

THE METHODS OF
TEACHING RUSSIAN AT NON-RUSSIAN
SCHOOLS OF USSR AND SATELLITE
COUNTRIES

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CURRICULUM STUDIORUM

Harald Emil Sigurd was born January 30, 1907, in Pskov, Russia. He received his Bachelor of Commerce degree from the University of Tartu, Estonia, in 1940.

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INTRODUCTION

The fact that there is a branch of the didactic science dealing specifically with the methods of teaching Russian language is not generally recognized. In recent years even a certain skepticism has been noticeable among Russian linguists. S. Barkhudarev complains that some of them would refuse to accept the methodology as a full-fledged science.¹

This is a paradox in view of the long list of distinguished names connected with the development of this discipline through 100 years and more. Buslaev, Sreznevsky, Fortunatov, Shakhmatov, Ushakov, Shcherba certainly were linguists of great renown, and such methodologists as Ushinsky, Sheremetevsky, Alferov, Poshkovsky, Gvozdev, Abakumov, Tekuchev, Paley and many others have been serving the cause of the Russian language in a manner that hardly may be called scientifically insufficient.

The methodology of Russian is the theory of the educational teaching of the Russian language, and it occupies itself with the questions what and how to teach.

What should be taught, is a rather complex question. It can only be answered in relation to the age, cultural and educational background of students, and to the historical situation of the society.

How to teach, can be found out through the application of general didactical principles, the characteristics of the subject under consideration, and the psychological and environmental factors peculiar to the case. When looking for an answer to this question, the methodology uses

¹ S.G. Barkhudarev, O sostoyanii metodiki prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka, "Russky yazyk v shkole", 1959, No.4, p.40.

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the experience of active teachers. In this respect it is a strictly professional discipline of little attraction to the outsider.

At the present time the methods of teaching Russian, and the methods themselves, are under exceptional strain. In the Soviet Union it is the school reform, the new psychological approach towards education that has to be taught both to the students and their parents,-- in the satellite countries, manifold political and psychological problems peculiar to the local conditions, and in the West, similarly multifarious considerations, depending on the country, its culture and political alignment.

Are there any regularities common to every school of thought represented in the argument? There are. No doubt, by far not all the regularities, even among the fundamental ones, have found a successful formulation, but a great number of them have become sufficiently distinct, even have acquired axiomatic status, for instance:

- A correctly organized study of grammar is conducive to the development of logical thought;
- The closer the teaching of language and literature are to each other, the better the progress;
- The higher the educational standard, the better the spelling;
- The better the knowledge of real life, the more expressive the speech;
- There are no generally preferred methods of teaching spelling;
- The memorability of rules depends on the application of widely variant techniques;
- Methodical principles are not part of linguistic knowledge; they are based on psychological and didactical laws.

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The methods of teaching languages use a terminology of their own, some of which will unavoidably have to be used in the present paper. It is not complicated; much of it is known from any modern grammar (e.g. such terms as "dictation", "grammatical and orthographical analysis"); certain terms, like "the law of textual consistency", may require elucidation.

Methodology as a science differs from many other disciplines in so far as it allows for variability, i.e. several methods leading to the same result. This lies in the nature of application under varying circumstances (attention, state of saturation, exhaustion, previous experience, amount of knowledge), and in the large number of means available. Every method is evaluated on the strength of its

- a) applicability to a certain linguistic phenomenon;
- b) suitability to the psyche and the ability of students;
- c) conformity with didactical principles (perceptibility, exactness, etc.);
- d) measurable efficiency.

It seems that the dissatisfaction with the contemporary methods which has been expressed by no one more vociferously than by the methodologists themselves is but a sign of natural development, and a positive sign for that: the more definitely a scientific discipline becomes conscious of its status, the more demanding it becomes, the wider it sets its aims, the horizons grow more distant, the reaches less easily attainable. There are many reasons to assume that the time of great new developments in Russian methodology has arrived.

CHAPTER I

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1. MAKING THE BOND STRONGER

The number of various languages spoken in the Soviet Union is over 100². Some of them are the official languages of the 16 constituent republics; others enjoy a recognized status in various autonomous territories. However, the over-all state language is Russian, and besides, in every autonomous region there are Russian ethnic groups and schools in which the language of instruction is Russian. As the main instrument of the integration of all Soviet citizens in the Union, Russian studies are an important part of the Soviet educational system.

Their significance has been re-assessed in connection with the present seven-year plan of economic and cultural development. Towards the end of 1958 the Central Committee and the Council of Ministers of the USSR proclaimed, through N.S.Khrushchev, their theses on the "Strengthening the Bond Between School and Life, and Further Development of the Educational System of the USSR", laying down the following principles for a general school reform:

(2)... The public education must be so re-organized that the Soviet intermediate and secondary school would assume a more active part in the creative life of the nation...

² In 1935, books were being published in 104 languages.- Vs.Ivanov, Polozheniye pisat'el'a v SSSR, Collected Works, Moscow, Goslit, 1960, v.VIII, p.236.

(5) ... Man's harmonious development is unthinkable without physical work which is creative and joyful, body-building and enhancing all vital functions...

(9) The XX CPSU Congress pointed out that a certain disengagement of our education from life, and insufficient preparation of graduates for practical tasks have constituted a serious shortcoming of our schools. "In order to make the bond between our school and life stronger", the Central Committee report said, "it is not only necessary to introduce instruction in a number of new subjects which would lay foundations for technical and productional skills, but also systematically integrate the students in the work in industry, kolkhozes and sovkhoses³, experimental institutions and school workshops. The intermediate school programme must be changed towards greater productive specialization, so that young men and girls graduating from the 10-year school would be in possession of a good general education enabling them to continue on a higher level, and at the same time be well prepared for practical work, for a large section of them will immediately enter the one or the other branch of our national economy."

(12) The first stage of this intermediate education has to be a compulsory eight-year school, as a replacement for the present seven-year school... Having gone through the eight-year school, all young people will join the socially useful work in industry, agriculture, etc. In this way a variety of conditions will be created for our young citizens which will be of great value in educating them in accordance with our established traditions.

(13) Young people will complete their intermediate education with the second stage. By combining the intermediate schooling and the productive work it can be done as follows:

The first, and basic, way: Having started working, upon their graduation from the eight-year school, young people acquire their occupational skill, then, still working, enlist in a young workers' school - separate for industrial and agricultural personnel. This school will complete the intermediate education and contribute to the improvement of the worker's professional qualification.

The second way envisages the further education of those who have been through the eight-year school at the intermediate general trade school with practical training...

The third way is that through a technical collegiate (tekhnikum) where students will receive complete intermediate education, specialize in some field, and acquire a medium specialist certificate.

(16) The best conditions for teaching and educating young people in the spirit of true communism will be found in boarding schools. These can cover the initial (8-year) and the secondary (11-year) curriculums. They will be our model schools...

³ It will be remembered that a kolkhoz is a collective (co-operative farm, whilst a sovkhos is a state-owned farm.

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(19) The language of instruction is the student's native tongue. Parents will be given the choice of the languages in which they want their children taught. If a child goes to a school where the curriculum is taught in the language of one of the federal or autonomous republics, the child will have the option of also studying Russian. And vice versa, in Russian schools the local ethnic language will be taught if desired. Naturally there must be enough students to make up a complete class for any of such arrangements. Where local conditions make the teaching of a foreign language difficult, it will be permitted to drop such a language from the programme.

(24) The development of the scientific basis of instruction (syllabus, programmes, textbooks), the improvement of teaching methods, should be pursued with due concentration on these important points.

(25) The switch from the 7-year programme to the compulsory 8 years, and also the introduction of the different types of school on the secondary level, will start 1959/60 and be carried out in the next 4-5 years.

(41) The educational and scholastic change-over imposes increased demands on teachers, foremen and technical instructors. Teachers, in particular, must acquire new skills in their methods. Their working and living conditions must be improved correspondingly. A system of certifying teachers with incomplete qualifications must be introduced.

Paragraph 19 thus appears as the fundamental ruling on which the teaching of Russian to Non-Russians in the Soviet Union is based, and paragraphs 24 and 25 show the way in which the work must proceed. It did not take the Russian teachers long to start a lively discussion on the theories and practices of their work, and, far from being short of material, the administrative offices found themselves hampered by a flood of suggestions and criticism. Starting on the local level and going through higher institutions, these polemics converged in the All-Union Academy of Pedagogical Sciences, and were fully reflected in its bi-monthly publication "Russky yazyk v natsional'noy shkole" (The Russian Language in the Ethnic School).

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The purpose of the present survey is to gain insight into the dilemma the Soviet Union is trying to solve, and to learn the ways and means which have been suggested to teach Russian to non-Russians

a) in the Soviet Union

b) in the allied countries of the Soviet Union.

2. BEFORE THE SCHOOL REFORM.

Before the present situation will be examined, a look at the conditions prevailing on the eve of the reform, and found insufficient, will help to understand the problem.

There were 3 divisions of pre-college education: the Elementary (grades I-IV), the Junior (or Incomplete) Secondary (grades V-VII), and the Senior Secondary (grades VIII-IX). The programme of Russian in non-Russian schools intended, on the elementary level, to supply the student with a vocabulary for understanding colloquial speech; to provide adequate means of expression in every-day situations; to teach the basics of reading and writing. Ordinarily, the instruction in Russian started in grade III, so that the elementary studies lasted 2 years.

The 7-year Junior Secondary (or Intermediate) School was supposed to enable the student to express himself correctly and fluently both orally and in writing, to know how to use books, and to have the basic grammatical notions and some knowledge of Russian literature.

The Senior Secondary School would give a more complete knowledge of Russian grammar; the skills of free reading and understanding fiction and basic science; the ability to summarize the contents orally and in writing, and to express one's own ideas correctly.

The High School grades X-XI would develop these skills still further. Generally speaking, graduates from non-Russian high schools were expected to be able to continue their education at any Russian college or university.

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3. COMMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

A. CHINNOVA'S FUNDAMENTALS.

The criticism voiced in respect of any of these schooling stages will be dealt separately, but before the first of them may be intelligently discussed, one should become acquainted with the fundamental theses brought forward by V.Chinnova: "The Textbook Needed by Our School" ⁴. In many ways it has become the standard approach, and many later critics have felt compelled to take an attitude for or against m-me Chinnova.

She points out that any textbook is not only a major educational factor which forms the student's studying habits and contributes to the integration of young people into society, but also is the fundamental methodical aid for the teacher. She recalls N.K.Krupskaya's words that a textbook represents at the same time the material, the didactic part, and the teaching methods. Active teachers, linguists and methodologists should therefore participate in its construction.

The government wants more practical knowledge. But what is this practical knowledge? Is it the ability to get by in every-day situations? By far not that alone. In the Soviet Union it is the use of Russian "in all spheres of human activity".

The very universality of this goal makes a continuous interrelationship of grammar, speech and literature an imperative necessity. The old textbooks have not been able to solve this problem; the future ones will have to do it. Everything needed in any school year must be contained in one comprehensive volume, though clearly divided in two parts:

⁴ V.Chinnova, Kakoy uchebnik nuzhen shkol'e, "Russky yazyk v natsional'noy shkole", Moscow, APN, 1960, No.1, p.30-39.

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The first to comprise the required material of vocabulary, grammar, speech skills, reading and writing. It might be called thelexice-grammatical reader.

The second - a reader in literature. It could contain such pieces of fiction as do not readily lend themselves to the inclusion in any lexical or grammatical section, but of course only truly digestible material should be chosen.

The question will have to be decided, what should be the basic consideration: the lingual system (phonetics, grammar) or the text, as the starting point of the studies. From experience we know that either one, and also intelligent compromises between the two approaches, may lead to very good results.

N.Chinnova's personal opinion is that the elementary school should be taught on the textual basis, but from grade V on a gradual slide off towards the linguistic elements should be introduced. The rationalization in this field consists in the qualitative selection and distribution of the material, the grading by difficulty, the checking for suitability for retention and repetition. "Keep the textbook free of everything superfluous" (N.Krupskaya). Examine every word for its frequency in use, social importance, grammatical value and word-building potential. Proceed from the concrete to the abstract; take a clear stand on the distribution of vocabulary from year to year, term to term, lesson to lesson. Avoid giving more than 5 or 6 new words per lesson in the elementary school, 7 to 10 in the secondary school. Selection plus distribution give us the required

word minimum. Clearly separate the active and the passive vocabularies. Avoid repeating the grammar rules already known to the students from their own language. Spend more time on the aspects which are ^{to} notoriously difficult for non-Russians, e.g. the genitive case of nouns. Remember that even the most complete knowledge of grammar does not enable a student to talk. For that purpose he must go through numerous exercises, all kinds of them, the analytical leading to constructive ones.

Analytical exercises consist in recognizing and classifying grammatical forms; finding questions, etc.

Transitory exercises are equally based on the grammatical analysis. They demand a certain amount of creative work: using and changing forms, inserting missing forms, etc.

Constructive exercises could mean inverting sentences, answering questions, recounting, translating into Russian, etc.

The exercises must completely cover the grammar part.

Wall charts are of the greatest value. They sum up grammar and spelling rules, and give such groupings as

Nouns used in the singular (or in the plural) only;

Masculine nouns in -b (m'agħkŷ znak);

Verbs with a changing base in the present tense, etc.

The introduction of the linguistic principle in grade V means that every section in the first part of the book must consist of:

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- a. Rules of grammar (contrasted, if necessary, with the mother language);
- b. Reading texts;
- c. Sectional dictionary (or, still better, general dictionary at the end of the book);
- d. Active dictionary in a casing (or otherwise clearly set off);
- e. Lexical and grammar exercises related to the reading text;
- f. Grammar exercises detached from the text.

All this refers to the textbook. The actual class work does not have to adhere to the same rigid system.

The creation of such textbooks is admittedly a complicated and laborious job. It will be best carried out in institutes of pedagogical research by groups of authors supported by sufficient staffs of assistants. The co-operation of experienced teachers must be secured. If any books will be compiled outside the research centres, the results of the collective work must be tried out in experimental classes, and later re-edited.

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B. OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS FOR GRADES I-IV

The arrangement of the elementary school in 4 grades is not criticised and apparently is not going to be changed. More and more schools, though, are beginning to teach Russian in grade II instead of III. This adds one extra year, and if the instruction begins in grade I, as it does in some schools, two extra years are put in. The first year of Russian (grade II or III) is necessarily an oral course, and the book used, logically, should be a picture dictionary. The one compiled by Chekhov, Robinson and Khakimov⁵ seems to meet the requirements - painlessly teaching basic vocabulary to beginners. It contains 775 words. The second part of the same book, written by Chekhov alone⁶, should be used as an aid for instruction in reading and writing along with the main purpose of teaching the spoken Russian. Simple sentences can be built and diversified with its help. It brings 182 new words, a few of them somewhat far-fetched, like "ugoshchat's'a, beskozyrka, gl'ad'et's'a". As the vocabulary, by the time the students get through grade IV, is generally supposed to amount to approximately 2000 words, it means that about 1000 necessary words will not be found in the picture dictionary.

a. Gadel'shin⁷ advocates separate books for each of the elementary school grades. Beginning with grade II, writing exercises, divided in two groups, should be included. The first group would be for average students,

⁵ N.B.Chekhov, M.F.Robinson, Kh.G.Khakimov, Kartiny slovar' russkogo yazyka, Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1959, part I - 63 p.

⁶ N.B.Chekhov, Kartiny slovar' russkogo yazyka, Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1959, part II - 67 p.

⁷ K.Gadel'shin, Natsional'nym shkolam - soderzhatel'nyye uchebniki, NatSh, 1960, No. 2

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the other for those who are able to surpass the average level. Grades I-II, and the grammars for grades III-IV, should deal exclusively with typical grammatical formations and not go beyond the required active minimum, but the reading texts for grades III-IV may also include some passive material (combinations of words and sentences) which cannot be expected to be used by the students straight away, but should be understood by them. Cautious inclusion of adapted texts is advisable.

Grade I starts learning the alphabet. Consequently, the textbook should have its material divided in two parts: alphabet and post-alphabet periods. The alphabet part should deal with letters in separate paragraphs, one at a time, and only as exception with more than one letter in a paragraph. Every paragraph must include illustrations and material for copying (words and sentences up to 3 words). By the end of the alphabet period exercises for retaining the vocabulary and the grammar rules will be added. The post-alphabet part of grade I and the entire textbook for grade II must be subdivided into sections corresponding to the lexical themes demanded by the programme, and the sections into paragraphs containing the material for 1-2 lessons: typical formations, translations, mixed sentences with old and new words, phonetics, standard expressions. Every page must have its separate dictionary. There is no need to separate the material of the first 2 years in reading, writing and grammar sections because all the activities will be combined.

Different is the situation in grades III-IV. Here separate lessons for grammar, writing, and explanatory reading will be a general rule.

Therefore, the first part of the textbook in each grade will have to be subdivided into grammar sections, and the sections themselves into paragraphs on specific points of grammar, phonetics, spelling and punctuation. Each paragraph covers 2-3 lessons.

The paragraphs on grammar would include: Russian grammar terms translated into the students' mother tongue, paradigms (with translations if necessary), short morphological explanations, charts, exercises.

The paragraphs on pronunciation and spelling would consist of short rules, illustrative examples, exercises.

The second part of such a textbook would divide the material for reading and speech exercises according to the large themes: native countryside, life at school, village, city, work and recreation, friendship of peoples, etc. Every topic would be treated in several short stories and poems. And again there would be numerous notes, questions and exercises for the active learning, and translations of words and grammar forms for the passive comprehension.

From this is seen that the author visualises the readers III and IV as closely resembling "Rodnaya rech II", long established as the standard reader for grade II of proper Russian schools.

b. V.Chist'akov⁸ places his recommendations on a foundation of some theoretical considerations. The main difficulty of writing a good

⁸ V.Chist'akov, O sisteme uchebnikov po russkomu yazyku dl'a natsional'noy shkoly, NatSh, 1961, No.3, p.37-46.

textbook consists, for him, in the indissoluble interplay of linguistics, pedagogy, children's psychology, methodics, and some other branches of science the demands of which should be met. They could be approached either by the method of complex (concurrent and combined) instruction or the method of differentiation. The complex method has been applied and has failed in so far as the practical skills of speech are concerned, says Chist'akov.

We have to make a clear cut between the idea of a textbook and that of a programme, he continues. A textbook should maintain its value over a lengthy period, say 50 years; a programme is intended to meet but ever-changing demands. If a discrepancy be allowed, the textbook should err on the excess of material offered rather than be short of it. At the present moment the textbooks are lacking in much of the matter desired, and in order to meet the programme requirements, the students have to acquire their knowledge (more correctly, their command of spoken Russian) from sources above and beyond the textbook. Probably the ideal of including everything pertinent in one textbook will never be realized, but what we can do, is - turn out satisfactory and reasonably complete sets of textbooks, manuals and teaching aids.

The elementary school therefore needs:

1. A conversation manual for the pre-alphabet period;
2. A spelling book;
3. A manual on Russian speech and writing; separate books for grades II, III, IV;
4. Separate readers for grades II, III, IV;
5. Grammar book for grades III-IV (in one volume).

1 and 2 should be re-designed for every nationality.

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Teaching aids (optional):

- a. Pictures for conversation;
- b. Questionnaires or conversation manuals;
- c. Charts (speech, spelling), to use with sentence-building exercises;
- d. Mini-dictionary (Russian - native language).

This theory has found many followers in the West, particularly in Great Britain.

c. A.Valitov⁹ points out that, although the teaching programme has been repeatedly revised and changed in the last ten years, the teaching methods have remained virtually unchanged. At the same time the overall conditions in schools of ethnic minorities have changed radically. One of the new problems is the reciprocity of the Russian and mother languages. The Berlitz method of oral teaching, which is the basis of the pre-literate course, works on the utterly wrong presumption that a second language can be taught at school in the same natural manner as the child learns its mother tongue. It

1. wants to stress the value of the oral function, thus disrupting the connection with the written language;
2. pays not enough attention to reading and writing;
3. ignores the student's native language;
4. undervalues the part of the theoretical knowledge.

This mainly phonetic method was declared in the thirties as superceded by an improved phono-orthographical course which consists in an alternation of oral, reading and writing practices. This course has diminished the

⁹ A.Valitov, Ob ispol'zovanii rodnogo yazyka na pervom etape obucheniya, NatSh, 1961, No.3, p.32-36.

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divergency of spoken and written language, the divergency which has caused a good amount of illiteracy among students. Nevertheless many die-hardes still consider an oral pre-alphabet course a must, inspite the fact that by the time the students start it in Russian they usually have had their introduction to the world of letters in their own language and could easily dispense with preliminaries of that kind. Valitov says that in a number of Tartar schools he and his colleagues have been carrying on for 10 years with an experimental course in Russian which completely eliminated the introductory oral part, and the results have been very good. How do they do it?

They teach Russian relying on the properly taught mother tongue. When the students enter the Russian course, they already have done much reading and writing in Tartar, and consequently are in possession of certain analytical and synthetical skills which help them along in Russian. The process of assimilation is in both languages mechanically the same. Of course the oral practice is not neglected; it is a part of the reading course. About one-fourth or one-third of the time is spent talking. Pronunciation is carefully corrected.

Thus A.Valitov is in direct contradiction with K.Gadel'shin, and yet both of them may be right. As it turns out, almost any teaching method properly applied may show good results - if the teacher is good and knows what he is doing.

d. The Estonian pedagogue E.Janverk says about the general principles that should be applied to an elementary course of Russian¹⁰:

The special aspect of teaching Russian to non-Russians is that the teacher tries to convey not a system of knowledge but a system of acquired skills. Theory preserves its meaning for the teacher, but the student is only concerned about the practical mastery of the new subject. Up to now reading (and translating) used to go hand in hand with learning the grammar. As a result, the student usually did not talk Russian. It can be easily explained psychologically: we read somebody else's thoughts, and in order to understand them we translate them into our own language. We continue thinking in our own tongue. When confronted with the necessity to talk the foreign language, we are not prepared to think and to express our thoughts in it. The processes of reading and talking are basically opposed to each other. In order to develop our skill of speech we must undergo special training.

While reading does not noticeably improve our speech, the ability to speak a language certainly makes reading it much easier. Reading, in its turn, helps to acquire habits of writing. We can therefore say that speaking is fundamental for learning reading and writing as secondary skills.

Teaching students to talk Russian means teaching them to think in Russian. An instrument enabling the teacher to reach this goal is the

¹⁰ E.Janverk, O printsipakh postroyeniya nachal'nogo kursa russkogo yazyka v natsional'noy shkole, NatSh, 1960, No.6, p.26-31.

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Russian language itself. The teacher must attempt not to speak anything but Russian in class, and prod the students by asking questions which they must answer in Russian. This conversational method is by far superior to any other. Start by letting the students repeat your words and short sentences. Then let them name surrounding objects and objects in pictures. Then teach them answers to simple questions, and so on.

Methodologists should design a system of questions to be asked by the teacher. The whole class should participate in conversation, but the groups should not be larger than 25. A somewhat advanced skill would be required of a student to tell a story seen in pictures or read before. Learning poetry by heart is certainly useful, but should not be overrated. Games involving the use of new words can be highly instructive. Less dependency on textbooks is recommended.

E.Janverk's observation that initial concentration on reading a foreign language impedes oral expression in it, is undoubtedly correct. Presumably most teachers will agree with this conclusion, yet at the same time, for various reasons, they will be reluctant to apply the inferences to their own teaching practice, the main reason being that following a textbook is less demanding.

E.Janverk follows up with a second article which examines the required structure of the course and the textbook in the first year¹.

11 O postroyenii kursa i uchebnika pervogo goda obucheniya russkomu yazyku v natsional'noy shkole, NatSh, 1961, No.5, p.34-43.

Here he recommends the retention of the already widely adopted pre-spelling course and spreading it over a longer period, but after a month or so spelling exercises should be taken up concurrently. Writing would be the second supplementary activity. These three stages should find a reflection in the book.

As far as possible the point of departure is not a single word, but a sentence, not the morphology but the syntax. Phonetics should always remain in the centre of attention¹².

Selection of grammatical material calls for a clearly defined programme. The principle of frequency in use should be supreme. The author supports his recommendations by a number of well-chosen pattern-sentences.

e. N.Kvitinsky¹³ recommends the following arrangements for grade IV. He would like to have a textbook in 2 volumes: I - practical grammar, II - texts for reading and speech development. Both parts would have in common

- a) their approach to the fulfillment of the programme;
- b) the vocabulary;
- c) the distribution of grammar.

The latter should not omit sectional dictionaries in addition to the general dictionary attached to part II. The reading texts would include the compulsory reading in class and the additional reading to be done at will at school or in some instances at home. It is worth noting that the

12 Those who know about the enormous difficulties the Estonians find when trying to get rid of their accent will fully understand this stress on phonetics.

13 N.Kvitinsky. Ob uchebnike russkogo yazyka dlya IV klassa, NatSh, 1960, No.5, p.43-48.

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author gives a specified table of contents:

Part I: Review of sounds and letters. Stressing, syllables.
Base and suffix. Noun. Verb. Adjective. Numeral. Sentence.

- Exercises: 1. Reading and pronunciation.
2. Contrastive pronunciation.
3. Building new sentences.
4. Answering morphological questions.
5. Insertion of missing words.
6. Extension of sentences.
7. Building analogical sentences.
8. Translation into Russian (to check complete understanding).
9. Co-ordination of words in a sentence.
10. Building sentences from a word list.
11. Completion of unfinished words.

Part II: In view of the possibility that from grade V on some general subjects would be taught in Russian, preparatory texts for later studies in history, natural science and geography should be included. The bulk of the material is fiction. Class work is mainly done on informative and difficult texts which the students cannot be expected to read by themselves, e.g. business communications, verse, texts with particularly complex vocabulary. Sectional dictionaries as well as questions and exercises are given with every reading piece. The exercises consist in:

1. Questions on contents.
2. " " selective reading.
3. " " semantics.
4. Subdividing texts and constructing plans.
5. Vocabulary (synonyms, antonyms, etc.)
6. summing-up and rephrasing.
7. Memorising.
8. Evaluation of events and characters.
9. Listing grammatical forms.

Picture material:

1. Picture dictionary.
2. Grammatical diagrams.
3. Text illustrations.
4. Conversational pictures.

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f. E.Erokhina & S.Vasil'eva¹⁴ advance very similar suggestions in respect of the textbooks for grades II-IV: reader in 3 parts (class, home, dictionary), questions and exercises, etc. Their recommendations for grade I co-incide with those outlined in the opening paragraph of this chapter: The use of the picture dictionary should be continued. A prominent place should be reserved for spelling and grammar charts. Particularly important are such charts for grades II-IV because abstract rules are hardly ever learnt at this stage. The nearly exclusive source of knowledge is the vocabulary.

How many new words should be given above the required minimum? The authors think, not more than 25 %. Anything beyond the minimum vocabulary remains on the level of passive comprehension.

A good printing technique is essential: all active words must be given in fat print when they appear for the first time, constructive patterns set off for better visibility, etc.

If any question arises how many words, and which ones exactly, are considered the required minimum in an elementary course, it is answered by

g. E.Rechitskaya & V.Kolesnikov¹⁵ - true, only as far as Azerbaijan is concerned, but the norms will be similar in all other autonomous regions.

¹⁴ E.Erokhina, S.Vasil'eva, O tipe uchebnikov russkogo yazyka dl'a nerusskoy vos'miletney shkoly, NatSh, 1960, No.6, p.36-41.

¹⁵ E.Rechitskaya, V.Kolesnikov, Slovník po russkomu yazyku dl'a nachal'nykh klassov azerbeydzhanskoj shkoly, NatSh, 1960, No.4, p.29-38.

After a comparison with Tartar, Northern, Georgian and Kazakh minima, the authors compiled a list of

Grade II:	450	words	in	216	hours
III:	500	"	"	"	"
IV:	500	"	"	180	"
	<u>1450 words</u>				

which seem to respond satisfactorily to the directives issued in Moscow¹⁶.

The authors found that the textbooks in use suffer from an excess of vocabulary; e.g. the book for grade II teaches 583 words (133 too many). A wider use of lexical adaptations would do away with the greater part of unnecessary words.

The principles of word selection have been formulated by the Institute of Ethnic Schools, RSFSR Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. Before everything else, the practical need for words as tools of communication must be considered. Secondly, attention has to be paid to word frequency in children's literature, although it does not directly assist in compiling textbooks.¹⁷

Keeping in mind that the prospective users of the vocabulary would be young children, the authors give a priority to the words with concrete meanings. The limited number of the grammatical terms must be considered indispensable from grade III on. Coupling of adjectives and adverbs antonymically has been carried out to a large extent. The pre-

¹⁶ Proekt normativnoy programmy po russkomu yazyku dl'a nachal'noy shkoly (1959).

¹⁷ More about it in chapter I-4.

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alphabetical course contains, for instance, "white-black", "big-small"; the second term of grade II, "bad-good"; grade III, "poor-rich", "long-short", "young-old", etc.

The grammatical usefulness of words was also assessed, and nouns and verbs found to be the most productive categories. The "minidictionary" (slovník) contains 716 nouns and 360 verbs. Most nouns are learned right at the beginning, in grade II. The following table shows how the parts of speech are distributed over the courses:

Grade	Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives	Numerals	Pronouns	Adv.	Other categ.
II	248	88	15	25	26	30	18
III	240	145	50	9	6	30	20
IV	228	127	68	17	14	39	7
Total	716	360	133	51	46	99	45

A scrutiny of the listings confirms that the selection has been carried out with the promised thoroughness. Grade II does not contain anything unexpected beyond the word "inzhir" (fig), which, supposedly, is indispensable in Azerbaijan. More local colour is to be found in the vocabulary for grade III: the equivalents for "Azerbaijani", "camel", "vineyard", "hero of the Soviet Union", "machine-gunner", "oil well". Still more such words are provided for grade IV: "automatic rifle man", "citizen of Baku", "oilman", "heroic action", "intelligence", "armour corps soldier", "garlic", "to lay in ruins", "cotton field".

This survey of methods would not be complete if it did not mention the short report of

h. I.Zamaletdinova on her work with pictures¹⁸. Selecting a well-known painting with a dynamic and easily understood subject, she uses it as a starting point for a conversation, and shows how a surprisingly variegated series of oral and written exercises can be built up around one comparatively simple genre picture. It goes through the following stages:

1. Introductory discussion.
2. Examination of the picture.
3. Discussion.
4. Lexical and phraseological work.
5. Title and construction.
6. Oral rendering of the story.
7. Essay.

Summary of Chapter I, Section B
(Other Recommendations for Grades I-IV)

In short, the following demands have been found essential by the authors discussed:

Gadelshin - oral pre-alphabet course;

Valitov - phono-orthographical course without oral introduction;

Chist'akov - the method of differentiation (as superior to the complex instruction);

Janverk - language skills (thinking in Russian) should be taught rather than knowledge (the point of departure is a spoken sentence);

Kvitinsky - Grade IV must anticipate the switch-over to Russian for certain subjects; therefore a carefully designed textbook;

Erokhina & Vasil'eva - good printing technique;

Rechitskaya & Kolesnikov - detailed mini-dictionary;

¹⁸ I.Zamaletdinova, Uroki-besedy po kartins, NatSh, 1960, No.6, p.52-56.

Zamaletdinova - pictorial conversation.

Everyone of these attitudes has its merits, and all of them are justifiably important. No writer of an Elementary Course of Russian can afford to disregard the challenge of decision for or against the differentiated teaching, the means of printing and illustrating techniques, and before he even starts, he will have to establish his minimum vocabulary. In the West, one normally would be spared the choice between Gadel'shin's or Valitov's attitude towards the pre-alphabetical period, because even the youngest of our students should be past the stage of illiteracy, but Janverk's boldly conceived principle of forcing the student to think in Russian from the start deserves every consideration. And if accepted, it must become the ruling principle of the whole work.

After a thorough study of commentary and one year's experimentation with the new programme in 1705 eight-year schools and 2338 intermediate trade schools, the editors of "Russky yazyk v shkole"¹⁹ find that by far most teachers give their support to the new venture, the merit of which, the majority think, lies in the conservation of the long-established grammar curriculum. A positive innovation is the tendency to eliminate the divergence between theory and practice. Teachers appreciate the concise formulation of the standards which are set for pronunciation and grammatical stylistics, both giving a tangible base for training in speech fluency.

Some objections were rightly raised against the overloading

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of the project with theory, the wrong distribution of material through the school years, certain rules of spelling and punctuation, etc. Accordingly, "Russky zzyk" says, the programme was adjusted to satisfy such objections.

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C. INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL (Grades V-VIII)

Numerous teachers in the Soviet Union complain that the standards set in the programme for the secondary school are rarely achieved. Students usually know all the rules, read and understand fiction with some difficulty, speak poorly, write worse, and are hardly able to express their own ideas.

a. B.Chist'akov, whose recommendations for the elementary school have already been examined on p.12-14, finds, that, although the vocabulary of most students exceeds the demanded minimum, the existing programmes, and with them the textbooks, with the exception of those for the grade school, do not supply enough learning material. His conclusion is that students must be getting much of their knowledge from other sources. The conditions in which they learn Russian differ from the usual situation in which a foreign language is studied. Russian is an organic part of life everywhere in the Soviet Union. Children meet and pick it up wherever they go. And this is the real connection with life meant by N.Khrushchev. Life cannot be confined to the pages of even the best of textbooks. Textbooks are still needed - more than ever - but we must see that they really satisfy threefold requirements: what is taught, to whom, and how. We realize that we need several different textbooks, but no number of them will be ever sufficient if we do not give the students an opportunity to learn live Russian.²⁰

²⁰ B.Chist'akov, O sisteme cuebnikov po russkomu yazyku dl'a natsional'nykh shkol, NatSh, 1961, No.5, p.37-46.

Psychology teaches us, continues Chist'akov, that studying a language in detachment from its basic function as a means of communication does not give any command of the living language. And yet the spoken language is the goal towards which the Soviet school is striving. The textbook is only a guide to such communal use. Its limitations are overcome by supplementary teaching aids.

It is of some interest that the best pre-revolutionary textbook on Russian for non-Russians (inorodtsy) - "Russkoye slovo" by Y. Gogebashvili never was called a textbook. The title of the first (1887) edition was "Russkoye slovo ili klassnoye rukovodstvo k russkomu yazyku dl'a gruzinskikh shkol", and the 22nd, the last in author's lifetime (1913), "Russkoye slovo ili uchebnoye rukovodstvo etc." That is to say, it was designed as a manual for class work.

Chist'akov says: We should not speak about a textbook in isolation but rather about a series of co-ordinated textbooks, manuals and teaching aids. Let us examine these components one by one.

Textbooks. Up to now two types of textbooks have been used in the secondary school: a) combined grammar and spelling book in 2 parts (morphology and syntax), and b) a reader (a separate one for each grade). However, the latest tendency, especially since V. Chinnova's theses on the necessity of a universal textbook²¹ is, to deliver all the required material for every grade in one fat volume. The fact itself that two such contradicting tendencies are existing side by side shows that there is a feeling

21 p.6-9

of dissatisfaction with the actual state of affairs. More decisive regulations are bound to come before long, and it is hoped that the inclusion of other teaching aids in the pedagogical equipment of Russian classes will be found indispensable. Once an agreement upon the basic types of books is reached, the structural questions will have to be solved.

~~Chist~~'akov recommends the adoption of the following textbooks and manuals:

- a. Separate readers for every grade;
- b. Grammar books in 2 parts with a small number of exercises:
 1. Morphology (grades V-VI)
 2. Syntax (grades VII-VIII);
- c. Books of exercises (speech, writing, grammar, spelling), separate for every grade;
- d. Another grammar book, more complete than (b) but containing no exercises; a special edition for every ethnic school.

In addition, as optional aids:

- a. Pictures;
- b. Charts on grammar, spelling, speech development;
- c. Collections of topics and questions;
- d. Dictionaries.

While these considerations equally apply to all intermediate grades,

b. I.Sviridenko²² concentrates on the grades V and VI. He knows from experience that the use of separate books for grammar and reading is justified. But the grammar book - or rather "the textbook of grammar and speech development" - should change the customary method of deduction into that of induction. First a number of texts showing common grammatical

22 I.Sviridenko, Kakim dolzhen byt' uchebnik dl'a V-VI klassov, NatSh, 1961, No.3, p.47-48.

features should be examined, then the grammar rulings formulated.

Besides the written exercises, many more for speech development are needed; special exercises for enunciation of sounds and sound combinations, correct stressing, intonation, spoken morphology and syntax.

The reading book, in Sviridenko's opinion, may largely disregard the demands of parallel grammar, vocabulary and thematics. It should include the best of classical and Soviet literature, arranged in a reasonably harmonious manner. Important is the preservation of the character of every literary masterpiece. Children must be impressed by the power and greatness of the Russian language. The picture part, always of a great importance, is even more important in schoolbooks for non-Russians. Among other purposes, suitable illustrations can help elucidate many homonyms. By exemplifying wide possibilities of expression, such a use of pictures also creates clear-cut images, helps to learn new words.

c. For the same grades V-VI A.Shaymardanov²³, on the contrary, finds one textbook quite sufficient. It should be built around suitable texts, and every lesson should contain its grammar part. Numerous tables on morphological issues will be found valuable.

d. E.Erokhina and S.Vasil'eva²⁴ are prepared to use one book in the grades V and VI, but consider two separate books for grammar and

²³ A.Shaymardanov, O trebovaniyakh k uchebniku dl'a V-VI klassov, NatSh, 1960, No.5, p.49-52.

²⁴ E.Erokhina, S.Vasil'eva, O tipe uchebnikov russkogo yazyka dl'a nerusskoy vos'miletney shkoly, NatSh, 1960, No.6, p.36-41.

reading indispensable for grades VII and VIII, where the Russian course should be mainly a reading course. On the whole, these two authors' attitude is fairly conservative.

In addition to these conventional methods, an increasing demand for audio-visual aids is being voiced. This stress on audio-visual equipment and methods is of a universal nature, and may be observed as a major trend in the eastern world to no lesser degree than in the west.

Some of the points raised by other methodologists have been reconsidered by I. Nikolaev²⁵. He points out that the discussions are often led around hazy, ill-defined ideas. If, for instance, the use of Russian "in all spheres of human activity" (Chinnova) is demanded, this does not make it any clearer to a teacher, especially to a young teacher, what exactly he is expected to do. With regard to textbook structure, favouring the so-called lexico-grammatical reader which is meant to "eliminate that dangerous discrepancy between vocabulary, reading, grammar and expressive ability" (Chinnova, Shaymardanov), leads to unwieldy volumes which cannot be easily handled. Whatever the theorists' intentions, the grammar, the reader and the exercises must be split into separate books.

Another point is the interrelation of the mother language and Russian. The principle that the familiar rules should not be elaborated is correct, but when we start leaving things and rules out, we must take care not to overdo it. The system of the Russian grammar must be preserved under any circumstances.

25 I. Nikolaev, Nekotorye voprosy uluchsheniya kachestva uchebnikov russkogo yazyka, HatSh, 1960, No.4, p.42-44.

Some teachers are so enthusiastic about the inherent logic of the language that they try to dispense with all picture material, and rely entirely on the "linguistic illustration". They won't get very far with that: pictures and charts, and the more the better, are indispensable.

The grammar books in use now are all constructed on the basis of classification. However, the latest books abroad (USA, Yugoslavia) manage much better to clarify the functional interrelationship of forms and speech categories by means of so-called "functional grammar". Evidently some of the functional approach can be used with profit in teaching Russian to non-Russians.

The vocabulary minima have not been fully established. Some teachers hold that the active vocabulary of the secondary school need not go beyond 500-600 root words. Quite often textbooks are produced by professional authors without any teaching experience. This should be different in future.

These observations of Nikolaev put most of the previously examined suggestions in their proper perspective.

Not all of the sketched ideas have had their origin in Khrushchev's declaration. Several of them, notably:

1. The insistence that the teacher of Russian must be acquainted with his students' mother tongue;
2. Putting the language skill before the study of grammar;
3. Stressing the role of Russian as means of communication;
4. Establishing a minimum vocabulary;
5. Stressing the value of extensive reading;
6. Assigning an important place to visual aids,

go back 100 years and more, and were all formulated and practised by the

great Russian methodologist N.II'minsky (1822-91) who did much for the education of national minorities in the czarist empire^{25a}.

At the present moment the heat of the discussion is over. The Academy of Pedagogical Sciences and its institutes are evaluating and reconciling the vast number of suggestions they have received. S.Barkhudarov and V.Dobromyslov, whose opinions carry great weight, have expressed themselves in 1959 on the educational standards they would expect from Russian 8-year schools, and presumably their attitudes will also be reflected in the syllabi and methods of ethnic schools.

d. V.Dobromyslov²⁶: The method of teaching Russian in the old 7-year school has been proven unsatisfactory because the grades V-VII have been turning out between 15 and 30 % insufficient work. Students' standing can be improved at the cost of enormous additional work for teachers, but even then we cannot be sure that the grammar material will be absorbed completely, as it should. The course is overburdened with abstracta; by the end of the 7th year the number of phonetical, lexical and grammar rules which have to be memorized approaches 170.

The 8-year school must produce students who would be literate in the wide meaning of this word: they must possess reading and speaking skills, must be able to commit their ideas to paper, write précis, annotations, construct plans of literary work, write a thesis, an article, be able to recite, etc. Our grades V-VII have been only turning out some

25a I.Emel'chenko, Znachenije trudov N.I.II'minskogo dl'a nerusskoy shkoly, NatSh, 1962, No.1, p.42-45.

26 V.A.Dobromyslov, O programme po russkomu yazyku dl'a V-VIII klassov 8-letney shkoly, Sh, 1959, No.1.

12-16 works of a similar kind a year, whereas in some other countries they compose every year 25-30 such written works. We do not study enough phraseology; most analysis is done in abrupt sentences without any logical connection.

In order to master the grammar completely, we have to

- a) reduce the amount of theory;
- b) compile a list of absolutely indispensable rules of spelling and punctuation;
- c) attach to the programme of every grade a list of words the spelling of which is not covered by the above rules;
- d) state the precise demands for talking and reading abilities;
- e) re-edit the textbooks accordingly.

e. Characteristically, S.Barkhudarov²⁷, when speaking about the identical programme, opposes altogether different elements of it. He mainly objects to the habit of unprecise phrasing, and does not miss an opportunity for a dig against Dobromyslov:

Neither the programme nor the present textbooks contain any grammatical theory, he says. The expression is misunderstood because so many teachers are not trained linguistically, and they consider anything written in a textbook to be a "theory". Dobromyslov shares their attitude.

The basic system of teaching must be preserved.

Dobromyslov's references to hundreds of "new items" do not make any sense because they lack precision. The grammatical examples cited by him are clearly misleading (provokatsionny). His principles are subjective

27 S.G.Barkhudarov, O printsipakh postroeniya programmy po russkomu yazyku dl'a V-VIII klassov, ibid.

and non-scientific. The grammar course is already reduced to an absolute minimum.

It seems that with this thrust Barkhudarov is following up some earlier feud and mainly refers to a previous exchange of views.

f. With another expert, M.Ushakov, remarking, with reference to Barkhudarov & Kr'uchkov's textbook, that it contains much too many spelling rules, some of which only cover single (1 to 4) words²⁸, little doubt is left that a continuation on the same lines will likely lead to an extremely spirited *melée* of linguistic fencing which may be interesting to witness but slow to achieve agreement on pertinent issues.

Summary of Chapter I, Section C
(Intermediate School, Grades V-VIII)

The new programme differs from the old one through the introduction of a special section on speech development. This development is to take place in 3 basic directions:

1. Increase and precision of vocabulary;
2. Development of correct use of word forms and phraseological constructions;
3. Inculcation of speech fluency.

Methodical comments establish the absolute writing minima to be achieved in grades V-VIII.

The programme stresses the importance of special exercises

²⁸ M.B.Ushakov, Sokratit' teoretichesky material po russkomu yazyku v sredney shkole, Sh, 1959, No.1.

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designed to develop students' ability of expression: essays, reports, various creative assignments, which are all parts of one thoughtful system.

A complete plan of such work for every grade may be found in "Russky yazyk v shkole", 1960, No.2, p.69-77.

On the whole, one notices, the discussion of teaching Russian in senior grades of the elementary school does not open any new horizons. The basic problems remain those of the junior grades (I-IV), and this seems fully consistent with the character of the subject under review. Once the fundamental decisions have been taken, they must be adhered to as the schooling goes on. The time to take them is the time when the non-Russian youngsters meet their federal language for the first time, that is, at the age of 7 or 8.

D. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE COLLEGE

The instruction in Russian given to the students in non-Russian colleges of the Soviet Union up to very recent times did not differ in its programme or methods from the way the Russians themselves were taught. This was a handicap for non-Russians. However, being well aware of the positive results achieved with the concentric system of teaching in various satellite countries - more about it in Chapter II of the present paper - a group of teachers in Tashkent (Kazakhstan)²⁹ introduced this method in all colleges of their republic in 1959.

The peculiarity of this method consists in teaching live literary language. It aims at giving the student sufficient vocabulary and the indispensable minimum of fixed phraseology, combined with a development of reading skills.

Grammar, in such a system, is not self-sufficient: it only helps to overcome the difficulties harassing non-Russian students. One of the first requirements has been a new textbook which takes full account of these conditions. Considering the fact that in the spoken language grammatical categories always appear as parts of sentences, the interrelation between them is elucidated by treating first the categories and then the simple clause. A certain amount of knowledge on these points will have been acquired by students during their earlier studies.

As the next step, the main and the secondary parts of the clause,

²⁹ P. Bichaev, P. Danilov, M. Stavskaya, M. Stogny, G. Malykh, A. Khmara, K voprosu o perestroyke prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v natsional'nykh vuzakh, NatSh, 1960, No. 3, p. 33-37.

and the simple and complex sentences are examined. Phonetics and word structure are duly noted. After all these aspects of the grammar have been treated, the correlation of gender is discussed. This topic is very important and difficult, because Turk languages do not know any category of gender. The discussion starts by an analysis of nouns, goes on to pronouns and verbs, and eventually adjectives and ordinal numerals, keeping in mind their connection with nouns of various genders.

Concurrently, the subject, the predicate and their correlation are examined. Even backward students are able to master this theme in 30-40 hours.

The next complex of questions is the category of number of nouns and the correlation in number of verbs in the past tense, and the appearance of certain pronouns and ordinal numerals as different parts of the sentence.

The third stage is the category of person and its correlation. This requires a study of personal pronouns and the conjugation of verbs in the present and compound future tenses. It also involves the declension of nouns, adjectives, some pronouns and ordinal numerals.

Concurrently with topics 2 and 3, students are introduced to transitive and intransitive verbs governed by preposition and case, and to the relation between prepositions and cases. The skill in correlating is increased through attributive use of adjectives, of some pronouns and ordinal numerals.

Eventually the same topic is gone over with plurals. The cases of

declension are not learned in the order taught in Russian schools, but depending on the frequency and the specific demands of the topic in hand.

Having acquired a sound knowledge of declension, students proceed to the aspects of the verb. At the same time they learn something about the Russian syntax: the compound verbal predicate, ejaculative clauses, forms of address (in connection with the imperative mood), and impersonal constructions.

After the verb has been dealt with, the adverb becomes the subject of further studies; also the multiple use of parts of the sentence, conjunctions and special rules of punctuation in sentences.

Finally, the regular and inverse order of words.

Altogether the simple sentence and the complete morphology take 2 years of study.

The III and IV years work on simple clauses enriched by participles, verbal adverbs and similar devices; also introductory sentences and their punctuation. After that, particles and interjections are studied.

The compound clause is the next stage. In connection with the peculiarities of the Uzbek grammar, it has been found useful to take the subordinate clauses in the following order: 1) those of time, 2) place, 3) manner, cause and purpose; 4) conditional and concessive; 5) objective; 6) attributive; 7) comparative, resultive, predicative.

The direct and indirect speech and the conjunctionless compound clause are the final subjects under consideration.

The authors claim that the results of their experience of $1\frac{1}{2}$ years

with the concentric method positively prove its superiority to the old methods: it does not permit any slipping back into teaching mere grammar, gives the Uzbek students great confidence, and keeps their interest alive at all times.

Independent from the group of teachers whose views on the concentric method have been specified, two other teachers, also from Tashkent, introduce their proposal for a system which they call generalized-concentric, and as they even publish their contribution in the same issue of the magazine³⁰, it really looks as if a concentric effort was being made to entrench this method firmly, at least in Kazakhstan.

b. Serebr'anaya and Gurvich reject the old linear plan (first all parts of the speech, then parts of the sentence, then subordinate clauses, etc.), and suggest that it be replaced on the non-Russian college level by one which may be called a generally-concentrated (or penetrating) plan. It has a repetitive character which not only damages, but, it might be said, wilfully destroys the linear approach. It demands the consecutive study of

1. Gender: Recognition and correlation - 8 hrs.
2. Number: Plural from singular; correlation - 6 hrs.
3. Cases: Constructions with and without prepositions - 14 hrs.
4. Person: Correlation - 6 hrs.
5. Tense and Aspect: Characteristical occurrences - 20 hrs.
6. Subject and Predicate: Expression, place, correlation - 8 hrs.
7. Object: Subordinate clause; indirect speech - 12 hrs.

³⁰ F.Serebr'anaya i I.Gurvich, Ob izuchenii grammatiki v natsional'nykh gruppakh vuzov, NetSh, 1960, No.3, p.73-75.

8. Attribute: Attributive subordinate clause. Participle - 20 hrs.
9. Adverb: Adverbial clauses - 20 hrs.
10. Direct speech: Occurrence - 6 hrs.

By the appearance of it, this suggestion, though closely resembling the more detailed proposal of Bichaev et al., perhaps would rather deserve to be called circular in preference to concentric, as every single one, seems to demand a closed and detached study of a certain aspect of grammar. However, the authors supply also some explanations of their point which make their idea nearly identical with Bichaev's:

The college studies must fill the gap left by the school, by co-ordination and development of the language practice already acquired by the student. The theme "Category of Case" does not call for work with detached words; it demands manipulation of word groups and whole sentences. By the way, such an important part of the syntax as word correlation is not being treated at school at all; this section of the contemporary grammar is not even mentioned in our textbooks or school programmes. When we speak of declensional constructions, and not of declension, we stress the ability to build sentences by using the inherent relationship of declined words. Instead of declining the word "town" (noun), "home" (adjective), and "our" (pronoun), we immediately start on the combination "our home town", etc.^{30a}

Serebr'anaya and Gurvich warn that any tendency to transgress the teaching plan must be avoided, even at the peril of giving the students incomplete knowledge. One still encounters II year college students, they say, who do not know what a preposition is, but this does not matter as long as these students use their prepositions correctly. The college programme demands an ability to speak and write Russian, not to recite grammar rules. Then, as if realising that they may have gone too far, they hastily add: "No conscious knowledge of the language is possible without

30a *ibid.* p.75.

grammar."

c. We have a comprehensive report on teaching Russian at the Patrice Lumumba University of International Friendship in Moscow.³¹

This is of particular interest, as it describes up-to-date methods of teaching Russian to foreigners who do not belong to any Soviet Union satellite country, and it certainly contains material worth comparing e.g. with the work done at Bucknell Institute for Foreign Students and other similar projects in the west.

This university has the largest number of students of Russian in the world. It organizes and carries on instruction to students arriving at the university from everywhere without any previous knowledge of Russian. These people must be made able in the shortest time to follow Russian lectures, participate in seminars, understand textbooks, pass tests and exams, and, at a somewhat later stage, write essays and theses. Russian language is to become their tool of work. If they don't know how to read and write Russian, to understand it when spoken to, or don't possess the conversational skills, they cannot tackle the curriculum with any hope of success. The courses of Russian are built on the experience gained in teaching Russian to non-Russian nationals at the university level all over the Union, particularly at the preparatory faculty of Moscow State University.

The instruction is carried out in small groups (5-6 students). Participants are students with a common language background, at least as far as the language of intercommunication is concerned, and most teachers also

³¹ E.Motina, Na kafedre russkogo yazyka Universiteta druzhby narodov imeni Patrisa Lumumby, NatSh, 1961, No.2, p.80-83.

know this intermediary language, which usually is either French or English.

The programme keeps in mind two basic principles:

1. Students must be taught speech and writing in the first place;
2. Grammar serves only to develop speech skills.

Particular attention is paid to specific difficulties of Russian grammar for foreigners: governing by preposition or without, correlation, verbal aspects, verbs of movement, word order, semantics of conjunctions, etc.

Morphology is taught together with syntax, vocabulary together with phonetics and grammar.

The initial stage is handled with special care, because it is more difficult to improve wrong habits later than teach things the right way from the start.

The concentric development of grammar and vocabulary must be thought out very carefully. Great importance is allocated to correct pronunciation, audial comprehension and construction of sentences. Starting with the very first lesson students are taught to absorb and convey short messages.

Without teaching them any of their future specialties, the teacher must introduce them to the terminology and vocabulary, especially of the scientific style. The material for phonetic and grammar exercises may be chosen from the specialized vocabulary; texts from scientific periodicals and books can serve for syntactical analysis and speech exercises. Some attention has to be paid to the students' native language, but this should not be overdone. It suffices to consider it when making out grammar points known as notoriously difficult for the nationality in question, selecting

exercises and doing comparisons. The greater the linguistic differences, the more thorough the treatment given to the Russian aspect.

When the teacher is not acquainted with the students' native tongue, he must at least learn its grammar, note and analyze typical mistakes, and work out a system of exercises.

The medium of an auxiliary language should be used but sparingly: the student should not be detracted from thinking in Russian.

The consideration given to the linguistic peculiarities of the different nationalities is reflected in the set-up of the faculty. During 1960-61 there were active:

I. Four sections of teachers dealing with a) Africa, b) Near and Middle East, c) South East Asia, d) Latin America;

II. Laboratory of methods;

III. Laboratory of teaching aids.

Re I: As one of the first functions, a seminar for all the teaching staff was arranged in September, 1960. It occupied itself

1. With a number of problems and methods:
 - a. Methods of group teaching;
 - b. Technical teaching aids;
 - c. Initial difficulties of teaching Russian to Arabs, Africans, Japanese and Latin Americans;
 - d. Difficult grammar sections;
2. With studies in contrastive linguistics:

English-Russian, Japanese-Russian, and others;
3. With ethnographical lectures on overseas countries;
4. With initial steps of teaching, analysis of textbooks, visits to other universities where Russian is taught to foreigners.

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The modicum of technical skills required of the teaching staff was established: use of two types of magnetophones.

Re II: The greatest handicap was the lack of teaching texts. So a general programme for the I year, with methodical annotations, was compiled; then a programme with comments for Arab students, another for Indonesians; the first year vocabulary for foreign students; grammar tables (a pocket manual); wall charts (alphabet, morphology, syntax): a textbook of 20 lessons for Vietnamese; calendar plans for the first semester (introductory course); instructions for the use of audio-visual aids. The laboratory is planning a general course of phonetics, a textbook on intonation, and a conversational course.

Re III: Liasons were created between their own laboratory and those at other universities in Moscow.

A library of phonetic and film records was started. First phonetic exercises for Arabs, Spaniards, Africans, French, English and Vietnamese were recorded - some of them covering parts of the well-known textbook by N.F.Potapova -. The first Russian dialogues were prepared and taped.

Later, the aids laboratory arranged technical training courses for the teaching staff. Audio-visual aids were also used in the classroom:

1. For playing back specimens of recorded speech for various purposes: oral repetition, rendering in writing; discussions, asking and answering questions, dictation, essays. This is an excellent preparation for listening to lectures or radio.

2. For individual speech recording of students in a group, for listening and corrections after lecture hours. The time in the class room is usually too limited to permit any of such lengthy exercises.

3. Watching slides and films designed to help retain the vocabulary and grammar, and to develop speech habits.

In 1961 there still were a number of problems not resolved, but it was hoped that by degrees they would be clarified, and that reasonable solutions would be found at faculty conferences:

1. Special problems of teaching Russian to foreigners (paper to be read by L.M.Pulkina).

2. The function of the auxiliary language (paper to be read by V.N.Kluyeva).

3. The psychology of studying foreign languages.

4. Methods and data of experimental phonetics.

5. The methods of using audio-visual teaching aids.

6. Basic methods of teaching.

7. How to develop speech in the first year.

8. The methods of introducing and retaining language material.

9. Co-ordination of the Russian course with others.

10. Methods of studying socio-political vocabulary.

11. Home reading.

12. Improving pronunciation.

13. The methodology of writing.

One of the fundamental exigencies will be the creation of a co-ordinated system of textbooks and teaching aids. This demands:

1. A general course in Russian, e.g. an elementary course (starting with the first semester), advanced courses;
2. Textbooks and teaching aids cut out for specific nationalities;
3. A series of dictionaries: picture dictionary, dictionary of word combinations, dictionary of synonyms, bi-lingual terminology;
4. A series of adapted texts (booklets for elementary reading);
5. Thematical compilations of exercises on grammar, vocabulary, speech development;
6. Books of phonetical exercises for different nationalities. Texts for phonetical dictation. Teacher's manuals.
7. Methods of utilizing excursions and audio-visual aids.
8. Tape recording of conversational courses.

As mentioned above, another university teaching Russian to foreigners is Moscow State University. In December, 1961, it looked back on 10 years' work in this field. ³² Numerous papers read at the jubilee conference stressed for the most part the importance of

1. Speech development. Phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and stylistics all should lay the foundations of a practical knowledge of the language. For instance, all morphology should be taught on the basis of actual word combinations, never detached words, and the same rule applies to teaching new vocabulary.

2. The characteristics of the students' native language must be kept in mind at all times.

³² Kh.Shmidt, Des'at' let raboty, NatSh, 1962, No.3, p.72-73.

3. The arrangement of texts according to mounting difficulties of vocabulary and grammar is one of the prerequisites of any successful teaching.

The chair of Russian for foreigners is engaged in several research projects, such as improvement of teaching methods, speeding up instruction, increased application of technical aids, etc. It realises the necessity of publishing, in collaboration with specialists, contrastive grammar books in various languages, and of consolidating the experience in methods.

4. MINIMUM VOCABULARY.

a. Lexical Statistics.

This section of linguistic studies in the Soviet Union became very much alive in the '20s. By that time the number of students receiving instruction in languages had grown sufficiently large to demonstrate that the absence of objective criteria in establishing the required vocabulary threatened to annihilate all the work done by teachers and writers of textbooks. Indeed, when checking upon the vocabulary represented in the leading textbooks some truly stupendous facts were brought to light. Out of 6000 different words contained in 16 French books in use in American schools only 134 words were common to all these books. In 10 Spanish textbooks, containing 4500 different words, only 249 were in common. Another analysis of 26 books on Spanish showed 13,000 different words! These examples have been found by U.Markov³³ in R.D.Cole's "Modern Languages and Their Teaching" (N.Y.1931, p.150). They serve to show that, as means of communication, such instruction was hardly worth anything: what kind of communication is possible with but 184 words in common?

One of the first criteria to be used was the theme. Decidedly better than nothing, it still left too much freedom of choice to the individual taste. If we take, for example, the section "Animals", we may reasonably expect to find in any lexical minimum the words "dog" and "cat", but who knows if "badger" and "skunk", "gorilla" and "chimpanzee" should be included? The thematic principle becomes meaningful only if it is supported by the frequency count. The latter has become the main

³³ U.Markov, Leksicheseskaya statistika i otbor slovarnogo minimuma, NatSh, 1960. No.3. p.3-14.

consideration.

A complete statistical analysis of several authors' collected works would cost an enormous amount of time and work. We therefore use the so-called selective method. It consists in analyzing but a representative section of the "population" and extending the conclusions unto the whole. The larger the "sample", the more reliable the results.

Applied to the lexical statistics, the selective method calls for an analysis of several dozen or hundreds of works of a certain author, which may be examined in their entirety or again with a selectivity factor of, say, 1:10, whereby every tenth page will be scrutinized, and the frequency of every word noted. A large word count dictionary may show, perhaps, 30,000 units with a frequency of 4 and more taken from 18 million words distributed all over various sources.

The first Russian frequency dictionary (Harry H. Josselson, The Russian Word Count, Detroit, 1953) contains 5230 words occurring 13 times and more in 133 sources comprising 1 million words (3500 pages).^{33a}

The validity of the analysis depends on the homogeneity of the material, i.e. the frequency figures only apply to texts similar in contents. In this respect Josselson's compilation must be considered 1/3 outdated, because 1/3 of its sources are works no longer read; but the other 2/3 are up to date. According to the kind of literature, the distribution is:

Fiction	59 %
Drama	7 %
Literary criticism	14 %
Popular science	20 %

^{33a} op.cit. p.6

Chronologically, 25 % of the sources belong to 1830-1900,
 25 % 1901-1918,
 50 1919-1950.

50 % of the material is taken from the narrative, 50 % from the dialogue.

U.Markov has checked the validity of Josselson's word count in 40 samples taken from 20 classics and major Soviet writers and got a very close confirmation. The established word count can be safely taken as a guidance measure for modern textbooks. The measure does not mean any accomplished minimum dictionary. There still remain a number of problems anyone using Josselson's book will have to face:

1. Multiplicity of word meaning is not taken into account;
 2. Basic and derivative words are treated as independent units;
 3. XIX century vocabulary is not needed unless one intends to read Russian classics;
 4. Some vocabulary will be known from other languages;
 5. 5230 words, on the other hand, are not enough for doing any serious reading. The required minimum is nearer 7000. The phraseological value, the multiplicity of meaning, and the derivative value, may serve as auxiliary criteria for further word selection.
 6. Phraseology is the most awkward point, because we don't have any pertinent statistics.
 7. The distribution over the school years. The principles of frequency and theme must be kept in balance. Auxiliary words will have to be concentrated in the early stages of instruction; no coherent speech is possible without them.
- b. Selection of Conversational Vocabulary.

The obvious way to pick out the vocabulary for conversational purposes is to drop all bookish words. Experiments with tape recordings of college students' speeches in the United States³⁴ show that only about 2/3 of the vocabulary are needed for conversation, even on an elevated

³⁴ J.W.Black & M.Aushermen, The Vocabulary of College Students and Classroom Speeches, Ohio State University, 1955 - quoted by Markov.

level of formal speech. This $2/3$, however, has a much higher expressive potential than the bookish $1/3$. It may be assumed that in Russian as well the first 2000 words carry the load of 3000 expressly literary words.

It would appear from the aforesaid that the active vocabulary of Russian students does not have to go beyond 3500 words. As on the other hand the programme of activation makes at least 5800 words an absolute minimum for "participation in all spheres of human life", and as the school does not provide all the situations imaginable, we still do not know how theory and practice are going to be reconciled.

c. Grammatical Frequency.

One section of Josselson's "Word Count" treats the weighted value of grammatical categories. U.Markov³⁵ finds that the methods of the analysis have led to altogether absurd conclusions; for example, Josselson's figures of prepositional and conjunctive frequency are obviously much too low (abt. $1/10$ of the actual).

Markov undertook to figure out the real percentages. His calculation, based on 40 samples of 300 words each, taken from 20 authors, gave the following results:

³⁵ U.Markov, K voprosu o chastotnosti grammaticheskikh kategoriy, NatSh, 1960, No.4, p.19-20.

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Grammatical Category	Narrative	Dialogue	Mean value in a text consisting of 50 % Narrative & 50 % Dialogue
Noun	28.0	19.4	23.8
Adjective	9.6	3.9	6.7
Numeral	1.4	0.8	1.1
Pronoun	10.6	20.2	15.4
Verb	15.8	20.0	17.9
Participle	2.5	0.3	1.4
Verbal Adverb	1.2	-	0.6
Adverb	7.6	10.5	9.1
Preposition	12.4	7.5	10.0
Conjunction	7.8	6.3	7.0
Particle	3.1	10.1	6.5
Interjection	-	1.0	0.5
	100.0	100.0	100.0

No significant differences have been found between the XIX and XX century use of these categories.

To find the weight of fundamental and auxiliary words separately,

Markov consolidated them into groups:

		Mean value	
Fundamental Categories:	Nouns	39.5	
	Adjectives	11.1	
	Verbs	30.6	
	Participles	2.3	
	Verbal Adverbs	0.9	
	Adverbs	15.6	100.0 %
Auxiliary Categories:	Numerals	2.7	
	Pronouns	37.5	
	Prepositions	25.9	
	Conjunctions	18.1	
	Particles	15.8	100.0 %

(somehow forgetting the Interjections).

These figures allow many comparisons and conclusions, among them the establishment of words'

syntactical value, which is of importance when selecting the minimum vocabulary. Words with a high sentence-building potential will be included

comparatively early, those of a limited potential left until later.

Ideological value of words is measured by their regional importance for practical or theoretical reasons: in Central Asia the words "cotton, camel, tea, rice, saddle" will be needed almost immediately; in Northern Russia their ideological equivalent would be perhaps "forest, fire-wood, axe, snow". All over the USSR the political connotations of such terms as "comrade, soviet, peace, revolution, kolkhoz" put them high on the priority list³⁶.

One of the latest Russian frequency dictionaries - which are all only meant to be used by certain nationalities - is the one of 5500 words for Estonians, carefully compiled by E.Steinfeldt 1959-62 and arranged in three groups according to

1. their diminishing frequency;
2. parts of speech arranged in the order of absolute diminishing frequency(a);
diminishing frequency of the texts in which the words have been found (b);
3. the alphabetical order.

Especially lists 2 and 3 represent good basic material for the establishment of a minimum vocabulary by way of combining them with a thematic dictionary and assigning every word its lexical value. The^{36a} lexico-linguistic characteristics of the words have not been given by E.Steinfeldt, but she realises that they are indispensable. This kind of qualification could

³⁶ cf. I - 3g on Rechitskaya & Kolesnikov, p.2022.

^{36a} A good systematic enumeration of guiding principles is given by C.V.James, Principles of the Choice of a Basic Vocabulary, ATR, No.5 (1961), p.28-52.

be supplied perhaps in the form of

- a. the word's basic (most frequent) meaning;
- b. secondary meanings;
- c. expressions in which the word is used.

The findings of the frequency dictionary were checked for their effectiveness. Theoretically, 1100-1300 most frequent words should constitute about 70 % of the text. Actually, the first 1300 words were found to consistently cover 71-80 % (on an average, 74.3 %). The value of the dictionary was thus proved beyond doubt. On p.35-36, NatSh No.4, 1962, Steinfeldt shows how the checking was carried out³⁷.

The ideological value will change on historical, geographical and social-political grounds all over the world.

Phraseological frequency is a little-explored backwash of the polemics around the words, but with improving research more attention will be turned toward this part of stylistics, and it promises some very interesting fact-finding.

³⁷ List (1) is given in NatSh 1962, No.4, p.36-39, and No.6, p.13-16.

5. ADAPTATION OF TEXTS

a. Principles of Adaptation

Rapid acquirement of reading skills presupposes voluminous reading.

L.V.Shcherba has summed this up as follows:

Such reading aims at imperceptibly increasing the vocabulary and the phraseology of the student by constant repetition of words and turns of speech in natural context. It is obvious that most frequently repeated material is the one mainly used in the language, and so reading is the natural way of acquiring the most important and needed means of expression. This also shows that the more one reads, the better will be his progress in language studies.³⁸

The best way to achieve such progress is to give the student a sufficient amount of reading material by publishing specially prepared series of books for supplementary reading.

U.Markov has developed the following theory of adaptation:³⁹

Reading rapidly and in bulk calls for easy texts. Such texts are not readily available in sufficient quantities, so they must be prepared, or adapted. This can be done by either adapting an existant piece of literature or by writing a new text specially designed for the purpose. The principle of adaptation does not diminish the value of language as a means of communication:

1. Everybody habitually does some adaptation whenever he relates the contents of an article or a book. He uses a language which is much simpler than the printed text. Furthermore, any adult person can, as a

³⁸ L.V.Shcherba, Kak nado izuchat' inostrannye yazyki, Moscow/Leningrad, Uchpedgiz, 1929, p.23-25.

³⁹ U.Markov, Printsipy sostavleniya bibliotekki adaptirovannykh knizhek na russkom yazyke, Nat Sh, 1960, No.2, p.32-44.

rule, contrive adaptations on several levels: to somebody educationally equal to the narrator the contents will be communicated in one way; to a seven-year old child, in another, simplified version; to a five-year old simpler still. What is taking place is graduate adaptation.

2. On this foundation of intuitive adaptation of the oral speech the great superstructure of children's and popular scientific literature has grown. And this, too, is graduated adaptation.

Now, as a matter of fact, children's books do not suit the purpose of reading in ethnic schools at all. They are based on Russian vocabulary which several times exceeds the vocabulary taught in the elementary grades of ethnic schools. Even if we take the books for the smallest children who cannot read themselves but are the more avid listeners, the vocabulary is 3 or 4 times larger. Besides, the contents of such reading are of no interest to older students. Methodological research has led to the conclusions that

1. Adaptation in a severely limited vocabulary is possible;
2. It is possible to gradually improve vocabulary and grammar;
3. The linguistic material to be gradually introduced can be prepared in advance;
4. Repetition leads to assimilation;
5. The texts may be made increasingly complex;
6. Series of small books, each one a methodical continuation of the previous, are better than larger volumes,

While the final aim is the convergence of adapted and unrestricted texts, the initial target is the greatest possible simplification of the

language. By moving farther and farther away from the original on the path of simplification we arrive at a stage when any further simplification would destroy the context. This stage we shall call the initial lexico-grammatical base. The smaller the base, the earlier the student can set out from it. And it is surprising, how small it can be. Whilst any regular reading presupposes the knowledge of at least several thousand words and almost complete elementary grammar, the severely adapted texts do not demand more than a few hundred words and a handful of grammar rules. There would not be any complex sentences, no participles or verbal adverbs, no past or future tenses, nor many of the other complications. If we use material from fairy-tales, we can make do with 300 words.

It must be admitted that additional words will have to be introduced in the course of the narrative, but the point is not to try to avoid new words, but to communicate them sparingly (5-7 per page) and to choose for this purpose mainly words which promise to be useful in future.

b. Basic Vocabulary.

Free reading assumes the knowledge of vocabulary which covers all but 2 or 3 per cent of the contents. In order to scientifically assess the minimum vocabulary required for Russian reading, we must apply the Law of Textual Consistency.

This is a linguistic regularity which becomes evident in the phenomenon that any text sample of sufficient length in a given language contains words of high, medium, low, and insignificant frequency in constant proportions. A comparatively small number of very frequent words

makes up the major part of the context, and every following, numerically increasing group represents a diminishing part of the context.

Based on Josselson's "Word Count", the comparative analysis of Russian and English authors shows:

Frequency Group	Textual Usefulness (%)	
	Russian	English
First 200 words	52	63
" 1000 "	71.7	80.5
Second " "	6.3	6.1
Third " "	4.0	3.4
Fourth " "	2.4	2.2
Fifth " "	1.9	1.3
First 5000 words	86.3	93.5
All the rest	13.7	6.5
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>

The significant difference between Russian and English becomes apparent when we consider that 1 % equals 3 words per page, and consequently 7.2 % represent a difference of 21.6 words per page! In order to cover the needed 97-98 % of the Russian text we require a (passive) vocabulary of 7-8,000 lexical units (words and idiomatical expressions).

c. Lexical Repetition.

The problem of maximum repetition of new words is essentially a problem of space: a book has only so many available pages. Let us assume that we are compiling an adaptation of 100 pages at 300 words each, 30,000 words in all. Let us assume further that the reader already has a vocabulary of 2000 first words and that we want to give him 1000 more. How many times can we repeat every new word?

The Law of Textual Consistency says that the 2000 known words

account for 78 % of the text. For the new 1000 words there is available 22 %, i.e. space for 6,000 words. Every new word can be repeated 6-7 times. If we want to ensure at least 10 times per word, we shall have to reduce the new vocabulary to 660 units. So in the last count the manipulation of any adaptation will be determined by the law of textual consistency.

The nearer we bring the adaptation to the original text, the greater become the difficulties of repetition, because the later vocabulary is by its nature less essential, and its repeated application only too often just does not fit the text. These difficulties, too, can be tabulated:

Reader's vocabulary	Space available for new words on 100 pages	Maximum for 10x repetition (theoretically)	New words per page (theoretically)
1000	8500	850	8-9
2000	6600	660	6-7
3000	5400	540	5-6
4000	4700	470	4-5
5000	4100	410	4
6000	3700	370	3-4
7000	3300	330	3

Actually one never will be able to utilize all the theoretically available space, so the practical repetitiveness will be smaller, due to the necessity to preserve the plot and the basic details of the action. An estimate of 4-5 possible repetitions as an average need not be thought too conservative.

6. AUXILIARY TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING.

a. Linguistics.

Although the systematic use of linguistics as a teaching aid in its complete range is ruled out anywhere below the college level, certain sections of it, in palatable form, are a matter of routine even at the elementary school: phonetics and grammar are taught daily. Occasional transgressions may be made into the field of

Descriptive (or Synchronic) Linguistics⁴⁵ which will elucidate the linguistic structure of the language and teach its morphonemics, and to some extent

Contrastive Linguistics, for a comparison of two or more language systems. The danger of these disciplines lies in the lack of co-ordination in the terminology and the findings of various researchers. For an example, the application of the basic criteria for the determination of a language system - phonetical similarity, distribution and alternation - seems to be generally agreed upon, but as the VIII Linguistic Congress in Oslo (1957) ascertained, no linguist yet has been able to furnish a satisfactory description of a language on the basis of the distributiveness⁴⁶.

A.Kuznetsova and V.Murat⁴⁷ have supplied a list of phonotactical laws ruling the structure of Russian. It must be considered a worthy contribution to this still incompletely explored field, although the chapters

⁴⁵ For definitions, Charls F.Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics, Macmillan, New York, 1958, 621 p.

⁴⁶ A.Kuznetsova, V.Murat, Osnovnye printsipy fonematischeskogo analiza v deskriptivnoy lingvistike i ikh prilozheniye k materialu russkogo yazyka, NatSh, 1961, No.5, p.69

⁴⁷ ibid., p.70-71

on "The Sounds System of Literary Russian" (p.66-84) and "The Russian Literary Pronunciation and Its Historical Foundations" (p.85-97) in N.S.Valgina et al., *The Contemporary Russian Language*⁴⁸ have filled many of the gaps.

In September, 1962, A.Reformatsky published some fundamentals of the contrastive methods which probably will be decisive in forming Russian attitudes toward this complex of questions.^{48a}

He draws a line between the comparative and the contrastive methods by saying that the comparative (sravnitel'ny) method looks for similarity and achieves its purpose by eliminating dissimilar features. This method is historical and pragmatic. The contrastive (sopostavitel'ny) method is based on the synchrony, and not the history of languages. It asserts dissimilarities, and must avoid everything that could lead to substitution of common denominators. By continually stressing the differences between the languages it helps to eliminate the drag exercised by the students' mother tongue. The only historical aspect that is admitted is the recognition of the preceding linguistic development, but the study itself is strictly synchronic.^{48b}

The following theses must be observed whenever the contrastive method is applied:

48 N.S.Valgina, D.E.Rozental, M.I.Fomina, V.Tsapukevich, Sovremenny russky yazyk", Moscow, Vysshaya shkola, 1961, 452 p.

48a A.Reformatsky, O sopostavitel'nom metode, NatSh, 1962, No.5, p.23-33.

48b This makes the contrastive method, of course, no less pragmatic than the comparative method.

1. All languages are idiomatic, i.e. not only in details, but ~~but~~ every language system as a whole and all its elements are fully original;
2. The contrastive study deals with complete language systems;
3. The object is to find all linguistic divergencies;
4. The analysis is carried out by two-way juxtaposition of languages.

In support of these theses Reformatsky cites the works of

E.Polivanov: La perception des sons d'une langue étrangère (1951);

A.Isachenko: The Problem of Teaching Russian in the Countries of the Peoples' Democracy (1961);

G.Hermenau: The Linguistic Laws of Acquiring the Knowledge of Russian by Foreigners (1961).

b. Audio-Visual and Laboratory Aids.

One of the best-equipped language laboratories in the Soviet Union belongs to the Moscow State Pedagogical Institute where undergraduate and graduate students from abroad are getting their training in Russian. They arrive at the Institute with some knowledge of Russian acquired in 6-8 months courses in their home countries. It does not enable them to follow lectures or do any specialized reading and writing in Russian. They are very much in the position of the Patrice Lumumba students referred to on p.41, and the instructors' task is also identical: to teach them to talk and write Russian in the shortest time possible.

The laboratorial methods applied in this connection are described⁴⁹ as follows:

⁴⁹ E.Fetisova, O primenenii tekhnicheskikh sredstv pri obuchenii inostrantsev russkomu proiznosheniyu, NatSh, 1960, No.1, p.51-61.

Grammar, speech and phonetics (with reading) are taught concurrently. Phonetics are more important than any other aspect. First the mistakes (both common and individual) are analyzed and their origins explained. Specific sounds (beginning with vowels) are learnt, then sound combinations, words, phrases, sentences, texts. Not the smallest mistake is allowed to pass. Superficial phonetics are useless.

Every group of 3-5 students spends half of its time on phonetics during the first two months, that is 6 hours per week; then for the rest of the semester, 4 hours weekly. The second semester allocates 9 h.p.w. to the study of Russian; 3 hours of these are spent on phonetics (during the II year, 2 hours weekly; III year, 1 hour).

The simplest and principal tool used is the mirror.

The work with the speech recorder should not start before the articulation is completely mastered:

In order to create the necessary association between the audial and the articulative imagination, a combined training of hearing and speech organs is required, that is, the training of perceptiveness which teaches the student to realize and remember the audial impressions as an effect of certain articulative functions.⁵⁰

Without such a preparation, any technical help would lead to cheap imitation. The magnetophone fulfills its function by allowing the student to become conscious of the relationship between articulation and audible effect. This can be done in the lecturing room or elsewhere.

The very detailed description of all the exercises done with the help of the tape recorder with the sound /L/ tempts one to try them out

⁵⁰ S.N. Bernstein, Voprosy obucheniya proiznosheniyu, Moscow, 1937, p.17 (quoted by Fetisova).

on Canadians or Americans. The exercises should prove useful for English-speaking students, though originally they were designed for the Vietnamese.

The group always participates in the evaluation of the phonetic exercises, so as to rule out any subjective influences.

A promising venture is the use of the speech recorder for phonetic dictations during which the students write down what they think they hear.

Parallel with sounds, stressing and intonation are taught. This entails initial demonstration of exaggeratedly stressed syllables (in a relation of 4:1, as against the normal stress contrast 2:1).

When dealing with intonation, three aspects must be considered: pause, melody, and phrase stress.

The intervals on the tape left for students' recording should be kept somewhat longer in the beginning, later made of equal length with teacher's recording. Students should be encouraged to listen to radio broadcasts, especially news bulletins.

Ordinary recordings of various speech styles (business talk, oration, recitals) are of course highly instructive at a later stage.

Such are the activities and the experiences of the State Pedagogical Institute.

The ordinary schools in the Soviet Union do not pursue quite the same targets, and they do not have the kind of specialists assigned to the instruction of foreigners, but it is stated that the tape recorder has penetrated everywhere, and that every eight-year school is expected to build itself a language laboratory which will be harnessed in the process

of re-vitalizing the teaching.⁵¹

Slides, film strips and movies give an excellent opportunity for discussions and running comments by students. Especially the latter is a hard to beat developer of speech fluency; but being accustomed to regimentation, some teachers complain that there are no clean-cut instructions about the

types of exercises for individual training;

suitable place, way and purpose of using technical equipment for different school grades;

technical and methodical manuals;

students' self-checking procedures.

These prayers have been partly answered by L.Svirid⁵² who advises both on the technical aspects of slide demonstration and the methods of showing:

The teacher should get acquainted with the material before the showing, and should design a plan of action: how to introduce the show, where to interrupt it, what to stress, how to help remembrance. The show should not be so long that the attention starts wandering. The audience should be as homogeneous as possible. Slides and film strips should be mainly used:

⁵¹ N.Khasanov, K voprosu ob ispol'zovanii tekhnicheskikh sredstv pri obuchenii russkomu yazyku, NatSh, 1962, No.1, p.71-72.

⁵² L.Svirid, Diafil'm kak sredstvo obucheniya russkomu yazyku, NatSh, 1962, No.3, p.55-58.

U S S R

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1. to help retain new facts and vocabulary;
2. to impress new grammar rules;
3. for illustration of literary texts;
4. when training in oral or written narration /show the text twice: a) with subtitles, b) without inscriptions: let the students tell what they see/;
5. at school celebrations, commemorative meetings and similar events;
6. in language circles;
7. to develop specialized vocabulary on geography, history, biology and physics.

No special films or slides for teaching Russian in ethnic schools are available yet, but it has been suggested that the manufacturing centres of such material include them in the production schedule. The following steps are envisaged:

1. Select subjects.
2. Work out scripts in collaboration with teachers and methodologists.
3. Enlist co-operation of artists, produce strips.
4. Organize experimental runs.
5. Put the films into mass production and distribute them.
6. Share experience with all concerned.

c. Extra-Curricular Activities.

Often teachers find that they are not able to fulfill the programme in the allocated school-time, and have to use part of the recreational time for supplementary teaching. Under such circumstances the character of the work changes; every formality must be dropped, and the initiative often relegated to the students.

O. Mukoseeva reports on pertinent experiences with Estonian

schoolchildren.⁵³

There have been designed a number of (well over 60) different games which contribute to speech development and anchoring of the language material in memory. For instance: after the topic "Fruit Shop" has been dealt with in class, the teacher introduces the game called "Berries, fruits and vegetables"⁵⁴. It goes as follows: the leader calls out one of these three words and points to a fellow-student who must name a berry, fruit or vegetable, as the case may be. Every time it has to be a new name. The loser pays a fine. It is a fast-moving game; slow players are fined.

Another game in the same group is called "Ship's Cargo". It requires, according to Russian grammar, all the answers to the question "What may a ship's cargo consist of?" (in Russian: "What do you load a ship with?") put in the Instrumental Case.

A different, more advanced kind of game is "Travelling on the Map". A map is drawn on a large sheet of paper and the proposed itinerary indicated on it. A pin shows the location of the travellers. The "group leader" is the teacher, the "quartermaster" and the "director of recreation", some students. The quartermaster organizes transportation, catering, accommodation, etc. The recreational director takes care of excursions, visits to shows, theatres, museums, etc. The information on the places to be visited, if not found in reference books, will be obtained from local

⁵³ O. Mukoseeva, Opyt organizatsii vneklassnoy raboty po russkomu yazyku; NatSh, 1962, No.1, p.56-61.

⁵⁴ The semantics of these words in Russian will somewhat differ from the English use.

students. The trip is carried out in circular discussions based on a topical route plan. Here is how a trip to Riga was handled:

I. Dialogue on arrival in Riga and visits to

- a. the tourist centre,
- b. a museum,
- c. a store,
- d. the zoo.

II. As the travellers were supposed to entertain their friends in Riga, the second part of the programme consisted in musical and dance performances, and social games.

The young travellers are quite enthusiastic about this game. They have "visited" a number of interesting places all over the Union, learnt several national songs, become acquainted with cultural and economic institutions, learnt how to use numerals, the vocabulary needed on buses, trains, planes, ships; how to compose basic business documents: telegrams, official notes, etc.

Most popular of all, however, are the "Evenings of Union-wide friendship". This is how one of such evenings was organized by three intermediate schools (one Estonian, two Russian):

An organizing committee of three teachers of Russian and three students was set up. It worked out the programme, secured collaboration of teachers of singing, dancing, art, and many parents, and did all the promotional work: school broadcasts, wallpaper news, school magazines.

The entertainment was given in three parts:

1. Grand Opening (15 minutes).
2. Artistic Entertainment (2 hrs.)
3. Dance and Games (2 hrs.)

In addition to the Russian circle, the same school often has a Russian section in its "Language Club" (the other club sections could be German, English, French) -the chief activity of which would be writing a wall-newspaper in 4 languages, a diary and a club chronicle.

d. Learning at Work,

as a methodical procedure, is a new idea, mainly called forth by the "Making the Bond Stronger" policy. It would be hardly applicable in western conditions. On principle, instruction at work can start any time, even before students reach the intermediate trade school. They are taken to warehouses, shops, communal kitchens, to learn the vocabulary of the respective trade on the spot, and to take notes which are extended at home with the help of dictionaries and reference books. The teacher gives the minimum assignments, e.g. 20 nouns, 6 adjectives, 5 verbs. Research is done by the students. The vocabulary is used at first in detached sentences, later in dictations and essays.⁵⁵

⁵⁵ V.Traksha, Ispol'zovaniye proizvodstvennoy praktiki dl'a razvitiya navykov russkoy rechi, NatSh, 1962, No.1, p.46-50.

7. TRAINING AND GUIDANCE OF TEACHERS

a. National Pedagogical Institutes and Universities,

which are the standard training centres for teachers candidates, have a programme of 400 lecture hours. The implementation of the school reform has increased their studies in Russian Methodology from 71 to 90 hours⁵⁶.

The curriculum has not been changed for the time being, though certain modifications are bound to come because the old programme is suffering from the detachment from life no less than any other school programme was. A partial improvement could be reached by a more thorough occupation with Russian literature, says Kossovich.

A certain number of teachers for ethnic schools is turned out by regional universities. These teachers, it has been said⁵⁷, often do not know enough Russian, but they are not being supplemented by candidates from other parts of the country because those, in their turn, would be weak in the regional language, and the latter is often considered to be more important. Whether such an attitude is justified in our times, is debatable, continues Kossovich. In the last century, when Russian was just being introduced into ethnic schools, teachers had to have complete command of the regional language because they often had to give their explanations in the children's native language, Russian being altogether unknown in the region.

⁵⁶ A. Kossovich, O novom uchebnom plane dl'a natsional'nykh ped-uchilishch, NatSh, 1960, No. 3, p. 79

⁵⁷ *ibid.*

Now Russian, as an inter-state language, has penetrated much deeper. Most children, even when they do not talk it, have at least heard Russian spoken, and are prepared at an earlier stage to accept explanations given to them in Russian.⁵⁸

The opponents to this argument will probably reply that any student of a regional (national) university must know the local language in the first place. To disregard it, would contravene the basic principles of the cultural and political autonomy granted to the regions, in other words, be unconstitutional. The student's Russian must remain a secondary consideration, and anyway it is not the knowledge alone that makes a good teacher.

The institution centrally responsible for steering and administration of all-Union educational techniques is the

b. Academy of Pedagogical Sciences.

It rules supreme in the fields of didactics and teaching methods, but of course it co-ordinates its work with other similar institutions, of which there are a great number in the Soviet Union, designed to serve all purposes. For instance, there is a special Central Institute for Improvement of School Inspectors' Qualifications, an Institute of National Schools (affiliated with the Pedagogical Academy), a Methodological Council, and many more. The organizing of conventions and seminars plays an important part in their activities. Some are called on regional, some on union-wide, some on international level. This is what a programme of

⁵⁸ I. Emelchenko, *O podgotovke prepodavateley russkogo yasyka dl'a natsional'noy shkoly*, NatSh, 1961, No.4, p.84-85.

"Pedagogical Lectures" arranged by the

c. Institute of Ethnic Schools of RSFSR

for 1961 looked like⁵⁹. The three main themes were:

Speech Development, Teaching Grammar, Methods of Studying
Literature.

Subdividing these topics leads to:

Speech Development:

1. Methods of teaching pronunciation.
2. Pictorial conversation.
3. Methods of teaching vocabulary.
4. Written work.
5. Grammar, reading and speech development.
6. Reading and narrating.
7. Discussing contents of reading.
8. Expressive reading.
9. Typical mistakes in spelling.
10. Different ways of speech development.
11. Methods of translation.
12. Speech development at work.
13. Technical means of instruction.

Teaching Grammar:

1. Programme.
2. Textbooks.
3. Grammatical categories.
4. Syntactical constructions.
5. Teaching grammar categories.
6. Detailed methods.
7. Utilizing native grammar.
8. Methods of grammatical analysis.
9. Recapitulation system.
10. Assimilation.
11. Improving students' standing.
12. Independent work.
13. Home work.
14. Visual aids.

Literature:

1. Programme: analysis, conclusions, suggestions.
2. Books for reading.

⁵⁹ N.Taldin, E.Efremova, O predstoyashchikh "Pedagogicheskikh chteniyakh" v Institute natsional'nykh shkol APN RSFSR, NatSh, 1960, No.3, p.75-77.

3. Methods of teaching reading.
4. " " analyzing fiction.
5. Stylistics.
6. Reading biography.
7. Methodology in belles-lettres.
8. Using new language.
9. Ideological education.
10. Aesthetical "
11. Education in the spirit of internationalism and atheism.
12. Theory of literature.
13. Methodology of specific lessons.
14. Writing reports.
15. System of written work.
16. Auxiliary writing in literature.
17. Literary-critical essays.
18. Creative writing.
19. Extra-curricular reading.
20. Russian and native literature.
21. Regional geography and Russian literature.
22. Literary readings at school.
23. School library.
24. Language circles.

Contributions were accepted from all interested circles. The selected papers were read by the authors or members of the faculty. The best ones received prizes and certificates of merit; they were also going to be printed; the remainder would be mentioned in reviews. 26 papers were actually read.

In compliance with the general planning in the USSR, the Institute designed in 1959 a programme for the next 7 years which was aiming at creating a theoretical foundation for the teaching methods of the 8-year school and the subsequent stages. Comprehensive research is the basis of all such work.⁶⁰

⁶⁰ N.Taldin, Ob osnovnykh problemakh nauchnoy deyatel'nosti Instituta natsional'nykh shkol APN RSFSR v 1959-65 gg., NatSh, 1960, No.1, p.77-81.

The main problem is considered to be the system of instruction in the intermediate trade school and its continuative varieties. The teaching of Russian is only one of the questions in which the Institute is concerned.

The research goes in 4 directions:

1. General education;
2. Methods of teaching Russian;
3. " " " native languages;
4. Elementary education.

Section (2) is subdivided in

- a. Phonetics, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, spelling;
- b. Russian literature.⁶¹

By 1962, in addition to the pedagogical training, the Institute, after two years of "making the bond stronger", had to adopt the rôle of an all-union organ, no longer restricted to the territory of the RSFSR, though it keeps the misleading name. The new situation demands:

1. The transformation of the Institute into a research centre for comprehensive projects on the curricula and methods in ethnic schools;
2. The realization of close contacts with individual schools - a tendency which has been pursued ever since, but apparently without complete satisfaction;
3. The relegation of all basic research activities to analytical affiliations: branches, experimental schools, and their laboratories.

The administration concedes that some of the institute's aims, notably the net of experimental schools, so far have only appeared on paper, and actually there has not been any possibility of co-ordinating their activities, but now two new branches - the Tartar and the Yakut - have become an accomplished fact, and the Daghestan School Institute has

⁶¹ N.Taldin, Institut natsional'nykh shkol APN pered novymi zadachami, NatSh, 1961, No.1, p.81-85.

been affiliated⁶². Every branch does have experimental schools, and some of the latter are equipped with methodological laboratories. Besides, in most of the autonomous republics and territories of the RSFSR experimental schools are being busily created.

As an example of successfully functioning research co-ordination, the following projects in hand are mentioned:

- a. Methods of teaching Russian in Turk elementary schools;
- b. " " " " " Ugro-Fennian "
- c. " " reading Russian literature in ethnic grades V-VIII.

The problem which envelopes all the smaller projects is the Russian language as means of federal communication. Its programme deals with

1. The importance of the Russian language as a common factor of communication between the nationalities of the USSR;
2. The place of the Russian language on the school curriculum;
3. The scientific approach to teaching Russian within the framework of the new school programme;
4. Russian in teachers' institutes;
5. The integration of non-Russian children outside the school;
6. Promotion of the Russian language.

The last point appears to be of a far-reaching significance. It admits the growing tendency in the Soviet Union to set the long-range linguistic aims on the eventual elimination of smaller language groups and the adoption of one common language - Russian - for the unified communist society. The lexical and grammatical influences which the Russian language

⁶² U.Gerbeev, O koordinatsii raboty v Institute natsional'nykh shkol, NatSh, 1962, No.4, p.86-88.

is exercising even now on the secondary languages of the Soviet Union is rapidly becoming a new fascinating side-line of Slavic studies.

The functioning both of the National Pedagogical Institute and the Institute of Ethnic Schools was subjected to severe criticism at the inter-republican Conference on the Improvement of Teaching Russian which took place in Tashkent in 1962. It was pointed out that

1. The remodelling of education in accordance with the Central Committee Theses progresses very slowly; the new programmes and methodological instructions are sketchy and haphazardous;

2. The ideal textbook still has to be written; what is available suffers from an excess of theory; the printing techniques are backward;

3. The research done in the institutes and universities mostly deals with theoretical questions and very rarely is tried out experimentally; it is mostly carried out by professional researchers who disdain asking teachers for advice;

4. New teachers are insufficiently trained, and usually left without guidance once they graduate and move into the field.

The conference recommends:

1. To improve the quality of lectures to the teachers;

2. To organize experimental schools at every institute or university which turns out prospective teachers;

3. To improve the pedagogical training given by correspondence and evening courses;

4. To intensify research on the methods of teaching;

5. To create new possibilities for improving teachers' qualifications;

6. To consider creation of regional and republican experimental schools.

Along with this, the teachers themselves are enjoined to continue improving their ideology and pedagogical skills.⁶⁴

⁶⁴ Resolution of the II Inter-Republican Scientific Conference on the Improvement of Teaching Russian in Ethnic Schools, NatSh, 1962, No.5,

d. The Methodological Council⁶³

is the most recent control institution. It was created by the USSR Ministry of Higher and Intermediate Special Education, and intended to serve in an advisory capacity not only to the foreign students in the Soviet Union, but also for wider dissemination of the Russian language abroad. It will co-ordinate the scientific and methodical work done by universities and special institutes with relation to teaching Russian to foreigners:

- a. Discuss theoretical and methodical problems;
- b. " practical measures for improvement;
- c. Organize an exchange of experience;
- d. Direct scientific and methodical preparation of publications (magazines, books);
- e. Discuss programmes, methodological aids for foreigners in USSR and abroad (circles, schools, courses, colleges);
- f. Review specialist literature;
- g. Plan courses, international seminars and conventions for teachers of Russian from abroad, etc.

On staff are, among others, such well-known specialists as S.Barkhudarov, S.Kr'uchkov, A.Reformatsky, V.Dobromyslov, E.Vladimirsky, N.Potapova, V.Kostomarov, E.Motina.

The 5 sections permanently in session are:

1. Theory.
2. Textbooks and aids.
3. Audio-visual aids.
4. Radio, TV and Press.
5. Teaching experience gained abroad.

⁶³ N.D., Metodichesky sovet po russkomu yazyku, NatSh, 1962, No.3, p.86.

e. Conventions and Seminars.

Periodically convened conferences also help to keep Russian teachers in the front row. They create opportunities for an exchange of experience and ideas, and are carried out on all levels, - regional, federal, and international. Being of a comparatively short duration, none of their lecture cycles are even remotely as comprehensive as those arranged by the Institute of Ethnic Schools. The following events may be considered representative of the international stage:

III International Seminar was convened by the Moscow Association of Teachers of Russian to Foreigners. It took place at Moscow State University from 1 to 30 June, 1960⁶⁵. On the programme were:

1. a. Lectures on theory of Russian literature.
b. Lectures and consultations on teaching methods.
c. Refresher course in Russian.
2. a. Papers read by delegates.
b. Exchange of experience.
c. Cultural activities.

63 delegates from colleges and universities abroad participated. The programme was developed in detail as follows:

1. a. R.Avanesov: Standard Russian pronunciation.
S.Kr'uchkov: Russian syntax taught to foreigners.
V.Sukhotin: Contemporary Russian phraseology.
Z.Tsvetkova: Basic methods of teaching foreign languages.
N.Shansky: Linguistic commentary of fiction.
D.Rozental': Practical stylistics.
V.Kl'ueva: Stylistic differentiation of Russian vocabulary.
D.Shmelev: Rigid syntactical constructions in contemporary Russian.

⁶⁵ I.Pul'kina, G.Rozhkova, Trety mezhdunarodny seminar prepodavateley russkogo yazyka vysshikh uchebnykh zavedeny stran narodnoy demokrati, NatSh, 1960, No.5, p.88-90.

- b. A number of topics were suggested for discussion and consultation.
 - c. The refresher course was carried out in small national groups, but certain exercises in grammar and speech melody were done by all groups together. Groups evaluated the methods tried out on themselves. This kind of discussion was thought to be very instructive.
2. a. 4 speakers discussed texts for language instruction at work.
- b. A representative of the Publishing House for Foreign Languages spoke about the books to appear shortly.
 - c. I. Pul'kina: The principles of compilation of textbooks for foreigners.
 - d. Organization of teaching Russian in Poland.
 - e. Re-organization of teaching Russian at Humboldt University in Berlin.
 - f. Russian language in Bulgarian colleges.
 - g. Teaching Russian at the Institute of Transportation, Prague.
 - h. Teaching Russian by the complex method at the University of Kharbin,
- etc., etc.

Altogether 18 papers were read by the delegates from abroad.

3: The delegates paid visits to the Institute of Foreign Languages and its laboratories (a: Speech, b: Experimental Phonetics and Speech Psychology).

The theme of the next international conference on related subjects to take place in Moscow,

IV International Seminar⁶⁶, was Teaching Foreign Languages in general,

⁶⁶ A. Skorynina, Mezhdunarodny seminar po voprosam prepodavaniya inostrannykh yazykov, NatSh, 1962, No.1, p.74-76.

and Russian was treated but as one of these. The seminar was a common undertaking of RSFSR Ministry of Education and the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences. In the much shorter time (10 days against 30) considerably more papers were read (in general and sectional meetings, 69). The topics under discussion were:

1. The present state of teaching foreign languages.
2. Methods of teaching.
3. Training of teachers.
4. Preparation of textbooks.

There were English, German, Russian and French sections. In the Russian section 7 papers were read:

- V.Arakin: Grammatical selectivity.
- I.Hlavach: Teaching Russian in Hungary.
- I.Shtefenescu: Organization of Russian lessons in Rumania.
- F.Endredi: Russian speech training in Hungary.
- Sh.Sukhea: Extra-curricular teaching in Mongolia.
- G.Mukoseeva: Textra-curricular teaching in Estonia.

The subject of international seminars is closely related to the teaching of Russian abroad, and to the second part of this review, dealing with the state of Russian studies in the allied countries of the USSR.

CHAPTER II

SATELLITE COUNTRIES OF USSR

Russian is a compulsory school subject in every country having a relationship of a satellite to the USSR. In those particularly closely attached to the USSR it remains a part of the school curriculum for as long as 7 or 8 years, and later the studies are continued in colleges and universities. As a rule, in these countries, programmes and methods of instruction are quite advanced. They are being developed independently, but with every regard to the progress made in the Soviet Union herself. Czechoslovakia, Poland, East Germany and Red China - if one may, for the purpose of this essay, put it on the footing of a satellite - all publish their methodological periodicals. Outside the school system, the knowledge of Russian is being spread through a wide net of language courses for the population. Usually such courses are initiated by Societies of Friendship with the Soviet Union.

1. ALBANIA

Russian language became a compulsory subject in the 7-year Albanian schools in 1953. Now it is taught in all 7-year and secondary schools, institutes and colleges. A number of schools teach all subjects in Russian. The teachers are normally graduates of the Russian faculty of the University of Tirana, of pedagogical institutes, or Albanian teachers trained in the Soviet Union. The programme demands that the school graduates should have the ability to understand simple speech and texts, to read and write without mistakes, compose simple sentences, do

light translations, and have a free command of colloquial speech.⁶⁷

The textbooks, several of which have been issued in the last few years, pay due attention to the linguistic peculiarities of Albanian. A good bi-lingual dictionary has been compiled, and a larger one is in preparation.

Instruction begins in grade V, the backbone of it being copious reading, although conversation, we are assured, is not neglected. Much time in the first 3 years is devoted to phonetics (4 Russian sounds are new to Albanians), morphology and syntax. In grades VIII-X the grammatical categories are learnt, in grade XI (and last) - complex syntax. Pictorial conversation is in vogue.

There are many language circles, some of them rather dry in appearance (when they specialize in grammar, phonetics, translations only), others probably more entertaining (conversation, reading, games, compilation of albums and collages, correspondence).

Teachers are improving their standards by participation in conferences, attending lectures, or by going as exchange students to the USSR.

2. BULGARIA

Russian language has been popular in Bulgaria for a long time, but the methods of studying it have undergone several drastic changes.

⁶⁷ A.Nesterov, Izucheniye russkogo yazyka v Albanii, NatSh, 1960, No.2, p.73-77.

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Before World War II there were several periods when the grammatical approach was stressed. Russian was put on an equal footing with Latin and Greek and studied as if it were a dead language, mainly for the purpose of the grammatical and stylistic analysis. At times this attitude gave place to its opposite, the direct method which was trying to get by with a minimum of grammar and a rather chaotic distribution of material. After 1944 the influence of the Soviet methods became preponderant, and now the Bulgarian methods are a combination of the three:

- a. methods applying to foreign languages, as taught in the USSR;
- b. " " " ethnic schools of the USSR;
- c. " of native Bulgarian.

The very nearness of both languages creates a host of problems in spelling, vocabulary and grammar. On the whole it may be said that the approach is quite easy, but the continuation of studies often leaves the student in a state of confusion.

Russian grammar is usually taught by induction (from specific cases to rules). This method demands a very active participation by the teacher and takes much time. Occasionally, if pressed for time, he resorts to deduction (from rule to application), especially when there is a parallel rule in Bulgarian.⁶⁸

Reading is started early and done with continuous emphasis on orthoepy. Ordinarily the teacher reads first, then the students repeat (individually or all together). At a later stage (2nd year) students do

⁶⁸ G. Tagamlitskaya, Printsipy i metody prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v Bolgarii, "Voprosy prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v stranakh narodnoy demokratii", APN, Moscow, 1961, p.55.

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some independent reading, using dictionaries and puzzling out the context.

Mostly grammar and reading can be taught in detachment, but the material must be correlated, of course.

There was a time when to teach conversation in classes was considered impossible. Then, with the arrival of the direct method, it became the all-absorbent activity and was done with enthusiasm, but without any planning. At present it plays a prominent part within the organized system and starts right at the first lesson.

3. RED CHINA,

although not a "satellite" but a pronouncedly independent ally, may be mentioned in this connection in view of some interesting peculiarities of her teaching techniques.

Russian is taught here in high schools and universities. Two main methods are applied at the high school:

1. First half of a lesson - vocabulary, second half - grammar and text; lessons often last as long as 4 (four) hours;⁶⁹

2. First half - vocabulary, grammar and text; second half - recapitulation.

Most teachers consider the second method to be more efficient, as students tend to forget by the end of the long lesson what they have learnt in the beginning. A recapitulation therefore proves beneficial.

It all starts with phonetics, taught "analytically-synthetically",

⁶⁹ Prepodavaniye russkogo yazyka v srednikh skolakh KNR, NarDem,
p.167-84.

meaning that students are held to imitate the teacher when producing Russian sounds. If they are reasonably successful, no further explanation is offered; otherwise the articulation is explained and contrasted with the Chinese speech, though the explanations are kept simple. Speech habits are taught through the alternation of the following steps: teacher's enunciation, individual imitation, all together, individuals once more.

More thorough is the explanation of the vocabulary. It is given in 3 ways:

1. With the help of pictures ("which necessarily can only convey the meaning of a small number of concrete nouns", remarks the anonymous author of the report; the point is arguable);

2. By translation and comments in Chinese (most widely used method);

3. Explanation in Russian (which involves semantic analysis, use of synonyms and antonyms, context and definition).

Grammar is taught both by induction and deduction. Teachers have been doing a great deal of grammatical analysis, - too much, it seems now. In future a more harmonious development of reading, writing, talking and comprehending by listening will be desired.

At the university level, the target is the preparation of teachers. Since 1958 the complex method of instruction is predominant here.⁷⁰ In the first two years students receive a sound foundation of phonetics, grammar and speech skills. The last university years are used to

⁷⁰ Postanovka prakticheskogo kursa russkogo yazyka na starshikh kursakh Pekinskogo instituta inostrannykh yazykov, op.cit., p.185-194.

- a. attain automatic speech command;
- b. increase perceptive ability;
- c. intensify and systematize the knowledge of vocabulary and stylistics.

The main ways leading towards these objectives are analytical reading (for later independent studies) and synthetic reading (for direct comprehension of context). The synthetic reading is done at home, tested in classes.

Analytical reading is done in several stages. First the students are given a word list, commentaries and a plan of the coming lesson. Then the instructor outlines in an introductory speech, depending on the text to be studied, either the ideology or the historical background of the material, or its author's biography, or the contents of the text.

The main part is the grammatical, lexical and stylistical analysis of the text. When this is done, students must be ready to answer some questions designed to test their degree of comprehension. Then the text plan is worked out. This helps to inculcate in students the habits of logical thinking. The final stage is expressive reading; the more difficult sections are first read, and then commented upon, by the instructor.

Retentive exercises consist mainly in the following activities:

1. On new texts:
 - a. Tests on vocabulary and phraseological knowledge;
 - b. Expressive reading;
 - c. Rendering of contents; answering questions.
2. On material as a whole:
 - a. Vocabulary exercises;
 - b. Comprehensive text reading and analysis;
 - c. Questions and answers;

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- d. Discussion;
- e. Expressive reading; memorizing of sections.

Synthetic reading is done in texts required by the faculty and texts chosen by individual students. The required reading is not heavy. Thematically it is similar to the reading done in classes and therefore can be easily tested. Free reading is supervised in off-lectures hours.

The character of tests depends on the material. Expressive reading, translation, narration of contents, précis, discussions are some of the means of testing. Suitable material for home reading is readily available in film scripts. After the students have read it, they are shown the film and made to discuss it.

4. CZECHOSLOVAKIA

Here Russian is taught in grades IV-XI, 2 to 3 hours per week⁷¹. Making it a subject of general education entailed an acute shortage of trained and experienced teachers, but gradually this difficulty subsided. Teachers for grades VI-VIII are trained in pedagogical institutes, teachers for grades IX-XI in universities and at a special Russian language institute. Regional teachers' institutes keep their qualifications up to date by arranging seminars and summer courses.

Adults are taught through a net of courses supported by the Society of Czecho-Soviet Friendship. These courses have been in operation since 1950. They used to comprise 3 years studies, but in 1960 they were reduced to 2 years. A student group consists of 10-15 persons. At the

⁷¹ F. Malirzh, V. Tsikha, Osnovnye voprosy obucheniya russkomu yazyku v Chexoslovakii, Nar Dem, p. 308-324.

termination of their studies, adult students are entitled to go through examinations and become members of Russian language circles. The target is to produce an ability to read texts of medium difficulty, write and speak Russian on every-day and socio-political topics. There are special textbooks and teaching aids designed for the courses, 3 times a week radio, twice a week TV broadcasts.

Russian language enjoys in Czechoslovakia the privileges of a closely related language which combines the features of a foreign language and the languages spoken in the home countries (Czech and Slovak). These advantages are to some extent allayed by the possibility of a certain confusion, not unlike the situation described in the section on Bulgaria. The teacher is challenged to utilize all the help he can get from his students' knowledge of Czech and Slovak, and counteract any undue influence by the home languages, or even the reverse phenomenon (actually the Czechs seem to be more alarmed by the latter), that having learnt the Russian morphology they start applying it to their native language.

The methodological history of teaching Russian in Czechoslovakia appears in the native research⁷² again in the shape of 3 periods, but these differ from the Bulgarian ones in so far as Czechoslovakia steps at once into (Bulgarian No.2) period of

1. General enthusiasm for the popular entertaining kind of Russian studies. Instruction must be kept easy and interesting. Grammar is explained but in some detached instances. Correct pronunciation is

72 A.Strzhizhova, *Kratky obzor po metodike prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v cheshskikh shkolakh*, *NarDem*, p.325-336.

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considered an unnecessary luxury. This happy time lasts from 1945 to 1951.

2. Awakening to the stern realization that the utilitarian attitude would not do for ever. Systematical teaching of grammar, introduction of the contrastive method, the necessity of correct pronunciation become the new slogans, curiously co-inciding with the USSR politics of teaching foreign languages in the early '50s. The zealots among the Czech methodists imposed very high linguistic quotas, so high that after 5 years or so of rigorous experimentation (1952-55) the inability of the average student to rise to them became quite apparent.

3. Since 1956 a new programme is in effect. It does not contain any methodical innovations, but generally concedes a lowering of demands and underlines the significance of speech development.

It may be permitted to add that since December, 1959, some reverberations of Khrushchev's speech on "Making the Bond Stronger" have become audible in Czechoslovakia, too.⁷³ Thus, in 1960 a new bill "On the educational system" was promulgated, and the discussions following it led to certain recommendations on teaching policies and methods. It can be easily divined that these recommendations are:

1. Teaching targets: More practical knowledge.
2. Contents of teaching: Texts dealing with every-day situations. Start with adaptations, proceed to original texts. Include industrial and political topics. Reduce grammar, increase conversation.
3. Methods: Less theory, more live language. Series of Russian fiction published for school children's reading. Pen friends in the USSR. Extra-curricular activities. Contrastive treatment of Russian and

⁷³ N.Sokolov, Itogi diskussii o novykh put'akh obucheniya russkomu yazyku v svyazi s obshchestvennoy reformoy v Chexoslovakii, NatSh, 1961, No. 5, p. 84-91.

Czech/Slovak. Co-ordination of teaching Russian and other subjects.

Most of them reiterate the items known from Soviet sources, often themselves repetitious. But occasionally one finds an original idea, like

Collective conversation⁷⁴ which consists in splitting the class into groups of 2-4, which take part in general conversation as units (having an opportunity of internal discussions); the teacher is of course supervising.

Free lessons (perhaps once a month) for a diversified programme of entertainment and games.^{74a}

5. EAST GERMANY.

When Russian turned up as a compulsory subject, in 1945, one of the first questions to be decided upon was the establishment of the minimum vocabulary. Now the vocabulary is there, but the minimum phraseology is not. The Soviet research was closely observed and its conclusions imitated: the direct method was declared erroneous (the main objection to it being that it is "un-marxist"⁷⁵), and the "productive-receptive" method (both active and passive, complementary learning) given the status of the only correct approach⁷⁶. In the framework of this universal method

⁷⁴ I.Vesely, Obuchenije russkomu yazyku v Chexhoslovakii na novom puti, NatSh, No.3, 1962, p.74-79.

^{74a} op.cit., p.77

⁷⁵ O.Hermenau, O zakonomernost'akh, opredel'ayushchikh usvoyeniye russkogo yazyka kak inostrannogo, NarDem, p.130

⁷⁶ ibid.: "There can be only one method" - p.152

pronunciation is taught in an introductory course of phonetics which contains also some basic vocabulary and grammar; teacher's work is supported by the use of a tape recorder.

Vocabulary and grammar: Vocabulary supplies the material for analytical work. Analysis of concrete examples leads to the formulation of rules. Once a rule is learnt, it is applied in numerous exercises until its use becomes automatic. The interdependence of rules is established, rules are classified and locked in a system. This is in a nutshell the complete run of the grammar studies in East Germany. The vocabulary is efficiently small but pliable. The number of words learnt in lower grades is steadily decreasing. For instance, grade V (the first year of Russian) in 1946 required 500 words, now no more than 350. The point of departure in lexical and grammar work is the significant unit. All vocabulary and grammar is introduced concentrically.

Speech development is facilitated by the use of pictures, charts on phonetics and on word building, and - a new idea - a magnet picture board (on which magnetized figures can be arranged in a variety of situations). Another recent innovation is the declension slide ruler which works well on simple morphology but becomes a menace when one tries to use its findings for phraseological purposes (because they are good but for schematical sentences).

An interesting experiment⁷⁷ with deployment of semantically

77 K.Gunther, Razvitiye yazykovykh navykov na osnove semanticheskikh kombiniruyemykh sochetany, NatSh, 1960, No.3, p.63-69.

combinable units was carried out in the '50s in Dresden. The programme of 1955 demanded a command of Russian which would enable a graduate of the 10-year school to "keep up simple conversation on present life, every-day observations and problems, and political events", and to read, with the use of a dictionary, Russian texts and translate them into German. The school was not prepared to meet the challenge of comprehension by listening and conversation; it had been concentrating too much on the theory, too little on practical language skills. Therefore new methods had to be found and tried out. They were first introduced in Dresden schools and tested by 300 teachers elsewhere, and showed, it is said, conclusively that the only successful way (at least for certain grades of German schools) was to list semantically combinable units and impress them upon students, in other words, to teach phraseology. Logically, in the lower grades the material had to be comparatively simple, later on the basic word was allowed to undergo morphological changes and was combined with different others:

simple: trudny vopros - trudnaya rabota - trudnoye povtoreniye;

complex: posetit' mavzoley - ya poseshchu muzey -
ty posetish uchit'el'a.

Every category was analyzed for its ability to form semantic units with others, and rules were formulated. In three stages the newly-learned phenomenon becomes an automatic tool of expression:

1. The linguistic phenomenon is introduced and analyzed;
2. Frequent repetition commits it to memory;
3. Memory helps to build new phrases based on the same phenomenon.

It is essential that no exercises are permitted to skip the oral part, which is the true form of communication. The manipulation of semantic combinations is nothing but the conscious acquirement of speech habits. The way these exercises are carried out makes much of theory superfluous. Continuous repetition of formerly learnt vocabulary and grammar firmly commits them to memory. The active participation of the student is ensured. Verb aspects are not introduced before the III year.

Reading texts contain a chronologically decreasing share of adaptations.

6. HUNGARY.

Russian is taught in Hungarian schools as the first foreign language. When introducing it in 1945, Hungary already had a long tradition in foreign language studies because, being in a linguistically isolated position, she had to maintain her relations to other nations by using their languages, notably German. However, Russian was the first foreign language ever to be taught in Hungarian elementary schools.⁷⁸ Naturally the difficulties of organization were enormous. It was not until 1949 that Russian could be declared a compulsory subject. In that year nearly 400,000 students started learning it. A special teachers' institute in Budapest, working under Soviet directors, turned out the first teaching crews. Most teachers had known some foreign language before they joined the Russian classes, but many of them had to revise their teaching

⁷⁸ I. Kosharash, Prepodavaniye russkogo yazyka v shkolakh vengerskoy narodnoy respubliky, NarDem, p.68

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methods and adjust them to the standards valid in the Soviet Union. Later on they transferred these methods to other languages when those were re-introduced after a period of stagnation.⁷⁹

The first year of Russian is grade V. Through all the grades to XII, 3 hours per week is the allocated teaching time.

During the 4 years at the elementary school (grades V-VIII) students, if they are lucky, learn 1000 words; basic speech, reading and writing skills; enough grammar to understand and use simple coherent style; through juxtaposition of rules, a more thoughtful attitude towards their own language. They treat the following themes:

- a. School.- b. Family.- c. City. Industry.- d. Country.
- Agriculture.- e. Nature.- f. Social, political and cultural life. Recreation.

It is said "if they are lucky." As a matter of fact, village schools still suffer from a shortage of teachers and frequently are not able to supply any instruction in Russian.⁸⁰

The first high school grade (IX) struggles with the problem of somehow continuing the Russian course, although a number of students join it without any preparation whatsoever. Such beginners are usually put in separate groups where they attend 5 lessons weekly (instead of the usual 3). There is also a special textbook for such stragglers. They are expected to catch up in one year. From grade X on there are no special groups.

Maturity exams require 2 written translations of unprepared texts,

79 op.cit. p.69

80 op. cit. p.69-73.

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made with the help of a dictionary in 5 hours: Russian-Hungarian and Hungarian-Russian. Those failing the written examination are tested orally.⁸¹

Trade schools have a reduced programme in languages. Russian is taught there only 2 hours a week. The final programme for these schools has not been worked out, but the graduates are expected to supply translations of medium difficulty on economic and technical topics. They may use dictionaries.⁸²

In all colleges and universities Russian remains a compulsory subject during the first 2 years. There is a final examination by the end of the 2nd year. Students mainly read and translate texts related to their specialty. Arts faculties prescribe written and oral examinations. The written part consists of a 3-hour translation of a special text of medium difficulty (25-30 lines of print). The oral examination demands reading, translating and grammatical analysis of 12-15 lines of a special text of medium difficulty.⁸³

Teachers are trained, for the elementary school in pedagogical institutes (4 years), for the secondary school, in universities (5 years). Even the latter, before they will be promoted to teaching high school, usually have to earn their spurs at the elementary school. Admittance to university honour studies in Russian is fairly selective; there are entrance competitions. 1959-60, Budapest University admitted but 76 students out of 200 applicants (120 of them "cum laude"). The university

81 op.cit. p.74-78

82 op.cit. p.79

83 op.cit. p.79-80

curriculum closely resembles that of many Canadian universities, for instance the University of Ottawa. All lectures are read in Russian.⁸⁴

Both pedagogical institutes and universities provide extra-mural courses.

7. NORTH KOREA.

Here, too, teaching Russian begins in grade V and continues through the secondary school, college and university. There are many opportunities for adults to learn Russian at evening and correspondence courses arranged by high schools and colleges, and also in language circles attached to various state enterprises. The intensity of teaching is steadily stepped up. Until 1960 trade schools were getting through their programme in 180-200 hours, but now they are spending on it 350 hours, and their programme equals that of the junior high school (with 408 hours of Russian)⁸⁵. Improved methods make this progress possible: learning becomes less of a chore, makes prolonged study less exhausting. North Korea shares the trends prevailing in the Soviet Union and in other satellite countries: the stress is on the development of speech and comprehension; the parallel demands for fluent translation techniques do not seem to be entirely logical, for it has been established that much translating reduces the adaptability for talking, yet the Koreans do not appear to be aware of this contradiction. They intend to learn all about the teaching

⁸⁴ op.cit. p.80-83.

⁸⁵ V.Dmitriyeva, Russky yazyk v Koreyskoy Narodno-Demokraticheskoy Respublike, NatSh, No.4, 1960, p.65-68.

trade, however, and with the help of Russian methodologists they probably will soon know as much about it as any fellow-traveller does. The time for their own contributions has not come yet.

8. MONGOLIA.

In 1961, Mongolia had 419 general schools, 15 trade schools, 7 colleges with a total of 30,000 students who, if they were above grade IV, were all studying Russian.⁸⁶ The latter has been a compulsory subject since 1940. There is a sufficient number of qualified teachers, and the best of them manage to make their students fluently read easy texts, relate the contents and keep up simple conversation after 3 years. However, the demands have been increased for Mongolians as well. The last programme in use before the switch in 1959-60 was blamed for having given too much grammar, not enough speech training, and like everywhere else in the Russian sphere of influence, the current trend is to emphasize the practical skills of expression and comprehension. Teachers familiarize themselves with the modern methods and straighten out their procedures as required. They have welcomed the new textbooks, printed in 1959-60, which replace the outdated editions of 1934, 1936 and 1938, which were all written in the old Mongolian script (theoretically abandoned in 1941, but surviving due to shortages of publications in the new, Cyrillic, script). In addition to the textbook proper, there is a volume of 96 texts for home reading, with attached exercises, a Russian-Mongolian dictionary, and a highly

⁸⁶ P.Makarov, Russky yazyk v mongol'skoy shkole, NatSh, 1961, No.3, p.69-74.

appreciated section of "Useful Hints" on housekeeping, business letters and such like. Teachers mutually benefit from their collected and periodically published experiences. It is thought that with the material available to Mongolian teachers at present they should be able to attain and keep very high standards.⁸⁷

9. POLAND.

Much serious work has been done in the field of teaching methods in Poland, but as the Russian language was not compulsorily taught between the two world wars, the systematic research on this subject only began about 15 years ago, and cannot as yet claim any final conclusions. It started in the year 1948 with the publication of the methodological magazine "Język rosyjski" whose main objective was to advise inexperienced and ill-prepared teachers of Russian. At that time there were great numbers of such teachers in Poland, because the study of Russian language was suddenly made mandatory in all Polish schools. "Język rosyjski" continues being published and has maintained its standing as the leading voice of Russian teachers.⁸⁸

First complete handbooks on our subject appeared in the '50s; they were meant to serve mainly as textbooks in teachers' institutes and universities, but many teachers use them in the field. A revised edition of Russian grammar for high schools was published in 1957, but having been compiled by university professors (Galecki, Jakubowski, Lehr-Splawinski) on a fairly high plane, it could not be understood except in the

⁸⁷ op.cit. p.75.

⁸⁸ V.Galecki, O metodike prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v Pol'she,

highest school grades. For the first time the contrastive method was introduced in it, rather carefully. In subsequent years specially designed textbooks for various grades were published, and the gap was closed.⁸⁹

Polish methodologists were using three kinds of sources:

1. Soviet Russian research;
2. Traditions of teaching western languages;
3. Own experience.

As a result, the methods of teaching Russian in primary and secondary schools are fairly well developed and are capable of being updated without difficulty. The methods of university teaching, however, though widely discussed, have not been published as a system yet. Even less developed than those are the methods of adult courses.⁹⁰

The basic and officially approved method of school instruction is the so-called mixed method: a combination of grammar, translation and direct teaching, the latter factor being by far predominant, because the main objective is Russian speech. Here imitation is not considered enough; a certain amount of reflection is desirable; so the use of Polish during the lessons is permitted, although only in certain situations. Such situations would be:

Explanation of vocabulary (when any other method would be less efficient);

Translation;

Contrastive teaching of grammar.

89 op.cit. p.202

90 op.cit. p.203

In this connection we hear once again that the close relationship of two languages makes the learning in some respects easier, in others more difficult, because students tend to apply Polish grammar and semantics to their Russian material. Frequently they start talking a mixture of two languages, a lingo of their own. It is regrettable that not all teachers oppose this habit as firmly as they should, by application of the contrastive method.⁹¹

Theoretically the contrastive teaching remains the backbone of the introductory course given in grade V. Its main problems are the articulation of soft Russian consonants and the placing of stresses. Any graphic indication if the stress is considered inconsequential because the problem is basically an auditory one.

Grammar is taught both by induction and deduction, with a preference for the inductive method. Grammatical exercises serve the purpose of retention of new rules making the use of correct forms a habit, and creating a system of knowledge.⁹²

A school reform is impending in the years 1963-67⁹³: the 7-year primary school will become a 8-year one, the lyceum (secondary school) preserving its 4-year structure. The extension of the programme aims to

1. increase the educational role of the school;
2. delve more deeply into the problems of modern living;

91 op.cit. p.204-206.

92 op.cit. p.206-219.

93 V.Galecki, Nakanune reformy shkol'noy sistemy v Polshe, NetSh. 1962. No.1, p.67-70.

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3. bring the theory nearer to the practical demands of an industrialized society;
4. increase the scope of science studies;
5. apply methods furthering independent thinking ;
6. throw overboard much unnecessary learning;
7. increase extra-curricular and extra-mural activities.

With regard to Russian language, the introductory course is going to become more comprehensive; there will be more speech exercises, the themes are streamlined and reduced to the following concentrically developed topics:

- a. Youth in life and at work;
- b. Home and family life;
- c. USSR present and past;
- d. Folklore.

Classical Russian literature is introduced in grades X-XI, Soviet literature in grades IX and XI.

There is some difference of opinion as to the methods to be used in future. The tendency of direct teaching is raising its head once again. This utilitarian approach is opposed by the traditional contrastive method which favours a humanistic attitude.

10. RUMANIA.

This country tried to put Russian on the teaching programme in 1946, but a shortage of teachers did not permit to make it compulsory until 1948-49. After an attempt to start teaching it in grade IV, it finally became a subject of grade V. Programmes and methods have been changed repeatedly. Until 1952, teaching was done by the linear system, i.e. without any separation of vocabulary and grammar; all explanations were supplied in Rumanian. The next step was, under maintenance of the linear principle, to try and explain everything in Russian, but even this improvement did not

show any spectacular results, because teaching still consisted in mainly reading, and many of the texts were full of complex vocabulary and grammar. The principles laid down by the Rumanian ministry of education in 1954 therefore envisaged a greater emphasis on speech skills, contrastive teaching of phonetics and grammar, the bulk of the explanation being given in Rumanian (for better understanding). Their realization brought some improvement, but the first really decisive step forward was made in 1956 when the linear method was abandoned and replaced by the concentric method.⁹⁴

Unlike other satellite countries, Rumania has to take care of her considerable national minorities. Making use of the Soviet Russian experience in this field, she has provided her Hungarians and Germans with a set of Russian textbooks designed with an eye on the distinctive features of students' mother languages.

Rumanian linguists have done a great deal of constructive research in all sections of Russian linguistics. Particularly numerous are their contributions on the equally numerous problems of the category "verb".

⁹⁴ N.Gobzhila, M.Popesku, M.Fonarzhi, O prepodavanii russkogo yazyka v shkolakh Rumynskoy Narodnoy Respubliki, NarDem, p.256-70.

10. A COMPARISON OF TEACHING METHODS IN THE SATELLITE COUNTRIES.

Similarities and differences common to certain countries have emerged in the progress of this survey. Here they are reduced to the bare essentials.

A. Similarities

in attitude are to be observed in respect of methodology. Generally speaking, the development has gone through three stages:

1. Narrowly utilitarian approach: an attempt to find the easiest way of learning Russian, occasionally minimizing the scientific basis. The direct method of teaching is predominant at this stage.

2. Deepening realization of the importance of the conscious learning of grammar; the contrastive method is often overstressed.

3. Emphasis on speech development. Co-ordination of grammar and vocabulary in phraseology. The contrastive approach is maintained.

Considerable research is being done on orthoepy, assimilation, selectivity.

B. Differences

of opinion reflect the national peculiarities of the contrasting linguistic groups:

a. On phonetics,

1. Chinese methodologists favour the introduction of isolated sounds, later fusing them into syllables, and lastly syllables into words.

2. Czechs would learn whole syllables and words. They recommend gradual assimilation of the phonetic course in several years.

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3. Bulgarians want the whole basic system of phonetics taught in the first year of instruction (grade V).

b. On word building,

1. Germans and Poles consider it an indispensable part of their school routine.

2. The Chinese consider it one of the most difficult questions in all Russian grammar, and refuse to deal with it except in theory and on the highest level of instruction.

3. Czechoslovakian linguists point out the necessity of restrictive contrasting in view of the great similarity in sounds of affixes in Czech, Slovak and Russian, but dissimilarity in meaning.

c. On syntax,

1. Rumanians favour thorough analysis;

2. Czechs, on the opposite, treat it perfunctorily, because it is almost identical with their native practices.

C. UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

By 1961, the following problems were pointed out as demanding urgent attention⁹⁵:

1. Training in pronunciation. Establishment of orthoepic minima for every school grade.

2. Juxtaposition of positive and negative influences of native languages on the Russian language in the process of learning⁹⁶. The four

95 G.Serd'uchenko, ed., NarDem, p.13

96 O.Hermenau, O zakonomernost'akh, opredel'ayushchikh usvoeniye russkogo yazyka kak inostrannogo, NarDem, p.114.

stages of speech development when hampered by the native surroundings are recognized as: Broken, Normative, Literary, Literary-Colloquial.

3. Minimum vocabulary for different grades and school types.
4. Structure of textbooks.
5. Size and contents of literary texts.
6. Criteria of contrastive sampling.
7. Selectivity in teaching grammar and phonetics: omitting and adding material depending on the contrasting native language.
8. Unification of grammatical terminology.

CHAPTER III

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. The World-Wide Promotion of Russian.

Drawing on her enormous human, political and financial resources, the Soviet Union is promoting Russian language on an unprecedented scale. The offensive is carried out in two directions:

vertically - by teaching speech rather than book knowledge;

horizontally - by extension of the geographical limits.

The internal function of Russian merely as a means of federal communication is no longer considered satisfying. It is now openly admitted that the target is to make Russian the primary language for the entire population of the Soviet Union, gradually relegating the hundred and more ethnic languages still spoken in the USSR to subservient positions. The logical - although not yet officially expressed - continuation of this trend must eventually lead to a complete elimination of all such secondary languages.

On the international scale, Russian has already become the first foreign language taught in all clearly satellite countries. It is gaining in importance also outside the direct sphere of Russian influence. The Russians spare no efforts to make it one of the world's widest-known languages.

Outsiders are encouraged to seek advice on their methodological and organizational problems from USSR research institutions.

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2. The Contemporary Methods.

Since "making the bond stronger" has become the government policy, teaching Russian on Soviet lines now means in fact teaching the command of the living language, putting the skills of oral expression and audial understanding before everything else.

In practice this often demands departure from the conservative methods of reading and translating in preference to conversation. The latter requires by far more concentration from the teacher and the student, but when efficiently conducted, the new method of instruction bears fruit. The recognition that all modern languages should be taught so that the students acquire a degree of proficiency in speaking is nothing peculiarly Russian. To a large extent it is shared by progressive-minded linguists all over the world - but one has to admit that the Russians forge ahead with uncommon single-mindedness of purpose.

The main factor in teaching - anything - will always be the personality, the talent of the teacher. But individual endeavour must be supported by suitable methods and effective teaching aids if the concerted effort is to produce nation-wide results. Therefore the recommendations for new attitudes and new textbooks.

From the multiplicity of suggested improvements a few may be singled out as particularly deserving:

1. The basis of all methodical teaching is a good minimum vocabulary. Every unnecessary word learnt detracts from learning another, more useful word; every missing word hampers in geometrical proportion all

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lexical and syntactical progress.

2. The shape in which the material is presented is determined by the textbooks. Co-ordinated sets of books are more easily adaptable to different levels and groups of students than any works attempting some completeness of coverage. Consequently, reading texts, grammar, exercises should be found in separate little volumes.

3. All such publications must be printed with utmost care, with generous use of fat print, underlining, casings, charts, and other compositorial devices which serve to clarify the structure of the text and give visual support to memory.

4. The same purpose is served by rich illustrative material: pictures, drawings in immediate context and produced by skilled artists, and diagrams. In addition to increasing the lucidity of the text, the pictorial part in itself is an unequalled medium of information.

5. A comparison between various textbooks shows that those written in collaboration by two or more authors usually show better balance and less mistakes. Collective authorship is therefore advisable.

6. A point that should not have to be mentioned - it is so self-evident - is the principle of regressive adaptation: in early stages all reading material must be severely adapted, - but from chapter to chapter, even page to page, the adaptations must decrease.

7. Drastic reduction of translating exercises follows from the orientation towards more speech.

8. With the new emphasis on phraseology - which is fully

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justified - more phraseological dictionaries will be used. New dictionaries, designed for progressive teaching, will be required.

9. No pronunciation should be taught without a short (1-2 lessons) introduction to the Russian speech melody. Syntactical phonetics (the rhythm and melody of sentences) should be brought in early and repeatedly. A common experience with foreigners even with a fair command of Russian lexical phonetics is their inability to produce native-like intonation in whole sentences. This makes their speech hard to understand. One might say that under these circumstances much of the learning done without the intonational foundation is bound to go to waste.

10. Finally, the wish that every country where Russian is on the school programme should have a co-ordinating language institute is no longer an extravagance. In respect of Great Britain the Annan Report⁹⁸ says:

It is of great importance that this country should have a language institute. This institute could well grow from the arrangements that we envisage for Russian courses. Should it be set up as an independent establishment immediately, the Committee would regard it as a satisfactory centre for the first Russian courses for teachers.⁹⁹

⁹⁸ The report of the Committee appointed by the Minister of Education and the Secretary of State of Scotland in 1960 to consider the Teaching of Russian. The report was published in June, 1962.

⁹⁹ Association of Teachers of Russian Broadsheet No.8, 1962, p.11.

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3. The Achievements.

The body of this paper had by necessity to deal mainly with the programme of the school reform. The results of the revision are just beginning to come in, and it will not be possible to assess them for several more years.

Nevertheless certain observations can be made on the basis of information coming through and of such textbooks modelled on the new lines as have reached the western book-stores.

In the first place, the idea of bringing the study of Russian closer to life has caught on. The switch from the 7-year school to 8 years, the general acceptance of the thesis on the necessity to teach live language are a fact. The realization of the principles of book construction is under way. It is too early to say if it will eventually lead to production of blameless specimens or rest satisfied with reasonable compromises.

The writer has had an opportunity to examine a number of books produced in the last two years expressly for non-Russians, and these are his findings:

V.D.Romaninov, Uchebnye dialogi¹⁰⁰ - a textbook for the initial stage of speech development - adheres to the professed didactical fundamentals. The adaptation, the word supply, the treatment of grammar are all fully consequential. The larger part of the texts cover such everyday situations as Class-Room, Boarding School, Theatre, Restaurant,

100 Moscow, VPSH, 1961, 98 p.

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Sports. In addition, socio-political vocabulary is supplied by way of the topics: Chronology, The Map (of the World, of the USSR), Moscow, The Great Victories of the Soviet People, Raising Material and Cultural Standards of Life, Struggle for Peace, The Soviet Proposal for General Disarmament.

The switch to these propagandistic matters is quite sudden, also in respect of methodology. One may be permitted to question if learning such expressions as "deployment of international forces"¹⁰¹ or "pressure by capitalist monopolies"¹⁰² really may be called indispensable for the phraseology of a first-year student, even if the latter manages to memorize them. The second part of the dialogue reads like a political catechism. The printing technique and the paper are good, but there are no illustrations of any kind.

In overplaying the propaganda tune, "Uchebnye diologi" is of course by no means unique among the Soviet publications. It is hard to find one not attempting, often in an extremely crude manner, to shape students' ideology. Whenever such tendencies become less obvious, the editors or publishers are liable to be subjected to sharp reprimands. ^{102a} It is understandable that under such circumstances they usually prefer to play safe.

101 op.cit., p.92.

102 op.cit., p.95.

102a "The Times" Moscow correspondent reports the criticism of the Academy of Pedagogical Sciences at the XXI CPSU Congress for alleged lack of political responsibility: Ideology Taken Lightly, "The Times Educational Supplement", Dec.29, 1961.

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M.N.Borisova & A.N.Posadskaya, Russkaya literatura dl'a V klassa natsional'nykh shkol,¹⁰³ does not reflect any intention of the authors to adapt the book to the requirements of a specific nationality. Presumably the ethnic adaptation ends with grade IV. The contents include many ethnic authors in Russian translations, and even some Chinese and Vietnamese fairy-tales which one would not expect in a textbook on Russian literature, even if one of these texts¹⁰⁴ has lingered on the pages of "Rodnaya rech" for years.

The adaptation is on the whole good, but in at least one instance it slips: on p.59, in a folk tale, the old Russian verst is replaced by kilometer which in that context is shocking. On the same page direct speech is not detached from the narrative by punctuation, but this may be considered a misprint. One wrong stress mark (p.267) has been noticed.

The poetry recommended for memorizing suits the purpose.

On the whole, this volume is comparable to "Rodnaya rech II", though certain pieces have been taken over from "Rodnaya rech III". "Russkaya literatura" illustrations and printing techniques show some deterioration. Some pictures have no captions.

The use of this grade V book presupposes a considerably higher standard of Russian than has been attained e.g. by Canadian universities. The writer arrives at this conclusion on the basis of some experiments

103 Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1961, 272 p.

104 Uporny Yun-Su in E.E.Solovyeva et al., Rodnaya rech, II, Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1957, 274 p.- p.59-61.

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with III year Canadian honour students concerning their comprehension of "Rodnaya rech II", which were carried out in 1959.

The difference between the books for Russian school use and those for ethnic schools becomes less pronounced in higher grades.

N.V.Kolokol'tsev et al., Russkaya literatura dl'a VI klassa natsional'nykh shkol,¹⁰⁵ is very similar to "Rodnaya rech" III and IV, but it maintains the use of stress marks throughout the volume. Here again a number of captions to the pictures are missing; the quality of illustrations is unequal.

P.D.Krayevsky & A.A.Lipayev, Russkaya literatura dl'a VIII klassa nerusskoy sredney shkoly¹⁰⁶ differs from a textbook for Russian schools only through continued, though diminishing, use of stress marks.

Finally, even this device is almost obliterated in N.A.Trifonov & N.I.Kudr'ashev, Russkaya sovetskaya literatura dl'a X klassa nerusskoy sredney shkoly¹⁰⁷. This book fulfills the recommendation to separate class-room and home texts by using two kinds of type. It is built around the old programme of 1955-56, but appears to equally satisfy the demands of the 1959 programme.

Four specimens of adaptation of Russian classics were examined:

105 N.V.Kolokol'tsev, A.S.Otachkin, M.N.Borisova, Russkaya literatura. Khrestomatiya dl'a VI klassa natsional'nykh shkol, Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1961, 320 p.

106 Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1961, 304 p.

107 Moscow, Uchpedgiz, 1962, 264 p.

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- a. A.Tolstoy, Nikita's Childhood¹⁰⁷
- b. A.Chekhov, Short Stories¹⁰⁸
- c. M.Lermontov, A Hero of Our Time¹⁰⁹
- d. I.Turgenev, short novels Asya and The First Love¹¹⁰.

These represent, in that order, a certain gradation of difficulty, although none of them have been reduced to a really basic level. The work of adaptation is competently done; the notes and vocabulary very carefully prepared. On all 563 pages of text barely a handful of minor mistakes have been observed, e.g. in Asya, two disregarded cases of enclisis¹¹¹ (za gbrodom instead of zà gorodom on p.12, ne dali instead of nè dali on p.49); translation of bel'vshy by "to show white" (p.113); byt' vl'ublenny for "to be in love" (p.117) and such like, - most of them probably inadvertent, although the non-consummated enclisis may be just another point of deliberate adaptation.

The dictionaries, all running, roughly from 20 % of the text volume (Turgenev) to 60 % (Chekhov), contain morphological notes, and the more difficult sentences are idiomatically translated at the bottom of the text pages. All four books are meant for the use of fairly advanced students of Russian.

With reference to oral teaching meted out to non-Russian university students, a report by A.B.Murphy, senior lecturer at the Royal Academy, Sandhurst¹¹², may provide some information. A.B.Murphy visited several

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- 107 Moscow, Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1961, 96 p.
 - 108 " " " " " 1962, 127 p.
 - 109 " " " " " 1962, 172 p.
 - 110 " " " " " 1961, 168 p.
 - 111 Transposition of stress unto a preposition.
 - 112 ATR, 1962, No.7, p.54-55.

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times a beginners' class at the Moscow State University. The class consisted of 6 students whose native language was Arabic. The group teacher was U.A.Markov (whose articles on minimum vocabulary have been discussed on p.48-59). He is described as a highly talented teacher. His approach was in the nature of the direct method: attention was concentrated on simple re-telling and conversation rather than an analysis of grammatical forms. The teaching was based on film strips which were mainly narrative in character: folk tales and simple stories. It was obvious from listening to the lessons that the rate of wastage was insignificant and that practically all the words from previous lessons had been retained in the active vocabulary of the class.

The situation was not quite so fortunate with grammatical forms: repeatedly confusion occurred there, in particular with the endings of the substantival declensions. Up to the stage of instruction reached then (8 weeks from scratch, 20 hours per week in class plus 2 hours daily home study) the practice had been to give individual examples of the most frequent case endings without any attempt to relate them to a general system. The advantage of this procedure appeared to be that the students now realized their own shortcomings and actually wanted to learn some grammar. Their demand for theory was now being met by supplying declension paradigms. In A.B.Murphy's opinion an intensification of drill at this stage might be useful, for the time had arrived to stop often-repeated mistakes. In general, even bearing in mind that the students were living in Russian surroundings, their standard after the short period of study was impressive, and

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the observer felt that if the right balance of accuracy and fluency could be maintained the results of the seven months' course should be extremely good.¹¹³

4. Utilizing Russian Methods in the West.

It will have been realized that many of the principles discussed in this paper cannot claim to be invented or exclusively applied by the Russians. A great many of them, e.g.

1. the avoidance of grammar until some oral fluency has been achieved;
2. brief, carefully selected vocabulary;
3. visual aids such as film strips, TV and illustrated textbooks;
4. relation of the language at all times to everyday experience;
5. avoidance of translations,

also constitute the fundamentals of those western systems which put the emphasis on the development of speech skills - among them such a successful institution as the French language teaching research centre at St. Cloud. The Russians but share them with other linguists when they apply them to their own language.

Not altogether surprisingly, in the countries which have used the facilities offered by the Soviet organization teaching of Russian has gained impetus by leaps and bounds. Great Britain has every prospect of putting Russian (instead of German) in the second place among her modern

¹¹³ Markov's own description of his method: U.Markov, Iz opyta primeneniya soznatel'no-prakticheskogo metoda pri obuchenii russkomu yazyku v nebol'shikh gruppakh, NatSh, 1961, No.4, p.18-28.

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languages (the first being held by French), and here again reference may be made to the Annan Report. The situation in Great Britain has improved to such an extent that C.V. James, the Moscow-trained methodologist, felt justified in ascertaining, toward the end of 1962:

The education department of a large London book-store has two sections devoted to modern languages; one bears the heading "Common Languages", and the other "Lesser Known Languages". Russian is included under the first heading: so far have we travelled in the past three years.¹¹⁴

The Department of Soviet Social and Economic Institutions at Glasgow University is looking for ways to enlist the help of Russian speakers in dealing with the large amount of material which comes in.¹¹⁵

Similar developments on the institutional scale could be developed elsewhere. But even a dispersed, un-coordinated knowledge of contemporary Russian methods in language instruction may be utilized in variable degrees by western teachers and writers of textbooks. It is hoped that some of the aspects briefly touched in the present contribution may be found deserving a more comprehensive treatment in future.

114 ATR, 1962, No.8, p.7

115 ibid., p.15.

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APPENDIX 1

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

APN	Akademiya Pedagogicheskikh Nauk RSFSR.
ATR	Association of Teachers of Russian Broadsheet.
CPSU	Communist Party of the Soviet Union.
Educ.Spl.	The Times Educational Supplement.
NatSh	Russky Yazyk v natsionalnoy shkole.
NarDem	Voprosy prepodavaniya russkogo yazyka v stranakh narodnoy demokratii.
Sh	Russky yazyk v shkole.

APPENDIX 2

NOTE ON transliteration

The system of transliteration adopted by ATR - the British Association of Teachers of Russian - ¹¹³ has been applied throughout this paper:

а	a	п	p
б	b	р	r
в	v	с	s
г	g	т	t
д	d	у	u
е	e yo	ф	f
ж	zh	х	kh
з	z	ц	ts
и	i	ч	ch
й	y	ш	sh
к	k	щ	shch
л	l	ъ	"
м	m	ы	y
н	n	ь	'
о	o	э	e
		ю	yu
		я	ya

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ATR, 1960, No.3, p.41-42

APPENDIX 3

ABSTRACT

OF

The Methods of Teaching Russian at Non-Russian
Schools of USSR and Satellite Countries¹

Since 1959 new methods of teaching Russian to non-Russians are being developed and applied in the USSR. Typical suggestions from teachers have been examined, the selected ones adopted for nation-wide use. The main principles have been established.

Before the instruction can begin the desired minimum vocabulary must be worked out. The programme endeavours not to exceed the active and passive material of the minimum vocabulary. It aims at teaching live, i.e. spoken language. Phraseology is taught before grammar. Conversation in continuous relation to ever-day life is preferred to the old approach which persisted in teaching reading and writing before speech. Lexical and syntactical phonetics gain new importance in the development of oral expression and audial comprehension. Translation is severely reduced.

In more advanced stages of instruction grammar is given in concentric quantities, starting with a nucleus of combined categories, then gradually extending the knowledge about the same categories, but always maintaining a balanced relation. This replaces the method which was treating grammatical material in sections: declension, conjugation, syntax all separately.

With the help of tightly organized research new methods prove to be remarkably successful.

¹ Harald E. Sigurd, Master of Arts thesis presented to the School of Graduate Studies of the University of Ottawa, March 1963,