-context" cultures, such as North America, Britain, Sweden, Switzerland or Germany, who spell things out verbally, or "high context" cultures such as France, Japan, Spain, Greece, Saudi Arabia, China and South Korea, who communicate by nuance and implication and are less dependent on the spoken word. For example, the Swiss and Germans like to lay their cards on the table. Talking to a Frenchman or a Spaniard, what is unsaid is often more important. Low context folk should try to be more explicit.



The handshake is probably the most common form of greeting in the world, except in Japan. But even this simple gesture *is fraught with complications*. The British handshake is firm but used sparingly; in Italy and France - where handshaking is something of a national pastime - a gentler, kinder grip may stand you in *good stead*.

In Germany and Denmark you should nod your head when you shake hands as a gesture of respect. Somebody who does not know this may *misinterpret* it as aggression. People in Mediterranean countries sometimes tilt their head back when they shake hands. Northerners may take this for *arrogance*. Anglo-Saxons learn to look people in the eye. This is sometime misinterpreted as aggressive or challenging behaviour by Orientals, for whom only an occasional glance into the other person's face is considered polite.

Unless you really know what you are doing, close bodily greetings are best avoided. Kissing has many pitfalls - unless you are fortunate enough to be coached by a French general. You need to know which cheek to start with. The British start with the right cheek. In Belgium you start with the left cheek: left, right, left. The French generally kiss twice: left, right. In some Middle East countries they kiss three or even four times: men kiss men, women kiss women. In Saudi Arabia greetings are particularly *elaborate*: after shaking hands a Saudi is likely to kiss you on both cheeks and then take your hand in his *as a gesture of kinship*.

**“Actions speak louder than words. Saying the wrong things, eye contact, hand gestures, touching, bowing, using first names, how you eat and drink can be a minefield for the unwary”.**

The way other cultures like *to put people at their ease* can be confusing. The American use of first names as a form of instant friendship does not always go down well in countries such as Germany, or even Britain. The British and Americans share at least one thing: they like to break the ice with a joke, which means sometimes being thought as *flippant*.

Visiting cards should never be shoved into the pocket. Receive them with both hands: read, learn and inwardly digest the name and pecking order, and lay them out reverently on the table in front of you.

People do business with whom they feel comfortable. It comes down to sincerity and spontaneous good manners. If you are not sure how to be polite in someone else's culture, then at least be polite in your own.

English is accepted as a “lingua franca” for business travellers in most parts of the world. But *obliging* people to speak it when they are not completely fluent can lead to serious misunderstanding.

A good compromise is for both sides to speak their own language, which may bring a dialectical, if not an entirely cultural, meeting of minds.



“You have to be very careful about humour on formal occasions”, said Peter Pooley, a deputy director-general at the European Commission in Brussels. “If you make an after-dinner speech in the UK, you’ll be criticised if you don’t make a joke: in France you’ll be criticised if you do.”

“It can be quite disconcerting with simultaneous translation. You’ll make a witty remark and those people listening in English laugh; then the French and Italian laugh; then there is pause because the Dutch and the Germans are waiting for the verb at the end of the sentence before they get it.”

Everything can depend on the skill of the interpreter. Confusion generated by faulty translation is less *hilarious*. Experts recommend that both parties in a negotiation bring their own people to interpret for important discussions. It is convenient, but dangerous, to rely on the home side’s interpreter, who may unconsciously represent the interest of his or her employer.

Keep sentences short and simple, but avoid oversimplifying and pause frequently. Avoid vague and *imprecise* expressions; use visual aids; look at the person with whom you are dealing - not the interpreter; look out for signs of confusion; and keep eye contact when culturally appropriate. Finally note that in the Far East it is not much “read my lips” as “read my mind”.

## GLOSSARY

• **Shoved:** put • **cope:** manage • **fraught with:** full of • **go down well:** considered • **lingua franca:** international language • **minefield:** full of hidden dangers • **pecking order:** social status • **pitfalls:** dangers • **sparingly:** rarely •

**stand you in good stead:** put you in a good position • **tilt:** bend • **unwary:** not attentive ("Sure" № 7, April 1996, p. 24-25).

### Check up for comprehension:

1. What is a key to success in doing business? Do you agree with the quotation given in the first paragraph?
2. What is more appreciated by business travellers - good knowledge of one foreign language or a little learning of several languages?
3. How do psychologists interpret the notion of "non-verbal behaviour" in low and high-context cultures?
4. What does the handshake presuppose in different cultures?
5. Why should close bodily greetings be avoided unless you really know the customs and traditions of a country?
6. Do the British and Americans share any notions of politeness, manners and social rituals?
7. What is a good compromise for business travellers who are not completely fluent in English?
8. What recommendations must be taken into account when interpreting for important discussions?

## TEXT 7. ORGANISING YOUR MIND

### Your Time Line Writing and Thinking

What you know best, is your own life, your life in all its aspects - your real life, your imaginative life and the life of your day dreams.

So, when organising your mind, use your life.

Draw a horizontal line.

---

Put important dates in your life on the line.

78 83 85 87 90 93 95 96 2000

For example, "I was born in 1978. I went to my first school in 1983. I met my best friend in 1985. I went abroad for the first time in 1989. In 1990 I changed school. In 1993 we moved house. In 1995 I will sit my exams and, I hope, go to college. In 2000 I will leave college".

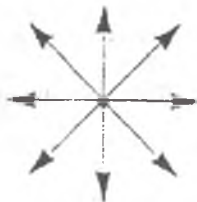
Now you have a very useful tool - a time line - to practise your English, for example, the present perfect: "I have been living in my town since 1978. I have been a school pupil for thirteen years. I have holidayed in one foreign country". Or the past perfect: "Before I went to my present school I had been a pupil in my previous school for six years."

You can use your time line to practise any grammar that needs revision and consolidation, and **because all your examples are true and about yourself**, your revision is very personal, memorable, and effective, and every example practises conversation about yourself.

### Possible Futures

Draw a point •

From that point draw lines going in many directions, like the spokes of a wheel.



If that point is your present, all those lines are your possible futures. You can write a different *modal* on each line, e.g. can, could.

Then create true sentences about you using each modal, e.g. "I can fulfil my career hopes in several different ways". "I could go into the fashion industry but I'm not sure I like the changeability". "I may decide to specialise in classic clothes which don't change fashion so often" etc..

You are therefore writing your autobiography using the grammar items you want to master!

### Reading and Listening

You can also use your **time line** and **possible futures** when you are reading and listening. When you encounter a sentence or phrase you find difficult, express it as an item on your **time line**, or in **possible futures**. Then you make it personal, accessible, more meaningful and memorable to you.

For example, you read or hear the future perfect continuous "will have been ...ing", so you put it on your **time line** "By the time I am twenty, I will have been studying English for eight years", or in **possible futures** "I will probably have been working in the fashion industry for two years before I will be able to specialise in classic clothes".

## The Imaginary House



Imagine a house you would like to live in - your dream house. This house will be your 'memory house'. Imagine walking around outside and inside that house. You can have music or other beautiful sounds in your memory house.

Imagine the room you would like best as your memory centre.

Imagine putting up shelves in that room for storing your memory.

Put labels, using both words or pictures on the shelves and put interesting, memorable things next to the labels, for example "Irregular Verbs" as a label, could have a favourite of yours next to it. Imagine appropriate different containers for the different items you want to remember. Perhaps you will put the irregular verbs on different coloured cards in a lovely green woven basket.

Place each item, e.g. each irregular verb in a different place in the container. Say it aloud in your head as you do so.

You will then find that you have made your memory visual, auidial and kinesthetic, vivid and personal, and entirely under your control.

You can place any items for any subject there. Then, any time you want you can go into your memory house and see and feel yourself finding the items you need easily, quickly, efficiently and pleaurably.

## You High Tech Memory House

Remember, too, that you can make connections on your memory shelves, e.g. putting picture cards with phrasal verbs, connecting them by colourful threads to contexts or topics.

You can store the same memory in various different containers so it is in several different classifications.

You can store whole charts and maps and diagrams.

You can store tapes you can play, e.g. to remember useful idioms or quotations.

You can store whole compositions you have written, e.g. stored as multimedia performances with music playing while the text scrolls on a colourful screen.

You can imagine a CD Rom player and an Internet access in your memory houses so that you can programme in any item you want, and code it and cross reference it for easy access.



### While Learning

While in the classroom or lecture room you can be storing in your memory house the new items you learn as you learn them.

Clearly it helps to have different areas of shelves for different subjects and topics.

Many people use their own memory house as a very useful aid to revision and for reference during exams.

You can, for instance, be sitting on a train, and in your imagination you are rapidly and efficiently going through your memory shelves reinforcing and consolidating your knowledge ("Sure" № 4, January 1996, p.10-11).

### Check up for comprehension:

1. Why is using *time line* of your real life effective for practising English grammar?
2. Write some examples about yourself according to your time line and make sure if they are helpful in revision and consolidation of grammar.

3. Do you like the idea of a *wheel* as a tool of speaking about your *possible futures*? Create some true sentences using modals can, could, may.
4. Can we use our *time line* or *possible futures* when reading or listening?
5. Do you understand the structure of so-called “memory house”? What are the shelves for in its central room?
6. Compare your memory house and computer’s memory using the below headings:

**Different classifications**  
**Multi - media performances**  
**CD Rom player**  
**Internet access**

7. Why does the author use adjectives that follow: memorable, effective, personal, visual, audial, vivid, colourful and even kinesthetic?
8. Do you agree with the statement: “Organising our Mind is a very useful aid to revision and for reference during exams”?

## TEXT 8. COMPARING MALE AND FEMALE BRAINS

**Have you ever wondered if the male and female brains are built differently?**

The scientists are only recently measuring the differences, and coming to some early conclusions. Men and women are basically the same. There is only one gene that makes a male. That gene can, however, **affect** a lot of features, not least in the brain.

Female brains are better at remembering words than faces. Male brains are better at remembering faces than words. Female brains are in fact all round better with words.

Females can speak faster than males and females process verbal information faster than males.

Females are more in touch with and **have** better **access** to their emotions than males. Male brains are worse at remembering.

With these **measurable** differences in skills go measurable differences in the structure of the brains.

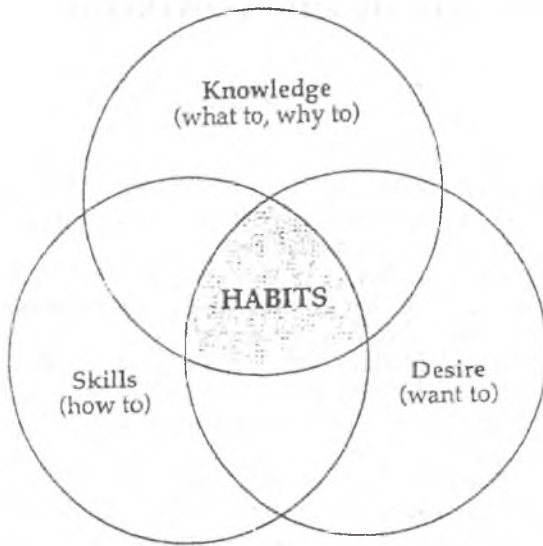


few minor changes in our lives. “Lift off” takes a tremendous effort, but once we break out of the gravity pull, our freedom takes on a whole new dimension.

Like any natural force, gravity pull can work with us or against us. The gravity pull of some of our habits may currently be keeping us from going where we want to go. But it is also gravity pull that keeps our world together, that keeps the planets in their orbits and our universe in order. It is a powerful force, and if we use it effectively, we can use the gravity pull of habit to create the cohesiveness and order necessary to establish effectiveness in our lives.

### “Habits” Defined

For our purposes, we will define a habit as the intersection of *knowledge*, *skill*, and *desire*.



### EFFECTIVE HABITS

### INTERNALIZED PRINCIPLES AND PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR

Knowledge is the theoretical paradigm, the *what to do* and the *why*. Skill is the *how to do*. And desire is the motivation, the *want to do*. In order to make something a habit in our lives, we have to have all three.

I may be ineffective in my interactions with my work associates, my spouse, or my children because I constantly tell them what I think, but I never

really listen to them. Unless I search out correct principles of human interaction, I may not even *know* I need to listen.

Even if I do know that in order to interact effectively with others I really need to listen to them, I may not have the skill. I may not know *how* to really listen deeply to another human being.

But knowing I need to listen and knowing how to listen is not enough. Unless I *want* to listen, unless I have the desire, it won't be a habit in my life. Creating a habit requires work in all three dimensions.

The bring/seeing change is a process - being changing seeing, which in turn changes being, and so forth, as we move in an upward spiral of growth. By working on knowledge, skill, and desire, we can break through to new levels of personal and interpersonal effectiveness as we break with old paradigms that may have been a source of pseudo-security for years.

It's sometimes a painful process. It's a change that has to be motivated by a higher purpose, by the willingness to subordinate what you want now for what you want later. But this process produces happiness, "the object and design of our existence". Happiness can be defined, in part at least, as the fruit of the desire and ability to sacrifice what we want *now* for what we want *eventually*.

### The Maturity Continuum

The seven habits are not a set of separate or piecemeal psych-up formulas. In harmony with the natural laws of growth, they provide an incremental, sequential, highly integrated approach to the development of personal and interpersonal effectiveness. They move us progressively on a Maturity Continuum from *dependence to independence to interdependence*.

We each begin life as an infant, totally *dependent* on others. We are directed, nurtured, and sustained by others. Without this nurturing, we would only live for a few hours or a few days at the most.

Then gradually, over the ensuing months and years, we become more and more *independent* - physically, mentally, emotionally, and financially - until eventually we can essentially take care of ourselves, becoming inner-directed and self-reliant.

As we continue to grow and mature, we become increasingly aware that all of nature is *interdependent*, that there is an ecological system that governs nature, including society. We further discover that the higher reaches of our nature have to do with our relationships with others - that human life also is interdependent.

Our growth from infancy to adulthood is in accordance with natural law. And there are many dimensions to growth. Reaching our full physical maturity, for example, does not necessarily assure us of simultaneous emotional or mental maturity. On the other hand, a person's physical dependence does not mean that he or she is mentally or emotionally immature.

On the maturity continuum, *dependence* is the paradigm of *you - you* take care of me; *you* didn't come through; I blame *you* for the results.

*Independence* is the paradigm of *I - I* can do it; *I* am responsible; *I* am self-reliant; *I* can choose.

*Interdependence* is the paradigm of *we - we* can do it; *we* can cooperate; *we* can combine our talents and abilities and create something greater together.

Dependent people need others to get what they want. Independent people can get what they want through their own effort. Interdependent people combine their own efforts with the efforts of others to achieve their greatest success.

If I were physically dependent - paralyzed or disabled or limited in some physical way - I would need you to help me. If I were emotionally dependent, my sense of worth and security would come from your opinion of me. If you didn't like me, it could be devastating. If I were intellectually dependent, I would count on you to do my thinking for me, to think through the issues and problems of my life.

If I were independent, physically, I could pretty well make it on my own. Mentally, I could think my own thoughts, I could move from one level of abstraction to another. I could think creatively and analytically and organize and express my thoughts in understandable ways. Emotionally, I would be validated from within. I would be inner directed. My sense of worth would not be a function of being like or treated well.

It's easy to see that independence is much more mature than dependence. Independence is a major achievement in and of itself. But independence is not supreme.

Nevertheless, the current social paradigm enthrones independence. It is the avowed goal of many individuals and social movements. Most of the self-improvement material puts independence on a pedestal, as though communication, teamwork, and cooperation were lesser values.

But much of our current emphasis on independence is a reaction to dependence - to having others control us, define us, use us, and manipulate us.

The little understood concept of interdependence appears to many to smack of dependence, and therefore, we find people, often for selfish reasons, leaving their marriages, abandoning their children, and forsaking all kinds of social responsibility - all in the name of independence.

The kind of reaction that results in people "throwing off their shackles", becoming "liberated", "asserting themselves", and "doing their own thing" often reveals more fundamental dependencies that cannot be run away from because they are internal rather than external - dependencies such as letting the weaknesses of other people ruin our emotional lives or victimized by people and events out of our control.

Of course, we may need to change our circumstances. But the dependence problem is a personal maturity issue that has little to do with

circumstances. Even with better circumstances, immaturity and dependence often persist.

True independence of character empowers us to act rather than be acted upon. It frees us from our dependence on circumstances and other people and is a worthy, liberating goal. But it is not the ultimate goal in effective living.

Independent thinking alone is not suited to interdependent reality. Independent people who do not have the maturity to think and act interdependently may be good individual producers, but they won't be good leaders or team players. They're not coming from the paradigm of independence necessary to succeed in marriage, family, or organizational reality.

Life is, by nature, highly interdependent. To try achieve maximum effectiveness through independence is like trying to play tennis with a golf club - the tool is not suited to the reality.

Interdependence is a far more mature, more advanced concept. If I am physically interdependent, I am self-reliant and capable, but I also realize that you and I working together can accomplish far more than, even at my best, I could accomplish alone. If I am emotionally interdependent, I derive a great sense of worth within myself, but I also recognize the need for love, for giving, and for receiving love from others. If I am intellectually interdependent, I realize that I need the best thinking of other people to join with my own.

As an interdependent person, I have the opportunity to share myself deeply, meaningfully, with others, and I have access to the vast resources and potential of other human beings.

Interdependence is a choice only independent people can make. Dependent people cannot choose to become interdependent. They don't have the character to do it; they don't own enough of themselves.

That's why Habits 1, 2, and 3 in the following chapters deal with self-mastery. They move a person from dependence to independence. They are the "Private Victories", the essence of character growth. *Private victories precede public victories*. You can't invert that process anymore than you can harvest a crop before you plant it. It's inside-out.

As you become truly independent, you have foundation for effective interdependence. You have the character base from which you can effectively work on the more personality-oriented "Public Victories" of teamwork, cooperation, and communication in Habits 4, 5, and 6.

That does not mean you have to be perfect in Habits 1, 2, and 3 before working on Habits 4, 5, and 6. Understanding the sequence will help you manage growth more effectively, but I'm not suggesting that you put yourself in isolation for several years until you fully develop Habits 1, 2, and 3.

As part of an interdependent world, you have to relate to that world every day. But the acute problems of that world can easily obscure the chronic character causes. Understanding how what you are impacts every

interdependent interaction will help you to focus your efforts sequentially, in harmony with the natural laws of growth.

Habit 7 is the habit of renewal - a regular, balanced renewal of the four basic dimensions of life. It circles and embodies all the other habits. It is the habit of continuous improvement that creates the upward spiral of growth that lifts you to new levels of understanding and living each of the habits as you come around to them on a progressively higher plane.

The diagram on the next page is a visual representation of the sequence and the interdependence of the Seven Habits, and will be used throughout this book as we explore both the sequential relationship between the habits and also their synergy - how, in relating to each other, they create bold new forms of each other that add even more to their value. Each concept or habit will be highlighted as it is introduced.

### **Effectiveness Defined**

The Seven Habits are habits of *effectiveness*. Because they are based on principles, they bring the maximum long-term beneficial results possible. They become the basis of a person's character, creating an empowering center of correct maps from which an individual can effectively solve problems, maximize opportunities, and continually learn and integrate other principles in an upward spiral of growth.

They are also habits of effectiveness because they are based on a paradigm of effectiveness that is in harmony with a natural law, a principle I call the "P/PC Balance", which many people break themselves against. This principle can be easily understood by remembering Aesop's fable of the goose and the golden egg.

This fable is the story of a poor farmer who one day discovers in the nest of his pet goose a glittering golden egg. At first, he thinks it must be some kind of trick. But as he starts to throw the egg aside, he has second thoughts and takes it in to be appraised instead.

The egg is pure gold! The farmer can't believe his good fortune. He becomes even more incredulous the following day when the experience is repeated. Day after day, he awakens to rush to the nest and find another golden egg. He becomes fabulously wealthy; it all seems too good to be true.

But with his increasing wealth comes greed and impatience. Unable to wait day after day for the golden eggs, the farmer decides he will kill the goose and get them all at once. But when he opens the goose, he finds it empty. There are no golden eggs - and now there is no way to get any more. The farmer has destroyed the goose that produced them.

I suggest that withing this fable is a natural law, a principle - the basic definition of effectiveness. Most people see effectiveness from the golden egg paradigm: the more you produce, the more you do, the more effective you are.



But as the story shows, true effectiveness is a function of two things: what is produced (the golden eggs) and the producing asset or capacity to produce (the goose).

If you adopt a pattern of life that focuses on golden eggs and neglects the goose, you will soon be without the asset that produces golden eggs. On the other hand, if you take care of the goose with no aim toward the golden eggs, you soon won't have the wherewithal to feed yourself or the goose.

Effectiveness lies in the balance - what I call the P/PC Balance. *P* stands for *production* of desired results, the golden eggs. *PC* stands for *production capability*, the ability or asset that produces the golden eggs.

### Three Kinds of Assets

Basically, there are three kinds of assets: physical, financial, and human. Let's look at each one in turn.

A few years ago, I purchased a *physical asset* - a power lawnmower. I used it over and over again without doing anything to maintain it. The mower worked well for two seasons, but then it began to break down. When I tried to revive it with service and sharpening, I discovered the engine had lost over half its original power capacity. It was essentially worthless.

Had I invested in *PC* - in preserving and maintaining the asset - I would still be enjoying its *P* - the mowed lawn. As it was, I had to spend far more time and money replacing the mower than I ever would have spent, had I maintained it. It simply wasn't effective.

In our quest for short-term returns, or results, we often ruin a prized physical asset - a car, a computer, a washer or dryer, even our body or our

environment. Keeping P and PC in balance makes a tremendous difference in the effective use of physical assets.

It also powerfully impacts the effective use of *financial* assets. How often do people confuse principal with interest? Have you ever invaded principal to increase your standard of living to get more golden eggs? The decreasing principal has decreasing power to produce interest or income. And the dwindling capital becomes smaller and until it no longer supplies even basic needs.

Our most important financial asset is own capacity to earn. If we don't continually invest in improving our own PC, we severely limit our options. We're locked into our present situation, running scared of our corporation or our boss's opinion of us, economically dependent and defensive. Again, it simply isn't effective.

In the *human* area, the P/PC Balance is equally fundamental, but even more important, because people control physical and financial assets.

When two in a marriage are more concerned about getting the golden eggs, the benefits, than they are in preserving the relationship that makes them possible, they become insensitive and inconsiderate, neglecting the little kindnesses and courtesies so important to a deep relationship. They begin to use control levers to manipulate each other, to focus on their own needs, to justify their own position and look for evidence to show the wrongness of the other person. The love, the richness, the softness and spontaneity begin to deteriorate. The goose gets sicker day by day.

And what about a parent's relationship with a child? When children are little, they are very dependent, very vulnerable. It becomes so easy to neglect the PC work - the training, the communicating, the relating, the listening. It's easy to take advantage, to manipulate, to get what you want the way you want it - right now! You're bigger, you're smarter, and you're *right!* So why not just tell them what to do? If necessary, yell at them, intimidate them, insist on your way.

Or you can indulge them. You can go for the golden egg of popularity, of pleasing them, giving them their way all the time. Then they grow up any internal sense of standards or expectations, without a personal commitment to being disciplined or responsible.

Either way - authoritarian or permissive - you have the golden egg mentality. You want to have your way or you want to be liked. But what happens, meantime, to the goose? What sense of responsibility, of self-discipline, of confidence in the ability to make good choices or achieve important goals is a child going to have a few years down the road? And what about your relationship? When he reaches those critical teenage years, the identity crises, will he know from his experience with you that you will listen without judging, that you really, deeply care about him as a person, that you can be trusted, no matter what? Will the relationship be strong enough for you to reach him, to communicate with him, to influence him?

Suppose you want your daughter to have a clean room - that's P, production, the golden egg. And suppose you want her to clean it - that's PC, production capability. Your daughter is the goose, the asset, that produces the golden egg.

If you have P and PC in balance, she cleans the room cheerfully, without being reminded, because she is committed and has the discipline to stay with the commitment. She is a valuable asset, a goose that can produce golden eggs.

But if your paradigm is focused on production, on getting the room clean, you might find yourself nagging her to do it. You might even escalate your effort to threatening or yelling, and in your desire to get the golden egg, you undermine the health and welfare of the goose.

Let me share with you an interesting PC experience I had with one of my daughters. We were planning a private date, which is something I enjoy regularly with each of my children. We find that the anticipation of the date is as satisfying as the realization.

So I approached my daughter and said, "Honey, tonight's your night. What do you want to do?"

"Oh, Dad, that's okey," she replied.

"No, really", I said. "What would you like to do?"

"Well she finally said, "what I want to do, you don't really want to do".

"Really, honey", I said earnestly, "I want to do it. No matter what, it's your choice".

"I want to go see *Star Wars*", she replied. "But I know you don't like *Star Wars*. You slept through it before. You don't like these fantasy movies. That's okey, Dad".

"No, honey, if that's what you'd like to do, I'd like to do it".

"Dad, don't worry about it. We don't always have to have this date" She paused and then added, "But you know why you don't like *Star Wars*? It's because you don't understand the philosophy and training of a Jedi Knight".

"What?"

"You know the things you teach, Dad? Those are the same things that go into the training of a Jedi Knight".

"Really? Let's go to *Star Wars*!"

And we did. She sat next to me and gave the paradigm. I became her student, her learner. It was totally fascinating. I could begin to see out of a new paradigm the whole way a Jedi Knight's basic philosophy in training is manifested in different circumstances.

That experience was not a planned P experience; it was the serendipitous fruit of a PC investment. It was bonding and very satisfying. But we enjoyed golden eggs, too, as the goose - the quality of the relationship - was significantly fed.

## Organizational PC

One of the immensely valuable aspects of any correct principle is that it is valid and applicable in a wide variety of circumstances. Throughout this book, I would like to share with you some of the ways in which these principles apply to organizations, including families, as well as to individuals.

When people fail to respect the P/PC Balance in their use of physical assets in organizations, they decrease organizational effectiveness and often leave others with dying geese.

For example, a person in charge of a physical asset, such as a machine, may be eager to make a good impression on his superiors. Perhaps the company is in a rapid growth stage and promotions are coming fast. So he produces at optimum levels - no downtime, no maintenance. He runs the machine day and night. The production is phenomenal, costs are down, and profits skyrocket. Within a short time, he's promoted. Golden eggs!

But suppose you are his successor on the job. You inherit a very sick goose, a machine that, by this time, is rusted and starts to break down. You have to invest heavily in downtime and maintenance. Costs skyrocket; profits nose-dive. And who gets blamed for the loss of golden eggs? You do. Your predecessor liquidated the asset, but the accounting system only reported unit production, costs, and profit.

The P/PC Balance is particularly important as it applies to the human assets of an organization - the customers and the employees.

I know of a restaurant that served a fantastic clam chowder and was packed with customers every day at lunchtime. Then the business was sold, and the new owner focused on golden eggs- he decided to water down the chowder. For about a month, with costs down and revenues constant, profits zoomed. But little by little, the customers began to disappear. Trust was gone, and business dwindles to almost nothing. The new owner tried desperately to reclaim it, but he had neglected the customers, violated their trust, and lost the asset of customer loyalty. There was no more goose to produce the golden egg.

There are organizations that talk a lot about the the customer and then completely neglect the people that deal with the customer - the employees. The PC principle is to *always treat your employee exactly as you want them to treat your best customers.*

You can buy a person's hand, but you can't buy his heart. His heart is where his enthusiasm, his loyalty is. You can buy his back, but you can't buy his brain. That's where his creativity is, his ingenuity, his resourcefulness.

PC work is treating employees as volunteers just as you treat customers as volunteers, because that's what they are. They volunteer the best part - their hearts and minds.

I was in a group once where someone asked, "How do you shape up lazy and incompetent employees?" One man responded, "Drop hand grenades!"

Several others cheered that kind of macho management talk, that "shape up or ship out" supervision approach.

But another person in the group asked, "Who picks up the pieces?"

"No pieces".

"Well, why don't you do that to your customers?" the other man replied. "Just say, 'Listen, if you're not interested in buying, you can just ship out of this place'".

He said, "You can't do that to customers".

"Well, how come you can do it to employees?"

"Because they're in your employ".

"I see. Are your employees devoted to you? Do they work hard? How's the turnover?"

"Are you kidding? You can't find good people these days. There's too much turnover, absenteeism, moonlighting. People just don't care anymore".

That focus on golden eggs - that attitude, that paradigm - is totally inadequate to tap into the powerful energies of the mind and heart of another person. A short-term bottom line is important, but it isn't all-important.

Effectiveness lies in the balance. Excessive focus on P results in ruined health, worn-out machines, depleted bank accounts, and broken relationships. Too much focus on PC is like a person who runs three or four hours a day, bragging about the extra ten years of life it creates, unaware he's spending them running. Or a person endlessly going to school, never producing, living on other people's golden eggs - the eternal student syndrome.

To maintain the P/PC Balance, the balance between the golden egg (production) and the health and welfare of the goose (production capability) is often a difficult judgment call. But I suggest it is the very essence of effectiveness. It balances short term with long term. It balances going for the grade and paying the price to get an education. It balances the desire to have a room clean and the building of a relationship in which the child is internally committed to do it - cheerfully, willingly, without external supervision.

It's a principle you can see validated in your own life when you burn the candle at both ends to get more golden eggs and wind up sick or exhausted, unable to produce any at all; or when you get a good night's sleep and wake up ready to produce throughout the day.

You can see it when you press to get your own way with someone and somehow feel an emptiness in the relationship; or when you really take time to invest in a relationship and you find the desire and ability to work together, to communicate, takes a quantum leap.

The P/PC Balance is the very essence of effectiveness. It's validated in every arena of life. We can work with it or against it, but it's there. It's a lighthouse. It's the definition and paradigm of effectiveness upon which the Seven Habits in the book are based.

## How to Use This Book

Before we begin work on the Seven Habits of Highly Effective People, I would like to suggest two paradigm shifts that will greatly increase the value you will receive from this material.

First, I would recommend that you not “see” this material as a book, in the sense that it is something to read once and put on a shelf.

You may choose to read it completely through once for a sense of the whole. But the material is designed to be a companion in the continual process of change and growth. It is organized incrementally and with suggestions for application at the end of each habit so that you can study and focus on any particular habit as you are ready.

As you progress to deeper levels of understanding and implementation, you can go back time and again to the principles contained in each habit and work to expand your knowledge, skill, and desire.

Second, I would suggest that you shift your paradigm of your own involvement in this material from the role of learner to that of teacher. Take an inside-out approach, and read with the purpose in mind of sharing or discussing what you learn with someone else within 48 hours after you learn it.

If you had known, for example, that you would be teaching the material on the P/PC Balance principle to someone else within 48 hours, would it have made a difference in your reading experience? Try it now as you read the final section in this chapter. Read as though you are going to teach it your spouse, your child, a business associate, or a friend today or tomorrow, while it is still fresh, and notice the difference in your mental and emotional process.

I guarantee that if you approach the material in each of the following chapters in this way, you will not only better remember what you read, but your perspective will be expanded, your understanding deepened, and your motivation to apply the material increased.

In addition, as you openly, honestly share what you’re learning with others, you may be surprised to find that negative labels or perceptions others may have of you tend to disappear. Those you teach will see you as a changing, growing person, and will be more inclined to be helpful and supportive as you work, perhaps together, to integrate the Seven Habits into your lives.

## What You Can Expect

In the last analysis, as Marilyn Ferguson observed, “No one can persuade another to change. Each of us guards a gate of change that can only be opened from the inside. We cannot open the gate of another by argument or by emotional appeal”.

If you decide to open your "gate of change" to really understand and live the principles embodied in the Seven Habits, I feel comfortable in assuring you several positive things will happen.

First, your growth will be *evolutionary*, but the net effect will be *revolutionary*. Would you not agree that the P/PC Balance principle alone, if fully lived, would transform most individuals and organizations?

The net effect of opening the "gate of change" to the first three habits-the habits of Private Victory-will be significantly increased self-confidence. You will come to know yourself in a deeper, more meaningful way - your nature, your deepest values and your unique contribution capacity. As you live your values, your sense of identity, control, and inner-directedness will infuse you with both exhilaration and peace. You will define yourself from within, rather than by people's opinions or by comparisons to others. "Wrong" and "right" will have little to do with being found out.

Ironically, you'll find that as you care less about what others think of you, you care more about what others think of themselves and their worlds, including their relationship with you. You'll no longer build your emotional life on other people's weaknesses. In addition, you'll find it easier and more desirable to change because there is something-some core deep withing-that is essentially changeless.

As you open yourself to the next three habits-the habits of Public Victory-you will discover and unleash both the desire and the resources to heal and rebuild important relationships that have deteriorated, or even broken. Good relationships will improve-become deeper, more solid, more creative, and more adventure-some.

The seventh habit, if deeply internalized, will renew the first six and will make you truly independent and capable of effective interdependence. Through it, you can charge your own batteries.

Whatever your situation, I assure you that you are not your habits. You can replace old patterns of self-defeating behavior with new patterns, new habits of effectiveness, happiness, and trustbased relationships.

With genuine caring, I encourage you to open the gate of change and growth as you study these habits. Be patient with yourself. Self-growth is tender; it's holy ground. There's no greater investment.

It's obviously not a quick fix. But I assure you, you will feel benefits and see immediate payoffs that will be encouraging. In the words of Thomas Paine, "That which we obtain too easily, we esteem too lightly. It is dearness only which gives everything its value. Heaven knows how to put a proper price on its goods."

(Stephen R. Covey, *The Seven Habits of Highly Effective People. Powerful Lessons in Personal Change*. First Fireside Edition, New York, 1990, p.p. 46-62).

### Check up for comprehension:

1. How does the author define habits?
2. Do you agree with the author's opinion on happiness?
3. What is the paradigm of the maturity continuum?
4. What kind of a person can we call a mature one? Why?
5. What are the seven habits of effectiveness?
6. How do you understand Aesop's fable of the goose and the golden egg?

Give your own examples.

7. What does the author call P/PC Balance? What do the abbreviations P/PC stand for?
8. Explain, please, the phrase "PC work is treating employees as volunteers".
9. What is the best way to shape up lazy and incompetent employees?
10. What is the very essence of effectiveness?
11. What is the net effect of opening "the gate of change" to the first three habits?
12. Why does the author begin the Chapter with a maxim "We are what we repeatedly do. Excellence, then, is not an act, but a habit"(Aristotle)?

## TEXT 10

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### Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview Marrienne Celce-Murcia<sup>1</sup>

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#### Introduction

The field of second (or foreign) language teaching has undergone many fluctuations and dramatic shifts over the years. As opposed to physics or chemistry, where progress is more or less steady until a major discovery causes a radical theoretical revision (Kuhn, 1970), language teaching is a field where fads and heroes have come and gone in a manner fairly consistent with kinds of changes that occur in youth culture. I believe that one reason for the frequent changes that have been taking place until recently is the fact that very few language teachers have even the vaguest sense of history about their profession and are unclear concerning the historical bases of the many methodological options they currently have at their disposal. It is hoped that this brief and necessarily oversimplified survey will encourage many language teachers to learn more about the origins of their profession. Such knowledge will give some healthy perspective in evaluating the so-called innovations or new approaches to methodology that will continue to emerge over time.

## Pre-20th-Century Trends: A Brief Survey

Prior to this century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: one type of approach which focused on *using* a language (i.e., speaking and understanding), the other which focused on analyzing a language (i.e., learning the grammatical rules).

Both the Classical Greek and Medieval Latin periods were characterized by an emphasis on teaching people to use foreign languages. The classical languages, first Greek and then Latin, were used as *lingua francae*. Higher learning was given only in these languages all over Europe. They were also used very widely in philosophy or religion, politics, and business. Thus the educated elite became fluent speakers, readers, and writers of the appropriate classical language. We can assume that the teachers or tutors used informal and direct approaches to convey the form and meaning of the language they were teaching and that they used aural-oral techniques with no language textbooks *per se*, but rather a small stock of hand-copied written manuscripts of some sort, perhaps a few texts in the target language, or crude dictionaries that listed equivalent words in two or more languages side by side.

Later during the Renaissance the formal study of the grammars of Greek and Latin became popular through the mass production made possible by the invention of the printing press. In the case of Latin, it was discovered that the grammar of the classical texts was different from that of the Latin being used as a *lingua franca* - the latter subsequently being labeled Vulgate Latin, i.e., the Latin of the common people. Eventually major differences developed between the Classical Latin described in the Renaissance grammars, which became the formal object of instruction in schools, and the Latin being used for everyday purposes. This occurred at the same time that Latin was being abandoned as a *lingua franca*. (No one was speaking Classical Latin anymore, and various European vernaculars had begun to rise in respectability and popularity). Thus in retrospect, strange as it may seem, the Renaissance preoccupation with the formal study of Classical Latin may have contributed to the demise of Latin as a *lingua franca* in Western Europe.

Since the European vernaculars had increased in prestige and utility, it is not surprising that the people in one country or region began to find it necessary and useful to learn the language of another country or region. Thus the focus in language study shifted back to utility rather than analysis during the 17th century. Perhaps the most famous language teacher and methodologist of this period is Jan Comenius, a Czech, who published books about his teaching techniques between 1631 and 1658. Some of the techniques that he used and espoused were the following:

- Use imitation instead of rules to teach a language.
- Have your students repeat after you.
- Use a limited vocabulary initially.

- Help your students practice reading and speaking.
- Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful.

Thus, Comenius, for the first time, made explicit an inductive approach to learning a foreign language, the goal of which was to teach use rather than analysis of the language being taught.

Comenius's views held sway for some time; however, by the beginning of the 19th century the systematic study of the grammar of Classical Latin and of classical texts had once again taken over in schools and universities throughout Europe. The analytical grammar-translation approach became firmly entrenched, as a method for teaching not only Latin but modern languages as well. It was perhaps best codified in the work of Karl Ploetz, a German scholar, who had a tremendous influence on the language teaching profession during his lifetime and afterwards (he died in 1881).

True to form, however, the swinging of the pendulum continued. By the end of the 19th century the Direct Method, which once more stressed the ability to use rather than to analyze a language as the goal of language instruction, had been established as a viable alternative. Gouin, a Frenchman, began to publish in 1880 concerning his work with the Direct Method. He had been influenced by an older friend, the German philosopher-scientist Alexander von Humboldt, who had expressed the following notion:

*A language cannot be taught. One can only create conditions for learning to take place.*

The Direct Method crossed the Atlantic in the early 20th century when *de Sauzè*, a disciple of Gouin, came to Cleveland, Ohio in order to see to it that all foreign language instruction in the public schools there reflected the Direct Method.

De Sauzè's endeavor was not completely successful (in Cleveland or elsewhere) since there were too many foreign language teachers who were fluent speakers of the language they were teaching.

This later led the Modern Language Association of America to endorse the Reading Approach to language teaching, since given the skills and limitations of most language teachers, the most one could reasonably expect is that students would come away from the study of a foreign language with an ability to read the target language - with emphasis on some of the great works of literature that had been produced in the language.

The Reading Approach, as reflected in the work of Michael West (1941) and others, held sway until the 1940s, when World War II once more made it imperative for the U.S. military to teach foreign language learners how to speak and understand a language quickly and efficiently. At this time, the U.S. government hired linguists to help teach languages and develop materials: The audiolingual approach, which drew heavily on structural linguistics and behavioral psychology, was born. In Britain the same historical pressures gave rise to the Situational Approach (e.g., Pittman, 1963), which drew on Firthian Linguistics and the experience of Britain's language educators with oral

approaches to foreign language teaching. Although somewhat influenced by, but less dogmatic than, its American counterpart (i.e., the Audiolingual Approach), the Situational Approach advocated organizing structures around situations that would provide the learner with maximum opportunity to practice the target language, with "practice" nonetheless often meaning little more than choral repetition.

## NINE 20TH - CENTURY APPROACHES TO LANGUAGE TEACHING

In addition to the Grammar-Translation Approach, the Direct Approach<sup>2</sup>, the Reading Approach, Audiolingualism, and the Situational Approach - whose historical development we have now sketched out briefly - there are four other discernible approaches to foreign language teaching that have been widely used during this era, the final quarter of the 20th century. Thus, there are nine approaches altogether that shall be referring to:

1. Grammar-Translation Approach
2. Direct Approach
3. Reading Approach
4. Audiolingualism (U.S.)
5. Situational Approach (Brit.)
6. Cognitive Approach
7. Affective-Humanistic Approach
8. Comprehension-Based Approach
9. Communicative Approach

However, before specifying the features of each approach, I would like to digress a moment to clarify some terminology that is crucial to this discussion. Namely, what do we mean by the terms "approach", "method", and "technique"? Are these terms synonymous? If not, how do they differ? Anthony (1963) has provided a useful set of definitions for our purposes. An *approach* to language teaching is something that reflects a certain model or research paradigm - a theory, if you like. This term is the broadest of the three. A *method*, on the other hand, is a set of procedures, i.e., a system that spells out rather precisely how to teach a language. Methods are more specific than approaches but less specific than techniques. Methods are typically compatible with one (or sometimes two) approaches. A *technique* is a classroom device or activity and thus represents the narrowest term of the three concepts. Some techniques are widely used and found in many methods (e.g., imitation and repetition); however, some techniques are specific to or characteristic of a given method (e.g., using cuisinaire rods = the Silent Way).

At this point I would like to outline each of the nine approaches listed above. In addition, I will note any special proficiency or role that the teacher is expected (or not expected) to fulfill.

**1. Grammar-Translation Approach** (an extension of the approach used to teach classical languages to the teaching of modern languages).

- a. Instruction is given in the native language of the students.
- b. There is little use of the target language.
- c. Focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words.
- d. There is early reading of difficult classical texts.
- e. A typical exercise is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
- f. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication.
- g. The teacher does not have to be able to speak the target language.

**2. Direct Approach** (a reaction to the grammar-translation approach and its failure to produce learners who could use foreign language they had been studying).

- a. No use of the mother tongue is permitted (i.e., teacher does not need to know the students' native language).
- b. Lessons begin with dialogs and anecdotes in modern conversational style.
- c. Actions and pictures are used to make meanings clear.
- d. Grammar is learned inductively.
- e. Literary texts are read for pleasure and are not analyzed grammatically.
- f. The target culture is also taught inductively.
- g. The teacher must be a native speaker or have nativelike proficiency in the target language.

**3. Reading Approach** (a reaction to the impracticality of the direct approach; reading was viewed as the most usable skill to have in a foreign language since not many people traveled abroad around 1930; also, few teachers could use a foreign language well enough to use a direct approach in class).

- a. Only the grammar useful for reading comprehension is taught.
- b. Vocabulary is controlled at first (based on frequency and usefulness) and then expanded.
- c. Translation is once more a respectable classroom procedure.
- d. Reading comprehension is the only language skill emphasized.
- e. The teacher does not need to have good oral proficiency in the target language.

**4. Audiolingualism** (a reaction to the reading approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills; this approach became dominant in the United

States during 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s: it takes much from the direct approach but adds features from structural linguistics and behavioral psychology).

- a. Lessons begin with dialogs.
- b. Mimicry and memorization are used, based on the assumption that language is habit formation.
- c. Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively.
- d. Skills are sequenced: listening, speaking-reading, writing postponed.
- e. Pronunciation is stressed from the beginning.
- f. Vocabulary is severely limited in initial stages.
- g. A great effort is made to prevent learner errors.
- h. Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context.
- i. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, etc. that s/he is teaching since learning activities and materials are carefully controlled.

**5. Situational Approach** (a reaction to the reading approach and its lack of emphasis on oral-aural skills: this approach was dominant in Britain during the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s; it draws much from the direct approach but adds features from Firthian Linguistics and the emerging professional field of language pedagogy).

- a. The spoken language is primary.
- b. All language material is practiced orally before being presented in written form (reading and writing are taught only after an oral base in lexical and grammatical forms has been established).
- c. Only the target language should be used in the classroom.
- d. Efforts are made to ensure that the most general and useful lexical items are presented.
- e. Grammatical structures are graded from simple to complex.
- f. New items (lexical and grammatical) are introduced and practiced situationally (e.g., at the post office, at the bank, at the dinner table).

**6. Cognitive Approach** (a reaction to the behaviorist features of the audiolingual approach).

- a. Language learning is viewed as rule acquisition, not habit formation.
- b. Instruction is often individualized; learners are responsible for their own learning.
- c. Grammar must be taught but it can be taught deductively (rules first, practice later) and/or inductively (rules can either be stated after practice or left as implicit information for the learners to process on their own).
- d. Pronunciation is de-emphasized; perfection is viewed as unrealistic.
- e. Reading and writing are once again as important as listening and speaking.
- f. Vocabulary instruction is important, especially at intermediate and advanced levels.

g. Errors are viewed as inevitable, something that should be used constructively in the learning process.

h. The teacher is expected to have good general proficiency in the target language as well as an ability to analyze the target language.

7. **Affective-Humanistic<sup>3</sup> Approach** (a reaction to the general lack of affective considerations in both audiolingualism and cognitive code).

a. Respect is emphasized for the individual (each student, the teacher) and for his/her feelings.

b. Communication that is meaningful to the learner is emphasized.

c. Instruction involves much work in pairs and small groups.

d. Class atmosphere is viewed as more important than materials or methods.

e. Peer support and interaction is needed for learning.

f. Learning a foreign language is viewed as a self-realization experience.

g. The teacher is viewed as a counselor or facilitator.

h. The teacher should be proficient in the target language and the student's native language since translation may be used heavily in the initial stages to help students feel at ease; later it is gradually phased out.

8. **Comprehension-Based Approach** (an outgrowth of research in first language acquisition, which led some language methodologists to assume that second or foreign language learning is very similar to first language acquisition).

a. Listening comprehension is very important and is viewed as the basic skill that will allow speaking, reading and writing to develop spontaneously over time given the right conditions.

b. Learners should begin by listening to meaningful speech and by responding nonverbally in meaningful ways before they produce any language themselves.

c. Learners should not speak until they feel ready to do so; this results in better pronunciation than when the learner is forced to speak immediately.

d. Learners progress by being exposed to meaningful input that is just one step beyond their level of competence.

e. Rule learning may help learners monitor (or become aware of) what they do, but it will not aid their acquisition or spontaneous use of the target language.

f. Error correction is seen as unnecessary and perhaps even counterproductive; the important thing is that the learners can understand and can make themselves understood.

g. If the teacher is not a native speaker (or near-native), appropriate materials such as audiotapes and videotapes must be available to provide the appropriate input for the learners.

9. **Communicative Approach** (grew out of the work of anthropological linguists (e.g., Hymes, 1972) and Firthian linguists (e.g., Halliday, 1973), who view language first and foremost as a system for communication).

a. It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language.

b. It is assumed that the content of a language course will include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures.

c. Students regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information that the other(s) lack.

d. Students often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts.

e. Classroom materials and activities are often authentic to reflect real-life situations and demands.

f. Skills are intergrated from the begining; a given activity might involve reading, speaking, listening, and perheps also writing (this assumes the learners are educated and literate).

g. The teacher's role is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors.

h. The teacher should be able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

To sum up, we can see that certain features of several of the first five approaches outlined above arose in reaction to perceived inadequacies or impracticalities in an earlier approach or approaches. The four more recently developed approaches also do this to some extent; however, each one is grounded on a slightly different theory or view of how people learn second or foreign languages, or how people use languages, and each has a central point around which everything else revolves:

**Cognitive Approach:** Language is rulegoverned cognitive behavior (not habit formation).

**Affective-Humanistic Approach:** Learning a foreign language is a process of self-realisation and of relating to other people.

**Comprehansion Approach:** Language acquisition occurs if and only if the learner comprehends meaningful input.

**Communicative Approach:** The purpose of language (and thus the goal of language teaching) is communication.

These four more recent approaches are not necessarily in conflict or totally incompatible since it is not impossible to conceive of an integrated approach which would include attention to rule formation, affect, comprehension, and communication and which would view the learner as someone who thinks, feels, understands, and has something to say. In fact, many teachers would find such an approach, if well conceived and well integrated, to be very attractive.

## A Note On Approach, Method, and Syllabus Type

We now understand that an approach is general (e.g., Cognitive), that a method is a specific set of procedures more or less compatible with an approach (e.g., Silent Way), and that a technique is a very specific type of learning activity used in one or more methods (e.g., using rods to cue and facilitate language practice). Historically, an approach or method also tends to be used in conjunction with a syllabus, which is an inventory of things the learner should master: this inventory is sometimes presented in a recommended sequence and is used to design courses and teaching materials.

What sort of syllabuses have been used with the approaches discussed above? Most of them have used — implicitly or explicitly — a structural syllabus, which consists of a list of grammatical inflections and constructions that the teacher is expected to teach and the learner is expected to master. The Grammar-Translation Approach, the Direct Approach, the Audiolingual Approach, the Cognitive Approach, and even some methods following the Comprehension Approach have all employed a structural syllabus. In other words, teachers and textbook writers following these approaches have organized their language courses and language-teaching materials around grammar points.

In contrast to the structural syllabus, the Reading Approach is text based, and this kind of language course is organized around texts and vocabulary items with only minor consideration given to grammar.

In the Situational Approach, there is often a dual-objective syllabus in which various situations are specified for instruction (e.g., the post office, a restaurant, a bus, the doctor's office, etc.) along with some of the structures and the vocabulary that one might need to produce language in these situations.

In the Communicative Approach, one type of syllabus is organized around notions (meanings such as spatial location, age, degree) and functions (social transactions and interactions such as asking for information or complimenting someone). In this syllabus format (Wilkins, 1976), grammar and vocabulary are quite secondary, being taught not in and of themselves, but only insofar as they help express the notions and functions that are in focus. Some adherents of the Communicative Approach, however, reject any sort of atomistic syllabus, whether structural or notional functional. They advocate instead a communicative syllabus (i.e., a process-based or task-based syllabus) in which real-world tasks and materials are used to design language courses (see Yalden, 1983).

The Affective-Humanistic Approach has produced the most radical syllabus type — the learner-generated syllabus. Thus, in methods like Community Language Learning (see the following chapter by Blair) and Project Work (see the chapter by Eyring), the learners decide what they want to learn in — and do with — the target language.

## Conclusion

What is the solution for the ESL/EFL teacher, given the abundance of current and future approaches? The only way to make wise decisions is to learn more about the specific methods available. This chapter has just scratched the surface. Further information is available in books, in journal articles, at professional conferences, and at professional workshops. There are also four other things the teacher has to do to make a good decision concerning the choice of an approach or method (or a combination of these):

1. Assess student needs: Why should they be learning English? For what purpose?

2. Examine instructional constraints: time (hours per week, days per week, weeks per term); class size (nature of enrollment); materials set syllabus and text — or completely open to teacher); physical factors (classroom size, AV support).

3. Determine needs, attitudes, and aptitudes of individual students to the extent that this is possible.

Having done all these, the teacher will be in a position to derive useful techniques or principles by studying all the available approaches and methods. Clifford Prator, a former professor and current colleague of mine, sums up the professional ESL teacher's responsibility:

*Adapt; don't adopt.*

A teacher is certainly in a better position to follow this advice if s/he is familiar with the history and the state of the art of our profession.

## Notes:

1. Earlier versions of this chapter were published in the *Mextesol Journal* (Celce-Murcia, 1980) and *Practical English Teaching* (Celce-Murcia, 1981). This is an updated version based on many sources, notably Madsen (1979), Prator with Celce-Murcia (1979), and Kelly (1969). I am also grateful to Bob Blair for his feedback on an earlier version of this chapter.

2. The term "Direct Method" is more widely used than "Direct Approach": however, the former is a misnomer, since it is really an approach, not a method, if we follow Anthony's terminology.

3. The term "humanistic" has two meanings. One meaning refers to the humanities (i.e., literature, history, philosophy). The other refers to that branch of psychology concerned with the role of the socioaffective domain in human behavior. It is the latter meaning that is being referred to here. However, see Stevick (1990) for an even broader perspective on humanism in language teaching.

### Check up for comprehension:

1. What has been the attitude toward the teaching of (a) pronunciation, (b) grammar, (c) vocabulary in the nine approaches discussed in this chapter? Has there been a swinging of the pendulum? Why or why not?

2. What changes have occurred regarding the position of spoken language and written language in the various approaches? Why?

3. Which of these approaches have you personally experienced as a language learner? What were your impressions and what were your assessments of the effectiveness of the approach or method?

4. Which approach do you, as a future teacher, feel most comfortable with? Why?

## Part II

Read the texts and be ready to discuss their information

### D. ABERCROMBIE Problems and Principles

There are three points concerning the language-learning process which will influence both the selection of material to be taught, and the method of teaching.

First, learning a foreign language is an *artificial* process: it can never be the same as the 'natural' process by which a child learns its mother tongue. The infant's acquisition of language is a unique event, though one that is at present far from being fully understood. The infant has little else to do, has the strongest social compulsion to learn, is communally surrounded by the language it is learning, and has no mental habits likely to interfere with what it is doing. And it is not just learning a language it is learning the basis of all its future activities, the means by which it is going to learn almost everything else. In learning to speak it not only ceases to be *infants*, but becomes *sapiens*.

The conditions under which the infant learns to speak cannot be reproduced for the student of a foreign language. Should we, then, try get as close to these conditions as possible, and try to make the classroom resemble the infants' environment as nearly as we can? Methods of language teaching whose aim is to 'copy Mother Nature' assume that we should, and this assumption, in fact, influences many methods which do not make it their basis. It is assumption which requires close scrutiny. The foreign-language learner, whether school-child or adult, is at a disadvantage compared with the infant in so far as he has many other things to do, has sometimes little urge to learn, encounters the language he is learning only at intervals, and finds his native language habits in continual conflict with those needed for the new language. But he is also at an advantage compared with the infant in so far as he possesses a developed intelligence, and is also literate. Methods by which the student emulates the infant can never compensate for the disadvantages, and may fail to avail themselves of the advantages.

Learning a foreign language is also artificial in the sense that the student does not set out to compete with the native speaker. It is not even remotely possible for the average learner to go through the whole course of development of the native acquiring his mother tongue, and to finish equally proficient. The language class is not for producing bilinguals, but for giving access to a new channel of thought and action. Failure to realize this is responsible for the belief that the right words to teach the beginner can be discovered by a statistical analysis of the words used by the native; and for the belief that vocabulary should be enlarged by succeeding chunks of a thousand words or so until eventually a vocabulary of the same size as the native's has been acquired.

Second, learning a foreign language is a *painful* process, more so perhaps than learning other things. It is at least highly desirable, even if, when sufficiently drastic sanctions are available, it is not absolutely necessary, to retain the initial enthusiasm and interest of the learner through the considerable strain that will be put on him, whether he is adult or child. If the learner is made to feel that his work on a language is, unlike other subjects, something in which his intelligence plays little part, something that a parrot can do just as well with less pain, he is likely to be discouraged. Parrot-fashion teaching is apt to result from regarding reasoned explanation as 'unnatural': there is bound to be, in any course, a good deal of mechanical, repetitive, boring work, but it should be set off by whatever appeals to the intelligence and powers of analysis of the learner are suited to his age.

The greatest incentive which the learner can have is the feeling that he is doing something with the language-reading a book, playing a game - which is worth doing for its own sake. It is most important, therefore, that he should acquire as soon as possible a body of knowledge of the language which can be used as language, as a medium of communication, and not as mere material for exercises. It is a fallacy that a simple vocabulary can handle only simple thoughts: matters of considerable complexity can be expressed in a small but well-chosen vocabulary consisting only of common words.

Third, learning a foreign language is a *process*. Some things must come before others, and what goes before should lead to, and provide a foundation for, what comes after. *Grading* is fundamental to all good modern teaching methods, and it should be applied to all aspects of language-vocabulary, morphology, syntax, pronunciation, idiom. It assures that as far as possible everything new is related to what has already been learnt (good grading would have avoided teaching, as one text-book does, *looking-glass* before either *look* or *glass*): that conflicting patterns are not taught together (the constructions *I give it to him* and *I say it to him* must be well assimilated before *I give him it*, which is impossible with *say*, is introduced); that good use can be made of everything taught (*spout* and *knob*, to take actual examples again, are unsuitable for a first lesson); and that things which appear to the pupil, in the light of his own language, to be inexplicable irrationalities, are whenever possible kept back until he has gained enough confidence not to be discouraged by them. Although this last point must inevitably be neglected by courses which are designed for universal use, or use over large areas, local considerations are nevertheless of the greatest importance in grading. Many courses, for example, introduce (very naturally) the words *head* and *hand* in the same (usually the first) lesson; but if such a course is used in Greece the beginner is faced at once with an annoying difficulty: that the words sound to him identical - and his resentment is increased by discovering an unexpected problem of meaning in the word *hand*.

(London 1957)

### **Suggested Activities:**

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

## **M.WEST** **Learning English as Behaviour**

### **The problem**

This article discusses a certain theory of language learning (which we may call the 'Realistic Method') and describes the construction of teaching material designed to test it.

Language is a form behaviour: it is a reaction of the organism as a whole to a social environment. Words are only part of that reaction, which includes also posture, facial expression, gesture, and in the linguistic part there are pauses, intonation, exclamatory noises. All these things, together with words, go to make up a total of which language as taught in the classroom is a lifeless and unrealistic distillation.

Would a 'Realistic' method which would include all these elements, if used even from the earliest stage, make language learning more interesting? This perhaps it would. Would it also make it easier? Would it produce less loss by forgetting? Would it produce a more natural use of the language in the later stages, a use more closely related to that of persons who employ the language as a mother-tongue?

Assuming that there may be advantages to be obtained from teaching a language as behaviour from the earliest or from a very early stage - How should this be done? and What is the earliest stage at which this method can be used?

### **The Relation Of Language And Behaviour**

The earliest language of the child in infancy is purely behaviour. Words are added which make the self-expression more exact and enable the speaker to deal with concepts. As time goes on behaviour is diminished and modified as an element in language, but it still retains its emotive function. Indeed the more emotional the context, the more does behaviour rather than words express it; but there is a feeling tone in all conversational situations which interprets and gives value to the verbal expression.

Take the following conversation:

X. Excuse me, what is this?

Y. That?

X. Yes. What is the English word?

Y. That? That's a ball-pen.

This conversation may have four different interpretations according as X is timid or aggressive and according as Y is co-operative or bored and brusque.

Foreign language learners in the early stages are learning merely a language without a behaviour pattern; hence their language work is to some extent unreal and uninteresting. As they progress they must use *some* behaviour pattern, and they therefore fit on their own behaviour pattern, that of the mother-tongue, to the foreign language. In fact they speak English as a Frenchman (or Indian, African etc.). In the final stages they may perhaps endeavour to fit the foreign language behaviour on to the foreign language, to speak English as an English man; but in order to do this they must uproot the previously used mother-tongue behaviour as fitted on to the foreign language, and such an uprooting is never wholly successful.

The earlier we can introduce behaviour into language teaching the more successful the final outcome will be in respect of realism and naturalism in the end product.

### The Need For Behaviour

As has been discussed elsewhere there are some learners who do not require any behavioural element in their foreign language, though it is possible that some behavioural treatment might facilitate learning. Those who have need of the behavioural element are:

(i) *The Immigrant*. The immigrant needs social adaptation. A behavioural element protects him against becoming encysted in the community of his own people. The better his social adaptation is, the more he will be able to learn the language outside the classroom by making contact with and speaking to the natives of the country.

(ii) *The student*. Students coming to this country to study in universities or technical colleges would obviously benefit very greatly from a prior course in English as a form of behaviour so that they might make social contact on their arrival. It is probable that social contact depends much more on correctness of behaviour than on mere correctness of language. An Indian might speak English extremely correctly yet be hampered by the un-English behavioural element in his conversation, whereas a very incorrect speaker (e.g. of a dialect) is acceptable because the non-verbal part of his conversation is congenial, and normal.

(iii) *Foreign Students sent to England to 'improve their English'*. What can these students learn here in England which they cannot learn in their own country? So far as pronunciation and structure are concerned they can get that in their own schools and colleges. What they can acquire in Britain, which they cannot readily get elsewhere, is this behavioural aspect of language: but we

know of no systematic course designed to teach that alone, nor any course which lays a very special emphasis on the non-verbal behavioural requirements.

(iv) *Students of English 'as an education'*. One of the reasons for learning a foreign language states in books on Education is that it gives 'understanding of a foreign people'. Those who merely learn the language as a form of verbal expression do not get such understanding: the understanding of a people is the understanding of their emotions, their feeling tones and ways of conveying — for example, the Englishman's tendency to over-express mild emotions and under-express strong ones. In order to understand the English it is not enough to know *what* they speak but *how* they speak, or rather how they converse.

### **Behaviour As A Factor In Learning A Language**

In *English Language Teaching* (XIV, 2, 1960, p. 75). Dr Lee writes: 'My own very young children, coping with the same bilingual environment which I had coped with, picked up the foreign language with much greater accuracy and speed'. It is a general experience that young children do pick up a foreign language remarkably quickly (though this is not an argument for introducing classroom teaching of the foreign language at an early age: *E. L. T.*, XIV, 1). Is it possible that the adult, learning a language in a foreign environment, and the young picking up the language in the same environment are really doing two different things? The adult is imbibing a linguistic distillation from the environment, whereas the child is making a behavioural adjustment to the environment, of which adjustment language is only a part. The adult may speak words more correctly than the child, but the child *behaves* the language more naturally: it is a part of him, an adjustment of himself, not a mere added skill.

### **Behavioural Learning And The Problem Of Forgetting**

It has been said that language-learning is not so much a matter of remembering as a matter of not forgetting, that language-learning is like trying to fill a bucket with a hole in it, and well-distributed practices and frequent revisions are advocated as a counter-measure to this.

One of the earliest symptoms of increasing age is the failure of verbal memory. Names of people fade away, whereas on the contrary it has been noted by those who have to deal with such cases that behavioural patterns (with their attached words, e.g. 'Thank you', 'Good morning', 'Please sit down', ... etc.) persist even in the most advanced stages of senile decay and even of acute neuroses. This suggests the possibility that a language learnt merely as a set of words, phrases and structures might be more evanescent than a language learnt realistically as behaviour, and that perhaps a behavioural method of language-teaching might make language-learning not

only more interesting in the early stages but more permanent — and possibly quicker because of the diminished loss through forgetting. This hypothesis may be worthy of experiment. (English Language Teaching, M. 1960: vol.5 No1.).

### Combined Procedure

The classroom learner using a logical build-up of structures and a carefully selected vocabulary acquires a correct but perhaps lifeless command of the language, whereas the picker-up getting his grammar and vocabulary in order of need, selected only by need and uncorrected by any book or master, may tend to acquire an incorrect though vital command of the language including a repertory of behaviourism — such as the Non-verbal exclamations, Social clichés, Delay words, Emphasis scales, which are not to be found in the grammars or textbooks of the classroom.

In a behavioural method of teaching it is necessary to combine these two things and get the advantages of both — to get a correct and systematic build-up of linguistic elements and to join on to it or combine with it in some way a vital and behavioural use of the language.

Thus in the classroom drill we have 'Put your book on the desk'. 'Put your pen in your book — Where is your pen?' The behavioural adjunct has a dialogue between a man and his wife hunting for lost spectacles (see Example, below), or a mother telling her daughter where to put various things in the kitchen. Where the classroom has 'Open the door — What have you done?', 'I have open the door: the door is open' etc., we may have a mistress asking a servant 'Have you washed the...? Have you put away the...? Have you done (various household tasks)?' Or we may have the return of holidaymakers finding some Good Fairy has made all ready for them and we have their exclamations of pleased surprise.

Our first attempt on these lines was not wholly satisfactory. We endeavoured to get the order of vocabulary and structures by drafting the dialogues and then 'writting back' from them, that is to say, finding what a dialogue required in the way of structural and other linguistic elements and then leading up to it with drill and classroom procedures. This produced a chaotic result. It is better to take a fixed linguistic course and to build on to it, to make the behaviourist adjust himself to the linguist rather than the reverse. There should be a cooperative work, a linguist and a behaviourist quarrelling together and evolving something which may both.

In the present experiment *faute de mieux* it was necessary to take some ready-prepared linguistic course and built on to that. For this purpose Palmer's Practice Books were used; these present a fullyworked out and detailed system, whereas the ordinary Teacher's Book plus Class book course leave so much latitude to the teacher that they are not an adequate guide.

## The Behaviour Dialogue

Linguistic behaviour demands two personalities, a situation, and feeling tones. The feeling tones are those which would be produced by those personalities: for this reason a serial system as employed by the B. B. C. and some gramophone courses is not satisfactory. Where one has a family carrying on from one lesson to the next one does not get sufficient variety of feeling nor can one adjust the feeling to the particular linguistic problem. Each dialogue must use new personalities selected and adjusted to the requirements of the linguistic elements embodied in the situation. Thus we may have the policeman who is in a hurry and wants to get back to his tea and the fussy and meticulous observer of an accident, the dictatorial doctor with the resentful patient who is not willing to accept his dietetic vetoes; so also the shopper who cannot make up her mind and the exasperated salesman.

A dialogue must be short and pointed. It was found in a previous experiment (in using a book called *Improve your English*, Longmans) that no more than eight exchanges should ever be used: indeed it is better to have less. This is necessary because the dialogue has to be thoroughly mastered.

At first the idea was to have it learnt by heart, and to supply guide words for the weaker members which would help them reproducing it. This, however, was a bad system because guide words caused the learners to look down at the book, whereas in conversation one should look up at the whom one is addressing. Moreover learning by heart may, if overdone, tend to produce a parrot production of the dialogue without thought of the meaning, such as is found in actors performing a play towards the end of a long run. The best procedure seems to be to have the dialogues learnt by the read-and-look-up method. The dialogue is sufficiently memorized so that each speaker can take a quick glance at the book while the other person is speaking and then look up and speak to him. There is an absolute rule -- 'Never speak when you are looking at the book'. Those who have memorized the passage fairly well may be able to dispense with these prompting glances.

## The Score Versus The Libretto

Behavioural dialogue differs from an excerpt from a play in this respect, that it is a Score, whereas an excerpt from dramatic material is a mere Libretto. Different actors may perform a play in many different ways, but the behavioural dialogue shows completely in every respect exactly how this piece of behaviour is to be done: the stresses, rhythm, and pauses are marked; also the neutral vowels (because very often a half-stress is given merely by not neutralizing a vowel which would otherwise be neutralized); and there is the intonation. This must be shown in full detail, for which purpose Roger Kingdon's system is very convenient as it does not involve the use of any special type nor disfigure the page.

All this is not sufficient because it is necessary to explain why the speaker pauses or gives a certain intonation. It is necessary to add, as it were, stage directions, e.g. where they look up, because the intonation depends very often on looking up. Indeed, for perfection one needs not only the carefully marked and annotated score but also a grammophone record; and even that is not enough. Ideally one needs television or a film so that the pupil may not merely hear how the English language is behaved but see it behaved as well.

(English Language Teaching, 1960, vol V №1. p. 3-9).

### Suggested Activities:

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

## D.ABERCOMBIE

### Some First Principles

People decide to learn languages for all kinds of reasons — commercial, social, scientific, academic — and it is comparatively simple to design a course for the beginner who knows exactly what he wants to do with the language, and knows what is irrelevant to his purpose. It is a bigger problem to produce a satisfactory course for that great majority of beginners with no more clearly formulated aim than a vague conviction that knowledge of the language will somehow be 'useful' (which is doubtless true). People can learn, and have learnt, languages by every conceivable method; language teaching is an art and not a science, and a good teacher can get results whatever method he is using. It may nevertheless be assumed that it is best to have a method as sound as our present knowledge can make it. I want, in this chapter, to discuss some of the general principles which must be considered in designing a beginners' course.

Knowing a language means being able to read it, write it, speak it, and understand it when spoken. These are four distinct and separable activities (they may be learnt independently; not every human being is capable of all of them; certain types of injury to the brain can cause complete loss of one without seriously damaging the others), though they are so closely interwoven for the normal individual that he finds it difficult to think or talk about any one of them without invoking the rest.

Two of these manifestations of language are concerned with a *spoken* form, and a written form; furthermore, two are *active*, and two are *passive*. What are the implications for the foreign language learner of this classification into two pairs of opposites — active and passive, spoken and written?

The terms *active* and *positive* are, of course, relative; they do not imply that reading, and listening to speech, are effortless. They may entail the expenditure of a great deal of energy, and certainly will when a new language is being learnt. 'Expressive' and 'receptive' are alternative, and perhaps preferable, terms.

The two relatively passive, or receptive, activities must come first. It is possible to learn to read, or to understand speech, without learning to write or to speak; but not vice versa. Young children, as is well known, understand a great deal of what is said around them before they start talking themselves. Reading and writing are nowadays taught simultaneously in school; at an earlier period in English education, however, reading was often taught a long time before writing, and a pupil might leave school before reaching the later at all. The receptive activities must come first for the foreign language learner too. Some teachers may feel that their teaching is getting nowhere unless it results in expressive activities on the part of the pupil; but although passive learning may have effects hardly visible on the surface, it is a necessary preliminary to self-expression, and should not be hurried.

When a language, whether mother tongue or foreign, is fully known, some parts of it will remain relatively passive. Some words are 'known' in the sense that they are under full control and regularly used for self-expression, others are 'known' in the sense that they are recognised and understood (perhaps with the context to remind) when met in reading, but seldom or never uttered or written. This distinction between active and passive vocabulary is pedagogically a useful one, for it is too often believed that learning a word necessarily means adding it to the active vocabulary. 'It pays to increase your word-power' is the title of a regular feature of a popular magazine, but whenever the question of enlarging vocabulary arises, it should be borne in mind that it is more valuable to possess a relatively small active vocabulary which is under complete control, than a large disorganized one; if it is well chosen, an active vocabulary need not be very large to suffice for self-expression on a wide range of subjects. Since the words of an active vocabulary will of necessity all have been passive before becoming active, it follows that it is most economical to present to beginners, for passive acquisition, a small well-chosen vocabulary the *whole* of which is suitable for later active use.

This distinction might well be made clear to the learner, when a suitable opportunity offers; and the teacher dealing with more advanced pupils should remember, when setting exercises, that the distinction applies to syntax as vocabulary.

The medium of his own spoken language is usually no help to him, whereas mastery of the medium of his own written language may be all he needs for a new one. This is why the spoken medium requires a special technique — phonetics — for dealing with it. The two media are not part of a language, but mastery of them is an essential preliminary to learning the

language itself, and they should be got under control as early as possible in the learner's career, so that they may recede into the background and become automatic and unconscious.

The two media are very closely linked for most people, and study of one will almost certainly bring in the other in some way. It is difficult to remember sounds without written equivalents (phonetic transcription, which deals with the spoken medium, is itself in the written medium); written symbols without giving them spoken equivalents (though these may not be spoken aloud). Most — perhaps all — people, when they are reading silently, make very small movements of the vocal organs, movements which are reduced forms of the full ones required for pronouncing the word aloud; introspection reveals, moreover, that sound images are present in the mind. A language can be learnt in its written form alone, but not without giving sound values to the words. If the language is a dead language, it does not much matter what these values are. If, however, the language is ever going to be encountered in its spoken form, there are reasons for thinking that it is important to acquire an approximately correct pronunciation from the first moment of contact with the written form. These small, silent movements of the vocal organs — 'sub-vocal talking' — will, if they are not automatic and spontaneous, interfere with silent reading or slow it down. It has been maintained that 'sub-vocal talking' during silent reading is in the pronunciation *first learnt* for the language, and that if another pronunciation is learnt later, this will not be carried over into silent reading but will obtrude, irritatingly, into consciousness every now and then. The reader can experiment for himself to test the truth of this; my own experience in reading Latin, for example, and later with the 'restored' pronunciation, certainly bears it out.

The language learner may have difficulties, not only with the media themselves, but with the relation between them. When a language, such as English, is said to have an 'unphonetic' spelling, what is meant is that the correspondence of sounds to letters is erratic.

Although the difference between spoken and written language is *primarily* a difference of medium, the medium has an inevitable influence on the use of the language it carries. The very evanescence of the one medium, and the permanence of the other, give them different functions in society. Spoken language is bound to be closely tied to the people present, and to the situation they find themselves in. Written language is much less tied to its immediate material surroundings; and since it remains to be pondered over as long as we like, it is capable of carrying more complicated thoughts and argument than most people can take in by ear. That the effects of the medium on grammatical construction and vocabulary are considerable, is quickly realized by anyone who tries to turn a lecture into an article for publication, or to produce a radio script which must sound, when read aloud, as if it were a natural use of the spoken language.

It used to be taken for granted that the only true form of a language was its written form, of which the spoken language was considered to be a mere reflection. This seemed a self-evident fact, and argument was not thought necessary to support it. It is nowadays taken for granted that the only true form of a language is its spoken form, of which the written language is a reflection, and this now seems as self-evident as the earlier view.

The earlier view was not a beneficial influence on the learning of modern languages. No advance in the technique of teaching pronunciation could be made while it was held, and students often found that they could neither understand, nor be understood by, native speakers of the language they were learning. The modern point of view certainly tends to prevent this happening; but it is possible that, held uncritically, it also may not always be a beneficial influence. Is it really true that the spoken form is the real form of language?

Spoken language is primary in two senses: (1) it appeared, in the history of the human race, before written language\*; (2) it is acquired, in the history of the individual, before reading and writing. Foreign language teaching, however, is concerned almost entirely with literate members of literate communities; is the spoken language still primary for them? I doubt if there is any sense in which it could be said to be so. It is nevertheless widely believed that all language teaching should be based on the spoken language, and that the spoken language should be taught first. In support of this it is argued, first, that that is the 'natural' way of doing it — that is what the infant does; and second, that learning the written language first makes it more difficult to learn to speak later, while learning the spoken language is the best introduction to the written language. As is suggested below, the word 'natural' is misleading in this context; and I have seen adequate evidence for the second assertion, though a confusion between written and *literary* language often obscures this issue. There is a danger, it is said, that if pupils learn the written language first their conversation will become 'baby' - like, and they will use words like *steed* and *tome* in speaking. But if this should happen it will be due to confusion, not between written and spoken language, but between active and passive vocabulary. Words such as *steed* and *tome* belong to the vocabulary of the literary language, almost the whole of which should always remain passive for the foreigner unless he has the gifts of a Conrad.

It may be true that the spoken language plays quantitatively the more important part in the everyday life of the majority of us; it is not therefore qualitatively more important. Moreover, however great the use that a student makes of the spoken form of his mother tongue, in the language he is learning he may not need the spoken any more than the written — indeed, he is quite likely to need the later more.

Strong emphasis on the spoken language is a natural result of complete neglect of it in the past, and this emphasis is so much a part of modern

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\* Or so it is believed: there is no real evidence to this effect.

progressive linguistic pedagogy (British Council teachers. I read in a recent publication. 'are intransigent in their insistence on the importance of the spoken language') that to question it sounds reactionary. It is nevertheless an emphasis which is responsible, I believe, for one or two misleading ideas which are to be found in some modern text-books and courses.

(London, 1957)

### **Suggested Activities:**

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

**H.DUNCAN**

### **Reading a Foreign Language**

Though listening and speaking are the primary activities in learning a foreign tongue in most schools today, for a good many people the main objective in studying a foreign language is the progressive ability to read it with moderate facility for pleasure and profit.

Reading for a purpose, for an understanding of the culture, civilization and lives of the people which the foreign tongue presents, is an important part of the program of language study. In such a class the stress is on the content and related activities that promote the intelligent and sympathetic attitudes which will lead to better international understanding, and more effective citizenship in the world at large.

In learning to read a foreign language, translation should by no means be the goal, nor should it serve even as chief aid. In fact, under normal conditions, the more it is ruled out, the better the reading. Occasional use of translation may prove helpful; the frequent use of translation in any classroom sets up stumbling blocks. The aim of the student should be direct comprehension of the text; the aim of the teacher should be to help the student achieve this end by as simple and rapid means as possible.

This direct, instantaneous comprehension of a printed passage - in other words, successful reading - involves the unlabored grasp (1) of images (visual, auditory, etc.) and (2) of the thought units. Learning a foreign language means acquiring new symbols for objects and ideas. This is done by associating the new symbols with the objects or ideas, or by associating them with known symbols which already have meaning. For immediate comprehension, direct

association of the symbol with the object or idea is indispensable. Words unattached to ideas or images are about as useful as doorknobs without doors.

We see, then, that reading a foreign language requires only the recognition of the symbols - the vocabulary, idioms and grammar. While special emphasis should be given to this skill, the various skills in language learning, all interrelated, should be developed simultaneously. Whatever the specific goal in studying a foreign language, that goal can be attained more easily and more quickly by a multiple integrated approach.

First the student hears and understands what he hears. He talks and after gaining some fluency in speaking, he learns to recognize printed words as signs of objects or ideas. When he can read, he learns to write. This multiple sense appeal not only speeds up the reading skill but also makes it more lasting. Grammar can best be taught inductively from conversation and an appropriate reading text with simple vocabulary and idioms taken from the everyday speech of the people whose language is being studied. Reading should be regarded as the visual experience based mainly on aural-oral training. The auditory training is of prime importance (few deaf-mutes between the ages of twelve and eighteen can really read).

The material selected should deal vividly with the culture and life of the people whose language is studied, and should be of interest and value to the student and, of course, on his level. Stories that contain repetitions and dialogue are often stimulating. A passage becomes meaningful to a student when he is able to establish some relationships between his life and experiences and the content of the passage. The amount of reading should be determined by the needs, interests, and abilities of the students. Most foreign language reading programs are too pretentious. Quality is more important than quantity.

The time for a student to achieve an effective approach to the study of a foreign language is at the very beginning of that study. It is, however, only by continuous, slow and careful work that one builds up the reading attitude which leads to mastery. Intensive reading is the training for extensive, optional and vacation reading, and should be given special attention in class. Supervised intensive reading increases the reading ability so that reading may be pleasurable. The paramount concern of the teacher is to guide the student during the class period in such a manner that he may be able to continue the intensive work alone effectively. Every step of the reading lesson must be planned carefully.

Methods of handling intensive reading vary. There is no recipe that will fit all students.

Whether the emphasis in a reading lesson be on vocabulary, grammar, idioms, pronunciation, conversation or cultural information, the ultimate goal, I repeat, should be the direct comprehension of the content (it is futile to expect this to bloom incidentally from translation). To this end a few suggestions for procedure in the classroom are offered.

1. Stimulate a favorable attitude toward the content and have a definite purpose for reading it. In teaching reading the arousal of an interest in the content is half the work. To sustain interest set a goal for each section or paragraph and check whether or not it has been attained.

2. Introduce in advance vocabulary, construction and idioms that will occur in reading materials.

3. Acquaint students with notes, vocabulary, maps and illustrations (verbs usually in the infinitive and nouns in the singular).

4. (a) Ask a question in the foreign language which will make students want to find the answer. (b) Have the passage which gives the answer read aloud, and then repeat the question for the student to answer in the foreign tongue.

5. Let the teacher's reading of a selected passage or a recording set a model and stimulate interest. Allow pupils to read aloud singly and in groups. If there is a dialogue, have it read in parts.

6. Be sure the students recognize familiar words which may need review.

7. Elicit meanings of unfamiliar terms by gesture, mimicry, simple drawings on board or circumlocution. Have the students make intelligent guesses of new words by analyzing them into their component parts (roots and affixes); by relating them to similar words in English or another familiar language; or by inference from use in the context (a word is a relative thing which may change in meaning, function, form and position). Have synonyms, antonyms, derivatives, and cognates noted. From the first lesson attention should be given to the close relationship between certain words in English and in the foreign language. Attention should be called also to words or phrases different in the foreign tongue.

8. Have students reread the phrase or sentence in which each new word or idiom occurred, trying to fix its meaning.

9. Have the students underline doubtful words and verify their meanings in the vocabulary; then select the English translation in each case which best fits the context, and place a check in the margin beside it.

10. Have students underline difficult passages and place vertical lines in the margin. Where the meanings are not perfectly clear they should put question marks in the margin.

11. Locate place names in the text on a large wall map and illustrate cultural references with pictures. Elicit or give pertinent information about proper names and common nouns with cultural significance.

12. Have students rapidly reread the entire selection for unity of thought.

13. Have students list in notebooks key words, idiom, and other expressions, and write two or three questions in the language read, designed to seek out quickly the central meaning; and allow a choice of vocabulary in the answers.

14. Finally have one or more students relate aloud in the foreign language a brief resume of the story or other content.

15. Have students occasionally review key words, idioms, and other expressions, and use them as a basis for a permanent active vocabulary.

Accuracy in pronunciation as well as in interpretation of printed words is an important phase of language mastery. Therefore most intensive reading in the class should be done aloud. However, there is a place for silent reading. As a training device or as a test of ability to read, the following plan may be used:

Allow students about six minutes to study a sight passage, about one and one-half minutes to verify words in the vocabulary, and then three minutes to write out a good English translation or answer questions (the time given above may be doubled, if the passage requires it). This technique helps to emphasize the essential items in the pattern for study. It helps the students to concentrate on the thought, to use his head before his thumb, and to infer meanings without use of dictionary; and shows him how much he can achieve in a short time.

The procedures outlined require time, patience and foresight. The steps at first are slow enough to be sure; with faster pace the steps are still sure; and presto, the goal of rapid and happy reading is attained.

As soon as moderate confidence and facility in reading are attained, a problem or project may be undertaken which requires the reading of a book or various selections. Units may be organized which require group activities varied in type and form. The text may be used as the core around which students have a rich experience in collateral reading which contributes to a common theme. Students may be able to pursue objectives independently. There should be some supplementary reading each term.

For measuring reading comprehension there is no perfect device, but by using several devices one may fairly well determine power over the printed word. The question and answer technique in the foreign language serves not only as a measure of reading ability, but also as an exercise to help build up active language command. In the beginning classes it is helpful to have students repeat the question aloud before answering it and also, in the true and false test, repeat the statements that are true and correct the false. A silent reading test has been considered.

Dramatization and relating the story or other content may serve as checks on understanding. Exercises on the material should precede or follow the reading and not interrupt it.

Oral work in the foreign language may not always be a reliable assurance of comprehension, and sometimes has to be supplemented by other controls. Translation may be used occasionally, but the wide and almost exclusive use of translation in some classes is often due to a lack of competence, imagination and effort on the part of the teacher.

“There are no dull methods, there are only dull teachers.” The best techniques are those which the teacher is best equipped to adapt to the needs of his students.

The final criterion for vital teaching of reading is not the choice of materials or techniques, but the degree to which the work involved contributes to the understanding of things significant in the life of the student.

Most people who do not read a foreign language with enjoyment were never given a chance to learn to read it.

*Temple University*

*(The Modern Language Journal, vol. XLV, No. 1, 1961, p. 17-19).*

### **Suggested Activities:**

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

**M. WEST**

## **The Teaching of Reading**

### **The Relation of Reading and Speech**

The teaching of English in India and in many other countries originally followed the translation method. Between 1900 and 1920 there was an attempt to introduce the Direct Method, but it was a failure in most schools and the translation and grammar method continued.

The pupils were spending about ten hours a week on English study and the results were extremely poor. Owing to early elimination from the schools for reasons of health or finance only a small minority reached the Matriculation class and the time which they had spent on the language was more or less wasted. The problem was how to give those who never reached the Matriculation standard something worthwhile. Even in the Matriculation class the results were unsatisfactory: few of the pupils had real reading ability in English, nor were they able to speak more than disjointed sentences, and they could write only very slowly and laboriously.

In a report published by the Government of India I argued that reading ability was very easily achieved and, if one emphasized reading ability in the earlier stages of the course, this might have the effect of making some grass grow where none grew before. Moreover reading ability is of greater educational value than mere speech except perhaps at its highest conversational

level. I reported various experiments showing that reading ability could be achieved very rapidly without any great measure of speech and showed experimental textbooks which were used to produce this result.

This so-called "Reading Method" was widely used for English in various countries, and was imitated in the United States of America and in Canada for French, Spanish and German. With the threat of war and then the war there was a swing from the Reading Method to speech, and the tendency is now to concentrate upon speech and twitting and let reading tag along as a poor relation, an accidental by-product of the active use of the language. There is even a dogmatic statement that the pupil should never read anything which he has not already spoken. This of course is nonsensical for there are many thousands of words in the Bible which we have never spoken and never will speak, yet we read it. The same applies to Shakespeare and to almost all literature, even the daily newspapers. It applies also in a high degree to science.

The truth of the matter is that after the initial stage the teaching of reading and the teaching of speech tend to become, and should be, divorced. The two vocabularies are fundamentally different. A speaking vocabulary consists of items, sentence-patterns, phrases, inflections, etc. Every change of form or meaning is a new item, and there is no inferable margin: whereas in reading the exact opposite is true. The main difficulty in reading is the enormous size of the vocabulary. We speak about relatively few things and employ a small range of conversational words in speaking about them; we read about a vast range of subjects, many of which we never talk about, and the printed language used in discussing them uses a very wide range of literary words and structures.

As a result of this difference, if speech work is based upon reading, the gap between the two becomes larger and larger so that the pupils may be reading with a vocabulary of two thousand words or more when they have not yet fully mastered the active use of five or six hundred.

The alternative procedure is to make Reading follow upon Speech, and this is the tendency nowadays. The result of this is that reading is kept back: the hare is harnessed to the tortoise, and the pupil is not enabled to break away into rapid reading of interesting material until far too late, especially for the pupil in an unfavourably circumstanced school.

We believe that the right solution of the problem is to make reading subsidiary to the speech course as far as about the first five hundred words: that is to say the pupil uses reading to enable him to learn to speak. He reads exercises, etc., in his speech-teaching book, and perhaps he has some Reading-plus-response exercises as a training in understanding and as a preventive of eye-to-mouth reading without comprehension.

At about the five hundred words level we believe that reading and speech-teaching should be split. At this stage the reading-book proper should be brought into use to build up a reading vocabulary as fast as possible up to perhaps three or even four thousand words, whereas speech work continues

independently, training the pupils to use a Minimum Adequate speech vocabulary of some 1,200 head words fluently and correctly. In this way we may make sure that the pupil who goes no further after he leaves school may get something usable and worthwhile both in speech and reading, and, if he fails to learn to speak, he will at least, in his reading, have something which he can carry on afterwards.

This is of course only a general suggestion as for a school system. The point which we are trying to establish is that the balance between reading and speech must be adjusted in *some* way, not left to chance. Naturally the courier employed by a tourist agency needs to speak a language but requires practically no reading ability. At the other extreme the scientific worker in Russia may need to read English but have no need to speak at all. So also the student of Latin or Greek or other dead languages requires reading ability but no speech; indeed in many such cases the pronunciation is not known.

We believe that the greatest need of the unfavourable circumstanced schools at present in the learning of English is this divorce between reading and speaking. The New Method readers failed to solve their problem because they provided nothing effective in the way of speaking, but as things are at present the unfavourably circumstanced pupil tends, while failing to attain speaking ability, to achieve nothing at all.

### **The Teaching of Reading**

A recent book on the teaching of English in India discusses various methods of teaching reading such as the Phonic, the Syllabic, the Word method, the Phrase method, Sentence method, etc.

But these pupils *can* read! They have learnt to read in their mother-tongue.

We even find in certain books of methodology the argument that because an infant learning his mother-tongue learns to speak at the age of two to three but acquires reading very much later at the age of about six, therefore in the case of the pupil learning English as a foreign language reading should follow a long way after speaking. The argument is fallacious in that the mother-tongue infant is learning reading as a skill which would apply to any language, and does so apply. The foreign language pupil can already read: all he has to do is to transfer that skill to a new set of symbols. Thus when I learnt of my appointment to Bengal, I proceeded to learn to read Bengali. It was merely a matter of acquiring the sounds which corresponded to the various Bengali symbols. Bengali is written phonetically, but the difficulties of English spelling can be overcome with the use of subscript numbers or with the phonetic alphabet.

## Build-up of the Alphabet in the initial Oral Lessons

It is not possible for any teacher to keep a class of over thirty young and active pupils together during a stretch of twenty or thirty or even forty minutes of unadulterated oral work. Indeed one might put the practical size of class for such a lesson at a considerably lower figure. Nor again can most teachers stand the nervous strain of such a lesson, in a hot climate, once or twice (or three times) a day, day after day. A 'let-up' for the teacher and a 'pull-together' for the class are even more urgently needed here than in the higher grades for which we have suggested the Intermittent written answer ("Pens ... Pens down ...", etc.).

In favourably circumstanced schools we sometimes see such pupils made to move about, run round the room, play games, cut out pictures, etc.: in the large less favoured class this is not practicable, nor have such activities any great linguistic value in either case. In Lesson-form I we have ventured to suggest that writing may serve the purpose of pulling the class together and giving the teacher some relief. Such writing would aim at familiarizing the pupils with the form and sound of the letters of the alphabet.

## Reading in the Post-initial lessons

Early introduction of reading enables the pupil to get a triple impact of a new item. He gets the meaning of the word plus the sight of it in print or writing, plus the sound of the word. - Meaning & Sound & Sight. The sound alone may yield various mishearings, for example, wrong divisions of words as in the child's repetition of the Lord's Prayer - "Our Father charting heaven": so also the clerical "chestnut" about the child who, seeing the sea for the first time, enquired, "Where are the tinimies?"\*

Some teachers hold that reading should not be introduced until the second year, and others would make it very late in the first year. My own opinion would be about halfway through the first years, as soon as the pupil can read and recognize words. I would then interpose a short spell of reading-plus-response so as to expedite reading-ability. This might occupy the latter part of the oral lesson and so lessen the strain of a long spell of oral work.

The reason for this recommendation is that, until the pupil can read, the teacher is the sole source of the language. He is like a mother-bird putting gobbets of English into the open beaks of his pupils. They have no power of feeding by themselves: there can be no mass practice; there can be no homework: there can be no Read-and-look-up so that pupils with the help of the textbook may practise by themselves or question each other.

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\* The reference is to Psalm 96, verse II. "The seas and all that in them is". Unfortunately for the story this is a misquotation: the Prayer Book has, "The seas and all that therein is", and the Bible has, "The seas and the fullness thereof".

The opinion that reading should be begun very late, long after the beginning of the speech course, may be due to a failure to distinguish the two different kinds of reading: (1) *Prompted Speech* and (2) *Book-reading*. In Prompted Speech the words are like the notes on a musical score: they are symbols which are converted into sounds and meaning. There is, of course, the danger that the symbols may be converted merely into sounds without meaning - the danger of Eye-mouth reading: but in fact this hardly arises in a speech lesson. The print merely helps the pupil to remember the teacher's spoken words, and it is true in this limited case to say that the pupil reads what he has already heard spoken.

In Book-reading a stream of phrases is converted into ideas in the mind: speech, in silent reading, may be merely a very slight innervation of the muscles concerned with speech, and in many cases the word is not actually framed at all but only a mere schema of it, just as in the case of long and complicated proper names with adult readers: thus in silent reading one might read Rhosllanerchrugog<sup>1</sup> as Rhos-*burble-burble*. This is in fact a danger which has to be guarded against in the teaching of Book-reading in which new words are built up into the vocabulary.

### The Prevention of Eye-mouth Reading

From the very first the rule must be made that the pupil should never read without having to make some response which indicates that he attaches meanings to the words which he is saying. This is particularly necessary in the eastern countries where the traditional method of teaching in the Mosque and Primary schools encourages Eye-mouth reading.<sup>2</sup>

The remedy for this is Reading-with-response in the early stages and Before-questions later on. A Reading-with-response exercise may supply a picture with a statement, "This is a dog", whereas the picture is of an elephant: mark the sentences "True or false" with a tick or a cross. Or the learner may mark sentences "Yes" or "No" in the same way: - "Is this a dog?" There may be a statement followed by true or false statements concerning it, or by questions:

Ted has three eggs: Dan has four eggs.

Mark ✓ (True), × (False)

Ted has five eggs ...

Ted has three eggs ... etc.

or

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<sup>1</sup> Denbighshire, North Wales.

<sup>2</sup> This may sometimes be seen in the English Junior School: thus in a school which I visited a boy read, "The Boy Scout lit a fire and cooked his breakfast: he had bacon and eggs and coffee". The pupil read this aloud perfectly well: I asked him what the Boy Scout had for his breakfast and he could not answer.

Mark ✓ (Yes), × (No)

Has Ted five eggs? ...

Has Ted three eggs? ... etc.

or

*Write figures*

How many eggs has Ted? ... etc.

The responses must in all cases be very brief consisting either of a cross or tick or a figure or one single word, otherwise time intended for the teaching of reading will be devoted to slow and laborious writing. There are numerous exercises of this type in the New Method primers, but it is quite easy to compose them, though care of course is needed in keeping within the pupils' known vocabulary. The blackboard is a laborious and inefficient instrument for the teaching of reading: duplicated sheets are better; printed matter is best.

Before-questions are used with paragraphs in the later stages of Reading-with-response. Thus there may be a paragraph of some eight or ten lines telling a simple anecdote. The questions on it are set before the pupil reads: he reads and looks for the answers. The idea of this arrangement is to produce a Forward Urge in reading and to prevent Drift. In all effective reading there is a searching attitude.

There may be performed questions in one's mind and one reads to search out the answers: or in an unfamiliar subject one glances through the article to get the general scheme and then searches to fill in the detail. In Drift the reader merely floats along. On the contrary Before-questions alone may produce (especially in the higher classes), mere skimming and this is to be avoided especially in a lesson which is building up reading-vocabulary, but also in all - expect the topspeed reading exercises. Skimming is prevented by having some After-questions to ensure full reading of the passage.

### **When should Book-Reading begin?**

The answer to this question depends on the nature of the reading-material which is used. If the teacher depends upon such simple books as may be within the vocabulary of the pupil, the beginning will inevitably be rather late and the Age Discrepancy\* rather large at the start.

Suppose that the reading material has been composed within a certain limited vocabulary but not that of the actual course which the teacher is following, there is bound to be some overlap: to be sure of covering the 500-word vocabulary of the reading-book the pupils' vocabulary may have to be some 750. This overlap is more serious in the early stages (just when the limited vocabulary is most helpful in expediting reading) than later on, because it is at this point that the Speech and the Reading vocabulary diverge most. The

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\* Difference between the age of the reader and the age-interest of the reading-matter, e.g., fairy-tales as reading-matter for a 15-year-old reader.

Speech-teacher tends to teach structures with a minimum of Content words, whereas the writer of stories at a very low level of vocabulary must have an adequate range of Content words but can economize most easily in his structures: -

Say that again - and I will hit you!

He did the work; then he went out to play.

*(Avoiding If.)*

*(Avoiding As soon as,  
and the Past perfect tense.)*

You may be very old, but you are not  
too old to learn.

*(Avoiding However  
and the subjunctive.)*

The ideal solution of this difficulty is to keep in mind the minimum reading-vocabulary of the initial books - some 500 words and "write back" in the Speech Course and the Reading-response exercises, that is to say bring into the Speech work and the Reading response some of the (or all the) vocabulary required for the first Book-reading material.

*(M. West Teaching English in Difficult Circumstances London 1961,  
Chapter 3, p.16-24).*

### **Suggested Activities:**

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

## **E.BILLOWS**

### **Reading and the Study of Prose Literature**

#### **INTRODUCTION**

Whatever the process we submit the mind to as we help it to develop through learning a foreign language, to adapt itself to strange impressions, to equip itself for taking in knowledge and thinking in the new language, we must see that the pupil takes with him the ability to manage without us when he leaves school and our part of the process is over. Back in his home environment he may not hear the language often, but if he is able to read fluently and perceptively, with some pleasure, he can keep the language alive in his mind; provided he has learnt the sounds and intonation well, they will sound correctly in his inward ear as he reads. If he reads constantly and widely he will increase his mastery of the language far beyond what he was able to reach at school; he will join native users of the language in reading their newspapers and books, submitting himself at the same time to the currents of thought

which move through the culture of the language and are accessible in the printed word.

No one is likely to remember a language for long if he is unable to read it easily or if the normal writing intended for native readers of the language is beyond his reach. If we have taught him a limited sample of the language, a reduced, selected vocabulary with carefully graded structural material, and have not given him, with this basic knowledge, some experience in facing normal unrestricted language, he is likely to find even the newspaper difficult and books inaccessible. All work in reading is more effective and economical if the mind is systematically trained in absorbing ideas quickly and accurately from the printed page.

So we must help our pupils not to be afraid of difficulty. If they have come to expect the meaning of a difficult passage to yield to concentrated reading and rereading, they are willing to go on until the words and the sentence patterns begin to come into focus in their minds and take on significance, however inaccessible they may seem at first. They will be accustomed to the experience of reading, say, the daily news rapidly and finding that certain unknown words, seen often in similar contexts, come gradually further and further through the crust of incomprehension or inattention to a permanent place and significance in the mind.

It is more urgent therefore for the pupil to cultivate a habit of attentive and perceptive reading, once the main patterns have been made familiar in speech, than for him to have been drilled painstakingly in a complete or representative sample of the patterns of the language, though this also should be attempted. However little we have time to teach he will learn more if we train him to grapple with difficulty and to read adventurously, not being daunted or help back by unknown words or expressions, than if we allow him practice in reading only what is well within his grasp. On the other hand, as long as we are teaching him to read, we must use easy material, language which has been well learnt orally, and is quite familiar in sound and meaning, so that he can concentrate on acquiring the skill of reading, matching what he sees to the sounds he knows, without being distracted at the same time by meeting new vocabulary.

The teacher may well find these two aims, fluent, fully conscious reading, and adventurous, searching, half-conscious reading, hard to reconcile. In the first kind, every word is familiar; its meaning and function are clear; in the second, many words are taken on trust, the exact functions of many words in their sentences are left undefined; as he feels for the general drift of a passage, the reader comes to understand the meanings of words by their relation to this general drift; patterns many times repeated, hugged, as it were, trustingly but uncomprehendingly to the bosom as the reader races on, are found to have yielded up their significance by the end of the article or chapter or book.

To cultivate both these types of skill the teacher may plan his reading instruction with both in mind. He can begin with the first, and even when he be-

gins to introduce the second - sooner with a quick class than with a slow one - the first may preponderate for some time, until gradually the preponderance of the second is increased towards the end of the course, as part of the teacher's policy of encouraging independence and responsibility as soon as the pupil is ready to be responsible for his own learning.

## PART ONE

### EFFECTIVE READING INSTRUCTION

The teacher may be helped to remember that there is more than one type of skill included under the heading of "Effective Reading", if he looks once more at Bacon's advice about reading in his essay "Of Studies". "Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested, that is, some books are to be read only in parts, others to be read but not curiously, and some few to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention. Some books also may be read by deputy, and extracts made of them by others, but that would be only in the less important arguments and the meaner sort of books, else distilled books are, like common distilled waters, flashy things!"

This can be summarized as follows:

1. Leisurely light reading.
2. (a) Rapid scanning, as when searching a newspaper for the latest news.

(b) Rapid scanning to glean salient points of a chapter or book.

3. Serious analytic (reflective) reading.
4. Deputy reading - abstracts, reports, etc.

As a preparation for thoroughly effective reading of all kinds, the teacher must see that the beginnings of reading in the textbook are always kept well behind the point his pupils have reached; they should learn to recognize all new words on paper and begin to write them only when they are thoroughly familiar as sound. In the first few years reading must be the quick recognition of what is well known, not the slow deciphering of a code or puzzle. Only as he finds his pupils reading ahead in the textbook and becoming more adventurous in their reading of supplementary readers should the teacher begin to put in front of them more difficult material containing unknown words and expressions. He may begin with only a few of the brighter ones in the class and gradually extend the privilege. As he does so he will increase their interest and involvement by the variety of skills which he sets them to learn. Bacon's categories may guide him here.

1. *Leisurely light reading* is cultivated in the reading of simplified texts; what have sometimes come to be called "nondetailed texts" because examiners do not require a detailed knowledge of them. The teacher should try and provide plenty of easy reading at a vocabulary level well within the grasp of the

pupil, keeping mainly within the structural patterns learnt up to that stage. This reading is not intended to teach the pupil new language, but to exercise him in what he has learnt in such a way that his reading is fluent and fully conscious.

2. *Rapid scanning* is a useful skill worth cultivating for its own sake; if it has been cultivated systematically from the earliest point in the course at which it can be attempted, cooperative work on the study of texts - to be described later - can be greatly expedited and made easy. If newspapers are taken into class at least once a week from the fourth year onwards, and special exercises in rapid scanning are given, skill will develop to a useful degree by the end of the course. Nearly all the background reading required for the presenting of a topic to the class by a group calls for proficiency in this type of reading.

3. *Serious, analytic and reflective reading*, such as the best sorts of literature call for, and the more profound books on politics, philosophy, religion, economics, technology and science, is best catered for by training such as that which is to be outlined later, in which discussion follows perceptive reading of a piece of concentrated and demanding prose.

4. *Deputy reading* is a type of reading too little cultivated consciously, though a good deal of school work is based on its results. The ordinary school textbook in most subjects is a summary of someone's reading of a large number of more detailed works. It is desirable that not all of this work should be done in advance by the teacher and his ally the writer of the textbook. An enterprising teacher will contrive to confront groups of his class with a selection of material similar to what the textbook writer condenses into his familiar, sad-hued pemmican. If he does so everyone in the class has a chance of contact with original sources - if in a limited sphere - and the rest of the class can benefit by the fruits of each of these contacts. This is much more *zweckmässig* (or shall we say purposeful) than the artificial production of an epitome for the teacher in relation to nothing in particular.

*Reading Circles.* At an advanced stage, where the student is faced with a formidable list of books which he is recommended to read, he may reduce the problem to manageable dimensions by uniting himself with others, faced with the same daunting cliff of reading, to divide the field. Each one takes a book, reads it, makes notes on it and speaks about it at a meeting of the group; later he may connect up his notes to form a summary and an estimate of the book.

If the book is being read with a particular study in mind, the relevance of the book to the study should be shown and those chapters or pages enumerated which have the closest bearing on the subject of the study.

In this way a comparatively large number of books can be passed in review before the members of the group; each member of the group has had an introduction to all of them and has had their relevance to his interests or to the study he is at work or investigated for him; at the same time he has read one book attentively and diagnostically, with not only his own interests and stud-

ies in mind, but those of the other members of the group, so that his reading has had a social significance and has been given thereby intensity and direction. Later, if he has time, he may read those portions of the other books marked out for him by the other members of the group; he may even read the whole of some books which he finds are, after all, within the range of his ability and interests.

*Practical Steps to Improve Speed and Accuracy in Reading.* The teacher, even at a fairly early stage, may take steps to improve his pupils' ability to read quickly and accurately. Discarded textbooks, which have been given up in the school, can be kept and cut up into suitable lengths of a few pages, with questions to test comprehension typed and pasted on to them. Whenever the teacher has ten minutes to spare, a set can be distributed to the class and a time limit set for reading and for answering the questions; as writing is not being tested the questions should only require "Yes" or "No" answers, or the ticking of correct statements, or the writing of numbers.

Another exercise may be to set the class to read for a minute and to mark the point reached with a dot in pencil. The winner in the race and the runners-up are then stood in front of the class and questioned - preferably by the losers - on their comprehension of the piece. Another exercise is to set the class to consult passages in books, or the dismembered pieces of textbook just mentioned, to find the answers to questions and stand up when they have found them. In another exercise the teacher writes a passage from a book on the blackboard with some words missing; the class have to find the passage in the book and write down the missing words.

Mental arithmetic problems, simple detective stories or other problems to be solved, can be typed on squares of cardboard; these can be given out to each member of the class and exchanged for others as soon as the answers have been noted; the one who deals with the largest number of cards correctly is the winner.

At an early stage, actions in mime in obedience to flash cards can be a fruitful occasion for hilarity and for friendly competition in the last five minutes of many a lesson. e.g.,

Drink some water.

Hop like a rabbit.

Ring a bell.

Thread a needle.

Get stung by a bee, etc.

Cards with exact instructions on them to be carried out quickly can be distributed, for instance: "Go out into the garden and collect a narrow pointed leaf and a round smooth stone," or a much more complicated list of instructions involving observation in the town can be given for homework. A teacher should assemble a large arsenal of such exercises for use at every stage of the course. If they are constantly slipped in when there is five or ten minutes to go to the end of the lesson, very little time will be taken from the routine lessons

and there will always be a genuine feeling of urgency and cheerfulness in the doing of them. The teacher will be very thankful for readiness in reading when he wants his pupils to find and quickly prepare background material to textual study, if they have made punctual and steady improvement in speed and accuracy. They will have enjoyed what seemed at the time like play.

*(The Techniques of Language Teaching, L. 1961)*

**Suggested Activities:**

1. Ask 5-6 questions on the text.
2. Denote the key-points (words) and make up a model of the text.
3. Give a short summary of the information.

## Part III

Read the texts and be ready to translate them into English:

### М.УЭСТ

#### О практическом изучении английского языка как формы поведения\*

##### *Постановка проблемы*

Статья посвящена описанию некоей теории изучения иностранного языка - которую мы можем назвать методом изучения языка в реальных ситуациях (Realistic Method) - и описанию учебного материала, на котором можно проверить ее эффективность.

Язык - это форма поведения, это реакция организма в целом на окружающую социальную среду, и слова - только часть этой реакции, которая, помимо того, включает в себя также позу, мимику, жест.

Если человек приобретает знание языка в классе, последовательно накапливая модели и запоминая тщательно отобранные слова, то он будет говорить на этом языке совершенно правильно, однако это не будет живой речью. У человека же, изучающего язык в естественной обстановке, появление и отбор грамматических конструкций и слов определяется лишь возникающей в них необходимостью, приобретенные им знания не корректируются ни учителем, ни книгой. Поэтому он говорит хотя и с ошибками, но живым, не книжным языком. Он использует в речи восклицания, не оформленные как слова, формулы вежливости, слововставки, позволяющие оттянуть ответ, эмфатические интонации, описания которых вы не найдете ни в каком грамматическом справочнике или учебнике.

Метод с использованием поведенческих моделей призван использовать преимущества, даваемые каждым способом изучения языка, обдуманно и систематично накапливать языковые элементы и сочетать их каким-то образом с моделями поведения и элементами, характеризующими живую речь.

Обычно тренировка в классе выглядит следующим образом: "Put your book on the desk. Put your pen on your book. Where is your book? Where is your pen?" Вариант с использованием элемента поведения предполагает диалог, в котором участвуют муж и жена, которые ищут очки (см. пример ниже), или мать и дочь, где мать дает указания дочери, куда поставить различные вещи на кухне.

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\* M. West, Learning English as Behaviour. Статья из журнала *English Language Teaching*, 1930, v. 15, № 1. Печатается с небольшими сокращениями. - Прим. ред.

Там, где при обычном методе мы имеем фразы, вроде Open the door. What have you done? - I have opened the door, the door is open, и т.д., при нашем методе можно устроить диалог между хозяйкой и служанкой, где хозяйка спрашивает: "Have you washed the...? Have you put away the...? Have you done ... (различные работы по дому)? Или можно разыграть сценку, где люди возвращаются домой после отдыха и обнаруживают, что какая-то добрая фея все приготовила для них, и здесь можно тренировать различные восклицания, выражающие приятное изумление.

Наши первые попытки в этом направлении не достигли полного успеха. Мы пытались установить порядок введения структур и слов, исходя из диалогов, т.е. мы выяснили, какие модели и другие языковые элементы необходимы для диалога, и тренировали их заранее. Это привело к полному беспорядку. Лучше взять определенный курс языка и приспособить модели поведения к языковым, а не наоборот.

В настоящем эксперименте (*faute de mieux*) нам пришлось взять уже готовый учебник и добавить к нему вышеупомянутые элементы. Для этой цели были использованы "Practice Books" Палмера, представляющие собой полную, детально разработанную систему, в то время как обычные "Teacher's book" и "Class book" оставляют слишком многое на усмотрение учителя, который не всегда может наилучшим образом решить все вопросы.

### *Диалог с использованием моделей поведения*

Диалог с использованием моделей поведения предполагает наличие двух участников, ситуации и определенного эмоционального тона. От участников требуется вести диалог в том или ином эмоциональном ключе. Для этой цели не годится серия уроков, например курс Би-би-си или другие курсы уроков на пластинках. Там, где из урока в урок фигурирует одна семья, нет возможности ввести различные эмоциональные ситуации и нет возможности эмоционально окрашивать определенные языковые явления. В каждом диалоге должны участвовать новые персонажи, отобранные с таким расчетом, чтобы удовлетворить требованиям, выдвигаемым языковыми элементами, воплощенными в ситуации. Такими персонажами может быть полицейский, который торопится вернуться домой к чаю, и суетливый, дотошный свидетель несчастного случая; доктор, не терпящий возражений, и капризный пациент, который не хочет слушать его указаний о диете; покупатель, который никак не может сделать выбора, и раздраженный продавец.

Диалог должен быть коротким и четко очерченным. Предыдущие эксперименты показали (книга "Improve your English"), что в нем должно быть не более 8 реплик, даже лучше, если их будет меньше. Это необходимо, так как диалог следует тщательно отработать.

Сначала мы хотели, чтобы диалоги заучивались наизусть, а для того, чтобы помочь более слабым ученикам воспроизводить реплики, предполагалось дать в книге ключевые слова. Однако это оказалось плохой системой, так как наличие ключевых слов заставляло учеников смотреть в книгу, тогда как при разговоре следует смотреть на собеседника. Кроме того, заучивание наизусть, если оно практикуется сверх разумных пределов, может привести к тому, что диалог будет воспроизводиться механически, как это наблюдается у актеров, играющих в пьесе, которая идет в течение долгого времени. Представляется, что наилучшим методом заучивания диалогов является метод “прочти и скажи”, т.е. нужно запомнить диалог до такой степени, чтобы в то время, пока ваш собеседник произносит свою реплику, вы могли бы быстро взглянуть на свою и произнести ее, не глядя в книгу. Следует строго придерживаться правила: “Никогда ничего не произносите, глядя в книгу!” Для тех, кто достаточно хорошо запомнил диалог, этого беглого взгляда будет достаточно.

### *Режиссерская разработка, или либретто*

Диалог с использованием моделей поведения отличается от отрывка из пьесы в том отношении, что он представляет собой режиссерскую разработку, а не только одни слова. Различные актеры могут исполнять одну и ту же пьесу различным образом, а в таком диалоге точно указано, как это следует делать - указаны ударения, ритм, размечены паузы, указано произношение нейтральных гласных и интонация.

Однако и этого еще недостаточно. Следует также объяснить, почему говорящий делает паузу или употребляет определенную интонацию. Необходимо добавить и, так сказать, сценические указания (например, куда смотреть и т.д., так как интонация очень часто зависит от того, куда направлен взгляд). Для достижения наилучших результатов вообще необходимы не только тщательно размеченная разработка, но и пластинки. Однако даже и этого недостаточно. В идеале необходимо было бы использовать телевизор или фильм, чтобы ученики не только слышали, как это говорится, но и видели, что при этом делается.

## Р.ЛАДО

### Обучение иностранному языку (научный подход)

#### Из главы 5. Принципы обучения языкам

Термин “научный” не означает “совершенный” или “всеобъемлющий”. Научный подход к обучению учитывает научные данные; он основывается на теории и на ряде принципов, находящихся в логической

взаимосвязи. Такой подход позволяет измерить результаты обучения. О нем можно судить на основе объективных показателей. Он может постепенно совершенствоваться на основе новых фактов и нового опыта.

Подход, представленный в этой книге, основан на научной лингвистике, психологии обучения, на теории, изложенной в предыдущей главе этой книги, на принципах, излагаемых ниже, на гипотезах, вытекающих из теории или языкового опыта, и на объективных показателях. Это вполне сознательная попытка научного подхода к области обучения иностранному языку.

Ввиду того, что научные данные не могут применяться без учета условий и целей обучения, некоторые из типичных показателей, которыми определяется обучение языку, рассматриваются наряду с принципами, характеризующими научный подход.

## Принципы

Для определения научного подхода необходимы и достаточны следующие принципы. Здесь мы изложим их лишь кратко, в последующих же главах они будут развернуты в конкретную программу обучения. Эти принципы могут применяться или же отвергаться по мере пополнения наших знаний новыми научно установленными фактами.

**Принцип 1. Сначала устная речь, потом письменная.** Нужно обучать сначала умению понимать речь на слух и говорить, а затем - читать и писать. Этот принцип лежит в основе устного (аудио - лингвального) подхода.

Из лингвистики мы знаем, что язык наиболее полно выявляется в устной речи. В письменной речи не представлено произношение - интонация, ритм, ударение.

Этот принцип не означает, что следует учить только говорить и понимать речь на слух. Он исходит из того, что расшифровка зафиксированного письменного материала без овладения моделями языка в устной речи неполна, несовершенна или неэффективна.

Этот принцип действителен тогда, когда целью является только обучение чтению. Если ученик, прежде чем приступить к чтению, овладеет основными конструкциями языка в устной речи, он сможет более успешно совершенствовать приобретенные им умения в области чтения, чем в том случае, когда он ограничивается расшифровкой текста. Чтобы доказать справедливость или же, наоборот, неправомочность этого требования, нужна дальнейшая экспериментальная работа. Однако данный принцип находит подтверждение в тех тактических преимуществах, которые он дает в обучении. Учащиеся, овладевшие языком устно, могут научиться читать более или менее свободно сами или с небольшой помощью. Те же, кто научился лишь понимать текст, не могут, как правило, самостоятельно научиться устной речи.

**Принцип 2. Речевые образцы.** Добейтесь, чтобы учащиеся как можно точнее усвоили речевые образцы, употребляемые в разговоре. Такая практика, рекомендованная лингвистами, вполне оправдана психологически. Хотя в печати и нет описаний психологических экспериментов, которые подтверждали бы это положение, оно неоднократно оправдало себя на практике. Предложите ученику прослушать на родном языке шесть-семь однозначных чисел в определенном порядке и затем воспроизвести этот ряд. Затем сделайте то же самое на изучаемом языке; вы убедитесь, что ученики во втором случае делают гораздо больше ошибок, хотя каждое отдельно взятое числительное они могут воспроизвести на иностранном языке правильно. Точно так же учащиеся могут запомнить и воспроизвести на родном языке гораздо более длинные отрезки речи, чем на иностранном.

Емкость памяти на родном языке у учащихся гораздо больше, чем на иностранном. Примеры и модели на иностранном языке учащиеся могут воспринять в искаженном виде или же, восприняв правильно, забыть через несколько мгновений. Ученик не может пользоваться примерами для изучения грамматики или конструировать другие примеры по аналогии из-за того, что эти примеры и модели не запоминаются. Когда он заучивает диалоги, дополнительные усилия, потраченные на это, позволят ему использовать эти диалоги в качестве моделей и на этой основе продолжать усвоение языка.

Лингвисты одобряют тренировку в умении вести разговор, потому что в разговорной речи слова представлены во фразовых структурах и контексте. Диалогам следует отдать предпочтение перед стихами или литературной прозой, ибо разговор содержит больше основных конструкций языка в конкретном контексте. Поэзия пользуется большим числом необычных конструкций и менее типичными вариантами обычных конструкций. В прозе редко употребляются вопросы, просьбы, ответы; для нее характерны довольно длинные утвердительные конструкции.

**Принцип 3. Усвоение моделей как овладение навыками.** Усвоение моделей должно представлять собой овладение навыками путем речевой практики по моделям. Знание слов, отдельных выражений и (или) грамматических правил не составляет владения языком. Разговор о языке не является знанием самого языка. Лингвист, специалист по грамматике, критик говорят и пишут о языке; ученик же должен научиться им пользоваться.

Владеть языком - значит уметь пользоваться языковыми конструкциями с правильным лексическим наполнением и в нормальном речевом темпе. Понимание и даже повторение вслух какой-либо модели, возможно, будет способствовать ее запоминанию, но никогда не заменит упражнений в овладении навыком употребления модели в речи путем аналогии, варьирования и трансформации. Это и есть работа по моделям.

**Принцип 4. Практическое овладение фонетической системой языка.** Фонетической системе языка следует обучать как структуре, предназначенной для практического использования, путем показа, имитации, подражания, контрастирования и речевой практики. Наблюдения показывают, что одно только слушание образцов правильного произношения не ведет к овладению хорошим произношением, если язык усваивается не в раннем детстве. Отдельные упражнения, описание артикуляции звуков, работа над сходными звуками - все это может в конечном счете привести к удовлетворительным результатам, но, для того чтобы учащийся овладел автоматизированной, свободной речью, необходима тренировка в речевой деятельности.

**Принцип 9. Речевая практика вместо перевода.** Перевод не может заменить речевой практики. Это положение можно подкрепить следующими доводами: 1) лишь немногие слова любой пары языков полностью эквивалентны по значениям; 2) ученик, полагая, что слова родного и иностранного языков полностью эквивалентны, приходит к неправильному выводу, что выполненный им перевод пригоден для тех же ситуаций, что и те, которые даны в оригинале, и в результате делает ошибки; 3) дословный перевод порождает неправильные конструкции.

Психологически процесс перевода сложнее процессов говорения, понимания речи на слух, чтения или письма. Перевод отличен от этих видов владения языком и не является необходимым для их усвоения. Кроме того, хороший перевод нельзя сделать, не владея в достаточной мере иностранным языком. Поэтому вначале мы обучаем владению языком, с тем чтобы впоследствии, в случае необходимости, обучать переводу как отдельному умению.

Люди, одинаково хорошо владеющие двумя языками, не прибегают к переводу, употребляя один из них. В их распоряжении как бы две соотнесенные языковые системы. Пользование переводом ведет к чрезмерно усложненному функционированию умений в области владения иностранным языком, к развитию системы, части которой не соотнесены, а подчинены одна другой.

В настоящее время нет достаточных данных, чтобы выступить за или против применения перевода как способа передачи смысла того, чему нужно обучать, или же как средства проверки понимания. Однако использование целых предложений на родном языке для передачи смысла диалогов, предназначенных для заучивания, является обычной практикой, которой придерживаются многие лингвисты.

**Принцип 10. Нормативность языка.** Нужно обучать языку, как он есть, а не языку, каким он должен быть. Многие люди считают, что их речь (на родном языке) неправильна, что правильна та форма, которая употреблялась раньше, или та, которая употребляется в другой местности. Однако лингвисты говорят нам, что мерилом правильности и грамотности родной речи являются формы, употребляемые образованными

людьми, для которых данный язык является родным, а не какие-то воображаемые искусственные нормативы. Этот принцип предполагает, что следует обучать такому стилю речи, каким пользуются образованные люди, для которых этот язык является родным.

Этот принцип не означает, что правилен только один стиль речи. Напротив, если, например, в повседневной разговорной речи принято употреблять неполные формы слов, этому нужно учить, но в то же время не исключается и обучение полным формам, чтобы учащиеся могли употреблять эти формы в более официальной обстановке или в письменной речи.

Язык является коммуникационной структурой. В теории коммуникации любые нарушения в канале, по которому осуществляется коммуникация, называют шумом. Использование в речи неподходящего стиля или диалекта нарушает процесс коммуникации, делает его неполноценным и тем самым создает своеобразный “шум”.

Этот принцип не делает исключения для местных диалектов. Однако существование данной проблемы нельзя отрицать. В некоторых языках, таких, как, например, китайский, один из местных диалектов признается общенациональной нормой. В других языках ни один из диалектов не может считаться общепринятой нормой. В таких случаях решение должно быть стратегическим: оно должно приниматься с учетом целей изучения языка и круга лиц, с которыми учащийся будет общаться.

**Принцип 11. Тренировка.** Большая часть учебного времени должна отводиться на тренировку в пользовании языком. Этот принцип оправдан психологически, ибо при прочих равных условиях объем усваиваемого материала и прочность усвоения прямо пропорциональны объему тренировки.

Лингвисты показали значение тренировки для овладения языком, основанного на имитации и на работе по моделям. Фриз (Fries), например, рекомендует отводить 85% учебного времени на тренировку и не более 15% на объяснения и комментирование. Самым убедительным аргументом в пользу этого принципа служит успех курсов интенсивного обучения английскому языку, организованных Фризом, и успех интенсивного обучения иностранным языкам, которое велось под руководством лингвистов во время второй мировой войны. Хотя специальные эксперименты и не ставились, результаты обучения на этих курсах говорят сами за себя.

## Д.ЭБЕРКРОМБИ

### К вопросу об основных принципах

Люди решают изучать языки по самым различным причинам - коммерческим, социальным, научным, учебным, и разработать курс для

начинающего, который точно знает, для чего ему нужен язык, и знает, что не имеет отношения к его цели, сравнительно просто. Гораздо сложнее разработать удовлетворительный курс для подавляющего большинства начинающих, цель которых в изучении языка сводится лишь к смутному убеждению, что знание языка будет так или иначе "полезным" (что, несомненно, справедливо). Люди могут изучать и изучали языки всевозможными методами; преподавание языка - это искусство, а не наука, и хороший преподаватель может добиться результатов при любом методе. Тем не менее можно считать, что лучше всего применять наиболее рациональный метод, максимально соответствующий современному уровню знания. В этой главе я хочу рассмотреть некоторые из основных принципов, которые должны быть приняты во внимание при составлении курса для начинающих.

Знать язык - значит уметь читать, писать, говорить на этом языке и понимать, когда на нем говорят. Это четыре различных и легко вычленимых вида деятельности (каждым из них можно овладеть независимо от другого; не каждый человек способен овладеть ими всеми; некоторые виды поражения мозга могут вызвать полную потерю одного, не затрагивая серьезно других), хотя в глазах обычного человека они так тесно переплетены, что ему трудно думать или говорить об одном из них вне связи с остальными.

Установлено, что внутренняя речь при чтении про себя протекает в том произношении, которое для данного языка было выучено первым, и что, если позднее будет усвоено другое произношение, чтение про себя не перебазируется на него, и время от времени оно назойливо будет вторгаться в сознание. Чтобы убедиться в справедливости этого, читатель может сам проделать эксперимент; мой собственный опыт, например, чтения по-латыни - а я сначала учил старомодное, а затем уже "реконструированное" произношение латыни - подтверждает это вне всякого сомнения.

Для изучающего иностранный язык трудности могут представлять не только средства устной и письменной речи сами по себе, но и их взаимоотношение. Когда о языке, например английском, говорят, что у него "нефонетическая" орфография, имеется в виду, что соответствие звуков буквам является беспорядочным.

Хотя разница между устной и письменной речью - это прежде всего разница в средствах, эти последние неизбежно оказывают влияние на использование языка, который они передают. Уже тот факт, что одни условия мимолетны, а другие долговечны, определяет различие их социальных функций. Устная речь неизбежно ограничена рамками присутствия и ситуации, в которой мы находимся. Письменная речь в гораздо меньшей степени зависит от непосредственного материального окружения, и, поскольку над ней можно размышлять сколько угодно, она в состоянии передавать более сложные мысли и аргументацию, чем может воспринять

на слух большинство людей. Значительность влияния средств устной и письменной речи на грамматические конструкции и лексику легко осознается каждым, кто попытается переделать лекцию в статью или написать текст радиопередачи, которая при чтении вслух должна звучать так, как если бы это была естественная устная речь.

Было время, когда считалось само собой разумеющимся, что единственной истинной формой языка является его письменная форма, а устная речь рассматривалась лишь как отражение письменной. Это казалось настолько очевидным, что аргументация в пользу этого положения считалась излишней. В наши дни считается само собой разумеющимся, что единственной истинной формой языка является его устная форма, а письменная является ее отражением, и теперь это кажется столь же очевидным.

Существовавшая в прошлом точка зрения оказала отнюдь не благотворное влияние на изучение новых языков. Пока придерживались этого взгляда, ни о каком улучшении методов обучения произношению не могло быть и речи, и учащиеся часто сталкивались с тем фактом, что ни они не понимали носителей языка, который они изучали, ни последние не понимали их. Современная точка зрения должна бы предотвратить подобные явления в будущем. Однако если ее придерживаться некритически, вполне возможно, что и она не всегда будет оказывать благотворное влияние. Действительно ли устная форма является истинной формой языка?

Устная речь первична в двух смыслах: 1) в плане истории человечества: она появилась раньше письменной речи; 2) в плане развития индивида: она усваивается раньше, чем чтение и письмо. Однако при преподавании иностранных языков мы имеем дело почти исключительно с грамотными членами грамотных слоев общества: является ли для них устная речь все еще первичной? Вряд ли в каком-либо смысле этого слова можно утверждать, что это так. Тем не менее широко распространено мнение, что все обучение языку должно строиться на устной речи и что устной речи следует обучать в первую очередь. В обоснование этого выдвигают два аргумента: первый, что это “естественный” путь, ибо так усваивает язык ребенок, и второй, что, если сначала усваивается письменная речь, овладеть потом устной речью труднее, в то время как овладение устной речью - лучшее введение к письменной речи. Как указывается ниже, слово “естественный” в этом контексте лишь вводит в заблуждение, и я никогда не встречал убедительных подтверждений второго аргумента, хотя смешение понятий “письменный язык” и “литературный язык” часто запутывает вопрос. Утверждают, что, если учащиеся сначала усвоят письменную речь, есть опасность, что речь их будет напыщенной и в разговоре они будут употреблять такие слова, как *steed* (конь) и *tome* (том). Случись так, виной тому будет смешение не письменной и устной речи, а активного и пассивного словаря. Такие слова, как *steed* и *tome*, относятся

к словарю литературного языка, который для иностранца почти целиком должен всегда оставаться пассивным, если этот иностранец не обладает способностями Конрада.

Возможно, это и правда, что устная речь в количественном отношении играет более важную роль в повседневной жизни большинства людей: однако это не означает, что она важнее в качественном отношении. Более того, как бы часто учащийся не пользовался устной речью в родном языке, в языке, который он изучает, его потребность в устной речи может не превышать потребности в письменной речи: напротив, даже более вероятно, что последняя будет ему нужнее.

## Х. ДАНКЕН

### Чтение на иностранном языке

Хотя в наши дни школы на занятиях иностранным языком обучают в основном говорению и пониманию устной речи на слух, все же для очень многих людей главной целью изучения иностранного языка остается умение достаточно бегло читать, получая от чтения пользу и удовольствие.

Целенаправленное чтение, в результате которого человек, изучающий язык, начинает понимать культуру и быт народа, говорящего на данном языке, - важная часть курса иностранного языка. В таком курсе главное внимание уделяется содержанию читаемого и связанной с этим деятельностью. Эта деятельность будит мысль ученика, ведет к лучшему пониманию народа страны изучаемого языка, готовит его к тому, чтобы стать гражданином мира.

В процессе овладения умением читать на иностранном языке перевод с одного языка на другой ни в коем случае не должен быть ни самоцелью, ни главным средством усвоения языка. В обычных условиях обучения чем меньше учащийся прибегает к переводу, тем совершеннее приобретаемый им навык чтения. Эпизодическое использование перевода может оказаться полезным, частое же применение перевода в любом классе создает только помехи в обучении. Целью учебной деятельности учащегося должно быть непосредственное понимание текста: учитель со своей стороны должен поставить перед собой задачу помочь учащемуся достичь такого понимания наиболее простым и быстрым путем.

Непосредственное, мгновенное понимание напечатанного отрезка текста - иными словами, свободное чтение - предполагает незатрудненное восприятие, во-первых, образов и, во-вторых, семантических единиц. Овладение иностранным языком означает усвоение новых символов предметов и понятий. Это достигается посредством ассоциирования новых символов с предметами и понятиями или же путем ассоциирования

их с уже известными символами, имеющими определенное значение. Но для непосредственного понимания необходима прямая связь символа с предметом или понятием; слово, не связанное с понятием, не более полезно, чем дверная ручка без двери.

Далее, мы видим, что для чтения на иностранном языке требуется лишь распознавание новых для учащихся символов - словаря, идиоматики и грамматики. Даже если особый упор делается на обучение навыкам чтения, нужно одновременно развивать и различные другие взаимосвязанные умения. Какой бы ни была цель изучения иностранного языка, эта цель может быть достигнута легче и быстрее на основе многостороннего и в то же время целостного подхода.

Сначала учащийся слушает и понимает услышанное. Затем он говорит и по достижении определенной беглости речи учится распознавать напечатанные слова как обозначения предметов или понятий. Научившись читать он, обучается письму. Такое разностороннее обращение к его интеллекту не только ускоряет формирование навыка чтения, но и делает его более прочным. Грамматика наилучшим образом усваивается индуктивно, из разговора и соответствующего текста для чтения, построенного на несложном вокабуляре и идиомах, взятых из повседневной речевой практики людей, язык которых изучается. Первостепенное значение имеет тренировка в понимании речи на слух (нужно отметить, что лишь очень немногие глухонемые в возрасте от двенадцати до восемнадцати лет умеют по-настоящему читать).

Отобранный материал должен иметь самое непосредственное отношение к культуре и жизни страны изучаемого языка, содержать интересные и полезные для учащегося сведения и, конечно, соответствовать уровню их знаний. Нередко стимул для изучения языка дают рассказы, содержащие повторы, и диалоги. Текст приобретает для ученика смысл, когда он может установить определенное соотношение между своим жизненным опытом и содержанием этого текста. Объем читаемого должен определяться нуждами, интересами и способностями изучающих язык. Большая часть программ чтения на иностранном языке претендует на слишком многое. Однако нельзя забывать, что качество важнее, чем количество.

Начальный этап обучения языку - самое подходящее время для формирования у учащегося правильного подхода к овладению изучаемым языком. Однако правильное отношение к чтению, ведущее к совершенному владению данным умением, вырабатывается лишь в ходе продолжительной, медленной и кропотливой работы. Интенсивное чтение - это подготовка к другим видам чтения: экстенсивному, чтению по выбору самого учащегося, чтению в каникулярное время - ему нужно уделять на занятиях особое внимание. Интенсивное чтение, протекающее под руководством учителя, настолько совершенствует умение читать текст на иностранном языке, что учащийся начинает получать от него удовольст-

вие. Учитель должен постоянно направлять чтение в классе таким образом, чтобы учащийся мог успешно продолжать интенсивную работу самостоятельно. Каждый этап урока чтения нужно тщательно планировать.

Методы проведения интенсивного чтения могут быть различными, и нет такого рецепта, который был бы пригоден для всех учеников. Но какой бы аспект работы ни выделялся на уроке в качестве главного: вокабуляр, грамматика, идиоматика, произношение, устная речь или сведения из области культуры, - конечной целью, повторяем, должно быть непосредственное понимание содержания читаемого (бесполезно ожидать, что это умение вдруг появится само собой в результате использования перевода). Ниже предлагаются некоторые рекомендации к проведению занятий по обучению чтению в классе.

1. Необходимо создать у учащихся целевую установку на чтение текста и пробудить у них интерес к его содержанию. Появление у учащихся интереса к тому, что они читают, - половина успеха всей работы. Для поддержания интереса поставьте перед учащимися цель в работе над каждым отрывком или абзацем и проверяйте, достигнута ли эта цель.

2. Слова, конструкции и фразеологию, которые встретятся учащимся в тексте, вводите заранее, до чтения текста.

3. Ознакомьте учащихся с комментариями, словарем, картами и иллюстрациями (глаголы обычно даются в неопределенной форме, существительные - в единственном числе).

4. а) задавайте на иностранном языке вопросы, ответы на которые учащиеся будут искать в тексте:

б) предложите им прочитать вслух отрывок, содержащий ответ на заданный вопрос, а затем повторите этот вопрос, с тем, чтобы получить ответ на иностранном языке.

5. Чтение учителем избранного текста или воспроизведение звукозаписи должно служить для учащихся образцом и стимулировать их интерес. Нужно дать ученикам возможность прочитать текст вслух индивидуально или по группам. Если это диалог - пусть они читают его по ролям.

6. Нужно удостовериться в том, что учащиеся понимают знакомые им слова, которые, возможно, окажется необходимым повторить.

7. Раскрывайте значение незнакомых слов при помощи жестикulyции, мимики, простых рисунков на доске или описательно. Учащиеся могут догадаться о значении новых слов, разложив их на составные части (корни и аффиксы), соотнеся их с аналогичными словами в родном или каком-либо другом известном им языке, или же просто по контексту (слово - это относительная единица языка, которая может менять свое значение, функцию, форму и место в предложении). Пусть ученики выделяют синонимы, антонимы, родственные слова. С самого первого урока нужно обращать внимание на близкое родство отдельных слов в родном

и иностранном языке. Следует также обращать внимание на отличия слов и оборотов иностранного языка от слов и оборотов родного языка.

8. Учащиеся должны повторно читать предложения, в которых встречается новое слово или оборот речи, и пытаться установить его значение.

9. Предложите ученикам подчеркивать слова, в значении которых они сомневаются, и проверять значение таких слов по словарю. Затем они должны выбирать те значения, которые лучше других подходят по контексту, и отмечать их на полях.

10. Предложите подчеркивать трудные места текста и отмечать их вертикальными линиями на полях. Если смысл фразы не вполне ясен, следует ставить на полях знак вопроса.

11. Найдите ту местность, о которой идет речь в тексте, на большой настенной карте и проиллюстрируйте рисунками реалии, связанные с культурой страны изучаемого языка. Дайте пояснения об именах собственных и о тех существительных, которые несут культурную характеристику.

12. Предложите учащимся быстро перечитать весь отрывок, чтобы у них создалось целостное впечатление о прочитанном.

13. Предложите учащимся записывать в тетради ключевые слова, идиомы и другие обороты речи, а также два-три вопроса на иностранном языке, чтобы они могли быстрее схватить общий смысл отрывка; разрешайте им самим отбирать слова для ответов.

14. В заключении предложите одному или нескольким учащимся кратко пересказать на иностранном языке рассказ или какой-либо другой текст.

15. Предложите учащимся время от времени повторять ключевые слова, идиомы и другие обороты речи, с тем, чтобы использовать их в качестве ядра активного словарного запаса.

Важным фактором в овладении языком является точность в произношении, так же как и в понимании смысла прочитанных слов. Поэтому учащиеся должны много читать вслух в классе. Однако и чтению про себя должно быть отведено место.

## И.БИЛЛОУЗ

### Чтение и изучение художественной литературы, обучение эффективному чтению

Здесь не мешает вспомнить, что понятие “эффективное чтение” означает несколько видов умения:

1. Легкое неторопливое чтение.

2. а) беглое просматривание (вспомните, как вы ищите в газете последние известия);

б) беглое просматривание с целью уяснения основного содержания главы или книги.

3. Серьезное, аналитическое (вдумчивое) чтение.

4. Рефератное чтение - чтение кратких изложений, резюме, выдержек, сообщений и т.п.

В интересах подготовки к действительно эффективному чтению всех видов учитель должен следить за тем, чтобы вначале учащиеся приступали к чтению очередного отрывка учебника только тогда, когда его материал уже достаточно хорошо усвоен: они должны научиться узнавать все новые слова на бумаге, а писать их следует начинать только тогда, когда учащиеся уже выучили их звуковую форму. На первых годах обучения чтение должно представлять собой быстрое узнавание того, что уже хорошо известно, а не медленную расшифровку кода или головоломки. Только тогда, когда учитель обнаружит, что его учащиеся заранее читают материалы учебника и становятся более смелыми в чтении дополнительных текстов, ему следует начать давать им более трудный материал, содержащий незнакомые слова и выражения. Сначала он может давать такой материал только нескольким наиболее способным учащимся и постепенно распространять эту привилегию на остальных. Благодаря тому, что теперь он ставит перед учащимися задачу овладеть разнообразными умениями, их интерес и заинтересованность повышаются.

1. **Легкое неторопливое чтение** развивается на базе чтения облегченных текстов - таких, которые иногда называют "тексты без детализации", потому что экзаменаторы не требуют детального знания их. Учитель должен стараться давать своим учащимся достаточно много легкого чтения на том лексическом материале, которым они свободно владеют, и в основном в пределах структурных моделей, усвоенных к этому времени. Такое чтение предназначено не для обеспечения усвоения учащимися нового языкового материала, а для активизации того материала, который он уже знает, с тем, чтобы он мог читать бегло и с полным пониманием.

2. **Беглое просматривание** - это полезное умение, которое стоит развивать ради него самого. Если, начиная с четвертого года обучения, по крайней мере один раз в неделю приносить в класс газеты и давать учащимся специальные упражнения в беглом просматривании, к концу курса это умение разовьется в необходимой степени.

3. **Серьезное, аналитическое и вдумчивое чтение** - такое чтение, которого требуют лучшие образцы литературы и наиболее глубокие произведения по вопросам политики, философии, религии, экономики, науки и техники, - лучше всего обеспечивается тренировкой, которая подразумевает обсуждение прочитанного отрывка.

4. **Рефератное чтение** - это тип чтения, который развивают сознательно в незначительной степени, хотя учебная работа во многом зависит от его результатов. Обычные школьные учебники по большинству предметов представляют собой краткое изложение большого числа более спе-

циальных работ, прочитанных их авторами. Желательно, чтобы не вся эта работа заранее проделывалась учителем или его союзником - автором учебника. Инициативный учитель сумеет сделать так, что отдельные группы его класса будут сами подбирать материал, аналогичный тому, из которого авторы учебников зачастую создают всем нам известный бесцветный пересказ. В результате каждый из его учеников будет иметь возможность познакомиться с первоисточниками - хотя и в ограниченном объеме, - а результаты каждого из таких знакомств пойдут на пользу остальным ученикам класса. Это гораздо более zweckmäßig (или, скажем, целенаправленно), чем искусственная подготовка для учителя резюме вне связи с какой-либо конкретной задачей.

### Практические шаги для увеличения скорости и правильности чтения

Даже на весьма ранней стадии обучения учитель может предпринимать шаги для развития у своих учеников умения читать быстро и правильно. Можно, например, сохранив старые учебники, по которым школа больше не работает, разрезать их на тексты подходящей длины (несколько страниц), напечатать на машинке вопросы для проверки понимания и приклеить к ним. Каждый раз, когда у учителя есть десять минут свободного времени, он может раздать классу комплект материалов и установить время, в пределах которого учащиеся должны прочитать текст и ответить на вопросы; так как при этом не преследуется цель проверки письменной речи, вопросы должны требовать только ответа "да" или "нет", или галочки против правильных утверждений, или написания цифр.

Другое упражнение может заключаться в том, что класс читает в течение минуты и каждый ученик карандашом отмечает то место, до которого он дошел: победитель соревнования и ученики, занявшие второе и третье места, выходят к доске и отвечают на вопросы (желательно, чтобы их задавали ученики, хуже других справившиеся с заданием) по содержанию прочитанного. Или же учащиеся должны в поисках ответа на вопросы прочитать определенные разделы в книгах либо расширенные на тетрадки учебники, о которых только что шла речь, и встать, как только они их нашли. Еще один возможный вариант: учитель пишет на доске отрывок из книги, пропуская некоторые слова; ученики должны найти этот отрывок в книге и вписать недостающие слова.

На картонных карточках можно напечатать арифметические задачи, рассчитанные на сообразительность, несложные детективные головоломки и другие задачи, которые должны решать учащиеся; каждый ученик получает такую карточку и, записав свой ответ, передает карточку соседу; тот, кто сумел правильно ответить на наибольшее количество задач, является победителем.

На раннем этапе в последние пять минут многих уроков можно успешно применять такое веселое упражнение (которое проходит в виде дружеского соревнования): выполнение мимических действий в соответствии с указаниями, записанными на карточках, которые на мгновение предъявляются учащимся, например:

*Выпей воды.*

*Попрыгай как кролик.*

*Вдень нитку в иголку и т.п.*

Можно раздать ученикам карточки с распоряжениями, которые должны быть быстро выполнены, например: “Выйди в сад, найди там узкий лист с острым кончиком и круглый гладкий камень”, а в качестве домашнего задания можно давать гораздо более сложный список распоряжений, предполагающих ведение наблюдения в городе.

## У. РИВЕРС\*

**Пусть они говорят то, что им хочется сказать!**

• В одной из программ курса иностранного языка я прочла: “После того как учащийся овладеет основными моделями и структурами, он начинает практиковаться в их употреблении, все больше и больше его контролируя, и наконец переходит к свободной речи”. Как восхитительно просто это звучит! Мы с упоением вдыхаем этот живительный воздух простоты. Учащийся каким-то образом овладевает основными “моделями и структурами”, мы даем ему возможность практиковаться под нашим строгим контролем, и вот он уже свободно говорит в любой ситуации без нашей помощи.

Совсем недалеко то время (а кажется, что с тех пор прошла целая вечность), когда абсолютно все считали, что для свободного владения языком надо учить структуры и аккуратно выполнять упражнения на их использование. Всем было ясно, чего надо добиваться, и все были убеждены, что знают, как этого добиться. Но достигалась ли цель обучения в действительности? И тогда и сейчас преподаватели постоянно слышат жалобы от учащихся: “Я не могу сказать ничего своего, того, что мне действительно хочется сказать. Я говорю, а получаются фразы из учебника”. Печальный вывод, появившийся в одном солидном издании в 1948 году, столь же справедлив и в наши дни: “Многие студенты могут принимать участие в заученных разговорах легко и без всяких усилий, но мало кто может долго говорить на тему, являющуюся лишь слабой вариацией того, что “проходилось”, а на неожиданную тему абсолютно все говорят, думая по часу и запинаясь на каждом шагу”. За четверть века

\* Wilga M. Rivers Talking Off the Tops of Their Heads. “Tesol Quarterly”.

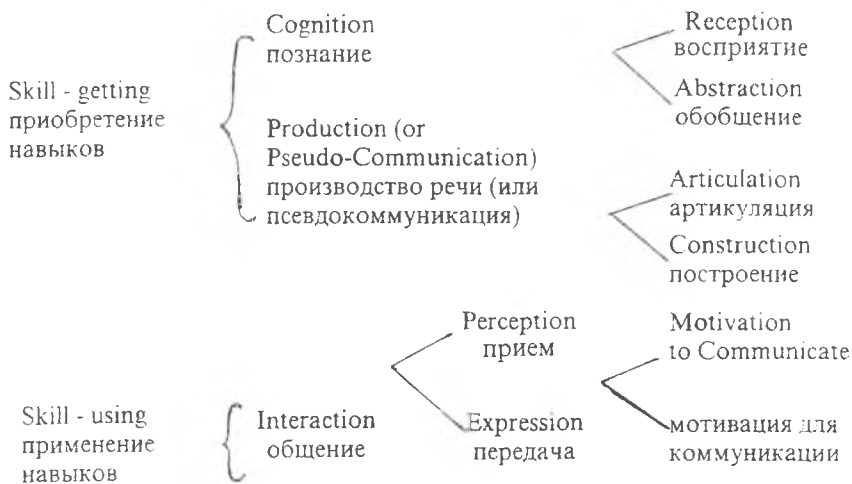
мы мало приблизились к решению самого волнующего для нас вопроса - как развивать способность общаться на иностранном языке? Мы можем интенсифицировать тренировку в классе (тренировка по моделям, тренировка на варьирование моделей, тренировка на выбор модели), но как осуществить этот "прыжок в коммуникацию"? Ребенок овладевает всеми необходимыми для плавания движениями, когда любвеобильные родители держат его крепко или отпускают чуть-чуть, но все время стоят наготове, чтобы помочь малышу, как только он почувствует неуверенность. И вдруг ребенок поплыл! Секунду назад он еще не умел плавать, а теперь - умеет! Движения те же самые, но деятельность уже принципиально иная - это психологическое различие. Но как же все-таки неумеющий плавать вдруг становится пловцом? Он становится автономным в своих движениях, в направлении этих движений, он полагается на свои силы, а не рассчитывает на чью-либо помощь. Просто он отталкивается и плывет, вот и все! Как же довести наших учащихся до такой автономной, самостоятельной деятельности в использовании языка? Ведь это центральная задача нашего обучения. И пока она не будет решена, мы будем лишь зря тратить время, разрабатывая все новые и новые изощренные методы, которые создают лингвистических уродцев, калек, у которых развита необходимая для хождения мускулатура, но которые не умеют ходить сами. "Спонтанное выражение", "раскрепощенная речь", "творческое использование языка" - терминов можно придумать сколько угодно, а заветная цель будет так же далека. И все-таки посмотрим, что мы на сегодняшний день можем сделать для достижения этой цели, вплотную подойдя к практическому решению проблемы.

Давайте начнем с того самого места, где все мы спотыкаемся. Как помочь учащемуся перейти от накапливания знаний о том, какие языковые явления и факты участвуют в коммуникации, к реальному использованию этих знаний и фактов для разнообразнейших, непредсказуемых целей, которые возникают в процессе общения одного человека с другим? Нам не нужно новых способов закладывания в головы учащихся языковых знаний - у нас позади "двадцать пять веков обучения языку". В этом громадном опыте мы можем сколько угодно рыться и выбирать то, что наиболее соответствует нашим теоретическим убеждениям и вкусам, а также особенностям этой группы учащихся, с которой мы в данный момент занимаемся. Все равно каждый учащийся на самом деле пользуется собственной стратегией, хотя нам и кажется, что все одинаково следуют нашим указаниям.

Нам как раз и нужна такая модель обучения, где бы нашлось место для этой индивидуальной стратегии в обучении коммуникации. Схему включенных в такую деятельность процессов можно представить так:

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\* Kelly Twenty-Five Centuries of Language Teaching. N.H. 1969.



Способность к коммуникации, к речевому взаимодействию предполагает наличие определенных знаний (*познание*), относящихся к восприятию отдельных единиц языка, категорий и функций, так и к усвоению правил, связывающих эти категории и функции. Я не собираюсь рассматривать здесь вопрос о том, каким образом эти знания приобретаются, а хочу лишь подчеркнуть допустимость (а возможно, и необходимость) различных подходов к достижению этих знаний. Ясно, что приобрести эти знания необходимо. В процессе получения этих знаний учащийся учится *производить* отрезки речи: он учится через действие. Каким словом это действие назвать - "упражнение", "тренировка", "деятельность", - не существенно, важно, чтобы был какой-то вид тренировки на сведение воедино получаемых знаний. Учащийся должен усвоить приемлемое произношение и умение быстро составлять из знакомых элементов осмысленные цепочки слов.

Как бы мы ни старались приблизить эти действия к ситуациям реальной жизни, они редко выходят за рамки *псевдокоммуникации* - они направляются извне, а не исходят от самого учащегося, это не есть независимая деятельность учащегося. Его высказывание может быть даже оригинальным, что касается комбинации отрезков речи, но при этом учащийся не выражает ничего, что лично для него имеет какое-либо значение, и не воспринимает никакой действительно значимой для него информации. Это просто тренировка на построение коммуникативных высказываний, и как таковая она представляет ценность. Это очень близкое приближение к реальной коммуникации, внешне весьма схожее с ней, но эта деятельность не всегда и не обязательно позволяет учащемуся показать, что он уже совершил этот самый "прыжок в коммуникацию" - добился автономии своей речевой деятельности, что имеет принципиальное

значение. В том-то и причина всех наших неудач, что мы всегда были удовлетворены, считали цель достигнутой, когда учащийся достигал уровня этой псевдокоммуникации. При этом мы всегда предполагали, что навыки, достигнутые на этом уровне, автоматически будут перенесены на реальное *общение*. Иногда мы поощряли робкие попытки осуществить спонтанное общение, но при этом учащиеся всегда чувствовали руку преподавателя или прикрепленного к группе носителя языка, который все время вызывал их на разговор и направлял беседу.

Дэвид Уолф считает, что препятствие на пути к автономности речи - это искусственность процесса обучения языку, использующего "упражнения и дриллы, которые вынуждают учащегося говорить неправду". "С точки зрения истинной языковой коммуникации, - пишет он, - такие "внешне безобидные предложения", как *Вчера я ходил в кино, Вчера вечером я ходил на стадион, В прошлом месяце я ходил на стадион*, граничат с бессмыслицей". Я не думаю, что проблема заключается в этом. Ведь можно допустить, что говорить неправду - одна из форм реальной коммуникации, но, даже если оставить этот момент в стороне, все равно предложения в упражнениях такого типа - это псевдокоммуникация, и этот факт будет лучше осознаваться учащимися, если порой эти предложения будут доведены до абсурда. В недавно изданном пособии (созданном при участии драматурга Э. Ионеско) этот абсурдный или, скажем, эксцентричный подход сознательно используется при обучении взрослых: в процессе обучения-игры учащиеся манипулируют такими предложениями: "Учитель сидит в кармане жилета часов", "Крокодил красивее, чем Мэри Джейн", "Он говорит, что его родители ростом с Эйфелеву башню". Такая игра направлена на то, чтобы заставить учащихся задуматься над смыслом того, что они говорят, а это - шаг к автономной речевой деятельности, и иной раз заведомая бессмыслица может оказаться эффективнее, чем бесцветные и с точки зрения этикета безупречные действия образцовых Дика и Джейн или Марии и Педро.

В последних работах, посвященных обучению иностранным языкам, все большее значение придается коммуникации, а также специальным упражнениям, формирующим коммуникативные навыки. В одной из своих статей я указывала на необходимость связывать эти упражнения с интересами и потребностями учащихся.

"Выполнение подобного упражнения должно включать элемент новой для учащегося, оригинальной деятельности: не только повторять в разных вариантах выученные отрезки речи, но одновременно практиковаться в их адекватном выборе, что возможно, если учащийся говорит что-то, значимое для него самого и придуманное им самим, а не слова авторов учебника... Тренировка в адекватном выборе высказывания не должна рассматриваться как специальный вид деятельности на продви-

нутых этапах обучения, а должна быть органически включена в учебную деятельность с самых первых занятий”.

“Многим упражнениям можно придать вид игры или элементарной коммуникативной ситуации, побуждая учащихся задавать преподавателю вопросы с использованием данного ключевого слова или делать замечания по поводу действия, интересов и т.п. (преподавателя или товарищей). Чем интереснее учащемуся говорить на данную тему, тем больше активности он будет проявлять в коммуникации на иностранном языке, и это первое и самое важное условие спонтанного использования языка”.

Проблема коммуникативных упражнений подробно рассмотрена Кристиной Паулстон. Она предлагает следующую классификацию: механические упражнения (*mechanical drills*), и коммуникативные упражнения (*communicative drills*). При механических упражнениях реакция учащегося контролируется настолько жестко, что ему совершенно не обязательно вникать в смысл выполняемого упражнения, чтобы дать правильный ответ (например, упражнение на подстановку или замещение элементов). Паулстон говорит, что если в предложение можно легко ввести слово, приводящее к абсурду, то это упражнение чисто механического типа. Это чистое производство речи: это либо тренировка в артикуляции, либо в построении упорядоченной цепочки слов. Подобное упражнение можно использовать на начальной стадии обучения при введении новой структуры или для отработки какой-то детали в произношении или интонации. Вот пример такого упражнения:

Образец: I'm reading a book. Я читаю книгу.

Ключевое слово: magazine журнал

Ответ: I'm reading a magazine. Я читаю журнал.

Ключевое слово: newspaper газеты

Ответ: I'm reading a newspaper. Я читаю газету.

В упражнениях с учетом значения “ответ тоже до какой-то степени контролируется (хотя вариантов правильного ответа может быть несколько), но учащийся не может выполнять упражнение, не понимая полностью значения того, что он произносит”. Пример такого упражнения:

Вопрос: When did you arrive this morning? Когда вы приехали сегодня утром?

Ответ: I arrived at nine o'clock. Я приехал в девять часов.

Вопрос: When will you leave this evening? Когда вы уезжаете сегодня вечером?

Ответ: I'll leave at six o'clock. Я уезжаю в шесть часов.

Наконец, в коммуникативных упражнениях “ответ никак не лимитируется. Учащийся совершенно свободен в выборе ответа, и критерием выбора является его собственная оценка ситуации: что ему хочется сказать”. Это очень похоже на автономную речевую деятельность, но далее Паулстон пишет: “Все-таки здесь ответ учащегося не является независимым полностью, на него влияет стимул... . Это все-таки учебное упражнение, а не свободная коммуникация, потому что мы не выходим за рамки схемы стимул-реакция”. Паулстон приводит пример: “Что вы ели на завтрак?”, где возможен стереотипный ответ: “На завтрак я съел бутерброд и выпил чашку кофе”, но возможно и не ортодоксальное: “Я проспал и вообще не завтракал, боялся опоздать на автобус”. Очевидно, что живо мыслящий, не испорченный рутинной учащийся с удовольствием перейдет к реальному общению, но опыт мне подсказывает, что большинство, испытывая неуверенность в своих знаниях иностранного языка, останутся в рамках псевдокоммуникации.

Адриан Палмер предлагает упражнения, которые он называет “коммуникативная тренировка” (Communication practice drills). “Выполняя такое упражнение, учащийся находит удовольствие в том, что он не только дает ответ, удовлетворительный в языковом отношении, но и передает какую-то информацию, существенную для него самого и для других. Этот прием представляется интересным. Палмер считает, что “наиболее эффективный прием, которым располагает преподаватель - это его умение создать речевые ситуации, настолько связанные с жизнью и интересами учащихся, что им приходится задумываться над смыслом и последствиями того, что они могут сказать в такой ситуации”. Коммуникативные упражнения Палмера построены вокруг конкретных структур, которыми необходимо овладеть. Например:

I	would tell	him	to	shut	the door
Я	сказал бы	ему	чтобы он	закрыл(-а, -и)	дверь
		her		turn on	the light
		ей	она	включил(-а, -и)	свет
		them		bring	some food
		им	они	принес(-ла, -ли)	поесть

Но развертывает он эти структуры поистине сократовским методом!

Учитель:

Karen, if you and Susan came to class at 8 a. m. and it was winter and the room was dark at 8 a. m., what would you tell Susan? Карен, если бы вы и Сьюзен пришли в класс в 8 часов утра, и была бы зима, и в комнате в 8 часов утра было бы темно, что бы вы сказали Сьюзен?

Карен (особенно не задумываясь):

I would tell her to turn on the light

Я сказала бы ей, чтобы она включила свет

Учитель:

And how about you, Paul, if you were with Mary and you wanted to read, what would you do?

А как вы, Поль, если бы вы были с Мари и вы захотели бы читать, что бы Вы сделали?

Поль:

I would tell her to turn on the light.

Я сказал бы ей, чтобы она включила свет.

Учитель (на родном языке учащихся): Неужели Вы, мужчина, будете просить девушку сделать это? (затем продолжает на изучаемом языке):

Paul, if you came alone, if I was in the room, what would you do?

Поль, если бы вы пришли один и я был бы в комнате, что бы вы сделали?

Поль:

I would tell you to turn on the light

Я сказал бы вам, чтобы вы включили свет.

Учитель:

Then I would throw you out of class.

Тогда я вышвырнул бы вас из класса.

В упражнениях этого типа Палмер продвигается в направлении истинного общения в том смысле, что учащегося, который дал механически внешне правильный ответ, но не подумал о последствиях такого ответа в "подстроенных" учителем условиях, не сажают тут же на место за ошибку. Выполняя такие коммуникативные упражнения, средние учащиеся смогут, по-видимому, производить более оригинальные ответы, чем при коммуникативной тренировке по Паулстон, потому что учитель будет все время поддразнивать их и, естественно, все желают показать, что разгадали его тактику. Такая тренировка стоит на грани истинного речевого взаимодействия, но все же не выходит за рамки псевдокоммуникации и тренировки в произведении речи, потому что постоянно направляется преподавателем и связана с его желанием тренировать учащихся в употреблении определенной структуры.

Где же выход? Мы должны с самого начала обучения разрабатывать ситуации, в которых учащийся будет предоставлен самому себе и будет использовать язык в его естественной функции - устанавливать отношения с другими людьми, получать и сообщать информацию, выражать свое отношение к чему-то, учиться что-то делать, скрывать свои намерения, находить при помощи слов выход из трудной ситуации, убеж-

дать и разубеждать своих собеседников, развлекать их, демонстрировать свои успехи и т.д. Когда я говорю, что “учащийся будет предоставлен самому себе”, это значит, что его речевая активность не направляется и не поддерживается преподавателем, он может говорить с одним или несколькими товарищами. При таком виде работы учащемуся разрешается применять любые знания иностранного языка, которые у него есть, привлекая невербальные средства (жестикуляцию, рисунки, пантомиму), чтобы выразить свою мысль, если ему “не хватает слов”. Так учащийся привыкает мобилизовывать все средства, имеющиеся в его распоряжении в данный момент обучения, бороться за то, чтобы его поняли, то есть вести себя так, как если бы он оказался один на один с носителями изучаемого языка, которые не знают ни слова на его родном языке. *Надо подчеркнуть, что подобная практика ни в коем случае не предназначена для того, чтобы заменить систематическое, тщательное обучение языку, заменить систему приемов для выработки речевых навыков, которой мы располагаем в настоящее время. Эта практика должна расширить рамки обучения и создать условия для частого и регулярного свободного общения, обеспечивая тем самым тот аспект изучения языка, который если и представлен в наших программах, то совершенно недостаточно.* Как я уже писала раньше, “умение в совершенстве выполнять упражнения по моделям, как бы эффективно оно ни выглядело внешне, никак не может считаться венцом обучения. Это бесплодная деятельность, если не приложить усилий к тому, чтобы учащийся смог развить навыки, приобретенные в этих упражнениях, и научиться самостоятельно выражать свои мысли. В 1964 году я указывала на необходимость создать “дух приключения”, который позволит учащемуся выйти из любого положения, мобилизовав все свои знания и умения. В 1968 году я писала, что на “продвинутом этапе обучения следует поощрять попытки учащихся создавать новые высказывания, по-новому комбинируя известные ему языковые элементы. Именно так повел бы себя студент в стране изучаемого языка. Он приложил бы все усилия, чтобы передать желаемое содержание, комбинируя все имеющиеся в его распоряжении средства. Чем более дерзким будет он в создании новых сочетаний элементов, тем быстрее будет он прогрессировать”. Оглядываясь назад, я понимаю, что в этих моих словах была одна ошибка - эта рекомендация не должна относиться только к продвинутому этапу обучения. Может быть, наши неудачи объясняются именно тем, что этот “дух приключения” не витал в наших занятиях с самого начала, и из-за этого учащемуся трудно перейти из безопасного “царства структур” в неизвестность, где ему придется полагаться на собственные силы, подобно тому, как маленький “без пяти минут пловец” хватается за маму или “плавает”, касаясь ногами дна.

В очень интересном исследовании Савиньон учащиеся обучались по “программе коммуникативных навыков” (1 час в неделю в дополнение к обычному курсу аудиolingвального типа). Учащимся предоставлялась

возможность "говорить по-французски в разнообразных коммуникативных ситуациях, начиная от короткого (1-2 мин.) разговора учащегося в придуманной ситуации с человеком, свободно говорящим по-французски, и кончая групповыми дискуссиями на тему, представляющую общий интерес. Упор всегда делался на то, чтобы передать желаемое содержание. Учащихся побуждали использовать любые средства, чтобы понимать и быть понятыми. Неизбежно возникавшие при этом ошибки в произношении и грамматике игнорировались, если это не влияло на смысл. Иными словами, экспериментатор и участвовавший в эксперименте человек, свободно говоривший по-французски, реагировали на то, что говорилось, а не на то, как это говорилось".

Один из учащихся так отозвался об этих занятиях: "Эти занятия научили меня говорить то, что я хочу сказать, а не книжным диалогом". Если мы сопоставим это мнение с жалобами учащихся, приведенными в начале статьи, то можно, пожалуй, сказать, что учившиеся по этой экспериментальной программе действительно говорят то, что им хочется.

Каким образом включать практику в самостоятельном иноязычном общении в программу - будет зависеть прежде всего от характера самой программы, но такая практика обязательно должна занять свое место в обучении языку, и далеко не последнее. У нас должно быть ощущение, что практика в общении - это потеря времени, когда "столько надо бы-учить"!

Если не сделать "дух приключения" с самого начала одним из постоянных компонентов отношения студента к занятиям, большая часть выученного останется лежать мертвым грузом и мы выпустим учащихся, напичканных знаниями о языке, но совершенно беспомощных в ситуациях, требующих использования этого языка. При тщательном выборе нужного вида деятельности мы можем сделать практику в общении частью каждого урока с самого начала учебного процесса, постепенно увеличивая сложность заданий.

Практику в самостоятельном речевом общении следовало бы в какой-то степени индивидуализировать, то есть должно учитываться, что у каждого учащегося свой способ овладения знаниями, своя учебная стратегия, свои интересы, а кроме того, ситуации, в которых учащиеся предпочитают учиться общению, тоже различны. Учимся нужно предложить выбор заданий (что они хотят сделать, узнать, какие проблемы им интересно разрешить, в каких ситуациях им интересно продемонстрировать свою языковую реакцию) и затем предложить самим выбрать способ, время, место и товарищей для выполнения этих заданий. Некоторые любят регулярно работать с кем-то одним, другие предпочитают систематические занятия в маленькой группе, а третьим больше нравится и этот вид занятий проводить с преподавателем. Некоторые любители одиночества предпочитают разобраться в каких-то ситуациях сами и продемонстрировать таким образом свои личные способности (между

прочим. такие "одиночки" часто перегоняют своих более "компанейских" товарищей лишь в силу большей целеустремленности).

Разумеется, нельзя просто разбить учащихся на пары или группы и приказывать им общаться на иностранном языке: необходимо создать мотивы для этого общения. По воле случая, под влиянием какой-то неожиданности или причудливого сочетания характеров в группе желание общаться может вспыхнуть само собой, но по большей части его приходится разжигать специально, предложив интересное для всех задание, и тогда разговор, сопровождающий это задание, будет автономным, подлинно человеческим общением, а не очередным вариантом псевдокоммуникации.

Деятельность, которой мы хотим добиться от учащихся, индивидуальна по природе, и поэтому речевая реакция, которую мы предлагаем, должна соответствовать личности учащегося. Некоторые люди в силу своего темперамента просто не в состоянии общаться на уровне детского лепета, и заставлять их делать это - значит толкать их назад к псевдокоммуникации, к использованию заученных фраз. Качество общения на изучаемом языке должно оцениваться при помощи других критериев - способности получать и передавать осмысленные сообщения, понимать и передавать информацию о намерениях, адекватно реагировать на ситуацию и поведение других.

Выше я уже называла несколько видов использования языка в естественном общении, которые можно применить в обучении общению. Здесь я несколько расширю этот список и подробнее остановлюсь на каждом виде общения. Преподаватель, обладающий воображением, без труда придумает множество других ситуаций.

**1. Установление и поддержание отношений с другими людьми:** как здороваться и прощаться с людьми вашего (или иного) возраста и положения, как представиться самому или представить третье лицо, как поздравить с праздником, как вежливо задать вопрос или обратиться с просьбой (здесь особое внимание должно быть уделено допустимости и распространенности определенных речевых форм в данной культуре), как распорядиться, как объяснить дорогу прохожему, извиниться, отказаться, отделаться незначительными фразами (это весьма тонкое искусство "некоммуникации"), как подбодрить, разочаровать, убедить собеседника. Учащимся может быть предоставлена возможность самим выяснить в общении с носителем изучаемого языка (или с человеком, играющим его роль), какие речевые формы будут употребляться во всех этих случаях.

**2. Получение информации** по вопросам, относительно которых у учащихся уже накоплен базовый запас слов (в некоторых случаях в этом виде общения может использоваться специальная лексика). Носитель языка или информант снова выступает в роли монолингва, или же учащиеся могут получить информацию за пределами своего учебного заве-

дения. Информация может оказаться полезной для общения типа 1. 3. 4. 8 и даже 11.

**3. Сообщение информации** о себе, своей семье, стране, о профессии или каком-то предмете, в котором учащийся чувствует себя специалистом. Это может быть информация для других учащихся, которые учатся что-то делать (4), или передача информации, полученной от кого-то другого (2). Если занятия происходят в аудитории, можно имитировать ситуации в банке, в аэропорту, таможне, мастерской или ресторане.

**4. Обучение какой-либо деятельности.** Здесь возможности безграничны. Напряжение, возникающее во время интенсивного курса, можно снять, организовав занятия, на которых учащиеся будут выполнять реальные действия (спорт, хобби, поделки, физкультурные упражнения).

**5. Выражение своего отношения.** Учащегося можно поместить в реальную или имитированную ситуацию, в которой от него требуется словесная реакция, например на телевизионную передачу, выставку картин или фотографий, или демонстрацию слайдов в кругу друзей.

**6. Умение скрывать свои намерения.** Каждому учащемуся можно дать задание, сущность которого он не должен раскрывать ни при каких обстоятельствах, но которое он должен тем не менее выполнить в определенный отрезок времени. Этот вид деятельности стимулирует целенаправленное использование языка вне аудитории, так как каждый стремится узнать задание другого.

**7. Умение при помощи слов найти выход из трудной ситуации.** Имитированная или реальная ситуация должна содержать словесные задания все повышающейся трудности, требующие от студента остроумных решений.

**8. Разрешение проблем.** Проблема может включать общение типа 2 или 4, или даже 6 или 7. Проблема, предлагаемая учащемуся, должна быть активной, то есть для ее разрешения необходимо проявить речевую активность и выяснить какие-то факты. Еще в 1954 году Кэрролл поставил вопрос о том, что аудио-оральные методы были бы более эффективными. "если бы вместо того, чтобы предлагать учащемуся заранее определенный, неизменного содержания урок, который он должен выучить, учитель создавал бы "проблемную" ситуацию, в которой учащемуся нужно найти ... словесное разрешение проблемы": таким образом учащийся достаточно рано будет поставлен перед необходимостью "учиться методом проб и ошибок общению, а не произнесению заученных образцов"

**9. Как проводить свободное время.** Учащиеся должны узнать об играх и развлечениях, типичных для иностранной культуры, и сами научиться играть в эти игры. Они должны уметь участвовать в словесных играх. Если есть специальные виды развлечений, связанные с национальными праздниками, учащиеся должны обучиться им тоже.

\* Carrol L. The Study of Language. Cambridge, 1953, p. 188.

**10. Умение общаться по телефону.** Это всегда трудно делать на иностранном языке, и этому нужно начинать обучать довольно рано. Учащийся должен уметь пользоваться телефонной книгой на иностранном языке и всегда, когда возможно, действительно звонить по телефону, узнавая о товарах, услугах и расписании транспорта. Здесь нужно привлекать людей, свободно говорящих на языке, со стороны (одинокие инвалиды и пожилые люди с удовольствием примут участие в этом виде деятельности). Этот тип общения можно связать с типами **2** и **8**, и сюда часто может включаться тип **3**.

**11. Развлечения.** Учащийся должен иметь возможность продемонстрировать свои природные таланты или выступить перед всей группой во время специальных ролевых занятий. Он может вести радио- или телевизионное интервью или викторину, или какая-то группа учащихся разыгрывает радио- или телевизионную сценку (в этом виде общения определенная часть речевой деятельности может заменяться мимикой, и поэтому его очень хорошо использовать на начальных стадиях обучения).

**12. Демонстрация своих достижений.** Учащиеся могут рассказать товарищам по группе, как они участвовали в общении типа **4**, **5**, **6**, **7** или **8**, или рассказать о какой-то своей деятельности. Этот вид работы можно сделать регулярным, как бы завершающим и сводящим воедино индивидуальные усилия учащихся.

Безусловно, не все перечисленные типы общения годятся для всех учащихся с самого начала обучения. Учитель должен сам установить, какие из этих типов и в каком порядке использовать, чтобы у учащихся появилось с самого начала желание общаться и чтобы это желание росло с ростом их знаний и возможностей. Непосильная задача, которая только раздражает учащегося и создает у него неуверенность в себе, так же тормозит движение вперед, как и отсутствие возможности применить на деле то, что учащийся знает.

Возможно, у некоторых появятся глубокие сомнения относительно приемлемости такого подхода, потому что они предвидят множество ошибок, которые внедрятся настолько, что станут неискоренимыми. Именно из-за этого многие отошли от прямого метода в поисках чего-то более систематичного, что обеспечило бы более правильное производство речи. Но, к сожалению, стремление всегда добиваться безупречной речи и упорное желание создавать такие учебные ситуации, в которых учащиеся не будут делать ошибок, завело многих учащихся в тупик. Если мы хотим осуществить тот "прыжок в коммуникацию", о котором я говорила выше, нам нужно принципиально изменить отношение к ошибкам во время тренировки в общении. Немедленное исправление ошибок следует делать во время обучения производству речи, или псевдокоммуникации. Именно тогда мы должны дать учащемуся возможность осознать потенциальные ошибки и познакомить его с допустимыми высказываниями, чтобы он мог контролировать производство речи и исправлять его в

спонтанном общении. Во время практики в общении мы стремимся развить желание создавать новое и экспериментировать с новым языковым материалом. Ничто так не снижает энтузиазм и рвение, как постоянное исправление ошибок в тот момент, когда учащийся стремится передать свои мысли весьма скромными средствами нового для него языка. От преподавателя требуется в этом случае лишь молчаливо отметить наиболее типичные и устойчивые ошибки, которые делает данный учащийся (но не оговорки и случайные ошибки в том, что учащийся вообще хорошо знает); эти ошибки следует затем обсудить с учащимся в тот момент, когда преподаватель будет помогать ему оценивать собственные достижения в общении, причем особое внимание должно быть уделено ошибкам, затрудняющим общение. Такие аналитические занятия можно проводить время от времени с использованием магнитофонных записей бесед на уроках, предлагая учащимся найти ошибки в собственной спонтанной речи и самим внести необходимые коррективы. Этот прием делает учащихся более внимательными к возможным ошибкам и наталкивает их на мысль о том, что то же содержание могло быть передано другими средствами, которых они не использовали.

Возможно, многие из перечисленных мною типов общения уже нашли свое место в курсах иностранного языка. Оригинальность описанного мною подхода заключается не в новизне самих типов общения, а в том, каким образом достигается это общение. Для того чтобы научить учащегося контролировать свою речь во время общения, мы должны иногда предоставлять ему самостоятельность, даже побуждать его освободиться от нашей зависимости. Мы должны дать учащемуся возможность научиться рассчитывать только на себя и использовать свои способности для того, чтобы с самого начала изучения языка он понял, что только в свободном и независимом общении он может научиться контролировать себя и мгновенно находить нужное решение, что так необходимо для свободного владения языком.

*(Методика преподавания иностранных языков за рубежом. Выпуск II. Составители: В.Е.Синявская и др. М. "Прогресс", 1976, с. 226-240)*

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