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THE HISTORY OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

The proliferation of approaches and methods is a prominent characteristic of the history of foreign language teaching. The establishment of new classroom practices and approaches to designing language programs and materials reflects a commitment to finding more efficient and more effective ways of teaching languages. The main aim of this paper is to provide an account of some trends in language teaching beginning with the direct method through the eclectic, the linguistic approach, the contextual, the audio-visual and the bilingual method to the conscious-practical method concentrating on teaching lexis.

Teaching vocabulary has always been a neglected field of foreign language teaching though recently more and more attention is being paid to the problems of vocabulary in foreign language teaching and a steadily growing amount of work is beginning to challenge assumptions that have relegated vocabulary teaching to a secondary position in the priorities of language teaching. Despite this, even in the popular best-selling communicative coursebooks such as the STRATEGIES series (Brian Abbs and Ingrid Freebairn, 1975-82), there is still a prevailing assumption that the lexical burden must be kept to the minimum and new lexis is still largely subordinated to structural and functional patterning in practice and production. The new lexical items are not reinforced and practised in vocabulary exercises and this overall lack of lexical emphasis continues throughout the books with the view that vocabulary will accumulate incidentally.

The main concern of this paper is to present an argument for the importance of vocabulary teaching and highlight what kind of a role vocabulary teaching has played in the history of foreign language teaching with the hope that it will help both teachers and teacher

trainees to arrive at their own judgements and decisions and integrate them in their everyday practice.

I. THE DIRECT METHOD

The direct method was introduced into modern language teaching at the end of the 19th century. It turned against the grammar translation method of teaching the Greek and Latin languages.

One of the most important principles of the direct method is the primacy of the foreign language and the exclusion of the mother tongue with the one precondition that monolingual semantizising should be used only when it is not a waste of time and is clear and unambiguous. This method teaches grammar inductively and it was this method which introduced the teaching of phonetics into foreign language teaching. An extremely important requirement is the emphasis on oral production and the texts for oral practice should meet the pupils' needs and interests and they should be taken from everyday life. As far as translation is concerned the represantatives of the direct method are divided in their views but most of them object to translation as thinking in the mother tongue is an obstacle to oral production.

As we will see later on the representatives of the other different methods adopted and refined quite a lot of the methodological principles of the direct method which can still be ragarded valid.

The founder of the direct method was Wilhelm Vietor. His main work is Der Sprachunterricht muss umkehren which was published in 1882.

A language lesson is built up by Vietor like this:

1. The pupil hears first only the phonetic form of the language while his book is closed.

2. After having read the text several times the teacher semanticizes the unknown words. Vietor recommends the combination of the following ways of conveying the meaning:

    the use of - pictures
                - objects
                - actions

These ways of semanticizing are still used in foreign language teaching.

3. Now the pupil can see the written form, too. They read the text and translate it into the mother tongue.

4. The next step is a free conversation between the teacher and the pupils on the text while the books are open.

5. After this conversation the majority of the pupils are able to tell the story while the books are closed.

6. At the end of the lesson the teacher writes the written form of the new lexical items on the blackboard and the pupils copy them into their exercise-books.

It seems, however, doubtful whether all this can be done in a single lesson and whether all the pupils will be able to tell the story at the end of the lesson. Vietor's greatest merit is that by emphasizing the priority of listening comprehension and speaking over reading and writing he preceded the oral approach.

The English representative of the direct method was Henry Sweet. It was Sweet who laid the linguistic foundation of the first scientific method in his The Practical Study of Languages which came out in 1899. The main categories of his method are:

1. selection
2. limitation
3. arrangement
4. the grading of the material

Sweet's systematic method served as a basis for Otto Jaspersen's and Harold Palmer's methodology.

Sweet sees the main difficulty of language learning not in the mastering of the phonetic and syntactic categories but in that of the vocabulary. He distinguishes between certain outer and inner difficulties. The interlinguistic difficulties can be attributed to the interferences between the mother tongue (L_1) and the target language (L_2) which are a hindrance to any thorough knowledge, because of the constant cross-associations that are sure to present themselves. (Sweet 1899: 54).

The intralinquistic difficulties arise from the interferences in the target language itself, such as logic, definiteness, simplicity, phonetic difficulties and general difficulties. Sweet realized that the difficulties are the result of false analogy in the case of learning any foreign languages and the grade of difficulties is about the same in any language.

What kind of a stand does Sweet take in mastering vocabulary? It was Sweet who introduced and worked out the principle of grading in the arrangement of the lexical material too. In teaching lexis Sweet puts a special emphasis on global reading and clear, direct and concrete associations. He completely rejects mono-linqual semanticizing as cross-associations are unavoidable by this way of conveying meaning and it can be only time consuming and confusing. He thinks that it is a fallacy that if we were only to get rid of translation in teaching a foreign language, substituting pictures or gestures, we should get rid of the cross-associations of our own language. But these cross-associations are independent of translation. They arise simply from the fact that each idea that comes into our minds instantly suggests the native expression of it, whether the words are uttered or not: and however strongly we may stamp the foreign expression on our memories, the native one will always be stronger. (Sweet 1899: 197). Sweet's main argument against explaining in the foreign language is that as long as we are learning the foreign language it is our first business to have it explained to us as clearly and unambiguously as possible. Therefore all explanations ought to be in the language we know - that is our own - not in the one we do not know. (Sweet 1899: 199). Thus Sweet gives priority to translation in conveying the meaning of lexical units. It is this very principle C. J. Dodson took over from Sweet when he worked out his bilingual method later. Sweet rejects the picture method as well which is undoubtedly very effective and useful at a beginner level. He is against pictures as a means of semanticizing as they do not lead to generalization. This point-of-view appears later in Baljaev's conscious-practical method.

Although semanticizing by pictures can be useful and successful when teaching beginners, but its effectiveness may be doubtful when our aim is to teach not only the denotative meaning but also the connotative

meanings of a lexical item, which is essential for the learner to be able to think in the foreign language.

The third most important linguist of the direct method is Otto Jaspersen whose main methodological contribution is How to Teach a Foreign Language published in English in 1904. Jaspersen shares Sweet's opinion in a lot of methodological questions, e. g. as far as the selection and grading of the material are concerned. Besides emphasizing the communicative practical aims of language teaching Jaspersen totally rejects teaching translation as a skill. On the other hand he accepts translation if it is used to semantisize a concept, an abstract thing. It must be admitted that there are many words where an English translation gives the information required more quickly and more clearly that it could be given in a long explanation in the foreign language. (Jaspersen 1909: 70/71). Jaspersen warns the teachers, however, not to use this undoubtedly comfortable way of conveying meaning too often. Jaspersen suggests the same ways of semanticizing is Vietor does, i. e. the use of pictures, objects and actions and he introduced other ways, too like

- analogy
- context
- definition

At a beginner's level, however, these latter ways of semanticizing can only be used to a limited extent because of the lack of sufficient vocabulary and the result is rather confusion than clarity.

Now let's sum up which principles of the direct method could be put into practice and would be effective in teaching foreign languages in the primary school:

1. A proper place should be given to teaching phonetics.
2. A very important requirement should be to develop the oral skills.
3. Grammar should be taught inductively.
4. We should use the principle of global reading.
5. We can just about agree with the rejection of teaching translation as a skill.

6. The principle of the exclusion of the mother tongue and the primacy of the foreign language as a means of semanticizing should be used only when it is not time consuming and not confusing.

II. THE ECLECTIC APPROACH

Harold E. Palmer

Harold E. Palmer contributed to ELT methodology and linguistics with a number of works. Now I would like to concentrate on two of his most important works to describe his methodological principles and mainly the ones referring to teaching lexis. They are as follows: The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages and The Principles of Language-Study.

Palmer does not reject the direct method, but he does not accept it completely either. As a follower of Henry Sweet he determined the linguistic basis of foreign language teaching in an exact way. Palmer describes his eclectic approach in the following way in The Principles of Language-Study:

"This attitude is fairly well designated by the term eclectic; .... it implies the deliberate choice of all things which are good, a judicious and reasoned selection of all the diverse factors the sum of which may constitute a complete and homogeneous system." (108)

A special emphasis is laid on how to teach lexis in Palmer's eclectic approach. Palmer classifies the lexical units like this:

1. Monologs - words considered merely as conventional orthographic units of vocabulary:
   dog, beautiful, go, slow, up etc.

2. Polylogs - units composed of two or more monologs in juxtaposition but functionally and semantically equal to a monolog.
   Polylogs are often called phrases, groupwords or word groups: in case, leave off, every year, etc.

3. Miologs   - are significative or functional units such as
              affixes and the more concrete inflexions: -ly, ment,
              -less, -ed, -ing, -ist, -er.
              Mono-, bi-, multi-, poly-, uni-, con , in-, ex, etc.
4. Alogism is the term we may use in order to designate those
              cases in which a given concept is expressed without
              the use of any concrete lexicological unit. Instead
              of saying tree which bears fruit we may say fruit
              tree.

Palmer calls the smallest unit of the language the ergon which can be
any of the above mentioned lexical units and sentences are formed from
these ergons. This concept appears later in the theory of kernel
sentences by Chomsky and in this way Palmer precedes generative and
transformative grammar. Palmer's principle of ergonic combination means
that beginners should learn first the basic units of the language i. e.
the primary matter imitatively by heart and from this they will be able
to build up and derive sentences i. e. the secondary matter. (Palmer
1917: 68). That is why Palmer lays great emphasis on learning by heart
which he regards the basis of all linguistic study, for every sentence
ever uttered or written by anybody has either been learnt in its entirety
or else has been composed (consciously or subconsciously) from smaller
units, each of which must at one time have been learnt by heart. (Palmer
1917: 68). For this principle i. e. creative learning at a syntactic
level Palmer developed a special methodological procedure in the form of
substitution tables.

Palmer suggests the following four ways of semanticizing:

1. By immediate association, i. e. associating the unit with that
   which is designated by it.

2. By translation, i. e. associating the unit with the equivalent
   native unit.

3. By definition, i. e. associating the unit with its definition or
   paraphrase.

4. By context, i. e. giving examples of its use

Though Palmer emphasizes the primacy of the foreign language he does not
exclude the mother tongue when semanticizing. When it is convenient to

use material association there is no reason whatever why this mode should not be given preference, but when neither the objects nor pictures representing them are available, translation is by. no means to be despised and will very often be found more 'direct' than the two other modes (Palmer 1917: 55).

Palmer knows for sure from practice that bilingual associations cannot be avoided. The tendency of the average student, more especially in the early stages, is to associate the foreign word with its native equivalent. We may, if we choose so, assure him, that this is a vicious tendency: we may go to great trouble to replace it by the three other modes. We may refuse to give him the native equivalent and forbid the use of the bilingual dictionary. But we do not and cannot prevent the student from forming bilingual association if he wishes to do so (Palmer 1917: 69). That is why Palmer disapproves of the exclusion of translation as a means of sematicizing both pedagogically and from the point of view of usefulness.

I think we can share Palmer's opinion that no hard-and-fast rules can be laid down as concerns the permissible ways of semanticizing. When conveying the meaning of a certain lexical item we cannot say that exclusively only one method can be used and we cannot totally reject any of them. Each of them has its own place and any of them can be effective and reasonable.

Palmer also points to the importance of the visual method as the most important mnemonic method in language teaching which helps to form correct associations. No doubt, especially in the primary school it is more reasonable and effective than verbal explanation.

New let me sum up Palmer's basic methodological principles in the light of teaching lexis which he laid down in The Principles of Language Study:

1. Palmer regards language learning as a habit forming process, a process during which we must acquire new habits. We may acquire proficiency in two ways: by forming new habits or by utilizing and adopting appropriate old habits (i. e. habits already aquired). By the natural or spontaneous method we learn unconsciously; we must therefore train ourselves or our students to form habits unconsciously. When

teaching lexis it can be attained by exercises aiming at the formation of the right associations between the words and their meanings, by means of rigthly formed associations. We have not acquired a word until we can produce it automatically. Automatism can be formed by repetition, but is should not be monotonous, parrot-like.

2. Accuracy means conformity with a given model or standard. The principle of accuracy requires that the student shall have no opportunities for making mistakes until he has arrived at the stage at which accurate work is reasonable to be expected. There may be accuracy and inaccuracy in meanings. The meaning of a word may vary considerably according to its context. Most English words have two or more meanings, the foreign words which are assumed to be their equivalent may also have two or more meanings, but the foreign word does not necessarily have all the meanings of the English word and vice versa.

3. Gradation means passing from the known by easy steps, each of which serves as a preparation for the next. The vocabulary in a well-graded language course will be arranged in such a manner that the more useful words will be learnt before the less useful. There are two sorts of useful words; those which are useful in themselves and words which are useful as sentence formers. In the ideally graded course the student first assimilates a relatively small but exceedingly important vocabulary; he learns to use it, he learns the most important peculiarities of each word; he learns how to combine these words in sentences; he learns the exact range of meanings covered by each word.

4. The principle of proportion does not necessarily imply equivality of treatment nor even a fixed standard of ratios; it simply means that all the items in the range of subjects and aspects must receive an appropriate degree of attention, so that the student's knowledge of them may ultimately form a harmonious whole. The principle of proportion may also be observed or violated in the selection of vocabularies. To include in early lessons words or forms which are comparatively rare, archaic and useless, while excluding some of the commonest and most useful items of language material is an offence not only against the principle of gradation but also against the principle of proportion. We have also to note a regrettable tendency to give preference in vocabularies to words

of special utility (such as names of plants, animals, parts of body, tools) and to neglect unduly words of general utility, words which may occur in any context and which are common to any subject.

5. The principle of concreteness means to teach more by examples than by pretext. The examples themselves may vary in concreteness, therefore we should select for our purpose those which demonstrate in the clearest possible way the point we are teaching and which tend to form the closest semantic association. There are four ways and four ways only of furnishing a student with the meaning of given foreign units:

by immediate association

by translation

by definition

by context

These four methods or modes of semanticizing a unit are here given in order of what are generally their relative degrees of concreteness. There may, however, be some cases in which translation will be more concrete than immediate association.

6. No work is likely to be successfully accomplished if the student is not interested in what he is doing. Habit forming work has the reputation of being dull and tedious. The true remedy is to devise a number of varied and appropriate exercises in order to make the habit forming work itself interesting.

At the end of his work Principles of Language Study Palmer summerizes again the essence of his eclectic approach which he also calls a multiple-line of approach.

"The term 'multiple-line of approach' implies that we are to proceed simultaneously from many different starting points towards one and the same end; we use each and every method, process, exercise, drill, or device which may further us in our immediate purpose and bring us nearer to our ultimate goal: we adopt every good idea and leave the door open for all future developments; we reject nothing except useless and harmful forms of work. The multiple line of approach embodies the eclectic principle, for it enjoins us to select judiciously and without prejudice all that is likely to help

us in our work.......... We adopt the best and most appropriate means towards the required end". (Palmer 1921: 141)

Palmer's eclectic approach and his substitution tables were a significant contribution to the methodolody of foreign language teaching and in the next chapter we will see how the American linguists made use of and developod his substitution tables.

III. THE LINGUISTIC APPROACH

The beginnings of the linguistic approach go back to the years of World War II. and it was popularized later by Charles Fries and Robert Lado.

One of the main characteristics of the linguistic approach is that it gives priority to modern linguistics. A special emphasis is laid on the spoken form with the aim of perfect native pronunciation. Intensive and long drills are used often at the expense of the context and the motivation of the pupils. Another main feature of the linguistic approach is that all the sentences of a language are systematic and can be reduced into patterns. Patterns are learned in childhood. Adults no longer have to learn new patterns, they learn new words that are used in old pattern (Lado 1964: 90-91).

It was Leonard Bloomfield who outlined first the linguistic approach in his Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages. As a follower of the direct method and Palmer, Bloomfield lays a special emphasis on teaching phonetics, especially phonetics contrasts. Bloomfield is convinced about the fact that the command of a language is not a matter of knowledge. The command of a language is a matter of practice. To understand the forms is only the first step. Copy the forms, read them out loud, get them by heart, and then practise them over and over again, day after day, until they become entirely natural and familiar. Language learning is overlearning: anything less is of no use (Bloomfield 1942: 12).

An other important representative of the linguistic approach is Charles Fries who gave a detailed analysis of the linguistic approach in his Teaching and Learning English as a foreign Language published in 1945.

Fries's most important contribution to language teaching is that the basis of modern language teaching should be the comparative structural analysis of the mother tongue (L_1) and the target language (L_2). Thus he places special emphasis on the mastering of structural patterns, which served as a basis for Lado's pattern drill. Only after much practice of the same patterns with diverse content do patterns themselves become productively automatic. When the student has reached this level of achievement, within a satisfactorily useful but definitely limited range of vocabulary items, he "has learned" the language (Fries 1945: 9).

The system of vocabulary is given new priority in Fries's methodology. Fries classifies vocabulary according to their frequency in the following way:

    1. structural words - these are the most frequent ones that is why
                 they should be taught relatively early

    2. syntactic morphemes

    3. content words - the biggest group in number

When teaching lexis Fries objects to bilingual semanticizing. Fries emphasizes that besides the denotative meaning of a word the connotative meanings should also be taught. In other words this means that if we have learnt or taught 'head' for 'fej' in a context, i. e. the denotative meaning, we should learn or teach its connotative meanings, too, such as 'head of a cabbage', 'head of a bed', 'head of a department'.

As we will see later this concept appears in Baljaev's conscious-practical method. This point-of-view of teaching vocabulary could be accepted psychologically and linguistically, but methodologically it would be to much to require. On the one hand, it would take the teacher a lot of time to present all the different meanings and on the other we may run the risk of losing the context.

The other reason why Fries is against the use of the mother tongue as a means of semanticizing is that no two languages will present the same analysis of the situations and as a result, the words of one language

will practically never have exact equivalents in another language. Any attempt, therefore, to approach the meanings of the words in English as a foreign language through a process of tying or relating the new word in English to a word in the native language will hinder and may even thwart the effective mastery of the new vocabulary (Fries 1945: 44).

The following two ways of teaching vocabulary are suggested by Fries:

1. substitution frames

Often substitution frames furnish a simple device for the introduction or the practice of new words. Such 'frames' are sentences of the same pattern and general context, in one part of which it is possible to substitute a variety of new words of the same class, all of them fitting the context. E. g. the answer to the question 'What is he wearing?' makes a frame in which the words for each of the articles of clothing can be used. Substituion frames also provide a way of introducing groups of words for differentiations in the same area of experience.

E. g. There was considerable moisture on his clothes from the ....
through which he was passing.

Here suitable substitutions are such words as fog, dew, cloud, rain.

The boy ... a stone through the window.

Here some substitutions are threw, tossed, hurled, handed.

2. The other exercise suggested by Fries would help to teach the connotative meanings of a word. For the problem of many diverse meanings for the same word we employ the opposite of the substitution frame. Instead of keeping the context constant and changing the word we provide a variety of contexts for the same word or vocabulary item - enough so that the distinctive features of the various situations become clear and the area of negligible variation marked out. For the word 'board' there are such varied sentences following:

He bought several half-inch-thick boards, about three feet long and four inches wide, in order to make a suitable box

A small tax increase was voted by all the boards of supervisors.

Londging is quite cheap but <u>board</u> is expensive for nearly all the food has to be brought in by wagon.

(Fries 1945: 55)

Thus the meaning should be inferred from the context. To be able to do so the pupils should have a wide range of vocabulary, that is why it seemes to me that this way of semanticizing can really only be used at an advanced level.

Robert Lado used Fries's comparative structural analysis for his pattern drill, the detailed description of which can be found in his Language Teaching - A Scientific Approach.

Lado's starting point is that patterns become habits by practice i. e. by analogy, variation and transformation. On the basis of contrastive analysis we should practise first of all the patterns which are different in the foreign language and the mother tongue, i. e. problem patterns.

A grammatical pattern is an arrangement of parts having linguistic significance beyond the sum of its parts (Lado 1964: 90). Teaching a problem pattern begins with teaching the specific structure points where a formal change in the pattern is crucial and where the student is not able to manipulate the required change (Lado 1964: 95). Lado's pattern drill reminds us formally of Palmer's substitution tables, but it is still different. Palmer meant to teach sentence formation by the principle of ergonic combination, while Lado wants a certain grammatical structure to be practised in such a way that the pupils should be able to use it automatically.

The steps of taching problem patterns are:

1. attention pointer, usually a single sentence calling the students' attention to the point at issue;

2. examples, usually minimally contrastive examples showing a pair of sentences that differ only on the point or points being made;

3. repetition by class and presentation of additional examples of the same contrast;

4. comments or generalization elicited inductively from the students and confirmed by the teacher;

5. practice with attention on the problem being taught. This is what

Lado calls oral substitution based on conscious choice.

6. Here begins the phase of unconscious learning which represents the pattern drill. The substitution is not on the problem spot.

7. Free conversation about the context.

Lado moves from the conscious towards unconscious learning in his pattern practice drill. No doubt it can be very effective in teaching grammatical structures. Lado, however, warns the teachers not to do all the teaching through it. This is not justified, since not all language learning is of the pattern type. Pattern practice fits between practice with conscious choice and free selection. The major stages of teaching a second language can be listed in order as follows:

1. mimicry-memorization

2. conscious choice

3. pattern practice

4. free selection   (Lado 1964: 112)

There are two disadvantages of Lado's pattern practice drill. On the one hand these types of exercises neglect the context, on the other the pupils may lose interest and motivation. Language is made up not just of correct linguistic habits, but it is first of all a means of communication in a certain situation. As we will see in the next chapter this is what was recognized and emphasized correctly by the contextual method.

IV. THE CONTEXTUAL METHOD

When examinining the different methods and approaches in the history of language teaching so far we can say that they are all based either on the linguistic structure of the target language or on the contrastive analysis of the foreign language and the mother tongue. These methods, however, left out of consideration the fact that a language has got not just linguistic aspects but it is actually realized in a speech act, thus language is also a psychological and a sociological act. S Pit Corder worked out his contextual method which regards language as a verbal behaviour in his English Language Teaching and Television. B. F.

Skinner's Verbal Behaviour served as a basis for Corder's contextual method.

Skinner describes verbal behaviour by the following three factors:

1. There's a stimulus which evokes a verbal operant
2. The speaker responds to this stimulus
3. This response is reinforced positively or negatively by the listener.

This process is called a context of situation or speech episode.

Corder used the following five categories of Skinner's verbal behaviour for his contextual method:

1. 'Mands'

This is a shortening of words like demand, command. They are utterances in which the stimulus is in the speaker himself. This stimulus goes back to a need of the listener. (E. g. Hey, you, give me that book. or Would you give me that book, please?). Thus mands are utterances which express wishes, requests, questions, warning, etc. In the teaching process it is mainly the teacher who gives the stimulus, e. g. Suppose you are hungry ... and the pupils give the correct verbal operant provided they are familiar with the structure and the vocabulary.

2. Echoic Behaviour

Here a verbal stimulus outside the speaker evokes a response in the speaker. The response is equivalent with the stimulus or very similar to it. In the teaching process the point-to-point echoic behaviour is used every day when we get the pupils to repeat lexical units and structures. There is, however, another form of echoic behaviour, too which is quite common in small talk:

> T: This is a nice house.
>
> It's nice.
>
> P_1: It's pretty.
>
> P_2: It's lovely.
>
> P_3: It's beautiful.

3. Textual Behaviour

Here the response is also the same or almost the same as the stimulus, but the stimulus is a text which evokes a kind of utterance in the reader. (E. g. the reader's utterances when reading the morning paper at

breakfast.) In the teaching process the teacher can give written exercises to the pupils who respond to these written stimuli verbally.

4. Intraverbal Behaviour

Here the verbal stimuli are outside the speaker and they evoke a verbal operant in him but is not equivalent to the verbal stimulus. Some verbal responses show no point-to-point correspondence with the verbal stimuli which evoke them. Such is the case when the response 'four' is made to the verbal stimulus 'two and two', or 'Paris' to 'the capital of France'. Skinner calls the behaviour controlled by such stimuli intraverbal (Skinner 1957: 71). Here the verbal operant or response does not correspond with the linguistic form of the stimulus as echoic behaviour did. These responses, however, are not creative ones, the speaker took them over from his environment. Small talk can be regarded as a lower form of intraverbal behaviour, too. The more complicated forms of intraverbal behaviour include free word associations, clauses as responses to questions and etc. Thus intraverbal behaviour is not creative or original at all, it tends to stereotypes, clichés.

This verbal behaviour can be realized in questions and answers and in role-playing of short situations in the classroom, which are used quite often and have been used for the longest time.

5. 'Tacts'

This shortening comes from the word 'contact'. Its characteristic feature is that the controlling stimulus preceding the verbal operant is outside the speaker and is generally non-verbal. Skinner distinguishes between two types of the controlling stimuli which are usually non-verbal. One of these has already been mentioned: an audience characteristically controls a large group of responses. The other is nothing less than the whole of the physical environment -- the world of things and events which a speaker is said to 'talk about'. (Skinner 1957: 81). In the classroom it is relatively difficult to create a situation which evokes this form of verbal behaviour. The teacher can give the pupils a non-verbal stimulus, e. g. pictures, slides, etc. which make them respond.

6. Autoclitic Behaviour

The term 'autoclitic' is intended to suggest behaviour which is based upon or depends upon other verbal behaviour (Skinner 1957: 315). In other

words it means that when forming sentences one part of the sentence is a kind of controlling sitmulus on the other. The motto of the exercises we could use here could be: 'I begin and you go on.....' The pupil hears one part of an utterance from the teacher (e. g. ' Can you ..... I think you ......, I hope it is ....., If you come, will you .....) and this is the stimulus which evokes the linguistic form of the other part of the utterance.

What is the methodological importance of the categories of Skinner's verbal behaviour? No doubt, that the principle of the selection of the material is the principle of frequency. The following works were written on the basis of the vocabulary frequency:

A General Service List Of English Words by M. West

A Teacher's Word Book of the 20000 Words Found Most Frequently and Widely in General Reading for Young Children and Young People by E. L. Thorndike

English Word Lists by C. C. Fries, A. A. Traver

The most important and frequent structures were collected by A. S. Hornby in his A Guide to Patterns and Usage in English and by E. L. Thorndike et al. in Invertory of English Constructions. It was S. P. Corder, however, who was the first to ask the question: Which categories of verbal behaviour are the most frequent in English? To answer this question Corder used the first five categories of Skinner's verbal behaviour and analysed a play by Galsworthy, the title of which is The Skin Game. The analysis of the play gave the following frequency values:

Mandas	33	%
Tacts	9	%
Intraverbal	50	%
Echoic	2,5	%
Textual	0,5	%

To confirm these results, however, several other plays, or films should be analysed, but it is not likely that there would be significant differences. Referring these results to language teaching we could come to the conclusion that more emphasis should be placed on the categories of mands and tacts.

On the basis of Skinner's categories of verbal behaviour and their

frequency Corder worked out the specific phases of contextualization. Corder regards language teaching as the cooperation of the three systems i. e. phonology, lexis and grammar under the primacy of a situation i. e. the context and the context of situation should be graded according to the situational difficulties and the situations should be taken from real life. No wonder that Corder emphazized the importance of television in language teaching. The forms of contextualization are as follows:

1. Actual contextualization

In Corder's view this is the ideal form of teaching when a real situation evokes speech. Actual contextualization may take place in the classroom, where it is typified by language used for ordinary classroom purposes; instructions, discipline, permissions. Or it may take place outside it, in which case it is simply the ordinary verbal behaviour of everyday life. Needless to say, actual contextualization is the most desirable type from a teaching point of view, since normal verbal behaviour is what we are trying to teach. It is, at the same time, the most difficult to produce, particularly where the language is not the language of the country in which we are teaching.

Such contextualization occurs when the learner observes native speakers using their language for ordinary everyday purposes, or when the learner uses it himself for the same reason (Corder 1960: 50).

2. Simulated contextualization

This is the second best form of teaching according to Corder where the dialogue, however, is simulated. This is the presentation of language material in a situational context which has been simulated to a greater or less extent in the classroom. Examples of this are play-reading, listening to radio plays, watching TV plays or the cinema. The name 'simulated' is used because the verbal behaviour of this type of context is not susceptible of normal stimulus and reinforcement, it is not free and purposeful: it cannot be used to influence the context itself (Corder 1960 : 50).

3. Intraverbal contextualization

Skinner's intraverbal behaviour can be practised here. Examples of such contextualization are passages read in a textbook, dialogues read by one or more learners, stories told by the teacher.

4. Systematic contextualization

Systematic contextualization is largely done by the teacher's giving examples.... The learner is by this means learning about the language as a series of systems: he is not beginning to learn 'linguistic habits' or 'verbal behaviour' (Corder 1960: 47). That is why Corder regards this type of contextualization to be the lowest level of teaching.

Corder is aware of the fact that there is a conflict between verbal behaviour on the one side and good linguistic habits on the other and is convinced that this conflict can be solved by contextualization by the means of television. The contexts, however, should be graded from the simpler to more difficult situations. According to Corder linguistically speaking, there is little or no control over the language a child receives while learning his mother tongue, on the other hand there definitely is control and gradation in the contexts in which he learns his verbal behaviour. A child learns correct verbal behaviour because the correct verbal responses are socially reinforced and the incorrect socially punished. Everybody he meets is his teacher (Corder 1960: 57). Thus as the pupil will learn the language as a process of communication in the case of the contextual method he will be able to cope with the linguistic difficulties as well. Tv offers us the opportunity of presenting all language material as fully contextualized verbal behaviour and at the same time of controlling these contexts in a way that cannot occur when a learner goes to a foreign country, and of presenting them in a more strictly controlled way than that in which the child learns his mother tongue (Corder 1960: 60).

No doubt that Corder's contextual method is just the antipode of the linguistic approach as Corder regards language as a verbal behaviour. A great advantage of his method is that it has a strong motivating effect on the learner because he feels that he can use effectively and in real situations what he has learned.

Michael West's basic concepts expounded in Learning English as Behaviour are very similar to those of Corder. West regards language as a form of 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. (West 1960: 160) I think it is a justified requirement i. e. besides words we should teach these non-verbal elements of the language as well.

West calls his method the realistic method and he says that is should be introduced as early as possible. 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. 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 (West 1960: 161).

Corder's contextual method and West's realistic method both of which regard language as a verbal behaviour served as a basis for the audio-visual method.

V. THE AUDIO-VISUAL METHOD

The common feature of the contextual method and the audio-visual method is that the context of situation is in the foreground in both of them. There are, however, also some differences between Corder's and West's method and the audio-visual method:

The audio-visual method uses picture-strips or slides to present a situation, thus television is not an integral part of this method. Here it is a series of pictures that make up a situation. Its advantage is that the presentation phase is controlled by the teacher. The picture strips are always at hand, in the books and the slides can easily be handled. Its disadvantage is that the pupil does not consider the pictures to represent total verbal behaviour and is not able to identify with the characters in the story. He is not able to put himself in the place of the characters in the same way as in the case of the television. On the one hand this can hinder motivation and on the other static pictures cannot semntisize and contextualize all that a film on TV can.

The methodological principles of the audio-visual method such as monolingual semantisizing, the oral approach, the exclusion of linguistic analysis, exclusively Stimulus-Response learning are rather dogmatic,

hard and fast and leave little freedom for the teacher. The audio-visual method attributes an extremely great importance to pictures and the representatives of this method are convinced that the combination of picture and sound will make it possible for the pupils to understand the context completely.

The importance of audio-visual aids in language teaching is beyond question. The significance of the audio-visual techniques in teaching foreign languages has been analysed by several methodologists in several works such as:

    Audio-visual Techniques in Teaching Foreign Languages

    by Theodore Huebener

    The Visual Element in Language Teaching by. S. P. Corder

The use of pictures in language teaching, however, goes back to as early as 1658, to Comenius's 'Orbis Sensualis Pictus'. The use of audio-visual aids has proved to be very effective in every method and in all types of school, especially in the primary school as these aids:

1. make the teaching process more effective, durable and interesting;

2. have a character of experience, which can be very stimulating;

3. contribute to arousing the pupils' interest so they have a motivating power;

4. as 'learning by all the senses' they can extend the pupils' knowledge and intensify what they have learnt;

5. make it possible for the pupils to learn and get more information about the country the language of which they are studying.

The audio-visual method, however, is not equivalent with audio-visual aids but it should be looked at as an integral system. The origins of the audio-visual method in this sense go back to 1945 and is the result of the team work of three methodologists, i. e. Paul Rivenc, Jean Guenot, Petar Guberina supported by the Ministry of Education in France.

The basic principles of the audio-visual method were summarized among others by Petar Guberina, the member of the team from Yugoslavia in his The Audio-Visual, Global and Structural Method.

One of the basic concepts of this method is that the four secondary skills should be taught in the following order: Hearing - Speaking Reading and - Writing so that there should be a time lag between the

spoken and written form and thus interferences can be avoided. The quickest way to learn reading and writing is through the spoken language. Language is therefore taught primarily as spoken language, and later on as spoken and written language: written language uses the elements of spoken language. At an advanced stage, the spoken language is fixed and enriched through composition writing and reading of varied texts (Guberina 1964: 2). We can agree with Guberina when he states that the oral skills should precede the visual ones but if the time lag is too long between teaching the spoken and the written form of the language, it can involve the danger of the pupils forming their own variation of the written form under the influence of the mother tongue as some children may also need visual support.

Besides emphasizing the primacy of the oral approach Guberina goes as far as stating that there is no such thing as written language. There exists only language, which can be spoken or written. Literature is an artistic form of the spoken language (Guberina 1964: 3). This statement cannot be accepted. One only has to consider the vocabulary and style of literary English to realize that written language is something that very much exists.

Another of Guerina's claims is that written work, before the acoustic ensemble of language has been mastered, and translation before the meaning has been learned from picture and sound, necessarily destroy the essence of language (Guberina 1964: 3). This may be true in some ways. When teaching beginners the written form should always be preceded by the spoken one but if this order is followed later on too, at an advanced level, the impulse to read, in the sense of reading for information will be destroyed in the pupils which is great fun especially if it is accompanied by a comprehension test.

Guberina calls his method audio-visual, global and structural. He considers that the terms 'global' and 'structural' can define the theory of teaching foreign languages, which is based on a permanent connection between a situation-context-picture and a group of words and meaning, 'globally' organised and functioning in a 'structural' manner. As the method uses audio-visual devices, it is described as 'Audio-visual, global and structural' (Guberina 1964: 3)

The most important role is played by pictures and picture strips in the method. It is pictures which should convey the meaning, the context to the pupils and help them to memorize all these. Too great an importance is, however, attributed to pictures. Guberina is convinced that the problem of semanticizing can be solved completely by pictures or picture strips combined with the tape-recorder. The problem of understanding is very important, because it is one of the stimuli for a quick brain reaction and memorization. This problem is solved by means of pictures. Each phonetic or sense-group has a corresponding picture, which is accompanied by the text on a tape of on a record (Guberina 1964: 4). It is certain that there are cases when the meaning can be easily conveyed by the combination of pictures and sound, but I wonder whether it is a succesful way of semantisizing in the case of concepts. Besides these there are cases where the association between picture and sound gives way to several interpretations.

By the exclusion of translation the audio-visual method surely aims at developing thinking in the foreign language but it is questionable whether thinking in the mother tongue can be avoided by picture stories when semantisizing. As the ambiguity of some pictures can give way to different interpretations beginners will discuss them in the mother tongue in lack of sufficient vocabulary. Besides this there is another point that should not be left out of consideration that is by merely visual semanticizing only the denotative meaning and not the connotative meanings can be presented.

The new material is presented like this as the audio-visual method does:

First a dialogue is presented as a kind of warming- up. Then comes the presentation of the new context by 15-30 pictures accompanied by the text on the tape. It has the following steps:

1. 'Look'

    The pupil looks at the pictures without listening to the tape.

2. 'Look and listen'

    He looks at the pictures while listening to the tape.

3. 'Understand'

    If a projector is used to present the pictures, certain details in

the pictures can be underlined by a light arrow to help
semantisizing.

4. 'Look, listen, speak'

The text is repeated in a 4-phase drill on the tape accompanied by
the pictures while the pupil repeats them too.

5. 'Listen and repeat'

The pictures are taken away and the pupil repeats the text in a
4-phase drill.

6. 'Speak the text and act the text'

There is a free conversation between the teacher and the pupil on
the text without the support of pictures and tape and they act out
the situation.

No doubt this kind of presentation and practice must have some
advantages, but I think that semanticizing can be more effective if we
use its other ways too besides the visual ones, such as objects,
definitions and occasionally the mother tongue. My other criticism would
be against introducing new vocabulary parallel with new grammatical
structures as the audio-visual does it. In spite of its advantages
Guberina's method seems to be a bit too dogmatic, one sided and can be
boring in the long run for language teaching in the primary school.

VI THE BILINGUAL METHOD

C. J. Dodson

The bilingual method supported by empiric experiment was expounded
by C. J. Dodson in his Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method. The
bilingual method is actually a further developed variant of the audio-
visual method in so far as pictures play an important role in the phase
of presentation and reinforcement here too.

One of the essential questions Dodson examined carrying out empiric
experiments with comparative groups was the following: Which is the
safest way to clear, unambiguous and lasting semanticizing? To answer

this question the following three possibilities were used by Dodson to teach the language content of three presented sentences:

1. Audio-visual semanticizing of the three FL (Foreign Language) sentences where the teacher also uses actions, objects and qualites to reinforce clarity of meaning.

2. The teacher gives the pupils first the MT (Mother Tongue) equivalent then shows them the corresponding pictures.

3. Here the FL sentences are associated with the MT equivalents without being supported by pictures.

The results may well be of great importance for us as the experiment involved primary and secondary school pupils as well. The pictures as a means of semanticizing did not play a satisfactory role. They caused difficulties especially for the primary school pupils as 20 % of them misinterpreted the pictures in spite of being given help by the teacher. The test showed that meaning does not develop very greatly for those children who were not capable of immediate recognition and that many of these children will never hit upon the right meaning no matter how often the picture is shown or what the teacher does to clarify the procedure (Dodson 1967: 9/10).

Another phenomenon well known by a lot of teachers was also confirmed by the experiments i. e. though some pupils were able to imitate the sentence well the meaning, however, was not quite clear to them. For most children there was a correlation between mastering the form and content. The pupils who grasped the content were better at aquiring the form too. Which experiment group has mastered both form and content the best? It was the group which was taught according to the second variant i. e. using the MT equivalent and pictures as mental support. This group proved to have the longest retention.

The second question Dodson examined was: Which is the best combination of stimuli to get the best results in imitation exercises? Four different combination of stimuli were used:

1. Combination: FL spoken word, picture an FL written form

2. Combination: FL spoken word, picture

3. Combination: FL spoken word, semanticizing in the mother tongue, picture, FL written form

4. Combination: FL spoken word, semanticizing in the mother tongue,
picture

The third combination gave the best results and proved to be the most effective one. It is clear that the mother tongue when used as a meaning conveyer before the imitation exercise commences does not have a detrimental effect on the pupil's subsequent imitation responses. On the contrary, it not only gives the pupil a greater degree of security than visual aids alone can supply (so improving his imitation performance) but also makes available a great amount of time, which the teacher can utilize to imporve the pupil's pronunciation even further (Dodson 1967: 15).

The role of the printed word supported by a series of experiment was also examined by Dodson. It is important to point out at this stage that the printed word was not used in the traditional way. On all accossions the children were made to rely on the spoken stimulus given by the teacher. For the first three or four stimuli the teacher stood away from the board so that the children's heads were turned away from the printed word. After these initial stimuli and responses the children were allowed to glance the board if they felt that this would help them (Dodson 1967: 17). With the relevant series of experiments Dodson examined among others whether more sentences could be consolidated within a certain time when the written form is given, whether the written form could also help concept learning and whether the sentences taught using the printed word would be more securely consolidated. Every series of experiment showed the positive role of the printed word.

Another series of Dodson's experiment aimed at examining when the printed word should appear in the teaching process and whether interferences could be eliminated. These experiments showed that interferences could be avoided by observing the following steps:

1. The learner hears the spoken FL stimulus 3-4 times without looking at the printed word.

2. When the teacher or another pupil repeats the spoken FL stimulus now, the learner looks at the written form .

3. While the learner imitates the sentence himself, he ignores the witten form.

4. Should he make a mistake when repeating it, he could look at the witten form.

Before expounding his biligual method supported by empiric experiments Dodson points out the essence of the two contrasting methods i. e. the indirect-grammatical and the direct-oral method in a historic restrospection. He states that all the other methods in between can be regarded only as eclectic. Dodson rejects the indirect-grammatical method as it requires too much of the pupils intellectually, but also objects to the direct-oral method as it neglects the differences between the mother tongue and the foreign language. No wonder he disapproves of the monolingual semanticizing regarding it only as a waste of time as it can cause misunderstanding. He is convinced that beginners can recognize and systemize concepts only in the system of the mother tongue. The only parallel Dodson discovers between learning a foreign language and the mother tongue and which is wise to imitate in foreign language teaching is that the young child learns his mother tongue through constant contact with people around him who speak this language; primarily he learns through his own active speaking responses. In this process he will listen to hundreds different sentences in a day, yet he will select only a few for imitation purposes while casting aside all the others as being of little use at a given time. He will select normally those sentences which are in habitual use, with which he can cope from the point of view of pattern complexity, and which he needs to express his desires and aversions. (Dodson 1967: 48/49).

Therefore Dodson approves of such a method which puts the main emphasis on frequent contacts while no time is wasted on the monolingual way of conveying the meaning. He is convinced that the more time is wasted on the direct-method procedure of meaning conveyance, the less time will be available to establish a level of direct association which is dependent on the number of active and meaningful contacts the learner is given with the foreign language sentences (Dodson 1967: 52).

Dodson's requirements of the bilingual method are as follows:

1. The new method should enable the average as well as the less
   - than - average teacher to teach the language well
2. There should be a balance between the spoken and the written

from of a word

3. It should aim at both accuracy and fluency

4. It should increase the effectiveness of teaching in the classroom

5. It should enable the teacher to control the pupil's oral responses, i. e. it should develop a very slow progression of speaking from imitating-speech through semi-creative speaking to creative speaking

6. It should make use of the positive transfer of the mother tongue

7. The use of the language laboratory and the audio-visual aids should be natural in the phase of presentation

8. The new method should guarantee that more language contacts in the foreign language will be practised by the individual pupil than before

Presentation and practice have the following steps in Dodson's method:

First a short story in pictures is presented consisting of everyday, simple situations. The pictures serve as a support of the context.

Then comes the first step of elaboration which he calls the phase of imitation. Here the teacher tells the story pointing to the corresponding pictures while the pupils look and listen. Then the teacher gives the meaning of the sentences in the mother tongue. As semanticizing takes a relatively short time in this way, there will be more time for the pupils to repeat the sentences first in chorus, then individually. The pupils are allowed to look at the text in the book or on the blackboard except when they themselves imitate the sentences. The phase of imitation should be relatively short, it should not take more than ten minutes.

Then second phase is called the phase of interpretation. Here the form learnt in the first phase should be associated with the context. The teacher points to the pictures and gives the meaning again in the mother tongue. Then he repeats the process with the sentences in the foreign language while a pupil points to the corresponding pictures. Finally individual pupils say the sentences in the foreign language and another pupil points to the corresponding pictures. Dodson regards interpretation

as an oral activity and distinguishes it from translation which is a written activity requiring totally different skills and training. This interpretation exercise is, of course, not part of either the direct or indirect method. The direct method includes translation exercises, not interpretaion work where both the teacher's stimulus and the pupil's responses are oral. The direct method rejects interpretation exercises because they involve the use of the mother tongue (Dodson 1967: 83). In a bilingual method interpretation exercise the mother tongue is used only as a cue for concept causation. When the teacher gives a mother tongue stimulus, a concept is conjured up in the learner's mind. It is this concept, not the mother tongue words, which the pupils express in foreign language terms (Dodson 1967: 91). According to Dodson, at a beginner level such concepts should be taught where there is a one-one relationship. He is convinced that to differenciate the concepts of the mother tongue from those of the foreign language $(C_1:C_2)$ is only possible by thinking in the mother tongue, otherwise the pupil doesn't become aware of any differences between C_1 and C_2. It is, in fact, this awareness of the deviations from C_1 which constitutes C_2. As a result the pupil will get a C_3 $(C_3=C_1+C_2)$ which is valid for both languages. He will then have reached the type of thinking which occurs in a bilingual-method interpretation exercise and it is only now that he can call himself a bilingual speaker (Dodson 1967: 93). Though the use of the mother tongue in the first phase of elaboration can be approved of as it may save time and makes semanticizing clearer and more unambiguous, to use it so often in the second phase can be harmful because it can be an obstacle to thinking in the foreign language.

The third phase is the phase of Substitution and Extension. It should enable the pupils to reach the level of semi-creative speaking by the modification and transformation of the first imitated FL responses. The end result of this phase is that the learner now begins to get an insight into the simple fact that language mainly consists of the stringing together of clauses, in the same manner as he was made to realize in a substitution exercise that sentences are made up of various elements which are interchangeable. Without such an insight pupils find it difficult to overcome a great fear of venturing into unknown language

situations (Dodson 1967: 110). This form of exercise suggested by Dodson was introduced by Palmer and Lado.

The fourth phase of practice is called Independent Speaking of Sentences. The pictures serve as stimuli here and the pupils say the original or modified sentences of the story which come to their mind. It is beyond doubt that the pupils will be able to produce a great number of sentences after having practised it thoroughly but while correct and creative linguistic habits are formed the context may become lost. The next step to follow here is that the pupils act out the situation. From a strictly psychological point of view, 'acting the situation' is essential if the sentences which the pupil has learnt to speak are to be properly consolidated and imprinted. It is certainly true that those who merely listen, perceive; that those who listen and speak, learn; but those who listen, speak and do, know (Dodson 1967: 115).

The next phase is called Consolidation of Question Patterns. Here the pupils learn the potential question patterns for a given context in the form of a question box. At the very beginning this question box serves as a visual support on the blackboard and by the end of the fifth phase the pupils will have learnt to form them without looking at the written form on the blackboard.

The phase of Questions and Answers is the six one where it it the pupils' turn to ask questions.

The last phase is called Normal Foreign Language Conversation. While the conversation in the sixth phase was more or less context bound, here the pupils should be able to carry a free conversation possibly in new situations. If we consider the realities of language teaching, this requirement seems a little over-optimistic.

VII. THE CONSCIOUS-PRACTICAL METHOD

The conscious-practical method is linked with the name of Beljaev who expounded the main characteristics of his method in his The Psychology of Teaching Foreign Languages published in 1963. Beljaev determines three

main phases of foreign language teaching:

1. Presentation
2. Assimilation
3. Transfer

It is just the third phase which is often neglected in foreign language teaching. If the teaching process is finished after the second phase the pupils will be deprived of the opportunity to carry out independent speculation. Consequently their reasoning powers do not develop as a result of which they do not acquire the habit of handling material in an active and creative fashion (Beljaev 1963: 13). Thus the primary aim of language teaching should not be to instill knowledge about the language but action and thinking in the foreign language.

Beljaev objects to both the grammar-translation and the direct method. He rejects the former one because it teaches us about the language and not the language itself and thus it will never lead to thinking in the language. He turns against the direct method because it cannot have lasting results as the pupils will forget what they have learnt very quickly as soon as the intensive practice is over. That is why Beljaev suggests a third method which subordinates the study of theory i. e. conscious learning to practical linguistic tasks.

This is how he determines his conscious-practical method:

"The most rational and only correct method of teaching must obviously be one which differs from the grammar-translation method by throwing more weight on the side of linguistic practice, and from the direct method by encouraging the theoretical understanding of this practice. Such a method of teaching foreign languages might be called the conscious-practical method (Beljaev 1963: 213).

What kind of a stand does Beljaev take in teaching lexis?

In principle he rejects translation as a means of semanticizing as the knowledge of a foreign language presupposes the formation of temporary nervous links and a dynamic stereotype on the level of the second signal system, and when translation is used, new temporary links are formed only in the primary signal system, which makes the practical command of a language impossible (Beljaev 1963: 38). Thus translation should be used

only when the conveying of meaning is not possible through context and it is not quite clear.

One of the key questions of Beljaev's method here is how the semantic content could be acquired. Beljaev pointed out that the concepts of L_1 are completely different from the concepts of L_2 in most cases. Beljaev is one of the few methodologists who tried to prove systematically the necessity of concept teaching. To form a new concept in L_2 it is not enough just to acquire the denotative meaning called meaning by Beljaev but its connotative meaning called sense by Beljaev shouldn't be neglected either. Only in this way could concepts be formed for L_2 in the second signal system, which will enable the pupils to think in the foreign language.

How can the formation of concepts be realized according to Beljaev?

As every concept is the generalization of single pictures Beljaev rejects visual sematisizing if only one sigle object or picture is used to convey meaning because in this way only meaning and not sense will be taught. Consequently if visual semantisizing is used every single variant of the object should be presented so that the concept expressed by the word can be imprinted. Thus the most rational method of bringing home the true sense or basic meaning of a foreign word is the extended interpretation or full explanation of the concept expressed by the word (Beljaev 1963: 161), i. e. definiton. From this point of view it would be more effective if students used not two-lanugage dictionaries but explanatory dictionaries in which the meaning of foreign words was revealed through words of the native language (Beljaev 1963: 162).

The aim of using definition as a means of semantisizing is to avoid formation of a direct link between a word of L_2 and the object. A word must be directly linked not with an object but with a concept thus the right correlation is:

a word of L_2 - concept - object

One must make sure that a foreign word directly expresses the associated concept, and is not only associated with a word in the native language. In the same way a foreign word must not be directly linked with the object denoted by it. The link between word and object must not be direct but indirect, through the intermediary of the concept corresponding to

the word and not of translation into the native language (Beljaev 1963: 111).

What kind of a relation can there be between the concepts of the mother tongue (C_1) and those of the target language (C_2)?

1/ C_1 : C_2 the relation of subordination

2/ C_1 : C_2 the relation of total correspondence

3/ C_1 : C_2 the relation of partial correspondence

4/ C_1 : C_2 the relation of mutual exclusion

The phases of concept teaching by practising and developing the four basic skills (Listening-Speaking-Reading-Writing) are as follows in Beljaev's method:

1. phase: receptive use of language

            (Listening, Reading)

2. phase: reproductive use of language

            (Speaking and Writing of habits)

3. phase: productive use of language

            (Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing of skills)

Here Beljaev cautions the teachers against using translation into the mother tongue during these three phases. True use of a language, productive as well as receptive and reproductive, is achieved without the intermediary of the native language (i. e. without translation) and is accomplished on the basis of a direct link between foreign words and the concepts which are expressed exclusively by these foreign words, and not at all by forming a link with concepts expressed in words of the native language (Beljaev 1963: 193). When the semantics of foreign words are conveyed by translation, the necessary second-signal complexes of nervous links are not formed, as a result of which a pupil cannot learn to think in a foreign language and to use foreign words correctly. The basic function of the second signal system is said to be its generalizing activity. For this reason it is considered to be the psychological basis of thinking in concepts and opinions. And since this thinking takes shape only through words and is expressed in words, i. e. is always connected with words. But before a word is linked with a concept it excites only the first signal system. The result is that the linguistic dynamic stereotype is characterized by inter-signal and the first signal links,

as well as by second signal links (Beljaev 1963: 198).

Beljaev describes the function correlation between the first and the second signal system as the process of encoding or decoding behaviour. When the hearing of a word evokes an image of a corresponding object, nervous stimulation moves from the first signal verbal complex, first to the second signal complex (as we understand the word) and then to the first signal complex associated with an object (as we imagine an object after understanding the word). And, conversely, on naming an apprehended object we include it within the range of a corresponding concept, i. e. nervous excitement goes in the opposite direction, once more passing through the second signal system (Beljaev 1963: 200).

Beljaev, however, admits that not all pupils will have the same results with his method. There will be some who will be better at the receptive use of language, while others will be better as far as productive skills are concerned. There will be a third goup of pupils who will be much more interested in the study of theory and a fourth group who will have aquired the practical habits and skills better.

As far as teaching lexis is concerned Beljaev's conscious-pratical method is partly acceptable, partly too much of a requirement. While I can just about agree with Beljaev when he emphasizes that besides the denotative meaning the connotative meanings of a foreign word should also be taught with the one precondition that the principle of gradation should be observed, but it does not seem to me acceptable to over-estimate the importance of definiton as a means of semantisizing to such an extent and to neglect visual and direct association especially at a beginner's level. Mono-lingual semantisizing, however, may well be of great importance to teach the pupils to think in the foreign language but it should be used only if it is not time consuming and occasionaly the mother tongue could be perhaps more reasonable.

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