

TARTU RIIKLIK ÜLIKOOL

III

METHODICA

TARTU RIIKLIKU ÜLIKOOLI TOIMETISED

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METOOEDIKA ALALT

III

ТРУДЫ ПО МЕТОДИКЕ ПРЕПОДАВАНИЯ
ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ

М Е Т Н О Д И С А

ТАРТУ 1974

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Tartu Riiklik Ülikool, 1974

Toimetajailt

"Tartu Riikliku Ülikooli Toimetiete" raames ilmuv "Methodioa III" tutvustab TRÜ õppetöödude uurimietöö tulemusi võõrkeelte õpetamise metoodika alal, samuti keeleõpetamise aktuaalseid probleeme NSVL Liidu ja välismaa kõrgemates õppesustutes.

Käsitlemist leiavad järgmised probleemid: õppematerjal raskusastme määramine, õppetöö efektiivsuse mõõtmine katse- ja kontrollrühmas, teadlikkuse osa võõrkeelete grammatika õpetamisei, tundide analüüsimine ja hindamine, alienelikele õpetamine, lugemisoakuse ja suuiise köne mõistmise õpetamine, võõrkeelelaste teadmiste kontrollimiseks mõeldud testide tööbid, koostamisprintsibid ja hindamisalused.

Kogumiku lõpus on antud lühiretsensioonid kolmest uudisteosest ja ülevaade 1974. aasta jaanuaris Moskvas toimunud konverentsist, mis oli pühendatud võõrkeelte õpetamise intensiivmeetoditele.

От редакционной коллегии

Целью сборника "Methodioa III", который печатается как выпуск "Ученых записок ТГУ", является ознакомление о научно-исследовательской работой, проведенной кафедрами иностранных языков ТГУ, а также с некоторыми актуальными проблемами обучения иностранным языкам в высших учебных заведениях СССР и за рубежом.

В сборнике рассматриваются следующие проблемы: определение степени трудности учебного материала, измерение эффективности обучения в экспериментальной и контрольной группах, роль сознательности при обучении грамматике, анализ урока по иностранному языку, роль преподавания подъязыков, обучение чтению и пониманию устной речи, тестирование на занятиях по иностранному языку.

В конце сборника проводятся аннотации, которые знакомят с новыми книгами по разным проблемам методики и дается обзор конференции, посвященной методам интенсивного обучения иностранным языкам (Москва, январь 1974 г.).

Vom Redaktionskollegium

In "Methodica III", die in Einzelbänden der Wissenschaftlichen Schriften der Tartuer Staatlichen Universität erscheint, werden die Resultate der wissenschaftlichen Arbeit der Lehrkräfte der Tartuer Staatlichen Universität auf dem Gebiete der Methodik des Fremdsprachenunterrichts veröffentlicht. Ebenso werden aktuelle Probleme des Fremdsprachenunterrichts an den Hochschulen der Sowjetunion und im Auslande besprochen.

Folgende Probleme werden eingehender behandelt: die Feststellung des Schwierigkeitsgrades des Lehrmaterials, die Messung der Effektivität des Unterrichts in den Versuchs- und Kontrollgruppen, die Rolle des Bewußtseins beim Grammatikunterricht, die Analyse und Bewertung einer Fremde - sprachenstunde, die Rolle der Fachsprachen im Fremdsprachenunterricht, über die Entwicklung der Lesefähigkeit und der mündlichen Sprache, die Typen der Tests sowie Prinzipien ihrer Zusammenstellung und Grundlagen ihrer Bewertung, das Lehren des verstehenden Lesens und der mündlichen Sprache. Anschließend folgen Annotationen.

Editorial Note

The present third issue of "Methodica" (a publication of the Foreign Languages Department of Tartu State University) contains papers reflecting research into language teaching methodology conducted at Tartu State University as well as discussions of problems in this field that are topical at other institutions of higher education in the Soviet Union and abroad.

The subjects dealt with include the determination of the degree of difficulty of study material, the measurement of teaching efficiency in experimental and control groups, the role of consciousness in teaching grammar, the analysis and assessment of lessons, the teaching of specialized sublanguages, the development of reading skills and oral comprehension, the construction and evaluation of foreign language tests.

The collection of papers ends with some reviews.

DIE FESTSTELLUNG DES SCHWIERIGKEITSGRADES DER
VERBEB MIT PRÄPOSITIONALER NEKTON IN DER
DEUTSCHEN MEDIZINISCHEN FACHPRACHE

A. All

1. Das Ziel und die Notwendigkeit der Untersuchung

1.1. Im Fremdsprachenunterricht an den nichtphilologischen Fakultäten ist die Auswahl des Unterrichtsstoffes von erstrangiger Bedeutung, denn die Sprache "als Ganzes" kann der Student während des Studiums sowieso nicht erlernen. Die Beherrschung der Sprache "im allgemeinen" gewährleistet aber noch nicht das Verstehen der Fachliteratur (Цветкова, 1971).

Eine der wichtigsten Anforderungen für den Fremdsprachenunterricht an der Hochschule für Nichtphilologen ist das informative Lesen der Fachliteratur (Программа, 1968). Um aber einen Text informativ lesen zu können, muß man

- 1) den Satzkern unterscheiden können,
- 2) die Lexik und
- 3) die der entsprechenden Fachsprache charakteristischen grammatischen Konstruktionen kennen.

Deshalb ist die Auswahl des Stoffes eine entscheidende Voraussetzung für die Zusammenstellung von Lehrbüchern und für die Aufbereitung von Übungsmaterialien. Dabei muß man sich auf linguo-statistische Untersuchungen stützen (All, 1968^a, 1968^b; Аль, 1969, 1972^a, 1972^b; Helbig, 1966: 5; Hellmich, 1969; Мане, 1969:50; Tuldava, 1969:5; Цветкова, 1971:291).

1.2. Man muß den ausgewählten Stoff auch wirkungsvoll vermitteln und den Schwierigkeitsgrad systematisch steigern. Der bekannte Psychologe und Methodiker H. Hellmich betont, daß man die Auswertung linguo-statistischer Analysen mit pädagogisch-methodischen Erkenntnissen bei der Aus-

wahl und Aufbereitung von Textmaterialien verbinden muß (Hellmich, 1968:229). Dabei warnt H. Hellmich davor, für einzelne Wissenschaftsgebiete gesondert spezielle Lehrbücher zu entwickeln.

Von diesem Grundsatz ausgehend haben wir das präpositionalen Objekt und Verben mit präpositionaler Rektion auf 10 Gebieten der medizinischen Fachsprache untersucht. Die Ergebnisse dieser Untersuchungen sind in der Schriftenreihe der Lehrstühle für Fremdsprachen an der Tartuer Staatlichen Universität "Methodica" veröffentlicht worden (All, 1972^a:7-37; All, 1973^b:5-38).

1.3. Man kann ohne Übertreibung behaupten, daß das Verb beim Studium und bei der Beherrschung einer Fremdsprache die Hauptrolle spielt, denn das Verb bildet "das strukturelle Zentrum des Satzes" (Helbig und Schenkel, 1969: 22; All, 1972^c:153; All, 1973^a:199-200).

"Ebenso wichtig ist diese Wortart auch für die Entwicklung der Fähigkeiten und Fertigkeiten des verstehenden Lernens, denn in der grammatischen Orientierung sind die formellen Merkmale des Verbs am wichtigsten" (Eck, 1970: 278).

1.4. Man muß auch die Rolle der Muttersprache im Prozeß des Fremdsprachenstudiums in Betracht ziehen, dabei besonders die Interferenzerscheinungen, "die sich aus der Verschiedenheit der muttersprachlichen und fremdsprachlichen Bedeutungsstruktur ergeben" (Juhász, 1967:229; All, 1972^d). Damit diese Anforderung erfüllt werden kann, muß man wissen, was dem Studierenden Schwierigkeiten bereitet. Um das zu erfahren, haben wir ein pädagogisches Experiment durchgeführt, dessen Ziel es war, den Schwierigkeitsgrad der Verben mit präpositionaler Rektion in der medizinischen Fachsprache beim Übersetzen (beim Verstehen des Satzes) festzustellen.

2. Das pädagogische Experiment

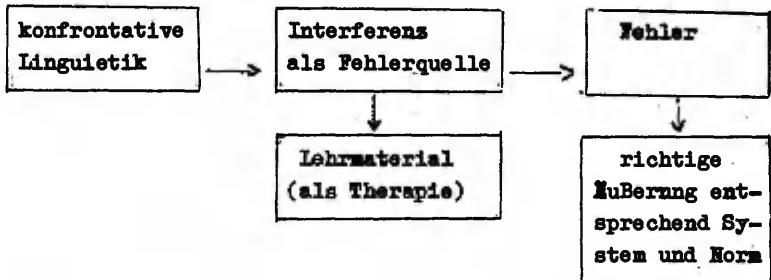
2.1. Zur Grundlage unserer Untersuchung haben wir die 100 häufigsten Verben mit präpositionaler Rektion in der deutschen medizinischen Fachsprache genommen (AMM, 1972^a:26-28). Zu jedem Verb haben wir 2 Sätze aus der analysierten Originalliteratur ausgewählt (AMM, 1972^a:9-10). Die Studenten sollten diese Sätze ins Estnische übersetzen. Die Bedeutung aller unbekannten Wörter, außer den genannten Verben, war am Rande angegeben. Das Verb sollte erkannt oder erraten werden. Am Experiment waren 30 Studenten des II. und teils auch des IV. Studienjahres beteiligt. Jedes Verb kam in 2 Sätzen vor, somit insgesamt sechzigmal ($30 \times 2 = 60$).

2.2. Die Resultate des Experiments sind in der Tabelle 1 angeführt. Die Verben sind nach dem Schwierigkeitsgrad angeordnet. Unter dem Schwierigkeitsgrad verstehen wir die relative Häufigkeit der im Experiment begangenen Fehler. Der Gang I (R_1) ist somit nach dem Prozent der Abnahme der Fehlerhäufigkeit aufgestellt.

Die Abkürzungen in der Tabelle 1:

- n - bezeichnet die Gesamtzahl der Objekte (d.h. die Multiplikation der Zahl der Studenten mit dem Vorkommen des Verbs);
- f - bezeichnet die Zahl der Fehler;
- p% - die relative Häufigkeit der Fehler errechnen wir nach der Formel: $p = \frac{f}{n} \cdot 100\%$.

Für die Ausarbeitung von Lemmamaterialien genügt es aber nicht, den festgestellten Schwierigkeitsgrad zu kennen. Man muß auch nach Fehlerquellen und -ursachen suchen, denn wenn sie klar sind, so ist es möglich, spezifische Lehrmaterialien für den Fremdsprachenunterricht zu entwickeln, die diese Fehlerursachen bekämpfen oder gar nicht entstehen lassen (Helbig, 1973:175). G. Helbig stellt das folgendermaßen dar:



2.3. Vom Obengenannten ausgehend, versuchen wir zu analysieren, was die Studenten beim Erschließen der Wortbedeutung im Experiment am meisten gestört hat, ob die Interferenz dabei auch eine Rolle gespielt hat. Das ist von großer Bedeutung, denn bei der methodischen Aufbereitung des Lernmaterials werden identische Erscheinungen der Mutter- und Fremdsprache anders behandelt als differente Erscheinungen (Sternemann, 1973:150). Einige Sprachwissenschaftler behaupten, daß Lernschwierigkeiten und Fehlleistungen auch bei minimal differenten Erscheinungen auftreten, insbesondere im Translationsprozeß (Jäger, 1975). J. Juhász behauptet sogar, daß die sog. homogene Hemmung beim Erlernen einer fremden Sprache die größten und häufigsten Schwierigkeiten bereitet (Juhász, 1970).

Wenn wir uns die Tabelle 1 ein wenig näher anschauen, können wir folgendes behaupten:

- 1) Es ist sehr schwer, die Bedeutung des Prädikats nach dem Kontext zu erraten. Das beweisen die an der Spitze der Fehlerliste stehenden Wörter (R_1), wie "Voraussetzung sein (für), sich verhalten (gegenüber), Rückschlüsse ziehen (aus)" usw., denn diese Wörter sind weder in der Mittelschule noch im ersten Studienjahr vorgekommen.
- 2) Mehrere Bedeutungen des Wortes wirken störend. Besonders dann, wenn das Wort früher in einer anderen Bedeutung eingeprägt wurde. Einige Beispiele dazu (der Prozentsatz der begangenen Fehler ist in Klammern angegeben):

in der Lage sein (zu) (88,66%) = können (suuteline vői vőimeline olema midagi tegema)

Fehlerursache: die Lage - asend (Standort);

es handelt sich (um) (85%) = gehen (um) od. die Rede sein (von) (on tegemist millegagi v. kellegagi)

Fehlerursache: handeln - kauplema (Waren weiterverkaufen), der Handel - kaubandus (Toom, Vihman, 1966) (Warenaustausch);

trennen (von) (85%) = absondern, durchschneiden (eral-dama millestki)

Fehlerursache: trennen - lahutama, poolitama (Toom, Vihman, 1966) (scheiden, trennen);

bestimmt sein (zu) (83,33%) = vorgesehen (für) (määratud olema millekski) wurde übersetzt mit "sichern, festigen" (kindlustama)

Fehlerursache: bestimmt = sicher (kindlasti)

Derselbe Fehler wurde beim Verb

wird bestimmt (durch od. von) (80%) begangen.

- 3) Oft wird nicht darauf geachtet, daß die Präposition die Bedeutung des Verbs ändert:

ankommen (auf) (68,33%) = von Wichtigkeit sein, abhängen (von) (tähitis olema; sõltuma v. olenema millestki v. kellestki)

Fehlerursache: ankommen - saabuma, pärale jõudma (eintreffen, anlangen)

treffen (auf) (65%) = kommen (auf), (sattuma millelegi v. kellelegi; möjuma millelegi)

Fehlerursache: treffen - kohtama (begegnen);

es kommt (zu) (63,33%) - in der Bedeutung: entstehen, sich finden (tekib, toimub, lisandub)

Fehlerursache: kommen - tulema (herkommen);

rechnen (mit) (56,66%) - in der Bedeutung: berücksichtigen (arvestama millegagi v. kellegagi)

Fehlerursache: rechnen - arvutama (Toom, Vihman, 1966) (in der Bedeutung: mathematisch rechnen).

- 4) Zusammengesetzte Wörter bereiten Schwierigkeiten, denn die genaue Übersetzung der zusammengesetzten Teile wirkt irreführend:

zurückführen (auf) (61,66%) = erklären (mit), (seletama millegagi; taandama millelegi)

Fehlerursache: zurückführen - tagasi juhtima (zurückleiten);

zurückgehen (auf) (56,66%) = hervorhören (pärit olema; taandumma millelegi, baseeruma, pöörduma mingi algallika poole)

Fehlerursache: zurückgehen - tagasi minema (zurückziehen od. in einer Richtung zurückgehen).

- 5) Man versteht auch nicht, das früher Gelernte mit dem Neuen zu verbinden:

Gebrauch machen (von) (76,66%) = gebrauchen (kra kasutama, tarvitama),

aber in der Schule wurde gelernt: der Gebrauch - tarvitamine;

wird beeinflußt (durch, von) (75%) = wird Einfluß ausübt (auf) (mõjustatakse millegi v. kellegi poolt),

aber in der Schule wurde gelernt: der Einfluß - mõju.

Wir haben somit eine Gradation von Schwierigkeiten (s. Tabelle 1) aufgestellt und versucht, die Ursachen der Fehler zu erklären.

2.4. Wir wissen aber nicht, ob auch ein direktes Verhältnis zwischen dem Schwierigkeitsgrad des Sprachenlernens und der Frequenz des Vorkommens der Spracherscheinungen besteht. Einige Wissenschaftler behaupten, daß es in ihren Untersuchungen keine Korrelation wahrscheinlicher Häufigkeit und der relativen Schwierigkeit gab (Возняк, Тулдава, 1973:190).

Rechts in der Tabelle 1 sind die Ränge der Gebrauchshäufigkeit (der modifizierten Häufigkeit) der Verben angeführt (R_{II}). Näheres darüber kann man in "Methodica" I lesen (АЛЛ, 1972^a:16-30).

Man fragt sich, ob eine statistische Abhängigkeit zwischen der Gebrauchshäufigkeit und des Schwierigkeitsgrades der Verben besteht.

Obwohl in manchen Fällen (in 19 von 100 Fällen) die Ränge fast gleich sind, kann man auf den ersten Blick auf den Gedanken kommen, daß eine negative Korrelation zwischen dem Schwierigkeitsgrad und der Gebrauchshäufigkeit besteht. Um das zu bestätigen oder zu widerlegen, errechnen wir den Spearmanschen Rangkorrelationskoeffizienten (s. Tabelle 2). Da mehrere Ränge dieselben Nummern tragen und wir deshalb den Durchschnitt dieser Ränge nehmen müssen, errechnen wir die Rangkorrelation nach der folgenden Formel:

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6(\sum d^2 + T_x + T_y)}{n^2 - n} \quad (\text{Tuldava, 1973:218}).$$

Dabei $T_x = \frac{\sum (t_x^3 - t_x)}{12}$ und $T_y = \frac{\sum (t_y^3 - t_y)}{12}$;

t_x - die Zahl der Wörter in der ersten Reihe, die den gleichen Rang haben;

t_y - die Zahl der Wörter in der zweiten Reihe, die den gleichen Rang haben;

d - die Differenz der Ränge;

n - die Zahl der zu vergleichenden Strukturen (hier: 100).

Nach unseren Berechnungen betragen somit $T_x = 80$ und $T_y = 211$.

Wir erhalten $\rho = -0,16$.

In unserem Falle also $\rho = |0,16| < \rho_{0,05;100} = |0,20|$.

Da der empirische Koeffizient 0,16 kleiner ist als der kritische Koeffizient 0,20 auf dem Signifikanzniveau 0,05, können wir behaupten, daß keine signifikante Korrelation zwischen der Gebrauchshäufigkeit und dem Schwierigkeitsgrad der Verben mit präpositionaler Rektion in der deutschen medizinischen Fachsprache vorliegt.

3. Schlußfolgerungen

Uns interessieren praktische Ziele, die mit der Rationalisierung der Fremdsprachenausbildung an Hochschulen zusammenhängen. Das praktische Ziel unserer früheren Untersuchung (All, 1972^a) und des pädagogischen Experimentes besteht darin, Lehrbuchautoren und Fremdsprachenlehrer darauf aufmerksam zu machen, wie der Stoff zu wählen ist und welchen Fehlern bei der Behandlung der Verben mit präpositionaler Rektion vorgebeugt werden muß.

Bei der Auswahl des Materials ist es zweckmäßig, von der Gebrauchshäufigkeit auszugehen. Bei der Aufbereitung des ausgewählten Materials ist es notwendig, auch seinen Schwierigkeitsgrad zu kennen. Besondere Aufmerksamkeit muß man den Ursachen der Fehlleistungen schenken. Auf Grund unseres Experimentes kann man schlüffolgern, daß es notwendig ist, schon in der Mittelschule die Aufmerksamkeit der Schüler darauf zu lenken, daß die Wortbedeutung kontextgebunden ist, daß sie oft von der hinzugefügten Präposition abhängt.

Negative Beispiele gibt es z.B. im Lehrbuch für die XI. Klasse (Toom, Vihman, 1966). Da steht im alphabetischen Wörterverzeichnis: "bestehen (bestand, hat bestanden) - koosnema, sooritama". Bestehen als intransitives Verb bedeutet - (olemas) olema, z.B. es besteht keine Gefahr; bestehen als transitives Verb bedeutet - sooritama, z.B. die Prüfung bestehen; bestehen (aus) - koosnema, z.B. unsere Familie besteht aus fünf Personen; bestehen (in) - seisnema, z.B. Worin besteht die Frage usw. Dieses Verb und viele andere müssen zuerst situativ erläutert und dann in den richtigen Text eingebaut werden.

Der erste Schritt ist somit die linguistische Untersuchung sowie die konfrontative Darstellung des Materials. Den zweiten Schritt bildet die lernpsychologische Umsetzung in die Lehrpraxis. Erst dann wird daraus ein effektiver Beitrag zur Rationalisierung des Fremdsprachenunterrichts (Gerbert, 1973).

Tabelle 1

Rang nach dem Schwierigkeitsgrad	Verb	Fehler			Rang II	
		1	2	3	4	5
1.	Voraussetzung sein (für)	60	58	96,66	80,-91,	
2.	Sich verhalten (gegenüber)	60	56	93,33	68,-73,	
3.	Rückschlüsse ziehen (aus)	60	54	90,0	68,-73,	
4.	Sich eignen (zu)	60	53	88,33	41,-43,	
5.	In der Lage sein (zu) es handelt sich (um)	60	52	88,66	80,-91,	
6.-7.	trennen (von)	60	51	85,0	5,-	
8.-10.	Ist gekennzeichnet (durch)	60	50	83,33	74,-76,	
8.-10.	Sich anschließen (an)	60	50	83,33	20,-	
8.-10.	bestimmt sein (zu)	60	50	83,33	25,-27,	
11.-12.	versuchen (zu)	60	48	80,0	96,-99,	
11.-12.	wird bestimmt (durch, von)	60	48	80,0	52,-	
13.-14.	sich richten (nach)	60	47	78,33	32,-33,	
13.-14.	sich unterordnen (in)	60	47	78,33	80,-91,	
15.-17.	beitragen (zu)	60	46	76,66	19,-	
15.-17.	heranziehen (zu)	60	46	76,66	80,-91,	
15.-17.	Gebrauch machen (von)	60	46	76,66	80,-91,	

			1	2	3	4	5	6
18.-20.	Aufschluß geben (über)	60	45	75.0				56.
18.-20.	wird beeinflußt (durch, von)	60	45	75.0				63.-66.
18.-20.	Übereinstimmen (mit)	60	45	75.0				92.-95.
21.-22.	betrüben (auf)	60	43	71.66				7.
21.-22.	wird ausgelöst (durch)	60	43	71.66				96.-93.
23.	beteiligt sein (zu)	60	42	70.0				24.
24.-25.	ankommen (auf)	60	41	68.33				57.
24.-25.	sich richten (gegen)	60	41	68.33				77.-78.
26.-30.	angewiesen sein (auf)	60	40	66.66				35.-37.
26.-30.	beschränkt sein (auf)	60	40	66.66				48.-49.
26.-30.	schließen (aus) (auf)	60	40	66.66				63.-66.
26.-30.	schützen (vor)	60	40	66.66				77.-78.
26.-30.	felten (von, für)	60	40	66.66				68.-73.
26.-30.	treffen (auf)	60	39	65.0				80.-91.
31.	es kommt (zu)	60	38	63.33				2.
32.-33.	sich erstrecken (auf)	60	38	63.33				47.
34.-36.	zurückführen (auf)	60	37	61.66				30.-31.
34.-36.	sich beschränken (mit)	60	37	61.66				39.-40.
34.-36.	wird befallen (von)	60	37	61.66				80.-91.
37.-39.	verfügen (über)	60	36	60.0				23.
37.-39.	Anlaß sein (zu, für)	60	36	60.0				35.-37.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.-39.						
40.	sich eingeben (aus)	60	36	60,0	41.-43.	
41.-43.	verbunden sein (mit)	60	35	58,33	10.	
41.-45.	entstehen (aus)	60	34	56,66	15.	
41.-45.	entwickeln (auf)	60	34	56,66	58,-61.	
41.-42.	rechnen (mit)	60	34	56,66	62.	
44.	warten (zu)	60	32	53,33	8.	
45.-47.	einstellen (auf)	60	31	51,66	41.-45.	
45.-47.	steuern (von, auf)	60	31	51,66	68.-73.	
45.-47.	wird umgehen (von)	60	31	51,66	74.-76.	
48.-52.	ausgeben (von)	60	30	50,0	18.	
48.-52.	sich beziehen (auf)	60	30	50,0	50.	
48.-52.	richten (auf)	60	30	50,0	53.	
48.-52.	sich wiederholen (in)	60	30	50,0	58,-61.	
48.-52.	erläutern (an)	60	30	50,0	92.-95.	
53.-54.	Einfluss haben (auf)	60	29	48,33	44.	
53.-54.	sich befreien (mit)	60	29	48,33	74.-76.	
55.	sich gewöhnen (an)	60	28	45,66	100.	
56.	abhängig sein (von)	60	27	45,0	16.	
57.	verstehen (unter)	60	26	43,33	9.	
58.	hinweisen (auf)	60	25	41,66	17.	
59.-60.	wird Herzogen (von)	60	24	40,0	92.-95.	

		2	3	4	5	6
59.-60.	es gelingt (zu)	60	24	40,0	96,-99,	
61.-64.	herrgehen (aus)	60	23	38,33	25,	
61.-64.	hingen (für)	60	23	38,33	26,-27,	
61.-64.	rechnen (zu)	60	23	38,33	30,-31,	
61.-64.	leiden (an)	60	23	38,33	92,-95,	
65.-70*	bestehen (in)	60	22	36,66	5,	
65.-70*	dienen (zu)	60	22	36,66	13,	
65.-70*	wirken (auf)	60	22	36,66	21,	
65.-70*	denken (an)	60	22	36,66	45,	
65.-70*	grenzen (an)	60	22	36,66	67,	
65.-70*	angrenzen (an)	60	22	36,66	68,-73,	
71.-75*	gähnend sein (an)	60	21	35,0	38,	
71.-75*	sich unterscheiden (von)	60	21	35,0	58,-61,	
71.-75*	wird hervorgezogen (durch)	60	21	35,0	63,-66,	
71.-75*	entfallen (auf)	60	21	35,0	79,	
71.-75*	wird verstärkt (durch)	60	21	35,0	80,-91,	
76.-79*	abhängen (von)	60	20	33,33	14,	
76.-79*	sich teilen (in)	60	20	33,33	80,-91,	
76.-79*	reich (am) sein (an)	60	20	33,33	80,-91,	
76.-79*	(An)Forderungen stellen (an)	60	20	33,33	96,-99,	
80.-81*	sich verbinden (mit)	60	19	31,66	28,	

		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.
80.-81.	sich entwickeln (aus)	60	19	31	66	80,-91.	
82.-83.	führen (zu)	60	18	30	0	1.	
82.-83.	gewinnen (an)	60	18	30	0	92,-95.	
84.-85.	unterteilen (in)	60	17	28	33	48,-49.	
84.-86.	wird aufgenommen (von)	60	17	28	33	63,-66.	
84.-86.	teilnehmen (an)	60	17	28	33	96,-99.	
87.	wird gebildet (von, durch)	60	15	25	0	22.	
88.	einsetzen (in)	60	14	23	33	54.	
89.-90.	sprechen (von)	60	13	21	66	11.	
89.-90.	es ist Aufgabe (an)	60	13	21	66	58,-61.	
91.	folgen (auf)	60	12	20	0	80,-91.	
92.	unterscheiden (von)	60	10	16	66	29.	
93.	sich zusammensetzen (aus)	60	8	13	33	34.	
94.	kommen (zu)	60	7	10	15	39,-40.	
95.-96.	gehören (zu)	60	5	8	33	4.	
95.-96.	begleiten (mit)	60	5	8	33	32,-33.	
97.-98.	übergehen (in)	60	4	6	66	12.	
97.-98.	erkranken (an)	60	4	6	66	68,-73.	
99.	bestehen (aus)	60	3	5	0	6,	
100.	reagieren (auf ²)	60	2	3	33	51.	

Tabelle 2

Verb	x 1	y 2	d 3	d^2 4
				5
Voraussetzung sein (für)	1	85	-84	7056
eich verhalten (gegenüber)	2	70,5	-68,5	4692
Rückschlüsse ziehen (aus)	3	70,5	-67,5	4556
sich eignen (zu)	4	42	-38	1440
in der Lage sein	5	85	-80	6400
es handelt sich (um)	6,5	3	+ 3,5	12,5
trennen (von)	6,5	75	-68,5	4692
wird gekennzeichnet (durch)	9	20	-11	121
eich anschließen (an)	9	26,5	-17,5	306,2
bestimmt sein (zu)	9	97,5	-88,5	7832
versuchen (zu)	11,5	52	-40,5	1640
wird bestimmt (durch)	11,5	70,5	-59,0	3481
sich richten (nach)	13,5	32,5	-19,0	361
sich umwandeln (in)	13,5	85	-71,5	5112
beitragen (zu)	16	19	- 3	9
heranziehen (zu)	16	85	-69	4761
Gebrauch machen (von)	16	85	-69	4761
Aufschluß geben (über)	19	56	-37	1369
wird beeinflußt (durch)	19	64,5	-45,5	2070
übereinstimmen (mit)	19	93,5	-74,5	5550
beruhen (auf)	21,5	7	+14,5	210,2
wird ausgelöst (durch)	21,5	97,5	-76,0	5776
beteiligt sein (an)	23	23	0	1
ankommen (auf)	24,5	57	-32,5	1056
eich richten (gegen)	24,5	77,5	-43,0	1849
angewiesen sein (auf)	28	36	- 8	64
beschränkt sein (auf)	28	48,5	-20,5	420,2
schließen (aus) + (auf)	28	64,5	-36,5	1332
schützen (vor)	28	77,5	-49,5	2450
gelten (von, für)	28	70,5	-42,5	1806
treffen (auf)	31	85	-54	2916
es kommt (zu)	32,5	2	+30,5	930,2
sich erstrecken (auf)	32,5	47	-14,5	210,2
zurückführen (auf)	35	30,5	+ 4,5	20,25
sich beschäftigen (mit)	35	39,5	- 4,5	20,25

	1	2	3	4	5
wird befallen (von)	35	85	-50	.2500	
verfügen (über)	38	23	+15	225	
Anlaß sein (zu)	38	36	+ 2	4	
sich ergeben (aus)	38	42	- 4	16	
verbunden sein (mit)	40	10	+30	900	
entstehen (aus)	42	15	-27	729	
zurückgeben (auf)	42	59,5	-17,5	306,2	
rechnen (mit)	42	62	-20	400	
werden (zu)	44	8	+36	1296	
einstellen (auf)	46	42	+ 4	16	
stammen (von, aus)	46	70,5	-24,5	600,2	
wird umgeben (von)	46	75	-29	841	
ausgehen (von)	50	18	+32	1024	
richten (auf)	50	53	- 3	9	
sich beziehen (auf)	50	50	0	0	
sich gliedern (in)	50	59,5	- 9,5	90,25	
erkennen (an)	50	93,5	-43,5	1892	
Hinfluß haben (ausüben)(auf)	53,5	44	- 7,5	56,25	
sich befassen (mit)	53,5	75	-21,5	462,2	
sich gewöhnen (an)	55	100	-45	2025	
abhängig sein (von)	56	16	+40	1600	
verstehen (unter)	57	9	+48	2304	
hinweisen (auf)	58	17	+41	1681	
wird überzogen (von)	59,5	93,5	-34,0	1156	
es gelingt (zu)	59,5	97,5	-38,0	1144	
hervorgehen (aus)	62,5	25	+37,5	1406	
sorgen (für)	62,5	26,5	+38,0	1144	
rechnen (zu)	62,5	30,5	+32,0	1024	
leiden (an)	62,5	93,5	-31,0	961	
bestehen (in)	76,5	5	+62,5	3906	
dienen (zu)	67,5	13	+54,5	2970	
wirken (auf)	76,5	21	+46,5	2162	
denken (an)	67,5	45,5	+22,0	484	
grenzen (an)	67,5	67	+ 0,5	0,25	
angrenzen (an)	67,5	70,5	- 3,0	9	
gebunden sein (an)	73	38	+35	1225	
sich unterscheiden (von)	73	59,5	+23,5	552,2	
wird hervorgerufen (durch)	73	64,5	+ 8,5	72,25	

	1	2	3	4	5
entfallen (auf)	73	79	- 6	36	
wird verstärkt (durch)	73	85	-22	484	
abhängen (von)	77,5	14	+63,5	4032	
eich teilen (in)	77,5	85	- 7,5	56,25	
reich (arm) sein (an)	77,5	85	- 7,5	56,25	
(An)Forderungen stellen (an)	77,5	97,5	-20,0	400	
eich verbinden (mit)	80,5	28	-20,0	2756	
sich entwickeln (aue)	80,5	85	- 4,5	20,25	
führen (zu)	82,5	1	+81,5	6642	
gewinnen (an)	82,5	93,5	11,0	121	
unterteilen (in)	85	48,5	+36,5	1332	
wird aufgenommen (von)	85	64,5	+20,5	420,2	
teilnehmen (an)	85	97,5	-12,5	156,2	
wird gebildet (von, durch)	87	22	+65	4225	
einteilen (in)	88	54	+34	1156	
eprechen (von)	89,5	11	+78,5	6162	
se ist Aufgabe (zu)	89,5	59,5	+30,0	900	
folgen (auf)	91	85	+ 6	36	
untterecheiden (von)	92	29	+63	3969	
sich zueammeneetzen (aus)	93	34	+59	3481	
kommen (zu)	94	39,5	+54,5	2970	
gehören (zu)	95,5	4	+91,5	8372	
beginnen (mit)	95,5	32,5	+63,0	3969	
übergehen (in)	97,5	12	+85,5	7310	
erkranken (an)	97,5	70,5	+27,0	729	
bestehen (aue)	99	6	+93	8649	
reagieren (auf)	100	51	+49	2401	

n = 100

$$\sum d^2 = 193316,50$$

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SOME PROBLEMS CONCERNING FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSON ANALYSIS

L. Hone

Any foreign language teacher working at Tartu State University is occasionally faced with the task of visiting and analysing some foreign language classes conducted by (i) his colleagues at the University, (ii) the students of the Department taking their teaching practice at schools, (iii) teachers at one or another of the town's schools, (iv) colleagues teaching at some other higher educational establishment.

The purposes for visiting lessons may be varied: (i) exchange of experience between colleagues, (ii) inspection of a schoolteacher's work at the request of the Education Department with the object of assessing his professional level and rendering him any necessary aid, (iii) getting acquainted with the language level and degree of activity at language classes of a certain group of students, (iv) checking up on students taking their practice at schools with a view to estimating their methodological proficiency and helping them with useful hints.

The teacher may either be informed of the impending visit beforehand (e.g. when colleagues visit each other's demonstration lessons or those at some other educational establishment, and sometimes also in case of a student's "examination lesson" for which he is expected to prepare with especial care) or it may come as a surprise for him (when the visitor comes as an inspector either to a professional teacher or to a student who is taking his practice).

At his examination lesson a student is supposed to bring into play all his resourcefulness to show how well he can cope with his task. At a demonstration lesson given for the benefit of his colleagues a teacher is expected to acquaint them with some method, technique or device that

either is new to them or has proved particularly effective in his own application. A demonstration lesson given to students, however, very often simply serves the aim of acquainting them with the use of certain techniques applied in teaching vocabulary, grammar, reading or some other aspect of language activity.

If we visit a class without having informed the teacher or student-teacher beforehand, we must be content with what we happen to see there. We have no right to ask him to change his plan and do something more interesting for our benefit. If he has planned to have a test and we are not interested in it, we can simply not attend the lesson. However, in case of students it is often useful to be present when they administer tests since they are apt to make methodological mistakes and will profit by the critical remarks of the visitor.

As a general rule, neither teachers nor students are keen on having visitors in a class which is unruly and has a poor knowledge of the subject. Of course, if our direct aim is not inspection of the teacher's work, we need not attend such classes in case the teacher objects. If he has worked in such a class for a number of years, the poor results are, of course, proof that he has not quite succeeded, whatever the reasons may be. However, if the student or teacher has not worked long with the class in question, he is not responsible for the general level and he need not be afraid to receive visitors. Even in a "difficult" class a competent visitor will be able to tell whether the teacher is efficient or not, for it is precisely in such a class that the teacher has to summon all his energy and ingenuity to make the children attend to him and learn what he is trying to teach to them.

Still, for a demonstration lesson it is better to choose a bright and active class with whom it is easier to use different techniques so that there will be more for the visitors to learn, although in a difficult class it may be instructive to see how the teacher copes with the situation.

At a demonstration lesson it is not very wise to in-

troduce new techniques which have not been tried out with the given class for the latter may not understand the teacher's intentions and the attempt may end in failure. On the other hand, a teacher should not rehearse a demonstration lesson with his pupils beforehand. When such a lesson is finally carried out, it will not proceed in a normal atmosphere and the visitors will not learn anything from it. They cannot see how far the teacher succeeds in making clear to the learners the points he is teaching them since these were clear to them already before the lesson. And it is superfluous to add that such a teacher will jeopardise his authority with the class by letting them see that he is not sure whether his lesson will be a success without preliminary rehearsing.

A demonstration lesson that is to answer its purpose should be an ordinary lesson full of intense everyday work which will show the visitors how the new material is offered to the pupils and how it is consolidated. A lesson where the pupils are only called on to demonstrate their achievements and knowledge (e.g. recite poems and dialogues prepared beforehand, sing songs and retell stories or describe pictures they have already discussed) is of little avail to the visitors for it does not show them how these things are actually taught to the pupils, what difficulties they have in assimilating the material and how the teacher succeeds in making them overcome their difficulties and get rid of their mistakes.

If the student or young teacher whose lesson has been visited is to derive any profit from it, it has to be discussed and analysed in detail. If the object was inspection only, the visitor is expected to submit a written report to the authorities at whose request the visit was made, but in this case, too, the teacher should be told what impression his lesson made and what its assets and shortcomings were. If the purpose of the visit was exchange of experience the lesson should be subjected to a detailed analysis with the participation of all those who attended it.

The discussion of any lesson should be opened by the teacher who conducted the class. He should be given a chance to point out the object of his lesson and estimate to what

extent he succeeded in achieving it. He may also give a short characterisation of the class or group of pupils in question and add any other explanations or facts he regards as necessary.

Next he may be called on to answer any questions the visitors may have. After that those who attended the class will each express their opinions and impressions. When a student's lesson is discussed, first all the members of the practice group will take the floor, then the schoolteacher who is the student-teacher's direct supervisor, and lastly the methods specialist from the university will sum up the discussion. Such an order of the proceedings will ensure that everybody has a chance to say something. It is advisable to observe the same principle in discussing colleagues' classes. If those who are likely to have the greatest number of remarks to make are called on to speak first, most of the others will hardly have anything to add, of course, unless they feel challenged to contradict the views expressed by the first speakers. If this happens, a long and heated discussion may ensue. Especially in case of students this is only to be welcomed, for participation in a lively discussion will often teach them as much or even more than their mere presence at a model lesson.

In analysing a lesson both its strong and weak points should be mentioned. Even if serious faults are found with a teacher's lesson, we should never forget that it is hardly ever possible for anybody who has some knowledge of the methodology of the subject to give a lesson that is an absolute failure. The teacher should not be left with the impression that his lesson was good for nothing merely because only critical remarks are made by the visitors, whereas all the assets of the lesson are taken for granted and passed over in silence. Bringing out all the strong points is necessary not only in order to give a complete and undistorted picture of the lesson under discussion, but it is very important for the teacher to know which of his techniques and devices are approved of so that in future he can use them with confidence, and those who participate in the discussion will know what can be taken over and imitated.

It goes without saying that the analysis of anybody's lesson should be carried out with great tact and consideration for the teacher's feelings. We should never lose sight of the purpose for which the lesson was visited.

Whenever students discuss a teacher's demonstration lesson they should bear in mind that their primary aim was to learn from it. Accordingly, it is their business to point out everything that is worth taking over and imitating, and not to point out the few slips the teacher may have made in his excitement. If they disagree with some of the techniques used by the teacher, it will be politer for them to ask him to explain the considerations for his choice rather than bluntly say that they regard his approach as wrong or stupid. More often than not the students may be mistaken anyhow, and even when they are not, they can always put forward their own suggestions and ask whether they would also be possible in a similar situation. This will not hurt the teacher's feelings and his authority will not be injured by his admitting that some of the students' suggestions are very sensible or might even yield better results than the techniques he used at his lesson.

In analysing a student's lesson we should point out not only all the assets, but also all the weak points and errors in his methodology, language and behaviour in general. To be able to carry out an all-round, thorough analysis all students must first be made to understand that to a very great extent we learn from our own and other students' mistakes, which we must be made aware of in order to avoid them consciously. The fact that a number of errors may be pointed out during a student's first stage of practice does not necessarily mean that he is no good at all and will not make a good teacher. The main thing is that he should take them into consideration and try to avoid them in future.

The same should apply to colleagues discussing each other's classes. If everybody bears in mind that the primary aim of the discussion is mutual benefit, the more detailed and principled the discussion is, the greater the profit derived from it by everybody concerned. If the discussion takes place in a warm and friendly atmosphere, nobody has occasion to take offence.

The point of departure in analysing any lesson should be its object, i.e. the aim the teacher set out to achieve. It is useful for the teacher to inform the visitors before his lesson of the aim he has in view. In case of a demonstration lesson it would not be superfluous to draw attention to certain essential features of the lesson so that the visitors can pay special attention to them.

In any case, if the aim is not pointed out to the visitors before the lesson, it must become clear to them during its course. If this does not happen, it is because (i) the visitor himself is incompetent, (ii) the teacher does not have any definite clear-cut object at all, (iii) the plan of the lesson is so incoherent that the object, although it is there, does not become apparent, (iv) the lesson has an object, but for some reason or other it is not attained.

Any lesson that is to be of any use must have a definite object, i.e. the teacher must know quite exactly what he wants to achieve by his lesson. There is a wide variety of different objects that a teacher may have in view: (i) teaching some new material, (ii) consolidation of material taught either at a previous or at the given lesson, (iii) revision of some material taught at an earlier stage, (iv) the checking up of certain knowledge or skills (i.e. written or oral testing), (v) development of habits of independent work, (vi) checking up independent work, (vii) development of speech habits, (viii) pronunciation drill, etc.

Whatever the object, it must be there. A lesson without an object will be useless or ineffective. A teacher is justified in giving a lesson without a definite aim only if he has to do so unexpectedly on the spur of the moment, without the pupils or himself being prepared for it. Even in such a case an experienced teacher who knows the class will easily find something worth doing instead of simply whiling away the time.

The object of the lesson is decisive in drawing up the plan for it. In case of inspecting a lesson it is useful to take a look at the teacher's plan to be able to estimate how far he has succeeded in putting it into practice. Stu-

dent-teachers are expected to make up detailed lesson plans which have to be confirmed by the teacher supervising them before they go to their class. The university methods specialist may spot-check them but he is not supposed to look through all of them.

If a lesson is to be a success, its plan must be thought out carefully. How many of its details are to be committed to paper depends on how experienced the teacher is as well as on the nature of the materials involved. For a competent teacher it may suffice to enumerate the different parts of the lesson, putting down the headings, pages and exercises. For an inexperienced student, however, it is indispensable to write down the whole course of the lesson. His plan must include all the questions or sentences he is going to use in explaining or checking the material he intends to teach to his class so that his supervisor may eliminate in time the possible methodological or language mistakes or words or constructions unfamiliar to the pupils.

To be able to participate in a matter-of-fact discussion those attending a lesson must know what they have to pay attention to and take note of during its course. The problem of lesson analysis is one that has been grossly neglected in pedagogical literature. In so far as we know a treatment of foreign language lesson analysis has only been given by Mackey (1965) and Specht (1971). Views on the educational and emotional value of lessons can be found in writings dealing with the problem of efficacy of teaching (Jesipov, 1962; Kõverjalg, 1965; Pedajas, 1971; Villand, 1963). The general outline of the present treatment is based on the instructions issued for student-teachers by the Department of Pedagogy of Tartu State University (1972) and many of the suggestions offered below simply result from first-hand observation and experience in conducting discussions of lessons in the course of student teaching practica over a number of years.

There are very many different factors that contribute to the success or failure of a lesson. The most important aspects that have to be taken into account will be enumerated below.

1. The classroom

Is the classroom suitable in size and shape? Is it light enough? Can it be darkened when necessary? Is it possible for all the pupils to see and hear everything that is going on in any part of the room?

Can the pupils be seated as necessary (e.g. one by one when writing a test)? Can they leave their place without disturbing the others (e.g. when they have to go to the blackboard, etc.)?

Is the classroom furnished with the necessary equipment (desks or tables and chairs; a blackboard, chalk and duster; a tape-recorder, filmstrip or film projector; pictures, tables, flashcards, objects for demonstration) or is it necessary to fetch them from somewhere else?

Is the equipment ready for the lesson (the blackboard clean, the pictures and slides in the necessary order, the tape-recorder set ready) or is it necessary to waste time on preparations during the lesson?

Is the classroom ready for the lesson? Has it been aired? Is the floor clean or littered with rubbish? Are the desks in place? Has the date been written down on the blackboard?

2. The beginning of the lesson

Does the lesson begin on time or is the beginning delayed for any reason?

Are all the pupils standing quietly at their places or are they running about, shouting or talking and do not notice at all that the teacher has entered? If so, does the teacher start the lesson immediately or does he first make the class quiet? How does he do this?

Are any of the pupils late? Does the teacher insist on their apologizing? What language must they use?

Do any of the pupils apologize for not having done their homework? In what language are the apologies made? What is the teacher's reaction? Does he make a note of it in his pocket-book?

Does the pupil on duty give a report? What does he say? Have the names of those absent been written down on the blackboard?

3. The plan of the lesson

What type of lesson is it (mixed type or uniform) (i.e. are different language aspects taught during the lesson or is the whole of it devoted to only one of them - grammar, reading, conversation, etc.)?

Is the plan of the lesson logical and well thought out? Does the lesson consist of several clearly-defined parts or does it form an organic whole where one part merges unnoticed into another? What is the teacher's approach and is it justified? In case of the first approach, are the pupils told when they pass on to the next part of the lesson? Is it necessary to tell them?

Is the duration of the different parts of the lesson just right, or too short or too long? Do the pupils get tired? If so, does the teacher notice it? What does he do to brighten them up?

Does the teacher manage to carry out everything he has planned? If not, why not? How does he cope with the situation (changes the order of the different parts of the lesson; shortens some of the parts; leaves out some of the parts; simply carries on till the end of the lesson and then leaves out what he cannot manage to do)? Does the teacher find the right solution? If not, what should have been done in the given case? If the teacher has some time left over, what is the reason? How is this time used?

Does anything disturb the lesson (e.g. a broadcast from the school radio centre, a medical examination of the pupils, some noise from the street, corridor, neighbouring rooms, upstairs, etc.)? Does this affect the course of the lesson in any way (the presentation of the material, the discipline, etc.)? Does the teacher cope with the situation (can he adjust his plan to make up for the time lost, can he do away with the cause of the noise, etc.)?

Which skills are drilled (listening, talking, reading, writing)? How are they drilled? In what proportion are they? Is this justified?

How are speech habits developed (with the help of pictures, actions, situations, discussion, etc.)? For how much of the time can the pupils speak? For how much of the time

does the teacher speak? (Here we should remember that a good teacher speaks as little as possible and gives his pupils as much chance to speak as possible). How much time is spent on work in chorus? How much time is devoted to silent work? What kind of work is it (reading, writing, etc.)?

Does the teacher vary his approach by alternating the drill of different skills?

4. Questioning

Are any of the pupils questioned? Is it done orally or in written form?

In case of a written test, is it prepared or unprepared? Is it long or short? Is its length right in the given case? Are the pupils given enough time to write it? Are they told beforehand how much time they will have to write it in? How do the pupils sit during the test (in pairs or singly; are any of them asked to change their seats)? Does handing in the papers go smoothly? Does the teacher make any methodological mistakes in administering the test?

What types of oral questioning are resorted to (general, individual, combined questioning)? Do the pupils stand up or remain sitting while answering the questions? Are they asked to face the class while talking? How much time is taken up by questioning? Is this justified?

How many pupils are questioned and marked? Does the teacher give marks during general questioning? Does the teacher take into account the pupils' participation throughout the lesson? Are the marks given by the teacher justified? Does the teacher inform the pupils of their marks in a loud voice? Does he enter the marks in their daybooks? Is the time devoted to the questioning of each of the pupils justified? Does the teacher praise or reprimand anybody?

What is the level of the pupils' knowledge of the subject? Do they make many mistakes? What kind of mistakes do they make (pronunciation, grammar, lexical, spelling mistakes)? Are all the mistakes corrected? If not, why not? Who corrects the mistakes, the teacher or the other pupils? When are the mistakes corrected, immediately or at a later stage? Is there a so-called "teacher's echo", i.e. does the teacher repeat the pupils' answers? Are any wrong

forms repeated? Are the correct answers repeated by those who made mistakes at their first attempt? Does the teacher give the pupils time to think after his question or does he expect an answer immediately? Does the teacher make the whole class repeat in chorus the answers that offer difficulties? Are the pupils' books and exercise-books open or shut during questioning?

Does the teacher check whether everybody has written his homework? Are the exercises done at home read from the exercise-book or the textbook or are they written down on the blackboard? Does the teacher give the pupils any marks for them?

Do the pupils raise their hands during questioning? Does the teacher also call on those who do not put up their hands? Are all the pupils given an opportunity to speak or are some of them called on several times while others are neglected?

5. Presentation of the new material

Are the pupils taught any new material or do they practise only what they have been taught earlier? How much new material is there (is its assimilation within or beyond the pupils' powers)?

Is it necessary to revise anything by way of preparation for the explanation of the new material? Does the teacher do this? How is the revision carried out (does the teacher explain everything all over again himself or does he make the pupils do this)?

In case there are different new materials (words, grammar, a text, sounds or intonation patterns), in what order are they taught?

Is there any new grammatical material? How is it presented? Does the teacher use the inductive or the deductive method in explaining things? In what language are the explanations given?

Are the pupils taught any new words? How is their meaning put across (with the help of visual aids, synonyms, antonyms, definitions, context, suffixes, prefixes, conversion, compound words, analogy, international words,

Russian equivalents, native equivalents, etc.)? Are the techniques chosen by the teacher suitable? If not, why not?

How is the new text presented (by playing a recording, by the teacher or some of the pupils reading it out loud, by the pupils reading it silently)? Is reading practised in class? How is it done (together with the tape-recorder, together with the teacher, in chorus, by some individual pupils)? Is the whole text read or only some passages of it or will the pupils have to read it at home? Is the teacher's approach justified?

Is it necessary to check the pupils' understanding of the new text? How is it done (through translation, questions, exercises, etc.)? Is understanding of the whole text or of only parts of it checked?

Do the pupils understand all their teacher's explanations? Are these exhaustive? Are they correct from the scientific point of view? Are any parallels drawn with facts already familiar to the pupils from their earlier course of the foreign language? Are any comparisons made with the pupils' native language or with Russian? What is the rate of presentation of the new material (slow, too fast, just right)?

Does the teacher check whether he is understood by everybody? How does he do this? If he is not understood, what is the reason? (Is there too much material or is it too difficult for the class? Are the explanations perfunctory, incomplete, confused or too involved? Are the examples insufficient or inappropriate?) What is the teacher's reaction when he discovers that he has not been understood? How does he make the thing clear to the class (by repeating his explanations, by making some pupil explain them all over again, by giving additional examples, by making the pupils do some exercise, etc.)?

Is the new material summed up in any way? By whom is this done (the teacher or the pupils)?

Is the new material consolidated properly and sufficiently? How is this done? If it is not done, why not?

To what extent do the pupils master the new material taught to them?

6. The study aids

Does the teacher use any audio-visual aids in his lesson? Which aids are used (the tape-recorder, record-player, objects, pictures, film-strips, a flannel-board with cuttings, a magnetic board, tables, diagrams, flashcards, maps, films, etc.)? Can the pupils see them all the time or are they kept hidden from sight until they are needed? Is the choice of the aids justified? Are they suitable for the purpose? Are they large and vivid enough? Is there a sufficient number of them? Are they used effectively? Do they help the teacher to make things clearer and more interesting or do they only waste time? Is it possible to use other aids to teach the same material?

7. The blackboard

Is the blackboard large enough and of good quality? Is the chalk good?

Is the blackboard used whenever necessary? Is everything the pupils are expected to write down in the foreign language also written down on the blackboard? Who writes it there, the teacher or the pupils?

Is the blackboard used effectively? Is the distribution of the material on the blackboard expedient? Does the teacher tell the pupils where they have to write on the blackboard? Is the handwriting on the blackboard clear and legible? Is it large enough? If some pupil does not write properly, does the teacher draw his attention to the fact and make him do better? Are any underlinings, arrows, etc. used to make the important things prominent? Is any coloured chalk used? Is it easily distinguishable on the blackboard? Are all the mistakes on the blackboard corrected? Who corrects them, the teacher or the pupils? Is everything that is written on the blackboard also read out in a loud voice and who reads it, or does the work proceed in silence? Is everything that is written on the blackboard kept there long enough for everybody to copy it?

Who cleans the blackboard, the teacher or the pupils?

8. Homework

Are the pupils assigned any homework for the next time? At what stage of the lesson is this done (at the beginning, in the middle, at the end, after the bell has gone)? Is this the right moment to do it? Is the amount of the homework sufficient to consolidate the new material taught in class or is it too little or too much? Does the teacher only mention to the pupils what they will have to do at home or does he write it down on the blackboard? Does he make use of any abbreviations or special signs in doing so?

Does everybody understand what the homework is? Are any additional explanations given about it? Are the pupils told to take a look at the exercises they will have to do? Are any of the sentences done in class to make the homework clear? Does the teacher check whether everybody writes his homework down in his daybook?

9. The end of the lesson

Does the lesson end on time? If it ends earlier or later, what is the reason?

Do all the pupils stand quietly at their places when the lesson is finished?

Who is the last to leave the classroom, the teacher or the pupils?

Does the teacher make the pupils clean the blackboard and open the window?

Does the teacher take the class down to the lunchroom, cloakroom, etc.?

Is the door of the room locked after the lesson?

10. The teacher

Is the teacher's appearance neat and tidy or slovenly and untidy, or in any other way unsuitable for the occasion?

What is the teacher's manner like? Is he brisk and energetic or slow and dull? Does he make use of mimicry and gestures? Is he good at demonstrating actions and creating situations? Is he sure of himself and resolute or hesitant and shy? Does he always give clear and unambiguous commands

so that all the pupils know what they are expected to do (whether they have to open their books or exercise-books or keep them closed, whether what is said or written down on the blackboard is to be put down in their exercise-books or whether the explanations are only to be listened to without writing anything down, whether they are to speak in chorus or singly, to give their answers standing up or remaining seated, to raise their hands or answer spontaneously, etc.)? Does the teacher see to it that his commands are really obeyed?

How does the teacher speak? Does he speak loudly, distinctly, understandably, with expression and at a normal speed or is his speech difficult to follow being low, indistinct and monotonous or too fast or faltering? Is his language correct and fluent? Has he any mannerisms (superfluous words or phrases, gestures, etc.)? Is the teacher's tone calm and friendly or sharp, nervous or cross?

Is the teacher's attitude to his pupils encouraging and friendly or is he indifferent, cold, cross or suspicious? Is he exacting and strict but at the same time just or is he too strict, too lenient or unjust and partial? Is he able to calm down and resume his friendly tone after having made some sharp remarks to one of the pupils or does he continue to be angry and cross with everybody long after that? Is the teacher's manner of presenting the material and his treatment of the class in accordance with the level of their mental development or does he talk down to them, treating senior pupils like little children? Does he use "sina" or "teie" when he has to address them in Estonian?

Does the teacher achieve a good contact with the class? Can he make everybody attend to him and perform all the tasks he gives them? What is the mood prevailing at the lesson? Is it calm and normal, eager and enthusiastic, strained and apprehensive, frivolous or languid? Is the teacher's approach to the pupils differentiated? Does he encourage those who are shy, give special tasks to those who are very quick or restless and consequently apt to break discipline, is he patient with those who are slow or nervous? Does he notice when some of the pupils have difficulties?

Does he understand what the causes are and is he able to make things clear to them?

Where does the teacher take up his position in the classroom? Does he stand in one place, remain seated or walk about? Is this the right thing to do?

Does the teacher notice everything that is going on in the classroom? Is his reaction right in every case? Does he cope with every contingency? Is he able to answer all the unexpected questions? How does he treat questions that are irrelevant to the subject in hand?

11. The pupils

Are the pupils active or passive at the lesson? What are the reasons for it? Does everybody listen to the teacher? Does the teacher try to make everybody active? How does he do it (by working in chorus, giving the pupils individual tasks, making them correct and complement each other's answers, etc.)? What is it that makes the pupils especially interested and active or inattentive and passive?

Do the pupils speak in a loud or low voice? If they speak loudly, how does the teacher achieve this? If they speak in a low voice, does the teacher try to make them speak up? How does he do it? Does he succeed?

Are there any breaches of discipline? In case there are, of what kind are they? What causes them (boredom resulting from the slow tempo, difficulties in following the teacher as a result of the tempo being too fast, some children who are unruly by disposition, etc.)? Does the teacher notice the breaches of discipline? What is his reaction? Is there any prompting? Do any of the pupils use cribs? Are they caught by the teacher? Are they punished in any way? If the discipline is perfect, how does the teacher achieve this?

How do the pupils sit, stand and walk at the lesson (upright or bent, in an orderly or slovenly way)? How do they sit when writing (straight or with their noses almost touching the paper)? Does the teacher pay attention to their bearing and make remarks when anything is wrong?

What is the pupils' appearance like (neat and tidy or slovenly and dirty)?

Do any of the pupils stand out in a positive or negative sense?

12. The language used at the lesson

Does the teacher try to create a "foreign atmosphere" in the class? In what language are his commands given? Does he use the native or foreign variants of the pupils' Christian names in addressing them (e.g. Peeter or Peter, Toomas or Thomas, etc.)? Does he use the foreign language whenever possible (or does he use it too often or too seldom)?

Do the pupils understand their teacher's English? In case they do not, what is the reason (does the teacher speak too fast or indistinctly, does he use words that are unfamiliar to the class, etc.)? Does the teacher notice it when the pupils do not understand him? What is his reaction? (Does he carry on without paying any attention to the fact? Does he repeat his words? Does he try to explain the same thing in other words? Does he have recourse to gestures? Does he translate what he has said? Does he make some pupil translate his words? Does he switch over to Estonian? etc.)

Is the teacher's English good? Does he make any grammatical, lexical or phonetic mistakes?

What language do the pupils use in addressing the teacher? If they use Estonian, does the teacher insist on their using English? Do the pupils make mistakes? Are their language mistakes corrected?

Is the pupils' pronunciation good? Does the teacher pay attention to their pronunciation? Does he insist on their using the correct sounds and intonation patterns? Who corrects the pronunciation mistakes, the teacher or the class?

Are any pronunciation exercises done? Have they a definite object? Is it clear to the class what they are practising when they are doing a pronunciation exercise? Are any explanations given about the articulation of the sounds or the intonation patterns that are corrected or practised? Who gives the explanations, the teacher or the class? How is the pronunciation exercise carried out? Is it effective?

13. The educational and emotional aspects of the lesson

Does the lesson have any educational value? Does the teacher take advantage of all the possibilities inherent in the materials taught at the lesson? Does the lesson serve to inculcate in the pupils the spirit of Soviet patriotism or internationalism, the right attitude to work, their dntee, their fellow citizens and their family? What other ideas and values are instilled in them?

Does the lesson widen the pupils' outlook? Does it offer them any new information? What is it? How is it presented to the class?

Does the teacher make the pupils recall and use any of the knowledge they have acquired in studying the other subjects of the curriculum (geography, history, literature, etc.) in discussing the topic of the lesson?

Are the pupils made to think? Does the lesson serve to develop their power of attention, memory, imagination, initiative, etc.? In what way?

Are the pupils given any independent work to do? Are any of the pupils assigned individual tasks?

Is the lesson interesting or dull? What makes it so?

Does the teacher have recourse to any poems, songs, games, competitions, gymnastic exercises, etc.? Are they brought in at the right time and place? Are they only meant for relaxation and entertainment or are they in any way relevant to the subject or object of the lesson?

Is the tempo of the lesson just right, too slow or too fast?

14. The object of the lesson

What are the practical, educational and cultural aims of the lesson? Does the teacher pursue them consciously throughout the lesson? Are they achieved fully, or only partly, by chance or not at all? What are the reasons?

Do all the pupils assimilate the materials taught to them? To what degree do they succeed in doing so? What are the reasons?

Does the presence of the visitors have any noticeable

effect on the teacher's or pupils' level of performance? Is this effect positive or negative?

If the object of the lesson has not been attained fully, is there anything that might have been done differently to achieve better results?

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Equipped with notes concerning the above-mentioned pointe, those who have been present at a teacher's lesson are in a position to discuss it. As has been pointed out above, the point of departure should always be the object the teacher had set himself when preparing for the lesson. If we are clear about his object, we are able to evaluate the techniques he applied and estimate to what extent these contributed towards the achievement of the results desired. It should be borne in mind that even at a lesson of the mixed type one can never do everything. Accordingly, a teacher should never be expected to make use of all the possible techniques he is familiar with or bring into play all the aide and equipment at his disposal. As a rule it is for him to decide which ones out of the many possibilities to choose, and if the results are positive, i.e. if he is able to attain the aims he has set himself, the lesson as a whole should be regarded as a success. For a group of students who are taking their first steps in the field of language teaching it may be of interest to discuss all the possible alternative variants of the lesson in question, but in case of experienced teachers who discuss each other's lessons it would be futile to count among drawbacks the omission of one or another technique or aid when it is quite clear that they would not have enhanced the efficacy of the lesson. Discussing a lesson in terms of the aims pursued by the teacher we should be satisfied if they have been attained and not find fault with him for not having done what he did not set out to do. If it is felt that the object set by the teacher was too narrow, he may be criticised for not having set himself a broader or more appropriate aim, but it would be wrong to maintain that the aim was not attained if what he

had set out to do was actually achieved. If we want to see the use of many different techniques and aids, we have to visit a number of different lessons, preferably conducted by different teachers who have previously been informed of the special wishes and interests of the visitors.

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**GREATER ATTENTION TO TRAINING FOR ORAL COMPREHENSION
AT FOREIGN LANGUAGE LESSONS**

G. Kiviväli

Good progress has been made in foreign-language tuition as a result of the Government decisions on improving the teaching of foreign languages in the USSR. It has been pointed out in the decisions that since cultural and economic ties are increasing with capitalist countries, the need for people who have a very good practical knowledge of foreign languages, both written and spoken, is constantly growing. For specialists in various fields of science, engineering and culture, and also for the working population throughout the country, a knowledge of foreign languages is most important for getting to know and popularizing scientific and technical achievements on a broad scale. Foreign-language tuition is given at all institutions of higher and specialised secondary education, at all general-educational secondary schools and at eight-year schools. The foremost schools and a number of higher educational institutions have made notable progress in foreign-language tuition.

As is known, the main aim of foreign-language instruction at secondary and higher educational establishments is to give the students a practical knowledge of foreign languages, which means that they should be able to read and understand a foreign language in its written form, to understand it when it is spoken, and to be able to speak it. Whereas certain progress has been made by our teachers in training the students to read and understand a foreign language in its written form, the students are often at a loss when it comes to speaking and understanding a foreign language in its oral presentation, either recorded or live. In the present article an attempt has been made to touch upon some of the problems pertaining to comprehension of oral material; some suggestions have been made as to how to increase the ability of oral comprehension of the students.

It is sometimes contended that people learning foreign languages only rarely need to speak them and that it is far more important to acquire a 'reading knowledge' of a foreign language. It is true that there are many people who need to be able to read a foreign language without also having the need, or at least the opportunity, to speak it. However, the number of such people is decreasing with every year.

The students of Tartu State University have in general made good progress in acquiring a reading knowledge of foreign languages although very often they read at study speed, that is, at the slowest reading speed, which may result in a barrier to comprehension and is itself a result of too much attention being paid to analytical reading at foreign language lessons. Our students have also acquired basic speech habits. However, a number of our students cannot yet fully comprehend a foreign language when it is spoken - it is only with great effort that they understand a recorded text or conversation uttered at normal speed and if they met a foreigner, they would be in great difficulties as regards comprehension. The teachers often forget that above all the students wish to learn to speak the language and to understand it when it is spoken. What the students are offered is quite often only the ability to read and write. Of course the students want to be able to read books and write. But nearly all students feel that this is not enough. They want to be able to talk to others in English, even to others who are not native speakers, and to understand it. It goes without saying that the teachers should give the students more opportunities for developing the skills of speaking and oral comprehension.

In order to increase the ability of oral comprehension the teacher should pay more attention to work with oral material. Very good for that purpose seem to be different texts which are presented to the students orally, either by the teacher himself or from a tape or disc. The texts need not be very long - the ideal length of a text seems to be 20-35 type-written lines. During the presentation of the text the students do not see it; only after the text has been worked through will they see it in print.

Work with oral comprehension texts may be divided into

the following stages (the ideas given below should be treated as suggestions only):

1. Listening. The teacher reads the text once. The students listen only and try to understand as much as they can at first hearing. The text should be read at normal speed.

2. Listening and understanding. The teacher reads the text again, stopping at convenient points to explain unfamiliar words and constructions. Rather than give direct explanations, he tries to elicit as much information as possible from the students. Explanations should be given entirely in English. Translation into the students' mother-tongue may, on occasion, be used as a last resort and then only to translate lexical items, not patterns. The teacher must ensure that the students understand the text completely before proceeding to the next part of the lesson.

3. Listening. The teacher reads the text once more. The students should now be in a position to understand all of it.

4. Reading aloud. The students now see the text in print. Individual students are asked to read small sections of the passage. This is done quickly round the class.

5. Answering mixed questions (the text is shut). The teacher asks questions about the text to elicit short or extended answers. The questions are asked rapidly round the class.

6. Asking mixed questions (the text is shut). The teacher may get the students to ask each other questions about the text, or he may choose to elicit questions in the following manner:

Teacher: Ask me if it was printed in the papers?

Student: Was it printed in the papers?

Teacher: When...

Student: When was it printed in the papers? etc.

N.B. If time is short, or if the students are quite proficient at answering and asking questions, Stages 5 and 6 may be omitted.

7. Oral composition (the text is open). Oral composition is especially useful for giving practice in using the language already learnt so that students begin to feel thoroughly at home with it, and to use it so confidently that it does not impede the efficiency of their thinking. This is a guided composition exercise, the material for which is to be found in the text. For example, the teacher may ask a student to imagine that he were the person mentioned in the text and to describe what happened, not including any ideas which are not in the text.

Apart from descriptive texts used for oral comprehension, the texts read may be deliberately controversial, the arguments presented may be deliberately provocative and even bigoted and extremist. They are short essays which argue in favour of a proposition. The texts need not be academic essays; they are light, informal and conversational in style. They are all, of course, used for oral comprehension. However, they are also aimed at motivating the students by any means - even by making them angry - and sparking off a spontaneous debate in the class. Thus, such texts serve two purposes - they can be used for oral comprehension and for class discussion or debate and are very suitable for conversation lessons.

What hinders efficient oral comprehension? Listening to what is said in a foreign language may be used to expand vocabulary as it is now generally accepted that vocabulary is most effectively expanded through awareness of usage - by seeing and hearing words in context. Words pass first into recognition vocabulary and subsequently into our usage vocabulary. Poor vocabulary obviously hinders comprehension which may be the result of a limited experiential background.

When the meanings of individual words are known difficulty frequently arises from complexity of sentence structure, from not knowing the sentence pattern used. Comprehension can thus be developed through giving the students a better knowledge of grammar, especially of the more complex structures.

Poor comprehension may well arise from a student's in-

ability to concentrate, which requires careful diagnosis. The cause may be poor eye-sight, bearing or bad health. Emotional difficulties may be resolved with the teacher's sympathetic co-operation. If the student is not interested in his work he lacks the motivation to concentration. Thus the teacher must ensure that material and presentation are interesting.

Poor comprehension often arises from the speed used at the presentation of material which may seem too high for the student although it is only the normal speed used in speech. The student may simply not be used to such speed as texts at foreign-language lessons are often read at very slow speed. That is why many contemporary authors emphasize the need for the presentation of material at normal speed from the very beginning. When material is presented at slow speed it results in high comprehension of simple material and low comprehension of complex material.

Students should be exposed to different varieties of a foreign language, social and regional; they should hear a foreign language in its presentation by different people. Despite the fact that tapes and discs with recordings of different people and language variants are available it often happens that little use is made of them and the only variant of the foreign language the student hears is that used by his teacher. And the result is that such a student can hardly comprehend the speech of other people. Without encouraging and training the students to listen to different varieties of a foreign language they will never achieve notable success in comprehending a foreign language when it is spoken.

The need for oral comprehension of foreign languages is growing every year as contacts with foreign countries increase in the fields of commerce, culture and science. In view of this, foreign-language teachers are confronted with a very important task - to find ways how to increase their students' ability to speak foreign languages and to comprehend what is spoken. Giving the students a reading knowledge of a foreign language alone is not enough.

EFFICIENCY IN HEADING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN THE EARLY STAGES OF INSTRUCTION

M. Kiviväli

language is activity, activity basically of four kinds: speaking, listening, writing and reading. We spend a large part of our waking life speaking, listening, writing and reading - with understanding as the main ingredient in each.

To read is to grasp language patterns from their written representation. As defined by Klychnikova (Клычникова, 1973:6), from the psychological point of view reading is an act of perception and intensive processing of information graphically codified according to the system of the language concerned. Thus, the reading process includes both the perception of the printed material and its comprehension.

Efficient reading is a task that has been facing mankind ever and ever more. This is due to the fact that the amount of literature published is increasing every year, which necessitates a careful selection of what to read and an increased efficiency in reading. According to an estimation made by the U.S. Council of Library Resources in January 1964, "the world's annual production of books is 520,000 titles - nearly 1,000 fresh works every day! In addition, there are some 55,000 newspapers and 70,000 periodicals published on a regular basis" (The Many Faces of the Library, n.d.:54). English is becoming ever more important in scientific literature: besides the fact that about 60 per cent of the world's radio broadcasts and 70 per cent of the world's mail is in English (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1972:4), scientists seem to tend to publish their works in English instead of other languages. For example, according to the statistical data published in the "Journal of Chemical Education" (1959:478), of all the literature on chemistry printed in 1958 50.5 per cent was in English, 16.8 per cent in Russian, 9.7 per cent in German, 6.1 per cent in Japanese, 5.5 per cent in French. According to an investigation made by the

Saltykov-Shchedrin State Library in Leningrad from 1965-1969, most of the foreign books read by our scientists are in English followed by German and French, which comprise 70.9 per cent of all the books in foreign languages read by the scientists. Books in English are read more by physicists, mathematicians, chemists, geologists, geographers and biologists (Vatter, 1972:12).

Whether or not language learners will be required to speak or write English, there is no doubt that they will want to read it for a variety of purposes: for recreation, for advanced studies, in the course of scientific work, the main purpose of reading being the acquisition of information. It proceeds that the very greatest care should be taken over the teaching of English reading, over training people to read efficiently, and this should be done from the very beginning.

What is meant by efficient reading? To read efficiently means "to read as rapidly as one's intelligence, material and purpose permit and to achieve the depth of understanding required" (Macmillan, 1965:4). Thus efficient reading requires a training for rapid reading and a training for comprehension - in other words, for intelligent interpretation. Slowness and lack of comprehension are an enormous disadvantage. The speed of reading among our learners of English is often very slow, spelling-out and sounding of words is frequent, and there is a heavy, unsound reliance on the dictionary.

Which are the most effective methods to be used for teaching reading to achieve with minimum effort maximum results?

The discussions in English concerning the methods and materials for the teaching of reading began at least four hundred years ago. Reference may be made to John Hart's books of 1570 entitled "A Methode or comfortable beginning for all unlearned, whereby they may be taught to read English, in a very short time, with pleasure". The four hundred years since John Hart's work have produced a tremendous amount of material bearing upon the problems of reading (A very comprehensive bibliography may be found in: W.S. Gray, *The Teaching of Reading and Writing*, UNESCO, 1956).

Teaching reading to foreign learners of English a distinction should be made between the methods used to train reading in the early stages and between those used after the early stages.

In training reading in the early stages emphasis is laid on the acquisition of two skills - association and recognition - association between the written and the spoken language, between the written words and sentences and the way these are pronounced in speech, and the ability to recognize a number of marks on paper as words and groups of meanings, which correspond to spoken sounds and which have certain meanings. After the early stages attention should be concentrated on the acquisition of the following skills - speed and understanding. However, reading must be conducted at normal speed already in the early stages. Speed is the ability to recognize accurately a large number of words as wholes, thus minimizing the number of stops the eye must make in scanning a line of print or script. It should be pointed out, however, that association, recognition and speed are of little use if a person cannot understand what he reads.

Most experts nowadays think that the best way to begin to achieve the aim of teaching to read books rapidly and understand them is by an oral approach, teaching learners to understand certain words and structures by ear, and then to speak them before they are expected to read them. In the first stages of learning English this seems to be the ideal order (Hill, 1967:81; Palmer, Redman, 1952:113-120; Fries, 1964:119; Selg, Sotter, 1968:271ff.). It means that the learners are never asked to read something containing words or structures which they are not already familiar with from having heard and spoken them, so that their task is simply to recognize on the written page what they already know in the world of sounds. In the earliest stage this includes recognizing the shapes on paper which correspond to the words and sentences they know by ear.

It is possible to teach English only in its spoken form so that the learner may not be able to read it, but it is extremely doubtful whether one can really read the language without first mastering it orally. Unless one has

mastered the fundamentals of English - that is, as a set of habits for oral production and reception - the process of reading is a process of seeking word equivalents in his own native language. Translation on an exceedingly low level is all that such reading really amounts to. And this is just the case with our learners of English - very often they translate everything into their mother tongue.

The structural linguists emphasize the importance for success in reading of a good foundation in spoken language. According to an assessment of the relative time needed for various skills - understanding, speaking, reading and writing - at the initial stage 15 per cent of time is devoted to reading, 50 per cent to listening, 30 per cent to speaking and 5 per cent to writing. Later on about 40 per cent of time is devoted to reading (Abbé, 1965:117).

Although most experts assume that the route to reading is through speech there are also those who argue that reading and speaking are not inseparable (West, 1941:5-6). It has been such an authority as Palmer himself who admits the possibility of a course aiming at "reading knowledge only" and proposes for those who want "to read foreign books of literary or scientific value of which no translation exists" a course in which "no phonetic instruction whatever will be given and all the exercises will be based on the passive aspect of the language" (West, 1968:153 - 154). As early as 1926 M. West was able to achieve, after twenty periods of practice in silent reading, an improvement of 232 per cent in the reading efficiency of a class of seventeen-year-old Bengali students (West, 1941:7). Narayanaswamy (1972:300-309) refers to a project for the improvement of reading comprehension at college level conducted by the Central Institute of English, Hyderabad, in 1968-1969, and their findings seem to confirm the validity of West's Principle of Specific Practice. Even if we admit the possibility of courses which aim at reading knowledge only, they seem to be applicable only at a more advanced level. In the early stages of learning to read English all reading should still be a process of transfer from auditory signs to their equivalent visual signs and of establishing the necessary recognition habits.

There must be a lot of reading aloud at the early stage to enable learners of English to read words they have not seen before - which they will have to do at a later stage - and to help them make the necessary association between the written and the spoken language. Reading aloud clearly and interestingly is an artistic skill. Not all native speakers of a language are able to read aloud effectively. Reading aloud is therefore not easy to justify as an end in itself in teaching a foreign language. It is, however, an affective practice and test of a foreign-language learner's ability to read in general. The role of reading aloud in all stages of foreign-language learning has often been overestimated and regarded as a very important way of mastering the skill of reading (Кильчукова, 1973:67 -71). The reading of unprepared texts has been recommended at the advanced level as a way to expressive reading (*Ibid.*, 70 - 71). It is very doubtful how expressive reading can be taught to learners of English by means of unprepared texts.

A child usually begins to read at about the age of six, which is the age by which the process of learning to speak has practically reached completion. Most children acquire this skill without much difficulty. However, it has been pointed out that children vary considerably in their aptitude for reading (Roberts, 1958:77). Aptitude may be defined as "the potentiality of an individual for learning a certain skill or a particular type of knowledge" (Theodorson, 1969:15). It is the current opinion of educators that each child has an optimum point for the beginning of instruction in reading. This is called the point of "reading readiness". Thus, the specialists say, though most children may achieve reading readiness by six, others may not reach it until seven or eight. Conversely, some children are ready to read earlier than six - at five or four or even, in rare cases, at three. A quite original view has been advanced by Glenn Doman, who is of the opinion that the most appropriate age for teaching children to read is the age of two by the application of special methods (Kees, 1967:3).

As has been mentioned above, most children acquire the skill of reading without much difficulty. However, a child

who does not make normal progress in learning to read is severely handicapped in almost all aspects of primary education, and has little chance for success in higher education unless his reading problem can be overcome.

Reading difficulty occurs for many reasons. Poor methods of teaching in school or the lack of appropriate stimulation at home can interfere with reading acquisition. Hereditary factors or disorders of pregnancy in the mother may operate to produce deficiencies in abilities essential to reading. Reading problems may occur in conjunction with impaired vision or hearing, emotional disorders, poor health, slowness in development of spoken language, brain damage, or general mental subnormality. More subtle deficiencies of visual or auditory perception, oral fluency, fine muscular coordination, motivation, or the sequential maturation of complex skills may also be associated with reading difficulty.

Since there is no single cause of reading difficulty, all possible factors must be considered in attempting to understand the conditions underlying any serious problem. Due to it more attention should be paid to defectology in our educational institutions where often language learners who have reading difficulty are treated as lazy and negligent, and the real reasons for failure often remain undiscovered and the defects in learners uncured (Koemets, 1967:907).

The habits involved in reading and writing the source language tend to be transformed to the target language. The two alphabets being similar facilitates the learning of reading, the two being different, hampers progress. This concerns, above all, the reading system. As is known, there are alphabets which differ from the Latin one English uses, some of them very different in appearance. It is much more difficult, for example, for a Russian to learn to read in English than for an Estonian as Russian uses the Cyrillic alphabet, where many symbols are different from those in the Latin alphabet. Besides, some people, for example the Arabs, read from right to left, some from top to bottom, for example the Chinese. To teach English reading to readers of Russian, Arabic, Japanese, or other languages with

very different reading systems require prereading instruction to identify the letters of the Latin alphabet.

Basically, to read in English can be taught either by the phonic method or by "look and say", i.e. by the word method although also the sentence method and the story method have been used for that purpose (Frisby, 1957: 213-222).

When using the word method the language learner is taught to look at the whole word and regard and learn it as a whole. Look and Say means that they must learn everything as a whole and have no foundation for being able to read words they have never seen before. According to the phonic method, each letter in the alphabet has a sound and the reader can sound out the word. The trouble with English is that its reading system is only very imperfectly phonetic. Relating each letter in a word to a sound can effectively present some of the simpler spelling patterns, but this method causes confusion and difficulty when other spelling patterns are encountered where there is not a correspondence between letter and sound. However, despite the difficulties and confusion that may arise the importance of reading rules and exercises based on them already at the initial stage has been pointed out by several authors (e.g. Клычникова, 1973:26). Reading rules concern the reading of different letters and letter combinations. Although the rules are numerous and there are many exceptions they are of great help for the learner. Some time ago detailed reading rules were given in our text-books. Now their importance has been ignored for some reason or other.

That any reading system which is only partially, or not at all, phonetic should come to be easily read may seem surprising, but this nevertheless has happened in a number of languages including English, no doubt because learning to read and write has followed, not preceded, learning to listen and speak. Thus the skilled speaker of any language who becomes later a writer and reader is able to anticipate each word and to supply any missing word, to overcome any misprint, or even total blank in what he is reading. This he does because he enjoys the benefit of context which enables the reading system for that language to be effective, notwithstanding that the system may be only very imperfectly

phonetic or not even phonetic at all - or even alphabetic.

Because of lack of correlation between spelling and pronunciation in English many people are dissatisfied with the standards of reading in Britain, the U.S.A. and other English-speaking countries, let alone reading English as a foreign language. Only about a half of the seven-year-olds in Britain can read well, and official statistics show that one in four of children at fifteen years of age are poor readers (*How Your Children are being Taught to Read* with i.t.a., 1964:1).

Teachers have felt that the alphabet and spelling of English are one of the main reasons why children have so much difficulty in learning to read. Printed words are only a kind of code for the spoken language. The trouble with the alphabet and spelling which is used as a code for spoken English is that it is too difficult for the beginners, there is too much for them to learn at the start. In order to remove these inconsistencies completely up to the stage when the learner has thoroughly mastered the skill of reading and writing the initial teaching alphabet (i.t.a.) was designed by James Pitman. It is a new medium for teaching reading at the initial stage.

I.t.a. is based on the idea that you start with something easy for the beginner and keep back the difficulties until he has grasped the general idea of getting meaning out of print. The initial teaching alphabet is simply an extended version of the Roman alphabet, consisting of 44 characters, each with a constant sound. James Pitman has retained 24 of the existing Roman letters and has added 20 new characters.

The new approach to reading introduces printed English in two stages: At Stage 1 the aim is to insure success right from the start so that confidence and fluency may be developed. For this purpose James Pitman designed the i.t.a. as a more simple and more reliable alphabet for beginners. At Stage 2 learners transfer their skill and confidence to reading texts printed in the traditional alphabet and spelling of English (Downing, n.d.).

The propounders of the new medium of instruction often refer to the great success of the initial teaching al-

phabet and its wide adoption by many thousands of teachers throughout the English-speaking world (Pitman, 1972:1). Reference has been made to the conclusion of the report of a study carried out for the Schools Council on the use of i.t.a. as a medium for beginning reading which says the following: "There is no evidence whatsoever for the belief that the best way to learn to read in traditional orthography is to learn in traditional orthography. It would appear rather that the best way to learn to read in traditional orthography is to learn to read in the initial teaching alphabet" (Warburton, Southgate, 1969:235 - 236).

i.t.a. has also been employed for teaching English reading to foreign learners of English. The new medium may be of some help for the native speakers of English but has not proved very helpful in teaching English reading for foreigners. I.t.a. is not used to teach reading English as a foreign language even at the Pitman School of English in London, which is owned by Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons.

Reading is commonly thought to be a sound-reproducing skill. That is to say that its mastery is shown by the ability to reproduce the words from the printed page as speech.

By the tradition, in many classrooms, reading means only reading aloud. A description of a stock lesson, commonly seen in different parts of the world, will help to illustrate what has been said.

The teacher writes the new words on the blackboard, either before reading the passage or while reading it, that is, after the words have occurred in context. The teacher reads these words aloud and gives their meaning. Sometimes he translates them but more often he explains them in English. The learners may then be asked to read the words aloud. While reading the passage individual learners are asked to read it aloud and the teacher occasionally interrupts to correct pronunciation. This reading is sometimes done round the class or, if the teacher wants to maintain attention, he picks out people from different parts of the class to prevent those who are not reading from losing the place or day-dreaming. When the reading of the passage has been completed the teacher asks questions to see if the learners have understood. These questions are usually factual and

their number depends on the time available.

What good does reading aloud round the class do the language learners? Each of them will spend the lesson listening to his fellow-students reading with bad pronunciation, bad stress, bad rhythm and bad intonation. This cannot improve his own pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation. He himself will have only a limited practice of a few minutes reading aloud. What will he learn from that? He will practice his usual mistakes of pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation with occasional desultory corrections from the teacher, which will not make a sufficiently strong impact on him to eradicate his wrong habits. We cannot but agree with L.A. Hill (1967:71) that in order to give the learners more efficient practice in pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation we should do ear and speed training work, which can largely be done chorally, so that all in the class are practising simultaneously.

As the ultimate aim of teaching English reading is to enable the learners to read English books and periodicals efficiently for a variety of purposes, after the early stages a lot of time should be spent training students to read silently, with adequate speed and understanding. The emphasis is on the word "training". The learner, in his future career, is unlikely to spend much time reading aloud.

The fact that greater emphasis must be put on silent reading need not entirely preclude reading aloud. But reading aloud is a waste of time unless it is done really well. The teacher's own model is important; he may use a tape recorder or record player to let his class hear English read by a reputable speaker. Learners who are reading aloud should preferably stand facing the class, with the teacher facing them at the back of the room. The teacher is like the producer of a play. His job is to see that the learners read clearly, audibly, and intelligently - that is, that they express the meaning of the passage without any extravagant or unnatural variations of stress and intonation. They must express the meaning: and so reading aloud can take place after the passage has been read silently and after the necessary questions have been asked and answered, and after the passage has been fully understood.

Efficient readers are generally those who have managed to discard the word-sounding that was taught to them when they learned to read.

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ВИДО-ВРЕМЕННЫЕ ФОРМЫ НАСТОЯЩЕГО ВРЕМЕНИ В АНГЛИЙСКОМ ЯЗЫКЕ И ИХ СООТВЕТСТВИЯ В ЭСТОНСКОМ

Х. Лийв

1.0. Введение

Данный сопоставительный анализ приводится в учебных целях. Сопоставление в учебных целях включает в себя лингвистический и методический анализ (Барсук, 1970:90-91). Задача лингвистического анализа состоит в том, чтобы выявить как общее, так и отличительное в сопоставляемых языках. Задача методического анализа заключается в том, чтобы в результате лингвистического анализа материала, отобрать то, что может содействовать рациональной организации учебного процесса и разработке системы упражнений.

При типологическом сопоставлении двух языков необходим некоторый язык-эталон или метаязык. В качестве языка-эталона может быть использован любой язык. В данном исследовании за исходный язык принимается английский, так как видо-временные формы английского языка исследованы больше, чем временные формы эстонского языка. Анализ проводится по принципу функционально-семантического сравнения. На уровне сопоставления оппозиций критериями сравнения будут являться ситуативные контексты в обоих языках. Поскольку действующие вузовские грамматики английского языка являются традиционными, для сопоставления выбирается традиционная модель языка. Проводимая работа, естественно, не является исчерпывающей.

2.0. Present Indefinite И Present Continuous

2.1. Значения. В индо-европейских языках различают несколько значений презенса в отношении охватываемых им временных планов. И.П. Иванова сводит их к следующим:

- 1) действие, осуществляющееся в момент высказывания;
- 2) действие, не происходящее в момент высказывания ("вневременное" или "всевременное" или "общевременное" действие);
- 3) действие, происходившее в прошедшем;
- 4) действие, намечаемое на будущее (Иванова, 1961:29).

Примерно такие же значения презенса различают и в прибалтийско-финских языках. Так, Б.А. Серебренников выделяет пять типов презенса:

- 1) настоящее время данного момента;
- 2) расширенное настоящее время;
- 3) вневременное настоящее время;
- 4) историческое настоящее;
- 5) настоящее в значении будущего (Б.А. Серебренников, 1963:446).

Очевидно, нет смысла устанавливать различие между первым и вторым типом, так как оно состоит лишь в степени ограничения говорящим объема действия, т.е. второй представляет собой расширенное понимание данного момента:

"Laev põleb ... laev põleb ...".

("Корабль горит ... корабль горит" ...).

Tehnika muudab Põhjamaa loodust.

(Техника изменяет природу Севера).

По мнению Г. Лич, граммема^I Present Indefinite имеет три основных значения:

неограниченное настоящее (unrestrictive present),

одновременное настоящее (instantaneous present) и

обычное настоящее (habitual present) (Leech, 1969:138):

Water contains hydrogen.

He scores a goal.

He goes to bed at ten o'clock.

^I Чтобы избежать многозначности термина "форма", некоторые авторы обозначают слово как единицу грамматической информации термином граммема (Khaimovich, 1967 и др.).

Наряду с этими значениями он упоминает также значения "present-in-future" и "historic present".

Основным значением граммемы Present Continuous является конкретное протекание действия в момент речи, процес-суальность. Ограниченная длительность и незаконченность вытекают из основного значения (Иванова, 1961:79):

"Where is Mary?" - She is mopping the floor upstairs.

Основное значение эстонского презенса состоит в обозначении совершающегося наличного действия, т.е. действия, совершающегося в данный момент, сейчас (Серебренников, 1963:446; Mihkla, 1964:70):

Mary peab parajasti põrandat.

Mary is mopping the floor.

Таким образом, основное значение эстонского презенса совпадает с основным значением Present Continuous. Как в английском, так и в эстонском языке прямая соотнесенность действия с моментом речи возникает в контексте:

Mary peab iga päev põrandat.

Mary mops the floor every day.

Mary peab parajasti põrandat.

Mary is mopping the floor.

Второстепенным значением эстонского презенса можно считать "вневременное" действие или состояние:

Linnud lendavad.

Birds fly.

Это значение передается граммемой Present Indefinite.

Ниже мы рассмотрим, как Present Indefinite и Present Continuous употребляются для выражения действий настоящих, прошедших и будущих.

2.2. Употребление Present Indefinite и Present Continuous для передачи действия в настоящем времени

2.2.1. Present Indefinite. Present Indefinite употребляется в следующих случаях:

1) для выражения общих положений или истин:

Cows eat grass.
Lehmad söövad rohtu.
Oil floats on water.
Öli ujub vee peal.
Two and two is four.
Kaks korda kaks on neli.
They laugh best who laugh last.
Kes viimasena naerab, see naerab paremini.

Этот случай распространяется на общеизвестные истины, формулировки правил, законов, на пословицы и поговорки и т.д.

2) для выражения обычных, повторяющихся или постоянных действий:

Classes begin at eight (every day).
Tunnid algavad kell kaheksa.
I always get up at seven.
Ma tõusen alati kell seitse.

Значение повторяющегося, обычного действия может определяться такими лексическими указателями, как *always*, *often*, *every day* и т.д., но они дифференциальными признаками не являются.

3) для выражения действий, характеризующих субъект:

Ann sings well.
Anna laulab hästi.

Здесь действие, осуществляющееся обычно, становится признаком субъекта.

4) для обозначения действия или состояния, имеющего место в момент речи, если они выражены глаголами восприятия и чувства, умственной деятельности, речи или состояния:

I hear his voice.
Ma kuulen ta häält.
Now I think that he was right.
Nüüd ma arvan, et tal oli õigus.
This jar contains sugar.
Selles purgis on suhkur.

Но употребление этих глаголов в форме Present Continuous вполне закономерно, если этого требует ситуация, где необходимо подчеркнуть процессуальность (Смолина, 1964:230):

I am actually hearing his voice.

Ma tõepoolest kuulen ta häält.

I am thinking of going to the south.

Ma mõtlen lõunasse sõidust.

Приведем несколько примеров употребления глаголов to feel, to look и to be в форме Present Continuous.

I'm feeling all right now.

Tunnen end nüüd hästi.

He's looking better now.

Ta näeb nüüd parem välja.

He's being foolish.

Ta käitub rumalasti.

Глаголы to feel и to look употребляются в форме Present Continuous, когда имеется в виду ограниченный период. Глагол to be стоит в длительной форме, когда подлежащее представляется совершающим какое-либо действие. Когда подразумевается состояние, to be стоит в форме Present Indefinite:

I am cold.

Mul on külm.

5) в авторских ремарках:

A woman enters from the dining room.

Keegi naine siseneb söögitoast.

6) при демонстрациях, опытах и т.д., когда слова говорящего совпадают с его действиями:

I place the rabbit in the box and close the lid.

Ma panen jänesse kasti ja sulen kaane.

I take three eggs and beat them in this basin. Then I add sugar ...

Ma võtan kolm munat ja klopin neid selles kausis. Siis ma lisani suhkrut ...

В этих примерах говорящий сообщает о действиях, не указывая на их длительность.

7) в репортажах по радио, когда олуматели не могут увидеть то, о чем сообщается:

... and he passes the ball to Ivanov, and Ivanov scores.

... ja ta annab palli edasi Ivanovile ja Ivanov 156b vîgrava.

8) в названиях картин, в надписях на фотографиях:

The Queen enters the hall.

Kuninganna astub saali.

9) в вооклицательных предложениях, начинающихся о наречий места here and there:

Here comes the bride.

Pruut tulebki juba!

There goes the train.

Seal lähebki rong!

Здесь подчеркивается факт, а не действие в процессе его протекания. При переводе этих предложений на эстонский язык к личному окончанию глагола часто добавляется эмфатическая суффиксальная частица - ki (-gi) плюс наречие juba (уже).

Present Continuous в функциях 5), 6), 7), 8), 9) обычно не употребляется, что исключает необходимость сопоставлять их с Present Indefinite.

2.2.2. Present Continuous. Present Continuous употребляется в следующих случаях:

I) для выражения действия, совершающегося в момент речи:

(Look!) The children are picking berries.

(Vaata!) Lapsed korjavad praegu marju / on marju korgjamás.

(Where are you living at the moment?) I am living in London.

Ma elan praegu Londonis.

В английском языке форма глагола показывает, что действие происходит в момент речи. В эстонском языке требуетсѧ либо контекст ситуации, либо лексические средства, например наречия paraajasti, praegu (at the moment, now) ука-

зывающие на действия, совершающиеся в момент речи, либо синтаксические средства – частичное прямое дополнение (*magju*) в форме партитива плюс лексические средства или контекст.

Когда Present Continuous употребляется с непредельными глаголами (Иванова, 1961:64), то эта форма синонимична Present Indefinite:

I am living in London.
Ma elan praegu Londonis.
I live in London.
Ma elan Londonis.

Разница заключается лишь в том, что первое предложение выражает временное действие.

2) для выражения действия или состояния, протекающего в течение настоящего периода времени, но не обязательно относящегося к моменту речи:

I am writing a new book (сказанное во время прогулки).
Kirjutan uut raamatut.
More and more people are buying TV sets.
Uha rohkem inimesi ostab televiisoreid.

3) для выражения постоянной привычки или наклонности субъекта:

He's always reading at meals.
Ta loeb alati (ilmastilma) söögi ajal.
He's for ever losing his money.
Ta kaotab alati (ilmastilma) raha.

В этом употреблении Present Continuous сопровождается наречиями always, constantly, all the time, for ever и т.п. и может выражать неодобрение, нетерпение и т.д.

Подобные действия случаются очень часто, но не регулярно. Как только действие приобретает характер регулярности, употребляется Present Indefinite (Palmer, 1965:94):

The car's always breaking down.
Ta auto läheb ilmastilima katki.
The car always breaks down when I start for home.
Auto läheb alati katki kui ma hakkau koju sõitma.

Обычное, привычное действие может иметь место в течение ограниченного периода:

He's going to work by bus (его автомашина в ремонте).

Ta sõidab tööle bussiga (kuna ta auto on remondis).

We're eating a lot more fruit now (сейчас они дешевые).

Me sööme nüüd palju rohkem puuvilja (sest praegu on nad odavad).

Действия в этих примерах имеют временный, непостоянный характер, по сравнению с

He goes to work by bus (каждый день).

Ta sõidab tööle bussiga (iga päev).

We eat a lot of fruit (и всегда ели).

Me sööme palju puuvilja (alati).

Present Continuous переводится на эстонский язык презенном, иногда презенсом глагола "olema" (быть) плюс инессив от инфинитива на - ma (I инфинитив).

2.3. Употребление Present Indefinite для передачи действия, происходившего в прошлом (в контексте прошлого времени)

Present Indefinite употребляется:

I) при передаче воспоминаний и в литературе повествовательного жанра:

I remember it as vividly as if it had happened yesterday. The old general shakes my hand, smiles and says, "Well done, son".

Ma mäletan seda nii selgelt nagu oleks see juhtunud eile. Vana kindral raputab mi kätt, naeratab ja lausub: "Tubli poiss".

В целях придания повествованию большей наглядности говорящий перемещает временной план и представляет действие, совершившееся в плане прошлого, как бы происходящим в данный момент. Отнесенность действия к моменту речи осуществляется посредством транспозиции, т.е. переноса действия из прошедшего в настоящее. Как в английском, так и в эстонском языке нужен контекст или ситуация, показывающие, что

одновременные события относятся к прошлому.

2) при цитировании известных авторов:

Homer says that ...
Homeros ütleb, et ...

3) в косвенной речи в дополнительных придаточных предложениях, выражаящих универсальные истины:

He believed that the earth is a globe.
Ta uskus, et ma a on Ümmargune.

4) вместо Present Perfect с глаголами to read, to hear, to learn, to understand, to forget если подчеркивается актуальность полученной информации:

We hear that you are going to America soon.
Me kuulsime, et sa sõidad varsti Ameerikasse.
Somebody told me about his illness, I forgot who it was.
Keegi rääkis mulle tema haigusest, kuid olen unustanud, kes see oli.

Употребление Present Perfect с перечисленными глаголами означало бы потерю значения актуальности полученной информации.

В эстонском языке в таких случаях употребляется имперфект или перфект.

2.4. Употребление Present Continuous и Present Indefinite для передачи действия, намеченного на будущее

Перенос будущего действия в настоящее происходит путем нейтрализации плана выражения будущего действия. Значение будущего переносится на адвекции (Хлебникова, 1969:86).

2.4.I. Present Continuous. Present Continuous употребляется:

I) для выражения действия, которое будет совершено после момента речи, как факт, не подлежащий сомнению. В предложении большей частью наличествует обстоятельство времени:

I am leaving tonight.
Ma sõidan täna õhtul.
I am seeing him again this evening.

Ma kohtan teda jäalle täna öhtul.

Фраза "be going to + инфинитив", которая соединяет значение будущего с намерением, решением, обязательностью, вероятностью действия и т.п., может быть использована в данных примерах. Но be going to - это скорее предполагаемое действие, чем решение (Joos, 1964:22).

По мнению Р. Клоуз, использование Present Continuous в значении будущего возможно только с глаголами, которые выражают намерения человека (Close, 1970:44):

I am sleeping here tonight.

Ma magan siin täna öösel.

* It is raining to-morrow.

Homme hakkab vihma sadama.

2) вместо Future Continuous в придаточных обстоятельственных предложениях времени и условия после слов if, when, after и др.:

If he is writing (when you come), don't disturb him.

Kui ta kirjutab (kui sa tuled), õla sega teda.

2.4.2. Present Indefinite. Present Indefinite употребляется:

I) для выражения заранее намеченных действий в будущем, главным образом с глаголами движения и с глаголами, обозначающими начало действия, когда контекст показывает, что действие произойдет в будущем:

I leave tonight.

Ma sõidan täna öhtul.

Exams begin on Monday.

Eksamid algavad esmaspäeval.

Но в соответствующем контексте и другие глаголы могут обозначать будущее действие:

I read my paper tomorrow.

Mul on homme ettekanne.

Разница между употреблением Present Indefinite и Present Continuous для выражения будущего заключается в том, что Present Indefinite обозначает решение или за-

фиксированный план, являющийся частью программы (Joos, 1964; Palmer, N.E., 1924; Poutsma, 1926), а Present Continuous — план личного характера (Palmer, F.R., 1965), действие, которое в представлении говорящего уже началось в настоящем (Close, 1970).

- a) I start work tomorrow.
- b) I am starting work tomorrow.
- c) The ship sails at three tomorrow.
- d) The ship is sailing at three tomorrow.

В (а) начало работы назначено на завтра (заводом, врачом), в (б) говорящий собирается выйти на работу завтра (после болезни). В (с) имеется в виду фиксированный план, в (д) говорящий лично заинтересован в совершении действия и считает, что это представляет интерес и для собеседника.

2) вместо Future Indefinite в придаточных обстоятельственных предложениях времени и условия после словов *when*, *after*, *if* и др.

If you write home, give them my love.

Kui sa kirjutad koju, tervita neid minu poolt.

Употребление Present Continuous и Present Indefinite для выражения будущих действий соответствует употреблению эстонского презенса в значении будущего.

3.0. Present Perfect и Present Continuous

3.1. Present Perfect

3.1.1. Значение. Present Perfect выражает предшествование, связанное с настоящим. Связь заключается в том, что действие, прошлое по отношению к моменту речи, по своим формантам относится к настоящему (Хлебникова, 1969:100). Это прошлое действие может быть законченным к моменту речи или же продолжаться в момент речи.

Различные семантические оттенки значения вызываются главным образом лексическим характером глагола, его предельностью и непредельностью. Так, непредельные глаголы *to live*, *to work*, *to study*, *to teach*, *to sleep*, *to sit*, *to read*, *to translate* и др. могут употребляться в Present Perfect и в Present Perfect Continuous.

Инклюзивное значение возникает также под воздействием систематизированного контекста – обстоятельств незаконченного времени (Иванова, 1961:115):

- a) I have lived in London.
Olen elanud Londonis.
- b) I have lived in London for ten years.
Olen elanud (elan juba) Londonis kümme aastat.

В (а) действие законченное, в (б) – – незаконченное. Present Perfect в (б) приобретает значение, эквивалентное значению Present Perfect Continuous:

- c) I have been living in London for ten years.
Olen elanud (elan) juba Londonis kümme aastat.

Факт, что в (б) и (с) действие продолжается в настоящем, объясняет возможность передачи в эстонском языке этого значения Present Perfect с презенсом.

Действие может непосредственно предшествовать моменту речи или же относиться к далекому прошлому – вами его преемственная связь о моментом речи, его актуальность (Бархударов, 1967:176):

You've dropped your handkerchief, sir.

Have you already forgotten your physics in ten years?

Перфект в эстонском языке является одной из форм прошедшего времени. Он может обозначать действие, завершившееся в прошлом, но оставившего результат, ощущаемый в момент речи (Серебренников, 1963:462), но он может также выражать действие, начавшееся до момента речи (т.е. в прошлом) и продолжавшееся в момент речи (Kindlam, 1966:109–110). Таким образом, значения эстонского перфекта примерно соответствуют значениям английского Present Perfect и Present Perfect Continuous:

Oleme oma töö lõpetanud.

We have finished our work.

Poiss on juba mitu tundi kirjutanud.

The boy has been writing for several hours.

3.I.2. Употребление

I) Present Perfect употребляется для выражения прошедшего действия, законченного к моменту речи, но связанного с этим моментом. Связь с настоящим вытекает из результата действия:

- a) I've changed my opinion.

Ma olen (nüüd) muutnud oma arvamust.

Результат может быть отрицательным:

- b) He hasn't opened the window.

Ta ei ole avanud akent.

Present Perfect может сопровождаться наречиями already, just, once, twice и др., но они не являются дифференциальными признаками.

- c) He's gone already.

Ta on juba ära läinud.

- d) He's just gone.

Ta läks just ära.

Обстоятельство времени today, this year, tonight и др. могут выражать результативность и продолжительность, но продолжительность становится ясной только тогда, когда употребляется Present Perfect Continuous:

- e) She has put on her new dress tonight (результат).

Ta on täna öhtul uue kleidi selga pannud.

- f) I've worked very hard tonight (продол.?).

Ma töötasin/olen töötanud täna öhtul väga kövasti.

- g) I've been reading your letters tonight (продол.).

Lugesin sinu kirju täna öhtul.

В (a), (b), (d), (e) Present Perfect может быть заменен граммемой Past Indefinite. Употребление Past Indefinite или Present Perfect зависит от того, как говорящий смотрит на действие в прошлом:

She put on her new dress tonight.

(действие в прошлом, не связанное с моментом речи).

She has put on her new dress tonight.

(действие в прошлом, актуальное для момента речи).

Такое явление наблюдается и в эстонском языке. Если за исходное берется завершенность действия (результат), употребляется перфект; если подчеркивается самое действие – имперфект. Этот факт объясняется тем, что хотя перфект в эстонском языке выражает результат действия, говорящий может отвлечься от его результативности, если он хочет подчеркнуть сам факт совершения действия. В таких случаях перфект может заменяться имперфектом в эстонском языке.

Употребление имперфекта вместо перфекта в I л. ед. и мн. ч. в некоторых ситуациях наиболее ясно показывает вытеснение значения результата и замены его значением действия, имевшее место в прошлом:

Vaata! Ma panin üue kleidi selga.

Совершенно права Э.-В.П. Кузмицкайте, когда она пишет, что дифференциальным признаком употребления Present Perfect и Past Indefinite является неассоциирование – ассоциирование действия с какими-то условиями в прошлом (Кузмицкайте, 1970).

2) Present Perfect употребляется в особой функции вместо Future Perfect в придаточных предложениях времени и условия после союзов if, when, after и др., где она обозначает действие, которое заканчивается к определенному моменту в будущем. Такое употребление называется структурно-зависимым употреблением (Gordon, 1971:12), т.е. структура предложения определяет выбор временной формы.

You'll change your opinion after you've read his book.

Sa muudad oma arvamust, kui sa loed tema raamatu läbi.

Это значение граммы Present Perfect обычно передается в эстонском языке глаголом в презенсе (плюс префиксальные наречия läbi, õga и др.), но возможен и перфект:

He'll come when he has finished the letter.

Ta tuleb, kui ta lõpetab/on lõpetanud kirja.

Если сравнить употребление Present Indefinite в таком же окружении, то различие заключается в том, что Present Perfect подчеркивает законченность действия к определенному моменту в будущем, а Present Indefinite выражает инфинитное действие в будущем:

They will come when they have completed the task.

Nad tulevad, kui nad lõpetavad ülesande.

I shall remember you to him when I meet him.

Ma tervitan teda sium poolt kui ma kohtan teda.

3) Present Perfect употребляется для выражения действия или состояния, которое началось в прошлом и не закончилось к моменту речи, а продолжается в данный момент. При этом указания на начальный момент действия не обязательно. Если он указан, тогда употребляется since + обстоятельство времени. Период длительности действия выражается посредством for + обстоятельство времени, а также словосочетаниями all my life, all night и т.п.

I have worked here since 1970.

Olen töötanud/töötan siin juba 1970.aastast saadik.

Это значение граммы Present Perfect передается в эстонском языке либо перфектом, либо презенсом плюс наречие *juba* (already). Замена граммы Present Perfect граммой Present Indefinite невозможно без изменения значения предложения.

3.2. Present Perfect Continuous

3.2.1. Значение. Present Perfect Continuous выражает действие или состояние, которое началось в прошлом и продолжалось в течение определенного периода до момента речи или же все еще продолжается в этот момент, либо закончилось непосредственно перед ним. Как инклузивное, так и эксклюзивное использование граммы Present Perfect Continuous показывает инвариантное содержание длительности в сфере предместования (Хлебникова, 1969:108). Значение законченности или незаконченности определяется семантикой глагола, а не формой (Иванова, 1961:147), а также контекстом ситуации:

(Where is Tom?) I have been waiting for two hours.

Olen oodanud juba kaks tundi.

Someone has been stealing my books. (Some of them are missing).

Keegi on varastanud/varastab mu raamatuid.

При непереходных глаголах возможна синонимия формы Present Perfect с формой Present Perfect Continuous (Иванова, 1961:157, Khaimovich, 1967:175). Present Perfect Continuous подчеркивает процесс действия, Present Perfect – факт совершения действия:

I have kept/have been keeping his company since you left.

Ma olen olnud tema seltsis sestsaadik, kui sa lahkusid.

В эстонском языке нет длительной формы перфекта. Значения Present Perfect Continuous передаются перфектом, презенсом и имперфектом.

3.2.2. Употребление

1) Present Perfect Continuous употребляется для выражения действия, которое продолжалось в прошлом в течение некоторого периода времени, выраженного или подразумеваемого, но закончилось перед моментом речи:

You are so excited. What have you been doing in my absence?

Sa oled nii erutatud. Mida sa tegid minu käraoleku ajal?

(Сидя в креоле) I am tired. I have been working all day.

Olen văsinud. Töötasin kogu päeva.

Это значение граммы Present Perfect Continuous обычно передается в эстонском языке имперфектом.

2) Present Perfect Continuous употребляется также для выражения действия, которое началось в прошлом, продолжалось в течение некоторого периода до момента речи и все еще продолжается в момент речи.

I have been studying English for five years.

Olen õppenud (õpin) inglise keelt juba viis aastat.

Значение граммы Present Perfect Continuous в данном случае передается в эстонском языке перфектом или презенсом. При презенсе употребляется наречие juba (already).

4.0. Заключение

Проведенный сопоставительный анализ позволяет сделать несколько лингвистических, а затем методических выводов следующего характера:

- Значения граммемы Present Indefinite передаются в эстонском языке презенсом, перфектом и имперфектом, значения Present Continuous – презенсом, иногда презенсом глагола olema + инессив от инфинитива на - ma.
- Граммема Present Indefinite соответствует перфекту или имперфекту, когда она употребляется с глаголами to read, to hear, to learn, to understand, to forget вместо Present Perfect для подчеркивания актуальности полученной информации.
- В английском языке форма глагола показывает, что действие совершается в момент речи ($\text{be}_{\text{Pr}} + \text{V-ing}$). В эстонском языке это обычно достигается контекстом или лексическими средствами. Но синтаксические средства (частичное прямое дополнение в форме партитива) могут также указать на продолженность действия в момент речи.
- Как Present Indefinite и Present Continuous, так и эстонский презенс могут употребляться для выражения будущего действия. В этом случае в предложении обычно наличествуют лексические показатели будущего действия. В эстонском языке этой цели служат еще и синтаксические средства (полное прямое дополнение в форме генитива или номинатива).
- Чтобы научить студентов-эстонцев производить выбор между Present Indefinite и Present Continuous необходимо прежде всего научить их различать между элементарными значениями Present Indefinite и Present Continuous. Минимальные грамматические значения (дифференциальные признаки) целесообразно выявить путем противопоставления.
- Для обучения студентов-эстонцев выбирать между Present Indefinite и Present Continuous в целях вы-

ражения действия, относящемуся к настоящему времени следует выделить следующие оппозиции:

Present Indefinite

- Habitual, iterative activity.

I go to work every day.

- Inductively known fact.

Oil floats on water
(= will float).

- General truth.

The Volga flows into
the Caspian Sea.

- Regular activity at set times.

The car always breaks down when I start for work.

- Completion (with "non-progressive" verbs when reporting on mental activities and sensations).

I think you are right.

- Habitual activity.

He goes to work by bus.

Present Continuous

- Activity going on at the moment of speaking.

I am going to work.

- Activity going on at the moment of speaking.

The oil is floating on the water.

- Activity going on at the moment of speaking.

The Volga is flowing into the Caspian Sea.
(I can see it moving).

- Spodic repetition (+ speaker's disapproval).

The car is always breaking down.

- Incompletion (with "non-progressive" verbs when emphasis is on duration).

Be quiet, I am thinking.

- Habitual activity in limited period of time.

He is going to work by bus
(his car has broken down).

- Permanent characteristics of a person

You are funny.

- Temporary characteristics of a person.

You are being funny.

- Для различения между значениями Present Indefinite и Present Continuous, когда они выражают будущее действие, целесообразно выделить следующие оппозиции (включая be_{Pr} + going to):

Present Indefinite

- A planned future action in accordance with a programme (a future action seen as accomplished).

The ship sails at three tomorrow.

be_{Pr} + going to

- Personal intentions or objective symptoms imagined as leading to a completed act.

I am going to end this book soon.

It is going to rain this evening (the speaker sees signs and is sure of the results).

Present Continuous

- Preliminary decisions, plans or arrangements have been made and a future action is imagined as begun (but uncompleted).

The ship is sailing at three tomorrow.

Present Continuous

- Preliminary decisions, plans or arrangements have been made and the process is imagined as begun.

I am ending this book soon.

- (Pr. Cont. impossible)

- Значения граммем Present Perfect и Present Perfect Continuous передаются в эстонском языке, в зависимости от смысла предложения, либо перфектом, либо имперфектом, либо презенсом.
 - Если граммемы Present Perfect и Present Perfect Continuous выражают действие, которое началось в прошлом и закончилось к моменту речи, они соответствуют эстонскому перфекту или имперфекту. Имперфект употребляется вместо перфекта, когда говорящий хочет подчеркнуть сам факт совершения действия к моменту речи и отвлекается от результативности.
 - Если граммема Present Perfect выражает действие, которое закончится к определенному моменту в будущем (вместо Future Perfect в придаточных предложениях времени и условия), она соответствует эстонскому презенсу или перфекту.
- Перфект (или презенс + префиксальное наречие) подчеркивает законченность действия к определенному моменту в будущем, презенс – инdefинитное действие в будущем. Употребление презенса вместо перфекта зависит также от лексического характера глагола.
- Если Present Perfect и Present Perfect Continuous выражают действие или состояние, которое началось в прошлом и продолжалось до момента речи или все еще продолжается в этот момент, они соответствуют эстонскому перфекту, имперфекту или презенсу (плюс наречие *juba*).
 - Как инклузивное, так и эксклюзивное использование Present Perfect Continuous показывает ее инвариантное содержание длительности. В эстонском языке длительность выражается лишь контекстуально.
 - Интерференцию эстонского языка можно ожидать:

- a) при выборе между Present Indefinite (Present Continuous) и Present Perfect (Present Perfect Continuous);
- b) при выборе между Present Perfect и Present Perfect Continuous;
- c) при выборе между Present Perfect и Past Indefinite.

Для предупреждения интерференции следует выделить следующие оппозиции:

Present Continuous

- The action is going on at the moment of speaking and it is not indicated how long it has been continuing.

I am writing an exercise.

Present Perfect Continuous

- The action is going on at the moment of speaking and it is indicated how long it has been continuing.

I have been writing the exercise for 20 minutes.

Present Continuous

- The action is in progress at the moment of speaking.

I am writing an exercise.

Present Perfect

- The action has been completed by the moment of speaking.

I have written the exercise.

Present Indefinite

- Habitual activity.

I work at the factory.

Present Perfect / Present Perfect Continuous

- Habitual activity during a certain period of time.

I have worked/have been working at the factory since 1970.

Present Perfect

- The fact is emphasised.

I have lived in Leningrad for two years.

Present Perfect Continuous

- The duration is emphasised.

I have been living in Leningrad for two years.

Present Perfect

- The action is completed by the moment of speaking.

I have written a letter.

Present Perfect Continuous

- The action has been continuing for a period of time up to the moment of speaking or into it.

I have been writing a letter.

Present Perfect

- The speaker does not associate the action with a specific time in the past.

I have been to London.

Past Indefinite¹⁾

- The speaker associates the action with a specific time in the past.

I went there in 1970.

Present Perfect

- "Contact" - action.

I have written a letter.

Past Indefinite²⁾

- "Distance" - action.

I wrote a letter.

Проведенный сопоставительный анализ помогает гипотетически предположить, какие видо-временные формы настоящего времени английского глагола будут трудны для студентов-эстонцев. Установленные оппозиции могут быть использованы при составлении упражнений для обучения данному разделу грамматики.

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Данная оппозиция выделяется в учебных целях.

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ON TESTING PROFICIENCY AND ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE AT THE TERTIARY LEVEL (1)

O. Mutt

1. Introduction

In the continuing world-wide search for more efficient ways and means of teaching languages, two lines of endeavour seem to hold out special promise in the short term: (1) the "scientific" selection and graded presentation of language material and (2) the elaboration of methods for a more objective assessment of the learner's achievement.

It has long puzzled the present writer why there are so many foreign language teachers at the advanced level who have to be constantly reminded of the need to select and grade language material carefully since trying to teach all of the language is as a rule self-defeating.

The extent to which the progress of a learner or a class continues to be assessed by old-fashioned methods is also disconcerting, to say the least. Although what is old is not necessarily bad and although the experienced teacher can form a fairly accurate idea of how much his students know with the help of traditional methods of evaluation, it is also true that such judgments are frequently subjective and not strictly reliable. We are all aware of the wide range of disagreement that may occur when the same material is assessed by different examiners. Moreover, in this busy day and age, it is incredible that so much time should be taken up by the measurement of language learning with old methods of examination. The use of specially constructed language tests can help not only to ensure greater objectivity and to save valuable time, but it can also introduce a stimulating element of novelty and variety into the language classroom. It should likewise be borne in mind that efficient testing provides the teacher with feedback on the efficacy of his own teaching. In short, there appears to be

every reason for taking a good look at recent developments in the field of language testing. This should enable us to draw the necessary conclusions and encourage us to set to work in earnest on streamlining and updating the measurement of language learning in our republic as well.

The present paper is the first of several devoted to the propagation of the use of tests with learners of foreign languages at the tertiary level, i.e. with students at the higher educational establishments of the Estonian S.S.R. With this purpose in mind, we shall begin with a brief recapitulation of the main types of foreign language tests as well as of the fundamental principles of test designing and construction. In subsequent papers we intend to deal with the principal techniques of testing vocabulary, reading comprehension, grammatical structure and oral production, and with such matters as test administration, scoring and interpretation.

2. Types of Tests

During the fifty-odd years since mental and scholastic tests came to be widely used in educational measurement a great deal has been published on the theory and practices of testing and examining in foreign language instruction (Cole 1931:435 - 437; Mackey 1965:550). Most of the earlier material dealt with the languages taught as foreign languages in English-speaking countries. The field of testing English as a foreign language, however, was given only meagre attention until the 1960s (Allen 1965:363). After the appearance of Robert Lado's "Language Testing" (1961), the number of pertinent publications grew steadily and has now become legion. In an article such as this it would be inappropriate and exceedingly unhelpful to deluge the reader with a flood of titles. Suffice it to mention two other full-length books on the subject by the American specialists Rebecca M. Valette (1967) and David P. Harris (1969). A good concise survey of American work in this area

was recently made available by the Ministry of Higher and Specialised Secondary Education of the U.S.S.R. (*Тестирование по иностранным языкам в США*. Москва 1970). Outside the U.S.A. particular concern for improving the techniques of testing English as a foreign or a second language has been shown quite understandably in Great Britain. In the last few years there has been an upsurge of interest in foreign language testing in non-English-speaking countries as well, e.g. the U.S.S.R., the German Democratic Republic, Czechoslovakia, Poland, West Germany, etc. A number of specialized conferences and symposia have been held to discuss the problems involved, e.g. at the University of Michigan (U.S.A.) in 1967, at Sonnenberg (West Germany) in 1969 (see References: *Leistungsmessung im Sprachunterricht*), at Kirovogorsk (U.S.S.R.) in 1974.

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Language tests may serve many purposes. Generally speaking, there are five main objectives: survey; research into the effectiveness of different teaching techniques; research in psychology; research in sociology; and, finally, evaluation (Robinson 1970:61 - 62).

Survey tests are used to gather information about the second-language competence of various ethnic groups in a country where more than one language is spoken or also to measure the foreign-language competence of a particular group or groups.

Research into the effectiveness of various teaching techniques, textbooks, audio-visual aids, etc. makes use of language tests to show that one particular technique is more effective than another (well-known examples of this approach are the Scherer-Wertheimer experiment of 1962, and the Pennsylvania project of 1965-69; see Mutt 1972:91).

Psychological language tests are concerned above all with the way a person acquires another language and with the way the learning of the new language affects his command of the mother tongue and his entire personality. Some recent methods impose a heavy psychological stress on the learner by attempting from the very beginning, without recourse to

the written form of the language, to make the learner think in the new language, to set up an entirely new system of communication, completely separated from his mother tongue, in his mind. Psychological tests seek to establish whether this is possible, or whether the learner consciously or unconsciously analyses the new language in terms of his own language.

Sociological tests cover more or less the same ground as psychological tests, but at the level of the group rather than the individual.

All the groups of tests mentioned so far do not directly concern the ordinary foreign language teacher. The tests that are of immediate interest to him, however, are those which serve the purpose of evaluation, i.e. the measurement and assessment of the knowledge the learner has of the foreign or second language.

Evaluation tests are usually subdivided according to the purpose for which they have been designed into: (1) proficiency tests, (2) prognostic tests, (3) achievement tests, and (4) diagnostic tests (Mackey 1965:404).

The purpose of a proficiency test (also known as a classification test) is to find out how much of a language a person has mastered. Such tests are used to divide learners into categories according to their knowledge of a foreign language so as to form more or less homogeneous classes (usually beginners, intermediate and advanced students). The level of knowledge of a learner need not be the same for all the language skills. A speech proficiency test may place a learner at one level, and a writing proficiency test at another.

Prognostic tests are intended to predict how well a person is likely to learn a foreign language, i.e. they assess a person's capacity or aptitude to learn that language (hence the other names by which such tests are known - predictive or aptitude tests). One experimental type of prognostic test requires the learning of an artificial micro-language constructed of, say, elements of Arabic, Vietnamese and French, and containing in miniature all the elements involved in language teaching: phonetics, grammar, vocabulary and meaning. The test simulates the conditions of language

learning and includes such activities as imitating sounds and sound patterns, completing pattern changes, and inferring meaning from contexts (Mackey 1965:404). An asset of such a test with an artificial language is that it helps to single out students with the best inherent aptitude for language study. All the examinees find themselves in identical conditions as beginners and are stripped of any advantage they may otherwise enjoy in the form of a better command of language due to social background, the good fortune of having had a better teacher at school, etc. It is common knowledge that the graduates of our special foreign-language schools can occasionally be quite disappointing as university students. An impression of oral fluency and of an otherwise good knowledge of elementary English produced at an entrance examination is not necessarily a guarantee of good progress later on when the laborious uphill work of studying English at the advanced level has begun. On the other hand, it is not rare for a student coming from an ordinary secondary school to catch up with and do considerably better than his fellow students with an English-medium school background. What really counts therefore is an aptitude for language study coupled with the necessary motivation and a certain amount of will-power. Unfortunately, no really reliable all-round prognostic tests are available as yet. It is heartening, however, that work is being pursued in this direction. The significance of such tests for vocational guidance in general and for the better selection of students at foreign language departments is self-evident.

Achievement tests (also called progress or attainment tests) are designed to determine how much of the material of a course has actually been mastered. By and large, there are two kinds of achievement tests: the overall achievement test and the interim achievement test. The former measures the student's overall progress from the beginning to the end of a course, the latter deals with the extent to which a student has learnt the material of one or more lessons (Robinson 1970:63).

Diagnostic tests have as their aim to find out how much of the language the learner actually knows, what are

his strong and weak points, and, hence, what remains to be learnt. The purpose of such tests is not to give marks to learners, but to get some information about their knowledge of the language.

Of the four types of tests mentioned the most useful at the present stage of development seem to be proficiency tests and achievement tests. The majority of the internationally acknowledged standardized tests today are of these types, e.g. the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency, the GRETEL test CGM 62, the tests designed by P. Pineleur, A. Davies and E. Ingram (Gerbert 1969:439 - 440).

3. Some Basic Notions and Terms Connected with Testing

Certain of the terms used when talking or writing about tests need a brief explanation.

All good tests should possess three essential qualities: reliability, validity and practicality (Narrie 1969: 13).

A test is reliable if it will always give the same results under the same conditions. Reliability is a measurement of the degree of accuracy of the test, the amount of confidence that may be placed in the mark or score on the test as a measure of some skill or ability of the learner. A test that lacks reliability is as useless as a thermometer that gives different readings when the temperature of the air was the same. The most common causes of unreliability are ambiguous questions, questions set in such a way as to permit guessing, questions which cover only a small example of the skills or knowledge involved, questions which invite responses of different kinds and place too much stress on the qualitative judgment of the examiner.

By validity is meant the general worthwhileness of a test, i.e. the degree to which it measures what it sets out to measure. A test is valid when it is based upon a sound analysis of the skill or abilities we wish to measure, and if there is sufficient evidence that test scores correlate

fairly highly with actual skill or knowledge in the area being tested. While a valid test is necessarily reliable, a reliable test is not necessarily valid for a particular purpose.

A third characteristic of a good test is its practicability or usability (Harris 1969:21). A given test may be a highly reliable and valid device but still be impracticable because it is too costly, the testing process too time-consuming, the results too difficult to score and interpret.

In the light of the foregoing it should be obvious that the designing and construction of a reliable, valid and practicable test presuppose much knowledge, experience and skill. The compilation of good tests is affected by a wide range of variable factors. Before setting about compiling a test one must be clear as to what is to be tested. Once the purpose of the test required has been decided, the following stages in constructing the test have to be considered: (1) level, (2) type, (3) selection, (4) form, (5) gradation, (6) order and (7) number of steps. It is not necessary for the purpose of the present introductory survey to examine each of these steps separately. We shall have more to say about such matters in later contributions to this series. For the time being reference is made to the extensive literature on the subject (e.g. Тестирование по иностранным языкам в США. 1970: 8-44; Robinson 1970:63 - 67; Harris 1969:94 - 113; Bennett 1969: 91 - 105; Mackey 1965:405 - 406).

In any consideration of educational testing today a distinction must be drawn between informal teacher-made classroom tests and the large-scale "standardized" tests which are prepared by professional testers (Harris 1969:1).

Classroom tests are generally prepared, administered and scored (=evaluated) by the teacher. In such a situation, test objectives can be based directly on course objectives, and the test content derived from a given course content. As the teacher, test writer and evaluator are one and the same person, the students know more or less what is expected of them and how the results will be assessed and interpreted. Since the assessment and scoring will be done by only one person, the standards are likely to remain fairly consistent from test to test. It is also reasonable in such a situation to

expect that the teacher's ultimate evaluation of his etudente will be based not only on the test (or tests) but on a number of other measures. Consequently a single bad test result by a student need not do irreparable damage to his final standing, nor, probably will one inadequate or badly constructed test prevent the teacher from making a reasonably sound final judgment (Harris 1969:1 - 2).

The standardized tests designed to be used with thousands of subjects throughout a country or even several countries have been prepared by testing specialists with no personal knowledge of the examinees and usually with no opportunity to check on the consistency of individual performances. Therefore the conditions applying in the case of teacher-made tests referred to above do not apply here. The conclusion to be drawn is that standardized tests call for particularly careful planning and construction, work that had better be left to teams of trained specialists at universities or other institutions possessing the necessary staff and facilities.

Numerous standardized tests in English as a foreign language are now available. Their purpose is usually to test proficiency in English on several levels of the language by means of a set of tests involving several hundred items. Such complex sets of teste are known as test batteries. The English Language Test Battery (called EIBA for short) designed by Elizabeth Ingram for the Oxford University Press, for instance, contains about 200 items (Gerbert 1969:441). On the whole, however, standardized tests should be treated with caution as they may be unsuited to local requiremente and may consequently yield distorted and unfair reeulte.

Although the compilers of standardized tests sometimes claim that their products can be used with students of very different language backgrounde, it would seem that there are no really reliable universal tests in existence and that, Indeed, such tests can hardly ever become a reality. Standardized tests must be adapted to local condiditions and needs. In this connection contrastive analysis has a major role to play as it has in the compilation of any kind of teet for eubjecte who share the same first language.

In spite of a substantial body of knowledge about language testing in general and English-language testing in particular, it is only fair to admit that the whole field still has many unresolved issues and controversial aspects. The opponents of testing point out that testing makes no provision for language training, that tests are open to guessing and chance, that testing is reputed to measure only factual memory, etc. Within the ranks of the supporters of testing there is no agreement as to whether a test should concern itself with items or global skills (small-unit testing vs. battery testing), there is disagreement likewise as regards score interpretation and other matters.

Very generally speaking, language testing to date has developed mainly in the areas of vocabulary, grammar, reading and oral comprehension, and, to a lesser extent, writing. It is only recently that some headway has begun to be made in the development of objective techniques of measuring speaking ability (Dimitrijević & Djordijević 1971:248).

In short, the whole field of language testing offers much scope for further experimentation and research. To ensure more rapid movement ahead some members of the staff of every foreign languages department should be specially trained in examining techniques (every teacher, of course, should be familiar with the fundamentals of testing). The absence of all-purpose tests and the lack of universally accepted criteria as to how the more ambitious kinds of tests ought to be constructed and interpreted should not prevent the rank-and-file teacher at the tertiary and secondary levels alike from making up his own classroom tests and adapting existing ones. The introduction of testing techniques is obviously not going to solve all the problems that beset the effective measurement of language learning and there is no intention of substituting tests throughout for the traditional methods of examining. As devices and techniques complementary to those traditional methods, however, some types of tests are definitely worth careful consideration and propagation.

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The aim of this introductory article has been to acquaint the possibly uninitiated reader with some of the basic ideas and terms of present-day language testing. In forthcoming issues of this publication we hope to provide concrete advice on selecting material for tests in the various language skills, likewise on the administration and scoring of tests and the interpretation of test results.

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О РОЛИ СОЗНАТЕЛЬНОСТИ
ПРИ ИЗУЧЕНИИ ГРАММАТИКИ ИНОСТРАННОГО ЯЗЫКА

Я. Соонвальд

I. Введение

Методом обучения называется совокупность теоретических установок, на которых базируются приемы и средства обучения. Советский метод преподавания иностранных языков опирается на сознательность.

Сознательность - широкое понятие, и толкование этого термина применительно к обучению иностранных языков довольно затруднительно.

Усовершенствование методики состоит в том, чтобы средства обучения привести в более полное соответствие о целями, предметом обучения и с уровнем знаний обучаемых.

В такой последовательности мы и будем рассматривать интересующий нас вопрос.

Проблеме сознательности и выработка языкового автоматизма в 1969 г. была посвящена дискуссия в журнале "Deutsche Fremdsprache."

В настоящей статье дается обзор этой дискуссии и приводится мнение других авторов по этому вопросу.

2. Цель изучения иностранного языка

Ближайшая цель при обучении иностранному языку - создание у учащегося динамического ядра языка или системы динамических стереотипов (Jaanvärk, 1960:325 и след.).

Динамическое языковое ядро невелико по объему языкового материала - лишь несколько сот слов и словосочетаний, - но всегда готово к функционированию. Сфера влияния динамического языкового ядра далеко переходит свои естественные границы: учащийся, владеющий им, умеет использовать и тот языковой материал, который он активно не изучал (Koemets, 1963:82 и след.).

Характерным признаком динамического стереотипа является способность передносить выработанный навык на новые ситуации ... (Артемов, 1969:175), умение образовать такие предложения, о которых учащийся раньше ничего не слышал (Helbig, 1969:22 и след.).

Конечной целью изучения является такая степень овладения языком, при которой сознательные усилия учащегося направлены только на цель и содержание высказывания, а языковое оформление происходит в подсознании (Passov, 1970: 344-345; Hellmich, 1969:5). Осознание правила образования формы происходит лишь тогда, когда говорящий ошибается (Артемов, 1969:166).

В настоящей статье мы будем иметь в виду тот этап изучения языка, который О. Херменау называл "Sprachverständlichkeit"*. Это - умение пользоваться языком в пределах определенной тематики в качественно корректной форме.

Грамматика - это инструмент, который позволяет образовать из ограниченного количества языковых единиц неограниченное количество предложений. Тем самым грамматика является важнейшим средством изучения языка.

Грамматика иностранного языка должна обеспечить механизм правил, который служит для образования и интерпретации правильных предложений. Она приводит к формированию чувств языка, компетенции (Kompetenz). Без грамматики иностранный язык изучать невозможно (Helbig, 1972:7; 1969^a:20; 1969^b:160; 1967:263).

Обучение грамматике подчинено созданию определенных навыков. Нет необходимости осваивать элементы грамматики в системе полностью, а в зависимости от каждой конкретной необходимости (Helbig, 1969^a:9; 1969^b: 365).

3. Сознательность как средство обучения

При обучении иностранному языку преподаватель должен работать в двух направлениях:

- 1) приобщать учащихся к новой языковой форме (учить спряжению, склонению и соединению слов в предложении) и
- 2) сформировать у учащихся новый образ мышления.

* См. Hellmich, 1959 : 359 - 360.

"Самой общей основой... трудностей усвоения является совпадение или несовпадение аналогичных форм и их значений с точки зрения унификации и дифференциации" (Крушельницкая, 1961:7).

Сознательным можно называть такое преподавание, когда преподаватель, учитывая при обучении результаты сравнения языков, использует эти результаты для управления переносом (*transfer*) и интерференцией⁷ (Heilmich, 1960:6).

При наличии переноса родной язык содействует овладению иностранным языком. Однако при явлениях интерференции родной язык оказывает тормозящее влияние на овладение иностранным языком.

При одной группе языковых явлений влияние родного языка нейтрально: это – явления чисто морфологического порядка, – типы оклонения и спряжения, в основе которых лежат чисто формальные различия (Крушельницкая, 1961:12; Соонвальд, 1965:II2 и след.).

С точки зрения практики преподавания, наибольшие трудности для овладения языком представляют явления интерференции⁷. В таком случае в одном языке отсутствуют дифференцирующие признаки другого языка, что и обуславливает неправильное использование соответствующих языковых явлений.

Исходя из наличия или отсутствия дифференцирующих признаков первого (родного) языка во втором (иностранным) языке, можно выделить три типа межъязыковой интерференции (Weinreich, 1966:18-19).

I. Сверхдифференциация – в родном языке есть дифференцирующие признаки, в иностранном – нет ($L_1 + L_2$). Напр., выражение дополнения в эстонском и немецком языках:

⁷ С точки зрения психологии перенос и интерференция одно и то же явление – родной язык оказывает влияние на формы употребления иностранного языка (Juhasz, 1969:195-196).

⁷ От межъязыковой интерференции надо различать внутриязыковую интерференцию, при которой тормозящее действие вытекает из одного ранее (или позднее) освоенного языкового явления того же иностранного языка. Напр. случаи неправильного использования предлогов *in*, *auf*, *an* и т.д. на вопросы *wo?* и *wohin?*

Vend ostis mantlit. - partitiiv (вин. падеж).

Vend oetie mantli. - genitiiiv (род. падеж).

Oeta aantel! - nominativ (им. падеж).

Der Bruder kaufte den Mantel. - Akkusativ (вин. падеж)

Der Bruder hat den Mantel gekauft.

Kauf den Mantel!

В эстонском языке дополнение (*direktes Objekt*) может быть выражено тремя падежами, в немецком же - только одним.

2. Недостаточная дифференциация: в иностранном языке есть дифференцирующие признаки, а в родном нет. ($L_1 - L_{2+}$).

Isa vöttis oma raamatu.

Ema vöttis oma raamatu.

Der Vater nahm sein Buch.

Die Mutter nahm ihr Buch.

("*Ома*" - *свой*, -я, -е; лат. - *suis*, -а, -um).

Такие случаи труднее поддаются переводу чем явления, характерные для предыдущей группы (Крушельницкая, 1961: 12-13).

3. Рейнтерпретация различий. В этом случае дифференцирующий признак второго языка заменяется дифференцирующим признаком первого языка ($L_1 + L_{2+}$).

Ma aitan eõruga. - partitiiv (вин. падеж),

Ich helfe dem Freund. - Dativ (дат. падеж).

Различие здесь заключается в способе синтаксической связи глагола с последующим существительным. При преподавании особое внимание следует обратить на те грамматические явления, при которых родной язык оказывает интерферирующее влияние.

Преподаватель должен обучать учащихся образованию языковых форм -

я ид - у - ich geh - е -

и различной категоризации действительности, то есть использованию новой системы языковых значений. Ср. понятие "свой" (эст. "ома") - mein, dein, sein, ihr, unser, euer.

Что характеризует сознательность (сознательное обучение)?

В традиционной трактовке под сознательностью понимают сугубо логически-дискурсивное усвоение, которое основывается прежде всего:

- а) на аналитическом подходе к предмету,
- б) на дедукции,
- в) на теоретических объяснениях.

Противоположностью этому является **имитирующее - механическое изучение языка**, которое основывается:

- а) на синтетическом подходе к предмету,
- б) на индуктивном усвоении языковых явлений,
- в) на практических упражнениях (Apelt, 48:74).

Оправдывается ли такое противопоставление?

Как понимают сознательность другие авторы?

Сознательность - это понимание учащимся того, что он делает, что учит (Шубин, 1965:14).

Понимание - это выяснение объективной связи между элементами. Что-то понимать, означает раскрыть содержание, суть дела. Понимание - это увязывание новых впечатлений и восприятий со старыми, это умение включить новый материал в круг уже освоенных знаний и умений.

Сознательность надо понимать как умение переходить от теории языка к речевой практике (Beljaev, 1967:44I).

Сознательность можно характеризовать как совокупность умений и знаний. О сознательности можно говорить, когда учащийся

1) умеет обосновать словами, по чём у он говорит именно так, а не иначе;

2) умеет применять сформулированное словами на практике, привести примеры;

3) знает место данного грамматического явления и его связи с другими в грамматической системе в целом.*

В такой трактовке сознательность можно понимать как результат обучения, как частичное умение и знание языкового материала. Какую пользу принесет опора на сознательность при изучении иностранного языка?

Материал, который мы поняли, легче запоминается.

* Такое толкование понятия сознательности было предложено Э. Коэметсом в беседе с автором статьи.

Надо полагать, что осмысленное восприятие материала способствует преодолению интереса к идиоме. Опора на сознательность содействует творческому применению структур в новых комбинациях – учащийся сумеет перенести выработанный навык на новые ситуации (Apelt, 1969:76-77).

Опираясь на сознательность, мы скорее достигнем цели изучения языка. Но надо полагать, что в понятии сознательности можно выделить несколько уровней, из которых самым низшим является чувственно-наглядное познание – подражание.

Подражание есть целостное, синтетическое действие (Артемов, 1969:154-158) или, другими словами, прием усвоения правила действия через непосредственное воспроизведение ее целостного образа, причем он не осознается аналитически (Артемов, 1969:128).

При преподавании иностранного языка нельзя игнорировать такой прием изучения, как подражание. Оно также является сознательным приемом изучения. Одним из компонентов сознания вообще надо считать и чувство аналогии.

"Чувством аналогии называется способность сознания открывать у сравниваемых объектов сходных качеств и свойств и переносить их на другие объекты", (Карлин, 1968:19).

При упражнениях, основанных на чувстве аналогии, необходимо, чтобы учащийся распознал бы идентичность некоторых определенных признаков.

Das ist der Lehrer — Ich sehe den Lehrer.
(Desselmann, 1969 : 205).

Опираясь на чувство аналогии, учащимся можно давать "графические правила", при которых изучаемая форма и существенные признаки конструкции выделены графическими средствами.

В процессе автоматизации участвуют и имитации, и анalogии, а также основывающаяся на них интуиция (Раевов, 1970: 345). (Интуиция – это познание без развернутого рассуждения) (БСЭ).

При этом важно только, чтобы учащийся осознал существенные признаки, определяющие использование изучаемой языковой формы.

Психические качества учащегося, на которые нужно опираться при изучении иностранного языка, разнообразны. Нет нужды требовать от учащегося формулировки правила сразу после введения новой конструкции.

При изучении грамматики основными приемами освоения являются:

- имитация,
- применение (application) и
- конструирование (Gurrey, 1960:72).

И м и т а ц и ю надо понимать как шаблонный способ действия – восприятие и повторение услышанного. П р и м е н е н и е – это более гибкий способ действия: повторение воспринятого с вариированием. К о н с т р у и р о в а н и е – это, в первую очередь, умственная операция, которая опирается на правило – требует чувства логики.

Имитативные упражнения ставят целью овление формы. Чем чаще учащийся обращается к имитации и к аналогии, тем больше укрепляется динамический стереотип (Рассов, 1970:345). Но умение образовывать аналогии надо подкреплять и усовершенствовать знаниями о языке (Apelt, 1969: 76).

Общий порядок освоения протекает следующим образом: от осознанного подражания к самостоятельному творчеству (Шепер, 1953:144).

Непроизвольные (неосознаваемые) речевые действия на каком-то этапе усвоения языка целесообразно преобразовывать в осознаваемые действия (Артемов, 1969:171).

При традиционном методе преподавания грамматики преобладали:

- правила над живой речью,
- знания над навыками,
- языковые упражнения над коммуникативными упражнениями (Helbig, 1969:18).

В современном понимании сознательное изучение и изучение, добивающееся автоматизма, составляют одно целое (Apelt, 1969:78). Надо сочетать подражание (синтетическое действие) и осознанный анализ, языковое правило и речевое действие (Артемов, 1969:120 и 153).

Сознательно от обучения будет соответствовать... такая система теоретических сведений, которая включает и способ "перевода" их в практическое "умение" (Вергоградская, 1972:12-13).

Взаимопроникновение правила и действия речи на иностранном языке ведет к тому, что речь становится дифференцированным целым, интегрированной расчлененностью по правилам грамматики того или иного иностранного языка (Артемов, 1969:132).

Речевое действие делается кратким по времени и... эффективным по результатам (Артемов, 1969:138). Это не следует понимать так, что речевое действие должно следовать языковому правилу.

Усвоить языковое знание можно только посредством речевого действия. Понятие знание при изучении иностранного языка включает в себя и умение применять это знание на практике.

Усвоение знания – это владение действием, направленным на решение задачи (Вергоградская, 1972:12).

Правило действия вырабатывается на основании совершения ряда действий, подчиняющихся этому правилу (Артемов, 1969:175). Запоминание правила должно происходить путем упражнения.

– Надо искать оптимальное сочетание языкового правила и речевого действия в процессе обучения речи на иностранном языке (Артемов, 1969:135).

Проблемой является:

1) как и когда надо объяснять ту или иную структуру,

2) в каком объеме это надо делать,

3) какого характера должно быть объяснение (Рассов, 1970:344).

Одно из свойств высшей нервной деятельности человека – выполнять практические действия по теоретически усвоенной программе.

Вне программы деятельности быть не может. Если программа действия человеку не дана, он сам ее образует (Артемов, 1969:128-135).

Задача преподавателя - указать на существенные признаки (условия), которые определяют использование изучаемой конструкции. В противном случае учащийся ориентируется на случайные признаки, что не позволяет ему выработать правильный навык.

Лингвистическое описание языка должно выяснить логическую связь между предпосылкой (существенными признаками) и следствием (языковой формой).

Схема правила: если... тогда... .

Традиционный способ сообщения знаний малозэффективен потому, что учащиеся не умеют пользоваться всеми сообщаемыми им сведениями, правилами. Нужное им учащиеся должны выбирать сами. (Рассов, 1970:345).

Для предотвращения этого рекомендуем давать языковые знания в виде графического правила". Это - предложение-образец, где существенные признаки (или условия) и изучаемая форма выделены графическими средствами.

Die Freundin nahm ihr Buch.

Karl arbeitet im Garten.

Преимущество "графического правила" состоит в том, что в нем в наглядной форме выделено все существенное, при игнорировании того, что в данном случае несущественно. К "графическому правилу" можно относить общие вопросы, посредством которых мы проверяем, узнал ли учащийся наличие в конструкции логического условия (существенный признак) или нет.

В первом примере мы задаем вопрос:

- "Женского ли рода действующее лицо или нет"?

Во втором:

- "Можно ли к "arbeiten" отнести вопрос "wo"?

- "Женского ли рода "Garten" или нет"?

Посредством таких вопросов мы учим учащихся обращать внимание на все существенные признаки. Пока учащийся не научился узнавать существенные признаки конструкции, нет смысла требовать от него словесной формулировки правила.

Языковые знания сообщаются в разных формах:

- в виде графического правила,

- в виде вопросов к графическому правилу,

- в виде сформулированного правила.

Под языковыми знаниями надо понимать разъяснения (инструкции), которые поддерживают освоение структур при автоматизации и их практическом применении (Рассов, 1970:346).

Правило направляет речевые действия, помогает лучше понимать содержание, функцию и способ употребления иноязычных средств (Hellmich, 1969:6-7) Flagstad, 1913:34 и 205). Сознательное обучение означает и обеспечение обратной связи. Обратная связь или обратная афферентация это – сообщение результатов труда в управляющий центр.

Механизм обратной связи объединяет два механизма:

- механизм выработки языкового правила,
- механизм речевого действия.

Это дает возможность улучшить намеченное раньше действие (Артемов, 1969:133-134). Необходимо, чтобы учащийся каждую минуту узнавал, что он за это время усвоил.

Изучаемые явления надо дифференцировать. Для этого необходимо, чтобы учащиеся верно поняли принцип дифференции языковых явлений.

Часто учащиеся не обращают внимания на дифференцирующие признаки изучаемых явлений – в учебных пособиях их не выделяют достаточно рельефно.

Дифференцирующие признаки необходимо четко выделить.

Чтобы различать сходные языковые явления, надо их сравнивать друг с другом.

Сознательность проявляется в умении найти общие и отличительные признаки сравниваемых языковых явлений (Flagstad, 1913:185). Сопоставляя образуемую связь с интерферирующими связями, легче всего преодолеть интерференцию.

Особым видом сопоставления является противопоставление. Надо ясно различать новые связи от ранее сложившихся, надо противопоставлять языковые явления – так быстрее складывается новая связь. Своевременное внутриязыковое противопоставление... могло бы способствовать образованию понятия, разграничитывающего их употребление (Трусова, 1972:100-107).

Для противопоставления выбирают языковые явления, которые содержат нечто общее, а также и нечто различное.

Оппозиции – асимметрические коррелирующие пары предложений (Juhász, 1969:195).

Какую роль среди прочих упражнений играет перевод на иностранный язык?

Перевод поможет понять языковое явление – учащийся точно знает, что он скажет. (Flagstad, 1913:183 и 290).

Контрастивные переводы полезны. Осознание различия языков может служить твердой основой для усвоения иностранного языка (Erdei, 1970:228–231).

Перевод специально подобранных предложений максимально развивает умственные способности учащихся (Шубин, 1967: 422).

Посредством перевода вырабатываются определенные сигналы и защитные механизмы, которые помогают ограничить интерференцию родного языка (Erdei, 1970:228–231). Перевод часто является эффективнейшим средством для преодоления семантической и структурной интерференции (Шубин, 1967:422).

Перевод служит средством "защиты" и средством упрочения чувства языка во время формирования его у учащихся (Flagstad, 1913:186).

К переводу на иностранный язык нужно прибегать дотех пор, пока элементы родного языка проникают в иностранную речь (Flagstad, 1913:290).

Опора на сознательность достигается и в результате применения коммуникативных упражнений, моделирующих естественные условия речевой деятельности (Apelt, 1969:76; Верноградская, 1972:20).

При таких упражнениях внимание направлено в первую очередь на содержание высказывания, образование формы происходит в подсознании (Passov, 1970:345; Helbig, 1969:22 и след.; Hellmich, 1969:358 и след.).

Сознательность – это умение реагировать языковыми средствами в соответствии с требованиями коммуникации.

Сознательность при обучении иностранному языку – многообразное и динамическое понятие, в котором мы выделили следующие аспекты:

– сознательность как цель изучения языка,

- сознательность как знание различий в структуре родного и иностранного языков,
- сознательность как совокупность психических качеств, на которые можно опираться при обучении.

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**ÕPPETÖÖ EFKETIIVSUSK MÖÖTMINE EKSPERIMENTAAL-
JA KONTROLLRÜHMAS**

J.Tuldava

Pedagoogilise eksperimendi eesmärgiks on sageli õppetöö efektiivsuse võrdlemine kahest rühmas, kuejuures kummastki rühmas kasutatakse erinevaid õppeneetodeid. Tavaliselt tahetakse teha põhjendatud otsustusi mingi uue meetodi efektiivsuse kohta, võrreldes traditsioonilise meetodiga. Sel juhul moodustatakse õpilastest nn. eksperimentaalrühm (E-rühm), kus katsetatakse uut meetodit, ja kontrollrühm (K-rühm), kus õppetöö kulgeb vana meetodi järgi. Mölema rühmaga tehakse kaks põhitesti: algtest (enne eksperimenti) ja lõpptest (pärast eksperimenti). On võimalik tõha ka vahetuste (eksperimendi käigus) ja järelteste (mõne aja möödudes pärast eksperimenti), mis samuti võivad anda huvitavaid ja eksperimendi seisukohast arvestatavaid tulemusi. Käesolevas artiklis vaatleme lihtsamat varianti, nimelt kui õppetöö efektiivsuse võrdlemisel arvestatakse ainult algtesti ja lõpptesti tulemusi. Siinjuures tuleb lisada, et alg- ja lõpptest võivad omakorda koosneda mitmest alatestist või kontrolltööst, millest arvutatakse keskmise hinne. Oluline on tingimus, et alg- ja lõpptesti tulemuste hindamine toimuks ühtse kriteeriumi järgi, s.t. hinded peavad olema objektiviselt võrreldavad. Sama kehtib ka hindamise kohta rühmade vahel. See kõik mõuab erilist hoolikust ja oskuslikkust testide koostamisel ja läbiviimisel ning hinnete arvestamisel.

Eksperimendi tulemuste töötlemisel kasutatakse nüüdisaja pedagoogilises uurimistöös üha enam nõuetekohaseid statistilisi meetodeid, mis võimaldavad teha töenäosuskindlaid

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Autor avaldab tanu dots. E. Tiidule väärthuslike märkuste eest käesoleva artikli käskirja retsenseerimisel ning huvitava täiendusettepaneku eest, mille esitame artikli lõpposas.

kvalitatlikeid järeldusi. Käesolevas artiklie vaatleme üht sellist meetodit, mida on võimalik kasutada alg- ja lõpp-testi tulemuste võrdlemisel eksperimentaal- ja kontrollrühmas. Meetodit on tema esialgsel kujul kirjeldanud P. Žutšok (1965) ja seda on praktiliselt rakendanud mitmed uurijad (näit. Kaneps, 1967; Ossipova, 1972. Viimasel juhul käesoleva artikli autorit juhendamisel ja teatavate muudatustega).

Varemaks uurimistöös on rühmade töö hindamisel vörreldud peamiselt lõpptesti tulemusi E- ja K-rühmas, kusjuures eeldataksse või korraldataksse nii, et rühmade tase on enne eksperimenti enam-vähem võrdne. Alati pole aga võimalik rühmi selliselt koostada. Seepärast ongi vaja kasutada meetodit, mis lõpphinnangu andmisel arvestaks ka rühmade eksperimentideelset taset. Nõudeks on siiski, et rühmad liialt ei erineks oma eksperimentideelsete teadmiste taseme poolest, mis oleks vastuolus korrektse eksperimendi tingimustega: vörreldavad rühmad peavad olema valmid samast üldkogumist.

Enne kui asuda meetodi kirjeldamisele, peame nimetama üht eeltingimust ja tutvustama lugejaid mõne vajaliku tehnilise vöttega matemaatilise statistika valdkonnast.

Kui tahame vörrelda E- ja K-rühma tulemusi lõpptesti alusel, siis on eeskõige tarvis kindlaks teha, kas E-rühma tase on eksperimendi käigus (uue õpetamismeetodi kasutamise tulemusena) üldse paranenud. Ainult sel juhul on mõtet asuda võrdlema lõpptulemusi K-rühmaga. See tähendab, et peame esmajoones võrdlema alg- ja lõpptesti tulemusi E-rühmas endas, kasutades selleks vajalikke statistilisi kriteeriume. Alg- ja lõpptesti keskmiste hinnete võrdlemisel võib rakeneda Studenti t-testi või mitteparametristelist Mann-Whitney' U-testi (Tiit, 1971, 244 jj.; 1971a, 194 jj.; 1972, 168 jj.; vt. ka Tuldava, 1970, 146 jj. ja 152 jj.). Veelgi parem on kasutada sel juhul vastavaid teste korduvate vaatluste võrdlemiseks, mida tutvustasime eelmises artiklis pedagoogilise eksperimendi statistilise töötlemise kohta (Tuldava, 1973, 142 jj.).

Oletame, et suutsime tööstada teadmiste taseme tõusu E-rühmas. Nüüd on tarvis kindlaks teha, kas E-rühmas kasutatud uus meetod on parem kui traditsiooniline meetod, mida kasutati K-rühmas. Kuna me tahame teha otsustusi üldkogumi

kohta valimite (väljavõtete) alusel, siis peame silmas pidama matemaatilise statistika näudeid keskmiste hinnetega opereerimisel (üldkogumi mõiste kohta vt. Tiit, 1971, 71 jj.). Nimelt peame arvestama keskmiste vääruste hajuvust, mida saab mõõta teatud kindla töenäosusega. Sel juhul kõneldakse keskväärtusest ja selle usalduspiiridest antud usaldusnivoole. Usalduspiiride leidmiseks on vaja eelkõige arvutada nn. standardhälve ja seejärel keskmise absoluutne viga ehk nn. piirviga. Vaatleme arvutuste käiku lihtsa näite abil. Olgu antud järgmine testihinnete rida: 35, 29, 42, 38, 30, 47, 40, 42, 27, 34. Nende summa on 364. Õt hindeid on kokku 10, siis on keskmise hinne $364:10 = 36,4$. Standardhälvet võib arvutada järgmiste valemitate abil (kus üksikväärtusi tähistame tähega x , aritmeetilist keskmist \bar{x} , üksikväärtuste arvu n , standardhälvet tähega s ; \sum on summa märk):

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}} \quad (1)$$

või

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum x^2 - \frac{(\sum x)^2}{n}}{n - 1}} \quad (2)$$

või

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum (x - c)^2 - n(\bar{x} - c)^2}{n - 1}}, \quad (3)$$

kus c on keskmisele \bar{x} lähim täisarv.

Ulaloodud valemid on matemaatiliselt võrdsed ja peavad andma ka võrdse tulemuse (väikesed erinevused võivad tuleneda ümardamisest vahetulemuste arvutamisel). Kahte viimast valemit on otstarbekas kasutada murrulise keskväärtuse (\bar{x}) puhul, mis raskendab väljendi $x - \bar{x}$ ja selle ruudu arvutamist. Valemit 2 tuleb eelistada sel juhul, kui

on võimalik kasutada lauaarvuteid ("Bõstritsa", "Elka", "Iskra" jt.). Arvude ruutude ja ruutjuurte leidmisel võib kasutada V. Bradise brošüüri "Neljakohalised matemaatilised tabelid keskkoolile".

Tabelis 1 on toodud arvutuste käik valemi 2 kasutamise puhul. Nagu näeme, tuleb teha järgmised tehted:

1) liita üksikväärtused $x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = \sum x$ (võib tähistada ka $\sum x_i$) ja arvutada üksikväärtuste summa ruut ($(\sum x)^2$);

2) arvutada Iga üksikväärtuse ruut (x^2) ja leida nende ruutude summa: $\sum x^2$.

Tabel 1

Jrk. nr.	x	x^2
1	35	1225
2	29	841
3	42	1764
4	38	1444
5	30	900
6	47	2209
7	40	1600
8	42	1764
9	27	729
10	34	1156
n=10	$\sum x = 364$ $(\sum x)^2 = 132496$	$\sum x^2 = 13632$

Järgnevalt asetame andmed valemissse 2:

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{13632 - \frac{132496}{10}}{9}} = \sqrt{\frac{382,4}{9}} = \sqrt{42,49} \approx 6,52.$$

Seega, standardhälve $s = 6,52$. Standardhälve, mida kutsutakse ka "ruutkeskmiseks hälbekse", mõõdab üksikväärtust.

tuste hajuvust aritmeetilise keskmise ümber. Mida väiksem on standardhälve, seda väiksem on ka hajuvus, s.t. sedati-hedamalt jaotuvad üksikväärtused oma keskmise ümber. Tõenäosusteooria järgi kõiguvad arvväärtused oma keskmise ümber järgmiselt (eeldusel, et tegemist on ligikaudu normaaljaotusega; normaaljaotuse kohta lähemalt vt. Tiit, 1968, 108 jj.):

$$68,3 \% \text{ juhtudest } \bar{x} \pm 1,0 \text{ s}$$

$$95,5 \% \quad " \quad \bar{x} \pm 2,0 \text{ s}$$

$$99,7 \% \quad " \quad \bar{x} \pm 3,0 \text{ s}$$

Magu ülaltoodust nähtub, ei ületa enamikul juhtudel (99,7 %) väärtuste hälbed oma keskmise suhtes kolmekordset standardhälvet, s.t. väga vähestel juhtudel (keskmiselt 0,3 %) võivad üksikväärtuste suurused jääda väljapoole töökkeid $\bar{x} \pm 3\text{s}$. Sellest järeltub, et teades aritmeetilise keskmise ja standardhälbe suurust, on meil täielik ettekujutus üksikväärtuste hajuvusest. Need kaks karakteristikut (keskmise ja standardhälve) asendavad vajaduse korral pikki ja vähemusega üksikväärtuste tabeleid.

Arvestades seda, et me oma eksperimendi põhjal tahame teha järelusi mitte ainult ühe konkreetse juhu, vaid hulga samalaadiliste juhtude, s.o. üldkogumi kohta, on vaja kuidagi hinnata meie eksperimendi põhjal saadud keskmise hinde usaldatavust. See tähendab, et peame ühe valimi põhjal hindama valimi keskmise kooskõla üldkogumi keskmisega. Matemaatiline statistika võimaldab seda teha valimikeskmisse absoluutse vea (piirvea) arvutamise teel:

$$\frac{\epsilon}{\bar{x}} = \frac{t \cdot s}{\sqrt{n}} . \quad (4)$$

Valemis 4 tähistab $\frac{\epsilon}{\bar{x}}$ piirviga, s - standardhälvet ja t - kordajat (konstanti), mille leiate Studenti t-jao-tuse tabelist, arvestades usaldusnivoood ja nn. vabadusastmete arvu. Vabadusastmete arv $n_0 = n - 1$, s.t. üksikväärtuste arvust tuleb lahutada 1. Meie katse puhul $n_0 = 10 - 1 = 9$. Usaldusnivoooks (tõenäosustasemeks) seame 95 %. See tähendab, et arvutades piirvea nimetatud usaldusnivoool,

võime väita, et üldkogumi keskmise (mida me ei tea, aga soovime hinnata) Isegi 95%-lise tõenäosusega piirvea alusel määratud usalduspiiridesse: $\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2}$. Sellist tõenäosust peetakse küllaldaseks pedagoogilise eksperimenti tullemiste statistilisel töötlemisel; vahel võetakse usaldusnivoole isegi 90 % (Zutšok, 1965; Kaneps, 1967). Studentit-jactuse tabelit võib leida kõigiet statistika käsiraamatutest (Tiit, 1968, 304; tabel on toodud ka kogumikes "Linguistica" II, Tartu, 1970, lk. 192 ja "Methodica" II, Tartu, 1973, lk. 149). Tabelite kasutamisel peab silmas pidama, et sageli on neis tõenäosus väljendatud nn. olulisusnivoon kaudu, mis tähistab tegelikult eksimise tõenäosust. Olulisusnivoood tähistatakse tavaliselt tähega α , usaldusnivoood võime tähistada tähega β , ja nende omavaheline vahekord on väljendatav järgmiselt: $\alpha = 1 - \beta$ (protsentides: $\alpha = 100 - \beta$). Seega usaldusnivoon $\beta = 0,95$ (95 %) vastab olulisusnivoole $\alpha = 0,05$ (5 %).

Tabelis 2 toome väikese väljavõtte t-jactuse tabelist kahel usaldusnivoon: 0,90 (90 %) ja 0,95 (95 %).

Tabel 2
Studenti t väljärstused

Vabadusastmete arv (n_0)	Usaldusnivoon	
	0,90 (90 %)	0,95 (95 %)
9	1,83	2,26
10	1,81	2,23
15	1,75	2,13
20	1,73	2,09
25	1,71	2,06
30	1,70	2,04

Vabadusastmete arvu (seega ka valimi mahu) suurenemisega lähenevad t väljärstused normaaljaotuse vastavatele väljärstustele. Praktiliselt tähistab see, et kui valimi tükikväärstuste arv (n) on küllalt suur, näit. üle 30, siis võib usaldusnivoon 0,95 võtta t suuruseks alati 2 ja usaldusni-

vool 0,90 lugeda t väärtsuseke 1,7. Sel juhul pole t-jactuse tabeleid tarviski.

Vaatleme nüüd piirvea arvutamist meie näite puhul. Läheteandmed on: $s = 6,52$, $n = 10$, $n_0 = 9$ ja usaldusnivoo 0,95 (95 %) on t suuruseks 2,26 (tabel 2). Valemi 4 abil leimame piirvea:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{2,26 \cdot 6,52}{\sqrt{10}} = \frac{14,74}{3,16} = 4,66 \approx 4,7.$$

Piirviga võimaldab arvutada valimikeskmise usalduspiirid:

$$\bar{x} \pm \epsilon_{\bar{x}} = 36,4 \pm 4,7,$$

s.t. alampiir on $36,4 - 4,7 = 31,7$ ja ülempiir $36,4 + 4,7 = 41,1$. Võib väita, et üldkogumi keskmise langeb 95%-lise tõenäosusega piiridesse $31,7 \dots 41,1$ (teisisi öeldes: hulgaliste katsete korral võib oodata, et 95 juhul sajast langeb valimikeskmise nimetatud usalduspiiridesse).

Nagu näha, pn antud juhul piirviga ja usalduspiirid kõllalt suured, mis tähendab, et täpsus on väike. Põhjuseks on valimi väga väike maht ($n = 10$) ja suhteliselt suur hajuvus keskmise ümber. Kui vähendada usaldusnivoo suurust, siis tulemused muutuvad. Näiteks usaldusnivoo $\beta = 0,90$ korral oleks kordaja t suurus 1,83 ja valemi 4 järgi saame piirvea väärtsuseks:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1,83 \cdot 6,52}{\sqrt{10}} = \frac{11,93}{3,16} = 3,78 \approx 3,8.$$

Usalduspiirid on seega: $36,4 \pm 3,8$, s.o. $32,6 \dots 40,2$.

Eespool nimetasime, et mõnedes pedagoogika-alastes töödes on andmete statistilisel töötlemisel aluseks võetud usaldusnivoo 0,90 (90 %), mida peetakse kõllaldaiseks. Tuleb arvestada, et usalduspiire kasutatakse antud katses keskväärtuste vahe olulisuse kindlakstegemiseks. Järelikult võib siin teatud tingimustel lähtuda nn. ühepoolsest hüpo-

teesist (Tuldava, 1970, 156). Sel juhul on vea tõenäosus kaks korda väiksem kui tavaliselt kasutatava kahepoolse hüpoteesi korral, seega usaldusnivoo 0,90 vastab tegelikult usaldusnivoole 0,95 (olulisusnivood vastavalt 0,10 ja 0,05). Ühepoolset hüpoteesi võib kasutada siis, kui see on mingi eelneva informatsiooni põhjal sõnastatud juba enne katse teostamist ja statistilise materjali töötlemist (Tiit, 1972, 157 ja 181). Alati pole aga ühepoolne küsimuseseade enne eksperimenti õigustatud. Usaldusnivoo valik oleneb seega konkreetsest katsest ja asjatundlikust kvalitatiivsest hinnangust.

+ + +

Olles vaadelnud keskväärtuse absoluutse vea (piirvea) ja usalduspiiride arvutamise tehnikat, võime järgnevalt asuda artikli põhiülesande juurde. Käsitleme probleemi fliktiivse näite varal.

Eelkõige nimetame, et õpilaste teadmisi on meie katsetes hinnatud 50-pallilises süsteemis, mis on viidud kooskõlla testides (kontrolltöödes) esitatud küsimuste või ülesannete õigete vastuste arvuga. Sellist 50-pallilist süsteemi võib võrrelda tavalise 3-pallilise süsteemiga, mida on täiendatud kümnendikega (näit. 4,0 - 4,1 - 4,2 jne.) ja mis on otsetes korrelatsioonis õigete vastuste arvuga. Loomulikult võib kasutada ka teisi hindamissüsteeme, näit. 10-või 100-pallilist süsteemi. Viimasel juhul arvestatakse õigete vastuste arvu protsentides. Kui tahetakse kasutada tavalist 5-pallilist koolihinnetesüsteemi, siis peavad hinded olema võimalikult heas kvantitatiivses vastavuses testide (kontrolltööde) õigete vastuste arvuga. Vastasel juhul läheneb hindamissüsteem nn. järjestusskaalale, mille puhul piirvea arvutamine eespool toodud menetluse järgi ei ole päris täpne (Tuldava, 1973, 151-152). Sellele vaatama ta on paljudes urimustes õppetöö efektiivsuse mõõtmisel lähtutud tavalisest 5-pallilisest süsteemist (Žutšok, 1965; Kaneps, 1967). Võiks ainult soovitada 5-pallilise süsteemi kasutamisel alg- ja lõppkontrolli hindeid määräda keskmise hindena mitmest väiksemast kontrolltööst või -testist.

Niisiis, ülesandeks on võrrelda E-rühma (eksperimentaalarühma) ja K-rühma (kontrollrühma) tööd algtesti ja lõpptesti tulemuste põhjal, et teha järeluski E-rühmas kasutatud uue õppemeetodi efektiivsuse kohta. Vajalikud lähteandmed on toodud tabelis 3, kus algtesti keskmisi hindeid märgime tähega X' , lõpptesti keskmisi hindeid tähega X ja piirviga tähega ϵ . Indeksid e ja k tähistavad vastavalt E- ja K-rühma. Rühma suurust, s.t. õpilaste arvu (mis tähendab ka üksikhinnete arvu) märgime tähega n.

Tabel 3

Andmed	E-rühm	K-rühm
Rühma suurus	$n_e = 40$	$n_k = 37$
Algtesti keskmise hinne	$X'_e = 37,2$	$X'_k = 34,5$
Lõpptesti keskmise hinne	$X_e = 45,3$	$X_k = 37,0$
Lõpptesti piirviga (95%-lisel usaldusnivoole)	$\epsilon_e = 1,9$	$\epsilon_k = 2,1$

Eksperimendi tulemuste põhjal võib esimesel pilgul nentida järgmist:

1. Nii E-rühma kui ka K-rühma lõpptesti tulemused ületavad vastavate algteetide tulemused. Seega on mõlemad rühmad parandanud oma teadmisi antud ainevallas. (Eespool nimetasime, et E-rühma suhtes peab seda tõestama statistilise testi abil. Antud juhul saab seda teha.)

2. Lõpptesti tulemuste põhjal ületab E-rühm K-rühma 8,3 punkti vörra ($45,3 - 37,0$). Kas see on küllaldane, et teha otsustusi E-rühmas kasutatud õppemeetodi suurema efektiivsuse kohta? Algtesti tulemuste põhjal näeme, et E-rühm oli juba enne eksperimenti K-rühmast tugevam: $37,2 - 34,5 = 2,7$ punkti vörra. Lõppjärelduse tegemisel peab seda ilmselt arvesse võtma.

Küsimuse lahendamiseks peab lähteandmete põhjal (tabel 3) tegema järgmised tehted:

1. Arvutada keskmiste hinnete vahel enne eksperimenti (d):

$$d = \bar{X}_e - \bar{X}_k = 37,2 - 34,5 = +2,7.$$

2. Leida E-rühma keskmise hinde alampiir pärast eksperimenti (A):

$$A = \bar{X}_e - \varepsilon_e = 45,3 - 1,9 = 43,4.$$

3. Leida E-rühma keskmise hinde korrigeeritud alampiir pärast eksperimenti (A'):

$$A' = A - d = 43,4 - 2,7 = 40,7.$$

Märkus. Tuleb arvestada d pluss- või miinusmärki. Kui d oleks näit. -2,7 (s.t. E-rühm oleks enne eksperimenti nõrgem), siis saaksime:

$$A' = 43,4 - (-2,7) = 43,7 + 2,7 = 46,4.$$

4. Arvutada K-rühma keskmise hinde ülempiir pärast eksperimenti (B):

$$B = \bar{X}_k + \varepsilon_k = 37,0 + 2,1 = 39,1.$$

5. Võrrelda E-rühma keskmise hinde korrigeeritud alampiiri (A') ja K-rühma keskmise hinde ülempiiri (B) omavahel. Kehtib tingimus:

kui $A' > B$ (A' on võrdne või suurem kui B), siis on erinevus kahe rühma õppedukuse vahel eksperimendi lõpul statistiliselt oluline antud usaldusnivoole β (teisisõt öeldes: olulisusnivoole $1 - \beta = \alpha$);

kui $A' < B$, siis ei saa erinevust antud usaldusnivoole tööstada.

Meie näite puhul $A' = 40,7 > B = 39,1$. Seega võib antud juhul 95%-lise tõenäosusega väita (piirvead olid meil arvutatud 95%-lisel usaldusnivoole!), et E-rühma tulemustest on oluliselt paremad K-rühma tulemustest, mis lubab teha järelduse E-rühmas kasutatud õppemeetodi suurema efektiivsuse kasuks.

Matemaatiliselt samaväärne on tingimus, mille kohaselt erinevus kahe rühma õppetöö efektiivsuse vahel on statistiliselt oluline, kui A' ja B suhe on võrdne või suurem kui 1 ($A'/B \geq 1$). Tähistades seda suhet tähega T , saame õppetöö suhtelise efektiivsuse koefitsiendi järgmisse valemi abil:

$$T = \frac{A'}{B} = \frac{\bar{x}_e - \bar{x}_k - d}{\bar{x}_k + \bar{x}_e}. \quad (5)$$

Meie näites $T = \frac{40,7}{39,1} = 1,04$. Koefitsient T näitab kujult ühe rühma töö suhtelist paremust võrreldes teise rühma tööga.

Esitatud meetodi mõte seisneb selles, et võrreldakse kahte keskmist hinnet (lõpptesti tulemusi) usalduspiiride abil, kusjuures E-rühma keskmise hinde alampiir peab ületama K-rühma keskmise hinde ülempiiri, et võiks kõnelda olulisest vahest lõpptesti tulemuste alusel. Sealjuures võetakse arvesse rühmade taseme eksperimendieelset erinevust sel teel, et korrigeeritakse E-rühma lõpptesti keskmise hinde alampiiri algtestide tulemuste vahe liitmisega või lahtamisega, olenevalt sellest, kas E-rühm oli algtesti tulemuste põhjal nõrgem või tugevam. Meie konkreetse näite puhul võib seda joonisel kujutada järgmiselt:



Näeme, et antud juhul nihutatakse E-rühma keskmise hinde alampiiri parandusliikme d võrra K-rühma keskmise hinde ülempiiri suunas. Sellele vaatamata ei ulatu meie katses E-rühma alampiir K-rühma ülempiirini, mis tähendab, et usalduspiirid ikkagi ei lõiku ja vahe olulisus on tõestatud (lühitudes ettemääratud usaldusnivoost).

Peab juhtima tähelepanu ühele asjaolule, mis mõningal

määrat vähendab kirjeldatud etatietilice meetodi täpust ja uealdatavust. Nimelt pole arveetatud keskmiste väljutuste (hinnete) piirviga algteeti tulemuste puhul. Parandusliige d kujutab seega endast ebatäpset muurumist selles mõttes, et pole arvestatud tema usalduspiire. Algtesti keskmiste hinnete vahe d annab meile vaid keakmisse vahe hinnangu. Kuid teisest küljest tuleb arvestada, et võrreldes meie meetodi järgi lõppatesti tulennei usaldaeepiiride abil, läheneme liigagi rangelt vahe oluiense kindlaksümäramisele. Tundlikuma Studenti E-testi abil oleks võimalik tööstada vahe olulisust ka sel juhul, kui usalduspiirid vähesel määral läikuuvad (Tuldava, 1970, 128). See asjaolu komponeerib ebatäpsust keskmise d väljutuse kasutamisel parandusliikmena, usalduspiire arvestamata. Võimalik viga kajastub selles, et usaldusnivee väljutust ei saa võtta liiga täpselt (näit. ei saa väita, et täenäosus on täpselt 95 %). Sellist ebatäpsust peab aga nii kuinigi arvestama, sest ka usalduspiiride arvutamisel lähtusime ligikaudsest eeldusest, et tegemist on normaaljactusega.

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Teine võimalus hinnata eksperimenti tulemusi E- ja K-rühmas on võrrelda alg- ja lõppatesti tulemuste vahesid kummagi rühma kohta. Sel juhul on võimalik arvesse võtta ka algtesti keskmiste hinnete hajuvust (usalduspiire), mida eespool kirjeldatud menetluse korral ei tehtud.

Meetod, mille esitas dots. E. Tiit, seisneb järgmises.

On tarvis leida lähteandmed:

	<u>E-rühm</u>	<u>K-rühm</u>
Algtesti keskmise hinne	\bar{X}'_e	\bar{X}'_k
" keskm. hinde dispercioon	$s_e'^2$	$s_k'^2$
Löpptesti keskmise hinne	\bar{X}_e	\bar{X}_k
" keskm. hinde dispercioon	s_e^2	s_k^2
Löpp- ja algtesti tulemuste vahe	$\bar{X}_e - \bar{X}'_e = d_e$	$\bar{X}_k - \bar{X}'_k = d_k$
Tulemuste vahe dispersioon (kui hindad on mittekorreleeritud)	$s_e^2 + s_e'^2 = S_e^2$	$s_k^2 + s_k'^2 = S_k^2$

Kahe rühma öppetöö efektiivsuse hindamiseks on vaja võrrelda tulemuste vahesid d_e ja d_k . Studenti t-testi abil.

Märkus. Et üldiselt vahe dispersioon avaldub järgmiselt: $D(\bar{X}-\bar{Y}) = D\bar{X} - 2r \sqrt{D\bar{X}} \sqrt{D\bar{Y}} + D\bar{Y}$ (vrd. Tiit, 1971, 133), kus r tähistab korrelatsioonikordajat, siis võib antud juhul tulemuste vahe dispersioone väljendada vastavalt $s_e^2 - 2rs_e s'_e + s_e'^2 = S_e^2$ (E-rühma kohta) ja $s_k^2 - 2rs_k s'_k + s_k'^2 = S_k^2$ (K-rühma kohta). Korrelatsioonikordajat sisaldaava teguri ürajätmine positiivselt korreleeritud suurustele X ja Y korral põhjustab vahe dispersiooni mõningast ülehindamist. Vaadeldava andmestiku põhjal võib oletada, et korrelatsioon on alati positiivne, seetõttu on põhjust arvutada korrelatsioonikordaja väärised algtesti ja löpptesti tulemuste vahel kummagi rühma kohta eraldi (korrelatsioonikordaja arvutamise üksikasjalikku kirjeldust vt. Tuldava, 1972, 163 jj.). Kui aga korrelatsioonikordajaid ei arvestata, siis võib saadav kriteerium ainult olla soovitust rangem.

Käesolevas näites jäätame korrelatsioonikordajad arvutamata (mis võib olla õigustatud suure töömahukuse tõttu), saades seega rangema kriteeriumi. Nagu nimetasime, tuleb võrrelda suurusi d_e ja d_k Studenti t-testi abil. Selleks

tuleb kõigepealt arvutada kummagi rühma alg- ja lõpptesti keskmiste hinnete dispersioonid ja nende alusel tulemuste vahede dispersioonid.

Dispersiooni (s^2) arvutamiseks saab kasutada standardhälbe valemeid (valemid 1 - 3), jäättes valemis ära ruutjuure märgi. Meie katse puhul kasutame tabelis 3 toodud lähteadmeeid, lisades algtestide dispersioonid (suvaliselt)

$s_e^2 = 28,09$ ja $s_k^2 = 36,0$ ning lõpptestide dispersioonid $s_e^2 = 33,64$ ja $s_k^2 = 38,44$. Alg- ja lõpptesti tulemuste vahed on vastavalt E- ja K-rühmas: $d_e = 45,3 - 37,2 = 8,1$; $d_k = 37,0 - 34,5 = 2,5$. Vahede dispersioonid: $s_e^2 = 28,09 + 33,64 = 61,73$ ja $s_k^2 = 36,0 + 38,44 = 74,44$.

Studenti t-testi valem, mida saab käesoleval juhul rakendada, on järgmine (Tiit, 1971, 250; vrd. ka Tuldava, 1970, 146 jj.):

$$t = \frac{|d_e - d_k|}{s} \sqrt{\frac{n_e + n_k}{n_e + n_k}}, \quad (6)$$

kusjuures nimetaja S (keskmise standardhälve) tuleb arvutada järgmiselt:

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{(n_e - 1) \cdot S_e^2 + (n_k - 1) \cdot S_k^2}{n_e + n_k - 2}}. \quad (7)$$

Valemites tähistavad n_e ja n_k vastavalt E- ja K-rühma suurust (õpilaste arvu).

Meie näites:

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{(40 - 1) \cdot 61.73 + (37 - 1) \cdot 74.44}{40 + 37 - 2}} = 8,24.$$

Asetades andmed valemisesse (6), saame t väärtsuseks:

$$t = \frac{|8,1 - 2,5|}{8,24} \sqrt{\frac{40 \cdot 37}{40+37}} = \frac{5,6 \cdot 4,38}{8,24} = 2,98.$$

Studenti t-testi puhul kehtib reegel: kui empiiriline, s.o. katsest saadud t väärthus on võrdne või suurem kui kriitilims t väärthus antud oluliusnivool, siis on vörrel-davate suuruste (antud juhul kahe rühma tulemuste vahede) erinsvus statistiliselt oluline. Kriitilised väärthused lä-takse Studenti t-jaotuse tabelist, kusjuures tuleb arves-tada vabadusastmete arvu (n_e), mis käesoleva testi puhul arvutatakse järgmiselt: $n_e = n_e + n_k - 2 = 40 + 37 - 2 = 75$. Nagu eespool nimetasime, võib nii suure vabadusast-mete arvu korral ($n_e > 30$) praktikas alati võtta t väärthuseks 2 oluliusnivool 0,05 ja t väärthuseks 1,7 oluliusnivool 0,10. Et empiiriline t väärthus (2,98) ületab tundu-valt kriitilise t väärthouse oluliusnivool 0,05 (2,0), siis võib väita, et erinevus kahe rühma tulemuste vahel - s.t. erinevus d_e ja d_k vahel - on statistiliselt oluline olu-liusnivool 0,05. Studenti t-jaotuse täpsemast tabelist näeme (Tiit, 1968, 304; Tuldava, 1970, 192), et empiirili-ne t väärthus ületab kriitilise väärthouse isegi oluliusnivool 0,01 ($t_{0,01} = 2,65$). Järelkult on õppedukuse töüs E-rühmas katseperioodi välitel oluliselt suurem kui K-rühmas, mis lubab teha järelduse õppetöö ja -meetodi suurema efektiivsuse kohta E-rühmac.

Võib lisada, et kriteeriumi tundlikkust d_e ja d_k vahel olulisuse määramisel saame surendada (samal määral kui korrelatsioonikordajat sisaldaava teguri kaasarvutamisel va-he dispersiooni arvutamisel, vt. eespool), kui arvestame iga õpilase alg- ja lõpptesti tulemusi (x'_1 ja x_1), leiate tulemuste vahed $d_1 = x'_1 - x_1$, nende keskväärthus ja dispersiooni (kummagi rühma kohta eraldi). Rühmade tulemuste vahede võrdlemisel lähtume saadud keskväärustumest (\bar{d}_e ja \bar{d}_k) ja nende dispersioonidest, mida kasutame vahel olulisuse kind-lakstegemisel t-testi abil (nagu üllal kirjeldatud, vt. val-lemid 6 ja 7). Sellise menetluse korral on dispersioonid reeglina väiksemad ja test on tundlikum.

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ИЗМЕРЕНИЕ ЭФФЕКТИВНОСТИ ОБУЧЕНИЯ В ЭКСПЕРИМЕНТАЛЬНОЙ И КОНТРОЛЬНОЙ ГРУППАХ

Ю. Тулдава

Р е з ю м е

В статье рассматривается статистический метод, предложенный впервые П. Чучком. Этот метод позволяет оценивать относительную эффективность обучения в двух группах на основе тестирования до и после проведения педагогического эксперимента. Предполагается, что в одной из групп - в экспериментальной группе - занятия проводятся по какому-либо новому методу, а в другой, контрольной группе, - по традиционному методу. При сравнении и заключительной оценке эффективности обучения принимается во внимание уровень знаний в обеих группах до проведения эксперимента. Для того, чтобы неподготовленные читатели могли воспользоваться этим статистическим методом, в статье предварительно рассматриваются некоторые понятия математической статистики и подробно описывается техника вычисления стандартного отклонения, абсолютной ошибки и доверительных интервалов.

В конце статьи указывается на другой возможный способ измерения эффективности обучения на основе сравнения данных о росте успеваемости в двух группах.

Настоящая работа является второй в серии статей автора в сборнике "Методика" о применении статистических методов при обработке педагогического эксперимента.

FACHSPRACHEN IM DEUTSCHUNTERRICHT

K. Uustalu

Das Ziel des Fremdsprachenunterrichts an nichtphilologischen Fakultäten der Hochmohulen und Universitäten ist in erster Linie, die Studenten zu befähigen, fremdsprachige Fachliteratur zu lesen, um die neueste Information auf ihrem Wissensgebiet zu erhalten. Das bedeutet für den Sprachlehrer, die entsprechende Fremdsprache die Studenten nicht als ein sprachliches System im allgemeinen zu lehren, sondern an der Sprache der Wissenschaft und Technik, an Fachsprachen zu arbeiten. Die Probleme des Fremdsprachenunterrichts für Nichtphilologen sind in der letzten Zeit oft in verschiedenen Schriften zur Methodik des fachbezogenen Sprachunterrichts behandelt worden. Im folgenden wird eine kurze Übersicht über einige methodische Fragen gegeben, die die Aufmerksamkeit mehrerer Autoren auf sich gezogen haben, und die auch für unsere Sprachlehrer von gewissem Interesse sein dürften.

Es werden folgende Themen behandelt:

1. Arbeit mit dem Wörterbuch
2. Arbeit an Fachtexten
3. Das Übersetzungsfreie Lesen
4. Referieren.

1. Arbeit mit dem Wörterbuch

Beim Lesen der fremdsprachigen, nichtadaptierten Fachtexte müssen die Studenten es verstehen, die nötigen Wörterbücher bei der Bedeutungserschließung des neuen Wortschatzes schnell und sicher zu benutzen. Die Fertigkeit im Wörterbuchgebrauch wird in Sprachseminaren erworben. Es wird empfohlen, die Arbeit an Fachtexten mit einer sog. Wörterbuchlektion und gemeinsamen Übungen zu beginnen. Erst danach sollen sich die Studenten an die selbständige Arbeit

machman (Schaarechuh 1968^a:425; Семенов 1968:77). Die Wörterbuchlektion soll auf der Analyse des lexikographiechen Aufbaue des zu verwendenden zweisprachigen Wörterbuches (od. der Wörterbücher) beruhen. In erster Linie werden die Studenten mit dem Inhalt des Buches bekanntgemacht: sie sollen sich einen Überblick über die Benutzungshinweise, die lexikographischen Abkürzungen (Nennzeichnung der Wortarten, Hinweise auf die Wortverwendung), die geographischen Bezeichnungen, die Abkürzungen verschaffen. Auch die Einordnung der Stichwörter, die Kennzeichnung der homonymen Stichwörter und der Aufbau eines Stichwortnetzes sollen ausführlich erläutert werden (Hecker 1968:431; Schaarschuh 1968^a:426 - 427; Schaarschuh 1968^b:428; Weiß 1968:433 - 434). Als selbstverständliche Voraussetzung gilt hier, daß die Studenten das Alphabet in der Fremdsprache fest eingeprägt haben, oder im entgegengesetzten Falle das erat noch machen müssen. Der Lektion sollen sich unbedingt Übungen anschließen, die den Studenten helfen, sich die Technik der Wörterbuchbenutzung aneignen. Im Deutschunterricht können dann unter anderen auch den folgenden analoge Übungen gemacht werden:

1.1. Zum Alphabetisieren (Hecker 1968:431), z.B.

Ordnen Sie die folgenden Wörter alphabetisch ein!

Gutstagselöhner, Gutsherr, Gutsuntertänigkeit, Gutsarbeiter, Gutsbetrieb u.ä. Wortgruppen.

1.2. Zum Aufbau der Stichwortnetze (Hecker 1968: 431; Schaarschuh 1968^b:428; Weiß 1968:434), z.B.

Was bedeuten die folgenden Zusammensetzungen?

Fronhof (→ Fron | herr, -hof), Munitionswagen (→ Munitions | abschreibung, -wagen), Freilichttheater (→ Freilicht | aufführung, -theater → Freilicht | bühne) usw.

1.3. Da die Wörterbücher den Wortschatz in der grammatischen Grundform anführen, im Text aber flektierte Formen stehen, bedarf es einer gewissen Erfahrung, die Bedeutung des neuen Wortes über die Ermittlung

der Grundform (vor allem des Infinitivs und des Nominalvis Sing.) zu erschließen (Hecker 1968:431; Schaaerschuh 1968^b:424; Weiß 1968:434; Cemehan 1968:79). Als Beispiel dazu:

Finden Sie im Wörterbuch die Bedeutung der im Text unterstrichenen Wörter!

Das Kaiserreich brach zusammen wie ein Kartenhaus. Danach haben sich Marx und Engels in zahlreichen Artikeln mit den Ereignissen und Lehren der Revolution auseinandergesetzt. Alle Erdteile wurden in einem globalen System der Machtverteilung und Machtrivalität verflochten. Die Bauern mußten an die Kirche den Zehnten zahlen. Anfänge der Chartistenbewegung. Die Junker beuteten aber eine andere Gruppe, und zwar die bereits früher erwähnten Gutstagelöhner aus u.ä.

1.4. Die Bedeutung der Wendungen kann man nach dem sinntragenden Wort im entsprechenden Stichwortnetz finden (Hecker 1968:432). Auch das sollte auf Grund vorgegebener Sätze geübt werden.

1.5. Bei der Bedeutungserschließung des Fachwortschatzes soll man die Studenten darauf aufmerksam machen, daß Fachtermini oft auch zum allgemeinen Wortschatz gehören, dort aber eine ganz andere Bedeutung haben (Hecker 1968:432; Schaaerschuh 1968^b:430; Weiß 1968: 435).

Als Übung dazu:

Vergleichen Sie anhand des Wörterbuchs die fachspezifische und die allgemeine Bedeutung der unterstrichenen Wörter in den folgenden Satzpaaren!

Mit den Erhebungen der schlesischen Weber begann 1844 die aktive Bewegung des Proletariats. Der Brocken ist die höchste Erhebung des Harzes. Die Fortschritte im Ackerbau und in der Viehhaltung besaßen weitreichende Folgen für den landwirtschaftlichen Betrieb. In einem vollautomatisierten Betrieb werden im Produktionsprozeß Maschinensysteme eingesetzt u.ä.

1.6. Oft enthalten Fachtexte Wörter, deren Bedeutung dem Leser unbekannt ist, die aber in den Büchern nicht gegeben sind. Deshalb ist es wichtig, ihre Bedeutung durch Wortanalyse erschließen zu können, wobei der Kontext unbedingt berücksichtigt wird (Hecker 1968:433; Schaarschuh 1968^b:430; Weiß 1968:436; Cemener 1968:81). Man kann nur empfehlen, damit schon bei den ersten Übungen zur Wörterbuchbenutzung zu beginnen, doch zuerst nur die einfachsten Fälle zu nehmen, z.B. ähnliche Aufgaben zu geben:

Was bedeuten die Bestandteile der folgenden Zusammensetzungen? Finden Sie danach die Bedeutung der Zusammensetzungen! Paßt die von Ihnen gefundene Bedeutung in den Kontext?

Sicherheitsorganisation, Kollektivmaßnahmen, Industrieproletariat, Konfektionserbeiter usw.

Die Wörterbuchlektion und die praktischen Übungen dazu sollen in erster Linie praktischen Zwecken dienen, man darf mit dargebotenen theoretischen Kenntnissen nicht übertreiben. Die Übungen werden in weiterer Arbeit an konkreten Texten fortgesetzt.

2. Arbeit an Fachtexten

Im folgenden wird die Anfangsetappe in der Arbeit betrachtet, wenn die Studenten erst über eine genaue Textanalyse und über verschiedene Übungen den Text bis in die Einzelheiten verstehen können.

Im Grunde genommen sind zum Text Übungen von drei Arten möglich: 1) zum Wortschatz, vor allem zum Fachwortschatz, 2) zur Grammatik, 3) zum gedanklichen Inhalt des gelesenen Textes.

2.1. Die Arbeit am Fachwortschatz bedeutet hauptsächlich die Arbeit an Fachtermini (Reinhardt 1969:94). Die deutschen Fachtermini sind ihrer Herkunft nach: Wörter des allgemeinen Wortschatzes, die meistens eine Bedeu-

tungeveränderung durchgemacht haben, abgeleitete Wörter, zusammengesetzte Wörter, Abkürzungen (+ Kurzwörter, Zeichen, Symbole) (БОННО 1961:13).

Bei den aus dem allgemeinen Wortschatz entnommenen Fachwörtern verbinden die Studenten ihre Bedeutung oft irrtümlicherweise mit der Grundbedeutung des Wortes. Es ist zweckmäßig, die Studenten die beiden Bedeutungen solcher Termini vergleichen und in Sätzen verwenden zu lassen. Man soll die Studenten auch mehr als einmal daran erinnern, daß sie im Wörterbuch eben nach der fachspezifischen Bedeutung der neuen Lexik zu suchen haben.

Bei abgeleiteten Wörtern sollten die Studenten imetande sein, die Wurzel der Ableitung zu finden und nach deren Bedeutung die des Terminus zu finden oder wenigstens vermuten zu können. Das wird durch die Vieldeutigkeit der Affixe und Präfixe erschwert (БОННО 1961:26 - 27).

Von den Zusammensetzungen bilden die zusammengesetzten Substantive im Fachwortschatz der wissenschaftlich-technischen Literatur über 80 % (Суслов 1972:5). Dementsprechend sollte man recht viel Übungen mit ihnen machen. Zuerst sollten die Studenten in der Wahrnehmung der Zusammensetzungen gewisse Erfahrungen sammeln, d.h., sie sollten lernen, diese Art von Termini im Text zu erkennen, um sie mit Wurzelwörtern und Ableitungen nicht zu verwechseln. Um die Bedeutung einer Zusammensetzung zu erraten, muß der Student sie aus der ihrer Bestandteile folgern können, wobei der Kontext nicht außer acht gelassen werden darf (Суслов 1972:10). Die Übungen mit zusammengesetzten Termini werden in drei Etappen gemacht: 1. Etappe: Es wird die theoretische Basis für die späteren Übungen geschaffen. Die Begriffe, "das zusammengesetzte Substantiv, die Bestandteile der Zusammensetzung, Fugenelemente" usw. werden an Beispielen erläutert. 2. Etappe: Übungen zum Erkennen der zusammengesetzten Substantive im Text, ebenso zum Erkennen ihrer Bestandteile, auch zur Bedeutungserschließung der Zusammensetzungen über die Bedeutung der Bestandteile. Die Übungen der 1. und 2. Etappe können auch als Hausarbeit aufgegeben werden. 3. Etappe: Die durchgearbeiteten Zusammensetzungen des Fachwortschatzes werden beim Sprechen verwendet. Diese Übungen

мüssen unbedingt gemeinsam in der Studiengruppe gemacht werden (Суелов 1972:11 - 16).

Bei den Abkürzungen (darunter auch Initialwörtern und Silbenwörtern) sollte nicht nur ihre Bedeutung gegeben, sondern auch ihre Bildung erläutert werden (Бонно 1961: 46 - 47).

Die Übungen mit dem Fachwortschatz gehören zu den Vorübungen, d.h., sie werden gemacht, bevor die Studenten den Text zu lesen beginnen (Агамджанова 1971:106).

2.2. Die Sprache der wissenschaftlich-technischen Literatur hat ihre syntaktischen Eigentümlichkeiten, die dem Grammatikunterricht des fachbezogenen Deutschunterrichts zugrunde liegen (Kempter 1969:235). Als häufigste werden zwei erwähnt: die Formen der unpersönlichen Ausdrucksweise und der nominalen Ausdrucksweise (Reinhardt 1968:44; Reinhardt 1969:94 - 95). Von den ersten sind vor allem Passivformen zu nennen. Es wird behauptet, daß die in wissenschaftlichen Texten herrschende Tendenz zum Passiv durch die Wortstruktur, und zwar durch den verbalen Wortbildungstyp gefördert wird (Reinhardt 1969:94 - 95). Zur nominalen Ausdrucksweise dienen präpositionalen Wortgruppen, die meistens auch satzwertige Wortgruppen darstellen. Sie treten zur Zeit immer häufiger anstelle der Nebensätze und lassen sich grundsätzlich in einen Satz (Nebensatz) transformieren, obgleich eine grammatisch mögliche Transformation nicht immer gebräuchlich ist (Beneš 1967:145 - 154; Kempter 1969:233 - 234). Die Strukturtypen der präpositionalen Wortgruppen sind zahlreich, doch kann sich der Sprachlehrer in der praktischen Arbeit auf die Behandlung einer sehr kleinen Zahl von ihnen beschränken (Kempter 1969:239-240). Es gibt in der Sprache der wissenschaftlich-technischen Literatur auch syntaktische Konstruktionen, die den Studenten beim Lesen gewisse Schwierigkeiten bereiten, weil sie in der Muttersprache des Lernenden nicht vorhanden sind oder dort anders verwendet werden. Von solchen wären zu erwähnen: erweitertes Attribut, Infinitivgruppen, sein + zu + Infinitiv.

nitiv, sich lassen + Infinitiv, zu + Partizip I u.a.
(Закхеевская 1966:42 - 43).

Alle Übungen zu den sprachlichen Erscheinungen der Fachtexte müssen "in sehr enger Anlehnung an den Text erarbeitet werden" (Reinhardt 1968:44). An erster Stelle müBten hier Transformationsübungen stehen. Man spricht von grammatischen und inhaltlichen Transformationen. Ein Beispiel dazu: Die geförderte Kohle überschreitet die vorgesehene Menge → grammatische Transformation: Die geförderte Kohle überschreitet die Menge, die vorgesehen wurde; inhaltliche Transformation: Die geförderte Kohle geht über die Menge hinaus, die vorgemerkt wurde. In gewissen Fällen könnte die letzte Umformung interpretative Transformation genannt werden. Dieser Art der Transformationen müBte man im fachbezogenen Sprachunterricht eine weit größere Aufmerksamkeit zuwenden als bisher. Oft sind die Studenten in den Übungen zum Textinhalt gezwungen, Erscheinungen, Gegenstände, Prozesse usw. zu beschreiben. Ihr ungenügender Wortschatz verhindert sie, den sprachlich besten Ausdruck zu finden, und die erworbene Fertigkeit in der inhaltlichen Transformation nützt ihnen bei der ihren Sprachkenntnissen entsprechenden Paraphrase (Hegedüs 1970:82 - 83; Sommerfeldt 1969:175 - 179). Zur Einprägung der grammatischen Strukturen sind selbstverständlich auch andere Übungstypen möglich, sie können ebenso durch Drill und Hinübersetzung eingefügt werden (Benes 1968: 49).

2.3. Das Ziel des fachbezogenen Deutschunterrichts ist eigentlich das übersetzungsfreie Lesen, wobei die im Text enthaltene Information völlig aufgenommen wird. Das wird hauptsächlich mit Hilfe von Übungen zum gedanklichen Inhalt der in der Studiengruppe gemeinsam durchgearbeiteten Fachtexte erreicht. Es genügt nicht, wenn die Studenten das Gelesene im allgemeinen verstehen. Solange der Text ihnen noch sprachlich Schwierigkeiten bereitet, muB man ihn analysieren und nötigenfalls auch übersetzen (Красинская 1966:6). Erst danach kann man zur Arbeit am Textinhalt hinübergehen. Als Vorbild könnte man hier dieselben Übungen empfehlen, die im Unterricht für Fortgeschrittene verwendet

werden (Wenzel 1968:353 – 355). Demnach ist es zweckmäßiG, mit Fragen zum Text zu beginnen. Die Lexik dazu, besonders die Schlüsselwörter, können auch vorgegeben werden. Dann wird der Inhalt des Gelesenen an Hand einer vorgegebenen oder von den Studenten geschriebenen Disposition erzählt. Man kann den Inhalt auch in Form eines Interviews wiedergeben. Als Vorübung dazu läBt man die Studenten auf gegebene Fragen antworten oder zu den gegebenen Antworten Fragen stellen. Dabei kann die sog. differenzierte Ausdrucksfähigkeit entwickelt werden (König 1968:50 – 53), d.h., die Studenten geben im Dialog Gedanken aus dem gelesenen Text wieder, nehmen aber dazu Stellung und äußern ihre eigene Meinung. Sie lehnen eine These ab, stimmen dem Gesagten zu, äußern Zweifel daran und begründen das, stellen eine Antithese auf und berufen sich dabei auf eine bekannte Tatsache oder auf ein Zitat u.ä. Es können Fragen gestellt werden, die mit Hilfe verschiedener Situationsmodelle (distanzierte Feststellung, bedingte Zustimmung, vorsichtige Feststellung usw.) zu beantworten sind (Wenzel 1968:354). Diese und analoge Übungen sollten den Studenten helfen, ihre Aufmerksamkeit auf die inhaltliche Seite des Gelesenen zu konzentrieren, was in der späteren Etappe für sie von größter Bedeutung ist.

Schon von Anfang an unterscheidet man zwischen der gemeinsamen Arbeit in der Studiengruppe und der Hauslektüre, die von den Studenten zu Hause selbstständig durchgearbeitet wird (Речицкая, Бейлина 1966:85). Bei der letzteren werden die Studenten nur auf den Inhalt geprüft. Die Grundmethode dabei ist das Studiengespräch, das Übersetzen wird nur als Kontrolle empfohlen.

Zum Herübersetzen (zum Übersetzen aus der Fremdsprache in die Muttersprache) werden verschiedene Meinungen geäußert: es wird entschieden abgelehnt, nur als Hilfsmethode anerkannt und aufs wärmste empfohlen. Interessant wäre vielleicht der Standpunkt von K. Lang (Lang 1969:193 – 195), der behauptet, daß das Übersetzen, entsprechend den gesellschaftlichen Erfordernissen, in der Hochschulpraxis als Zielfertigkeit auszubilden ist. Die Herübersetzung aktiviert die Sprachkenntnisse der Lernenden, hilft ihnen den Sinnge-

halt völlig erfassen (wenn das beim stillen Lesen sonst schwerfällt) und dient auch zur Kontrolle, ob die Studenten den Textinhalt richtig verstanden haben. Der Verfasser mißt auch der schriftlichen Form der Herübersetzung eine große Bedeutung bei. Das ermöglicht dem Fachmann in der späteren Berufspraxis die nötige Information auch weiteren Personen, die Fremdsprachen nicht beherrschen, zugänglich zu machen. Er betont, daß man in der Übersetzung besonders auf die richtige Verwendung der Terminologie achten muß, was die adäquate Wiedergabe des Wesentlichen im Text garantiert.

3. Das übersetzungsfreie Lesen

Mit Vorübungen zum übersetzungsfreien Lesen beginnt man während der Arbeit in der Studiengruppe, wenn an Texten gemeinsam gearbeitet wird. Es wird folgendes empfohlen (Речицкая, Бейлина 1966:85 - 87). Bevor man es den Studenten aufgibt, einen neuen Text zu Hause für die spätere Analyse durchzulesen, liest die Lehrkraft selbst in der Gruppe den ersten Absatz vor. Er erläutert dabei den unbekannten Wortschatz: schwierige Wendungen werden durch leichtere ersetzt (dabei werden Synonyme verwendet), Wörterklärungen und Definitionen in der Fremdsprache gegeben. Dann erfolgt die Kontrolle, ob die Studenten das Material richtig verstanden haben. Man kann die Studenten das Gelesene in der Muttersprache nacherzählen lassen, man kann das auch gemeinsam in der Muttersprache oder auf deutsch - dem sprachlichen Können der Studiengruppe entsprechend - erörtern. Zu Hause sollen die Studenten den Text weiterlesen, sich dabei in den Textinhalt vertiefen und möglichst wenig das Wörterbuch benutzen. Die Arbeit an einem Lerntext kann man auch mit stilem Lesen beginnen, damit die Studenten einen Überblick gewinnen, um welche Probleme es sich dort handelt. Nun folgt die übliche Arbeit: die morphologische und lexikalisch-syntaktische Analyse des Textes und textgebundene Übungen. Zum Schluß soll der Text noch einmal ohne Wörterbuch gelesen werden.

Auch der Grammatikunterricht dient zur Entwicklung des übersetzungsfreien Lesens, und zwar durch die Arbeit an grammatischen Strukturmodellen, die die gemeinsamen Komponenten vieler Aussagen darstellen. Der theoretischen Erklärung eines grammatischen Strukturmodells müssen viele Übungen folgen, die die Struktur in bekanntem und neuem Zusammenhang wiederholen, bis ihre Bedeutung eingeprägt ist und beim Sprachgebrauch keine Analyse mehr nötig ist. Im entgegengesetzten Falle kann das Gelesene nicht momentan verstanden werden, wie das beim übersetzungsfreien Lesen vorausgesetzt wird, sondern über eine Analyse des völlig oder teils unverständlichen Absatzes (Kämpfe 1968:384 - 385).

Für die höheren Semester wird die Lektüre der Fachzeitschriften empfohlen (Речицкая, Бейлина :87 - 89). In der Studiengruppe werden dann die wichtigsten Gedanken des zu Hause Gelesenen wiedergegeben und das Thema besprochen. Dabei darf die Arbeit an der Fachlexik nicht ausbleiben. Es werden z.B. Schlüsselwörter und Wendungen vorbereikt, die in der Inhaltswiedergabe zu verwenden sind. Die dem Aufsatz beigefügten Tabellen, Diagramme und Schemen bieten einen dankbaren Stoff zum Sprechen, sie werden erläutert und durch zusätzliches Material ergänzt. Die Fachaussdrücke können in der Fremdsprache erklärt und definiert werden, die Tatsachen aus dem Text durch andere, den Studenten aus ihrem Studium bekannte, illustriert werden (Плинер 1965:79 - 80).

Wenn die Studenten schon gewisse Übung im Lesen der Fachliteratur haben, ist es zweckmäßig, auf Grund des Gelesenen gewisse Verallgemeinerungen zu ziehen, damit sie sich in ihrer Fachlektüre leichter orientieren können (Тепеp, 1970;143 - 156). Man sollte ihnen ein allgemeines Schema eines wissenschaftlichen Aufsatzes geben, das eigentlich aus drei Teilen besteht: 1. Die Einleitung, wo das Ziel und die Aufgabe der Forschungsarbeit erklärt wird. 2. Der Hauptteil, wo die Forschungsmethode erläutert und das erforschte Material dargelegt wird. 3. Schlußfolgerungen.

Die Studenten sollen auch verschiedene Arten der wissenschaftlichen Arbeiten kennenlernen: Aufsatz, Instruktion, Patent, Monographie, Lehrbuch u.a. Die Betrachtung und Erklärung werden mit verschiedenen Übungen verbunden, z.B.: Sprechen Sie über das gegenwärtige Stadium des Experiments

(auf Grund des Aufsatzes)! Finden Sie gemeinsame Züge in der Annotation und in den Schlußfolgerungen! Worin besteht der Unterschied zwischen ihnen? usw.

Auch die drucktechnische Seite eines Aufsatzes kann analysiert werden.

Als Zusammenfassung könnten die Studenten eine Annotation oder ein Resümee über den analysierten Aufsatz schreiben.

4. Referieren

Das Referieren eines Textes bedeutet die Wiedergabe des Wesentlichen im Text. Es kann erfolgreich in das fachbezogene Fremdsprachenstudium eingeschaltet werden (Byxaveba 1967:34 - 37). Zuerst sollen der Begriff und die Arbeitsmethode eines Studienreferats erläutert werden. Ein Referat soll folgendes enthalten: worum es im Aufsatz geht, also-das Thema feststellen; was betrachtet wird, also-eine kurze Zusammenfassung des Textinhals geben; wie der Referierende das Dargelegte kritisch beurteilt, also-den Standpunkt des Autors äußern. Zur Arbeitsmethodik wird empfohlen, den Aufsatz durchzulesen, ohne ihn zu übersetzen, den Inhalt gründlich zu durchdenken und ihn erst dann in möglichst kurzer Form niederzuschreiben. Wenn es sich um einen längeren Aufsatz handelt, sollte man den Text in Teilen durcharbeiten. Ein Referat schließt die Herübersetzung nicht völlig aus: wenn ein Absatz oder einige Sätze unverständlich sind, muß man sie in die Muttersprache übersetzen, dabei nötigenfalls auch zum Wörterbuch greifen. Wenn das Referat fertig ist, soll der Text noch einmal überlesen werden. Die textgebundenen Übungen zu Fachtexten sind als Vorübungen zum Referieren zu betrachten und werden in der Periode des Referierens nicht vollständig aufgegeben.

Es ist zu empfehlen, daß die Studenten auch den Begriff und die Arbeitsmethodik des Referierens von fremdsprachigen Informationsquellen kennenlernen und praktische Übungen auf diesem Gebiet machen (Hübner 1967:61 - 65).

Ein solches Referat muß die wesentlichen Inhaltskomponenten eines Aufsatzes hervorheben, damit der Leser entscheiden könnte, ob das für ihn von Nutzen ist, den Artikel im Original zu lesen. Es werden folgende Arbeitsschritte empfohlen:

1. das erste Überlesen des Textes
2. die Selektion der wesentlichen Inhaltskomponenten
3. die Formgestaltung:

die Darstellungsart des Referates wird gewählt, die Gliederungspunkte bestimmt, die sprachliche Form sorgfältig durchdacht. Den Studenten soll man zuerst theoretische Kenntnisse über den Begriff und die Arbeitstechnik geben und sie an Beispielen erläutern. Dann wird die Technik des Referierens an muttersprachlichen Texten geübt, zuletzt an fremdsprachigen. Damit die wesentlichen Inhaltskomponenten leichter zu finden wären, kann der Sprachlehrer Orientierungsfragen geben, die auf das Wesentliche im Text hindeuten. Es ist auch möglich, ein Gliederungsschema aufzustellen. Die endgültige Fassung eines Referats kann anfangs auch gemeinsam erarbeitet werden. Eine Möglichkeit zur kollektiven Arbeit wäre auch, ein von einem Studenten geschriebenes Referat in der Studiengruppe zu analysieren.

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Die gegebene Betrachtung der Arbeitsverfahren im fachbezogenen Deutschunterricht will das Thema bei weitem nicht erschöpft haben. Es wurde nur im ganz allgemeinen auf einige Möglichkeiten zur Unterrichtsgestaltung hingewiesen.

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Annotatsioonid ja ülevaated

Võõrkeelte õpetamise intensiivmeetodite konverents Moskvas

M. Thorez'i nimeline Moskva Riiklik Pedagoogiline Instituut korraldas 16.-18. jaanuaril 1974.a. konverentsi teemal võõrkeelte õpetamise intensiivmeetodid (VõIM). Üle 700 osavõtja kuulas ära 54 ettekannet. Külalisesinejaid oli Bulgaariast ja Saksa DV-st.

VõIM ei tähenda traditsiooniliste meetodite efektiivsemat rakendamist. Termin tähistab erimeetodeid, mida kasutatakse täiskasvanutele esimese, teise või ka kolmanda võõrkeele õpetamisel. Selliseid kokkusurutud kiirkursusi (10 kuud kuni 2 aastat, aga ka lühemaid) on meie maal korraldatud juba üle 10 aasta. Nende eesmärgiks on ette valmistada välismaaga suhtlevaid või sinna komandeeritud Nõukogude spetsialiste, kes peavad omadama praktilise kõnekeelete suhtlemiseks oma erialal ja üldise olmekeelete piirides. Intensiivkursuste korraldamiseks on mitmel Moskva kõrgemal õppesaudusel ja Leningradi ning Kiievi ülikoolil juba teatud kogemused. Konverents oligi kokku kutsutud kogemuste vahetamiseks ja VõIM-alast uurimistööd koordineeriva keskuse loomiseks, mille kohta ka vastav otsus vastu võeti.

VõIM-eid tuntakse maailmas palju. NSV Liidus on valdavalt kasutusel Bulgaaria meditsiinidoktori G. Lozanovi meetod, mida nimetatakse sugestopeediaks. G. Lozanov, kes ise mitmel korral konverentsil esines ja keda peaegu kõigis ettekannetes tsiteeriti või mainiti, juhatab Sofia Sugestoloogia Teadusliku Uurimise Instituudi juures oma uurimisrühma. Peale G. Lozanovi tutvustas viis tema kaastöölist oma uurimistulemusi. Ettekandeid oli rohkem kui kümmelt psühholiaatril ja psühholoogilt, sest sugestopeedia ei ole puhtafiloloogiline distsipliin.

Konverentsi plenaaristungi avaettekanne oli A.N. Ieontjevilt, kes rääkis võõrkeeltes suhtlemise psühholoogilistest alustest. Ettekandja ütles, et VõIM, mis on pigem kommunikatsioonipsühholoogia kui pedagoogilise psühholoogia probleem, võimaldab püsivate kõneharjumuste omadamist, mida

traditsiooniline metoodika ei ole oeanud organiseerida. Kõneleja osutas ohule, et intensiivmeetodil võidakse õppida rääkima küll kiiresti, aga vigadega ja lisas, et ka ekstensiivne kursus võib olla efektiivne. A.N. Leontjevi seisukohtadest võime lugeda tema raamatust, mis peagi ilmub TRÜ rotaprindi väljaandel pealkirjaga "Основы психологии общения".

Konverentsi korraldava H. Thorezi nimelise Võõrkeelte Instituudi prof. Z.M. Tsvetkova sõnavõtt töstatas hulga küsimusi. Millise puhtusastmega kõnet õppimise eri staadiumides nõuda? Kui suur osa on kommunikatsiooniprotsessis intonatsioonil? Kas relaksatsiooniseisundis õppijale tohib mäterjale pakkuda? Kas peab kursustel looma täiesti võõrkeelsete keskkonna? Z.M. Tsvetkova osutas veel vajadusele luua ühtsed nõuded ja metoodika lähte- ja lõpptaseme mõõtmiseks ja avaldas kahtlust, kas ja kuivõrd suuline õpetus valmistab ette lugemis- ja kirjutamisoskust. Z.M. Tsvetkova on veendunud, et täiskasvanud keeleõppija omandab kõneharjumused kiiremini ja kindlamini teadliku õppimisega, mitte aga intuitiivselt.

I.A. Zimnjaja (Võõrkeelte õpetamise Metoodika Keskakabinet) ettekanne oli täiskasvanutele võõrkeelte õpetamise psühholoogilistest alustest. VõIM-d, mis eeldavad suurt kontsentratsiooni, võimaldavad õppijal teatud ajaks ümber kehastuda ja oma rolli sisse elada, mistõttu õpitu unustamine on väiksem. Tähtsad on motiveeritus, positiivsed emotiivonid, nagu kiitua edu puhul, mängutegevus loomulikul alusel. Meeleolu ei tohi rikkuda noomimise ega laitmisega. Chulisid on gruopi liikmete omavahelised suhted, kõigi valmisolek väljendumiseks, õpetaja kui autoriteedi sugestiivsus ja usaldus tema vastu. Suured nõuded esitatakse õpetaja isiksusele: ta peab olema ekstrovertne, kommunikatiivne, emotsiональне, aktiivne, tundlik. Õpetöös tuleb luua situatsioonid ja tingimused aktiivseks mõttetegevuseks: see tagab parema meelespidamise. Teatavasti inimese mehaaniline mälus väheneb peale 30.-35. eluaastat. VõIM sugestopeedia, mis on välja töötatud arstide poolt, seabki esikohale mnemoprotsesside reguleerimise, eriti õpitu säilitamise ja reproduutseerimise.

Avaplenaaristungile järgnesid sugestopeedia-alased ettekanded. Ainult viimase konverentsipäeva pealelõunal töötas paralleelselt kaks sektsiooni - kogemuste vahetamise ja audio-visuaalsete õppetahendite sektsioonid.

VÖIM-te sektsiooni töö avas G. Lozanov, kes rääkis sugestopeedia kujunemisloost ja eksperimenteerimise perspektiividest võrkeelte õpetamisel. Sugestopeedia kasvas välja G. Lozanovi psühhoteraapia-alastest uurimustest. Ta rakendas algul sugestiivkommunikatiivseid võtteid neurooside raviks, hiljem õpetamisprotsessis. Uurides eksperimentaalselt mälu reserve, katsetas ta esiti üksikute eraldi sõnade õpetamist, nüüd on jõutud kogu keelesüsteemi, s.t. kõiki keelelemente haarava õpetuseni. Sugestopeedia aluseks on õpetaja kõrge stimuleeriv autoriteet ja loomingulisse usalduse õhkkond, mis loob soodsad psühholoogilised tingimused uue materjali omandamiseks. Sel moel mobiliseeritakse inimeses peituvald varjatud loominguliste võimete reservid, õppimist soodustavad tegurid. Seejuures rakendatakse teaduslikult põhjendatud võtteid, mis tegelikult on laenatud mitmesugustelt võrkeelte õpetamise suundadelt, spetsiifilistes sugestoloogilistes tingimustes. G. Lozanov möönis, et tema meetod ei ole veel lõplikult välja kujunenud, et tema nn. sugestiiv-kommunikatiivne meetod ja selle psühhoteraapeutilis-psühhhohügieenilis-psühhoprofülaktilised printsibid on veel uurimisjärgus. Praegu võib iga õpetaja leida meetodis midagi, mis on tema psüühilisele laadile vastuvõetav ja kasutada seda kooskõlas oma filoloogiliste seisukohatadega.

Õppimist soodustavate üksikvõtete, nagu relakspeedia, rütmopeedia, hüpnopeedia jt., urimise tulemuste ja kasutamiskogemuste vahendamisele oligi pühendatud suurem osa ülejäänud ettekannetest. Olgu nendest esitatud mõned intrigeerivamat mõtted:

Prof. K.K. Sergejev (Pjatigorsk): Sugestopeedia ülesandeks on pärssida õppija, eriti täiskasvanud õppija enese-kriitilisi pidureid, mis ei lase tal rääkima hakata.

Dr. P. Balevski (Sofia): Mälu paraneb relaksatsiooni-seisundis ja jogaharjutuste ajal õppides. Nagu kinnitavad W.A. Mozarti rahustava muusika foonil tehtud entsefalogrammid, õpitakse niiviisi rohkem ja vähem ajuenergia kuluga.

Prof. Petrovski (Kiev): Dr. G. Lazanov on juba 46-aastaselt klassik pedagoogikateaduees. Kuid ta hoiatas, et keeleõpetajad õrgu siiski hüpnopeediaga tegelgu: uni on looduslik protsess, millesse ei tohi sekkuda. Sugestopeedia tuleks väärassotsiaatsioonide vältimiseks ümber nimetada psühhhigienopeediaks.

Dots. S.I. Melnik ja G.A. Kitaigorodskaja (M. Thorezini nim. Instituut): Kõnet, vestlust saatku alati aktiivne mõttetegevus. Vanematel kursustel on situatsioonide väljamõttlemine kunstlik ega anna efekti.

Kogemuste vahetamise sektsoonis selgus, et kõik sugestopeediat kasutavad õppejõud on saanud mitmekuulise ettevalmistuse Bulgaarias. Selle meetodi juures on sissejuhatav foneetiline kursus osutunud ülearuseks. Relaksopeedia annab häid tulemusi öhtustes vahetustes. NSV Liidus töötatakse 10-kuulistel kursustel 5-päevase töönäda-laga 5 tundi päevas. Esimese etapi lõpuks, 3-4 kuu päärest, omandavad õppijad ligikaudu 3000 leksikaalset ja kõnkeelle grammatika ühikut. Kursuste lõpuks saavutatakse kül-laldane suhtlemisoskus oma eriala sõnavara piires, olme-keelest jätab vajaka. Kui intensiivkursusele ei järgne kohe viibimist vastavas võõrkeelses keskkonnas, langeb tulu 15 %.

Saksa DV-s sobivaimaks peetavat intensiivkursuse va-rianti pidi tutvustama prof. dr. S. Kohls, kuid ta jäi tulemata. Tema ülevaateartikkel on aga ära toodud konve-rentsi kogumikus. Sellest saame teada, et Saksa DV-s on intensiivkursusi korraldatud 10 aastat. Õpitakse vene, inglise, prantsuse ja hispaania keelt. Algajate 5-kuulis-tel kursustel (500 tundi à 50 minutit) omandatakse pro-duktiivselt 3800-4000, ja retseptiivselt 1000-1500 lek-sikaalset ühikut. Edasijõudnuilt nõutakse 3-kuuliste (250 t.) kursuste lõpuks vastavalt 2500 ja 1000-1500 lek-sikaalset ühikut. Olenevalt lähteteadmistest võib soori-tada lõpueksammi kolmel erineval tasemel, mille jaoks on üksikasjalikud nõuded välja töötatud. Kursuslaste keskmi-ne vanus on 35 aastat, gruppide keskmne suurus on 6-8 õppijat. Õppeprotsessis on keskne koht keeltelaboratooriu-mil. Seda kasutatakse intensiivselt 1) teadmiste, oskuste ja vilumuste kinnistamiseks ja aktiviseerimiseks, 2) hü-

nopeediliselt omandamisele tuleva materjali ettevalmistavaks ehk eelkuulamiseks, 3) iseseisvaks auditooriumiväli-seks tööks (iga päev 60 min.).

Võõrkeelte õpetamise intensiivmeetoditest kuulsaid paljud kohalviihjad esmakordselt. Mõnedest said neude in-nukad pooldajad, enamik jääb õraootavale seisukohale. Kõla-ma jääb mõte, et sugeetopeedia on rakendatav ikka erandjuh-tudel lühiajalistel kursustel. Kasu ja õratust said siiski kõik konverentsist osavõtjad, sest puudutati olulisi üld-metodoloogilisi küsimusi, millega võõrkeelte õpetajad iga päev sõlitsi koos on.

Aino Jõgi

З.И. Клычникова. Психологические особенности
обучения чтению на иностранном языке. М.
1973. 224 с.

Raamat (kogumaht 224 lk.) seab endale ülesandeks käsitleda võõrkeelsete tekstile lugemise psühholoogilisi seaduspärasusi, röhutades teksti tajumise ja mõistmise mitmesuguseid probleeme.

I peatükis "Võõrkeelsete tekstile lugemise psühholoogia üldprobleeme" käsitletakse lugemise määratlust, selle eripära ja tähtsust võõrkeelte õpetamisel.

Lugemine on keelelise suhtlemise üks avaldumisvorme. Keelelist suhtlemist tervikuna võib omakorda vaadelda kui nelja protsessi, s.o. könelemine, lugemine, kuulamine ja kirjutamine, mis väljendavad suhtlemisvorme: suulist könet ja kirja.

Autor määratleb lugemist kui mingi keele graafilistes märkides väljendatud informatsiooni vastuvõtmise ja aktiivse ümbertöötlemise protsessi.

Teksti tajumine ja selles peituva informatsiooni määritmine on kaks ühtsee protsessi lahutamatult seotud külge.

Lugemine on õppetöös tohutult tähtis. Lugemise abil saavad õpilased uut informatsiooni ning samal ajal on lugemine töhusaks kasvatusvahendiks. Võõrkeelsete tekstile lugemine võimaldab arendada könelemisosakust ja aitab kaasa selle oskuse säilitamisele tingimustes, kus võimalused võõrkeele praktiliseks kasutamiseks osutuvad piiratuiks.

Autor röhutab, et lugemisoskus ei tule iseenesest, vaid seda on tarvis õpetada. Könelemisoskus, mis on omendatud ot-sesel meetodil, sageli ei aita oluliselt kaasa võõrkeelsete tekstile lugemisoskuse tekkele. Järelkult on vaja, et õppaprogrammis oleks lugemisoskuse omandamine iseseisivaks, mitte suulise köne omandamisele allutatud probleemiks.

Ulevaatlikult käsitletakse I peatükis veel lugemismehhanisme ja lugemietehnika küsimusi. Esitatakse seisukohti lugemistehnika õpetamise võtete ja viiside kohta.

II peatükis käsitletakse lugemisvigu, esitatakse nende vigade klassifikatsioone keeleaspektidest, informatsioonilistest või psühholoogilistest kriteeriumidest lähtudes.

Analüüseides lugemisvigu psühholoogiliseet aspektist, eristatakse kolm põhirühma:

- 1) vead, mis on tingitud kõnemotoorsete või -sensoorsete protsesside puudulikkusest,
- 2) tajumisvead,
- 3) mõtlemisveed.

Mõtlemisvigu iseloomustab teksti valesti mõistmine. Neid vigu võib omakorda jagada:

- a) vead mõttelaiskusest (näiteks õpilane teab vajalikke lugemisreegleid, kuid ei rakenda neid),
- b) emakeele struktuuri mõjul tekkinud vead,
- c) vead väärüldistustest,
- d) vead väärassotsiatsioonidest,
- e) vead konkreetse reegli rakendamisel,
- f) vead inertsusest lugemisel,
- g) vead, mis on tingitud oskamatusest mõista loetavat kui seotud teksti, sõnade lugemisest väljaspool konteksti.

II peatükis käsitletakse veel lugemise õpetamise erinevatel etappidel sagedamini esinevaid vigu ning lühidalt on juttu tööst lugemisvigade vältimisel ja ravil.

III peatükk on pühendatud lugemisliikidele. Nii võib lugemist jagada valjuks lugemiseks, lugemiseks vaikselt omaette ja kunstipäraseks lugemiseks.

Vaikset lugemist käsitledes röhutab autor, et on vaja õpetada tunnis lapsi vaikselt lugema, kasutama sõnaraamatuid. Puudutades kodulektüriga seotud probleeme, läbib autor, et iga nädal peaksid õpilased tavalistes koolides lugema 25–35 lehekülge sobiva raskusega võrkeelset kirjandust; keelekallakuga koolide õpilastele võiks see norm olla 30–50 lehekülge nädalas.

Lugemist jagatakse ettevalmistatud, osaliselt ettevalmistatud ja ettevalmistamata lugemiseks.

Lugemisel võib veel eristada analüütelist ja sünteesitulist lugemist vastavalt püstitatud eesmärgile teksti detailseks või terviklikuks mõistmiseks.

IV peatükk on pühendatud tekstist arusaamisele. Esita-takse teksti mõistmise üldvalem. Selleks on

$M = \text{rel}(\{I_1, K_1, P_1\}; \{I_t, K_t\})$

M (teksti mõistmine) on paljude muutujatega funktsioon, kus

I_1 = lugeja informeeritus,

K_1 = lugeja keeleoskus,

P_1 = lugeja psüühilins seisund,

I_t = tekstis sisalduv informatsioon,

K_t = teksti keel.

Eksperimentaalselt tehti kindlaks, et teksti mõistmist mõjustavad järgmised faktorid:

- 1) teksti informatiivsus,
- 2) teksti loogiline ülesehitus,
- 3) teksti loogilise, emotsionaalse ja tahtinformatsiooni keeleline väljendus,
- 4) teksti leksika, grammatika ja stiili vastavus lugeja leksi-ka-, grammatika- ja stiilialastele oskustele,
- 5) tekstis väljendatud mõistete ja lugeja varasemate kogemuste lähedus,
- 6) laia konteksti tundmine,
- 7) tähelepanu õige suunamine teksti tajumisel,
- 8) lugeja taju, mälu, mõtlemis- ja kujutlusvõime eripära,
- 9) lugeja individuaal-psüühilised iseärasused (iga, tem-perament),
- 10) lugeja lugemisoskus ja lugemistehnika.

Teksti mõistmises eristab autor seitset astet:

- 1) mõistetakse ainult üksikuid sõnu,
- 2) mõistetakse ainult üksikuid sõnaühendeid,
- 3) mõistetakse ainult üksikuid lauseid,
- 4) mõistetakse teksti üldist loogilist sisu,

- 5) mõistetakse nii teksti üldist loogilist sisu kui ka üksikasju,
- 6) mõistetakse mitte ainult tekstis leiduvat tunnetuslikku, vaid ka emotsionaalset informatsiooni,
- 7) mõistetakse nii teksti loogilist, emotsionaalset kui ka tahtelist plaani.

Teksti mõistmise näitajaid tuntakse praktikas kui teksti mõistmise kontrollvõtteid. Nendest võtetest mainitakse:

- 1) tekstist vastuste leidmine küsimustele, mis esitatakse kas enne või pärast teksti lugemist,
- 2) küsimustele vastamine teksti materjalile tuginedes,
- 3) teksti kohta käivate otsustuste kinnitamine või kummutamine,
- 4) esitatud vastustest tekстиga kooskõlas olevate vastuste valimine,
- 5) küsimustele vastamine tekstile tuginemata,
- 6) allteksti kohta käivatele küsimustele vastamine,
- 7) loogiliselt koostatud küsimusteseeria esitamine vastava teksti kohta.
- 8) küsimuste koostamine teksti võtmelõikude või -lauseste kohta,
- 9) teksti plaani koostamine,
- 10) teksti jutustamine kas emakeeles või võõrkeeles,
- 11) üksikute oluliste lauseste valjusti ja õigete lause-rõhkudega lugemine,
- 12) kogu teksti lugemine valjusti,
- 13) loogilise predikaadi leidmine teksti üksikutes lauses,
- 14) lauseste koostamine, et näidata oskust kasutada teatud sõnu või sõnaühendeid,
- 15) teatud sõnade tähenduse selgitamine,
- 16) lugemistempo,

- 17) üksikute sõnade, sõnarühmade, lausete või lõikude tölkimine emakeelde,
- 18) piltdesarjast teksti illustreerivate piltide valimine ja teksti illustreerimine,
- 19) sisekõne registreerimine.

Kõiki neid võtteid saab jagada kahte alarühma:

- 1) kontroll kommunikatsioonitasandil,
- 2) kontroll teksti analüüsni tasandil.

V peatükis vaadeldakse üksikasjalikult faktoreid, mis abistavad teksti mõistmisel. Vaadeldakse teksti omaduste (informatiivsuse aste, loogiline ülesehitus, keel) ja lugeja omaduste (teadmised ja oskused, psüühika eripära) seosid teksti mõistmissega.

VI peatükk on pühendatud lugemise produktiivsuse tingimustele. Arutatakse lugemiskiiruse küsimusi ja seoseid, emotsiонаalset suhtumist loetavasse ja teksti enda loetavust.

Raamatu lõpus on veel kord kokkuvõtlikult esitatud raamatu põhiideed. Ülevaatlik on esitatud kirjanduse nimistu (254 nimetust).

Antud teos peaks pakkuma huvi nii võrkeele õpetajale kui metoodikule.

Malle Laar

B. Malmberg. Språklerning. En orientering och ett debattinlägg. Bokförlaget Aldus/
Bonniers. Stockholm, 1971. 212 lk.

Vaatlusluse raamatu autor Bertil Malmberg on Lundi ülikooli professor. Ta on leidnud rahvusvahelise tunnustuse oma töödega foneetika ja üldkeeleteaduse kohta. Eriti levinud on ta asjalik ülevaade uutest suundadest tänapäeva keeleteaduses ("Nya vägar inom språkforskningen", 1959; ingliskeelne tõlge "New Trends in Linguistics", 1965). Ehkki prof. B. Malmberg on nüüd tuntud eeskätt üldkeeleteadlasena, oli ta varem romaanī keelte õpetaja. Ta on tänaseeni säilitanud elava huvi rakenduslingvistiliste probleemide vastu ning sageli kaasa rääkinud võõrkeele õpetamise küsimustes. Seega oli ootuspärane, et ta reageerib ägedale vaidlusele, mis kestab Rootsis juba mitu aastat võõrkeelte õpetamise eesmärkide ja meetodite üle. Selle reageeringu ulatuslikumaks avalduseks ongi 1971. aastal ilmunud ülevaade keeleõppimisest, mille alapealkiri märgib, et raamat on mõeldud lugeja tutvustamiseks antud valdkonnaga ning ühtlasi panuseks sel alal käimasolevasse diskussiooni.

Lääne-Euroopas, Skandinaaviamaaades ja Ameerika Ühendriikides on viimase 3-4 aasta jooksul pidevalt olnud juttu kriisist võõrkeelte õpetamises. Sellega ühenduses räägitakse sageli suuresõnaliselt ephohi lõpust. Mõeldud periood haaras ligemale kolm aastakümmet, mille jooksul struktuuralne keeleteadus ja biheivioristlik psühholoogia avaldasid otsustavat mõju keeleõpetamisele. Viimasel ajal on aga levinud pettumus L. Bloomfieldi, B. Skinneri jt. vaadete mõjul 1950-ndatel ja 1960-ndatel aastatel nii ulatuslikult propageeritud keeleõpetamismetoodikas, mis rajanes könekeele prioriteedil ja nn. könemudelite drillimisel. Vahepeal ilmnes nimelt, et intensiivne drillimine selleks spetsiaalselt loodud keeltelaboratooriumides programmippe ja õpetamismasinade abiga ei andnud ootuspäraseid tulemusi. Koguni vastupidi: viimase 10-15 aasta jooksul näib võõrkeelte oskus olevat tunduvalt halvenenud nendes maades, sealhulgas ka Rootsis, kus nn. audiolingvaalsete meetodite rakendamisel mindi härmuseni. Kõrgemad koolid Rootsis

on tõsisee hädas nende rohkearvuliste noortega, kelle võõrkeelte oskus keskkooli lõpetamisel piirdub üksikute mehaaniliselt pähetuubitud fraaside ja lausetega, kuid kellel puuduvad algteadmised grammatikast ja kes ei tule toime lihtsate võõrkeelsete lausete tõlkimisega. Üha enam on hakanud nõudma, et keskkool peaks eüsteemataatiliselt õpetama grammatikat ning pöörama rohkem tähelepanu lugemis- ja tõlkimisoskuse kujundamisele.

Vaidlusesse keeleõpetamise olukorra ja perspektiivide üle Rootsis on sekkunud ka laiem üldsus, nagu näitavad sagased sõnavõtud ajakirjanduses, samuti raadios ja televiisoonis. Ühel pool seisavad direktse meetodi pooldajad, teisel pool need, kes peavad enamiku õpilaste-filiõpilaste ebaühuldamavate teadmiste peamiseks põhjuseks ühekülgsest propageeritud mehaanilist könekeele arendamist ja kes nõuavad teadlikumat ning tõsisemat suhtumist keeleõppimisse. R. Malmberg leibig õigusega, et keeleõpetamise eri meetodite suhtelise efektiivsuse hindamiseks peab tundma nende lingvistikalist ja psühholoogilist tausta. Keeleteoreetilised uurimusid kajastuvad alati keeleõpetamises. Lingvistika on viimastel aastakümnetel arenenud kiiresti ja keelte õpetamist suunavad haridustegelased Rootsis ei ole alati kursis uusimate seisukohtadega. R. Malmberg analüüsib kaasajal levine-numate keeleõpetamismeetodite teoreetilisi aluseid. Hraldi peatükkides käsitletakse võõrkeele õppimise erinevust emakeele omandamisest varases lapsepõlves; transformatsioonilis-generatiivse keeleteooria kajastusi keelte õpetamise praktikas; tehniliste vahendite rakendamisvõimalusi; keele, kultuuri ja ühiskonna suhete arvestamise vajadust õpetamisprotsessis.

Haamatu autori arvates on keeleõpetamise kriisis ta kodumaal suurel määral süüdi see, et võõrkeeleõpetajate ettevalmistamisel ei arvestata küllaldaselt tänapäeva keeleteaduse saavutusi. Vastutus tekkinud olukorra eest langeb vähemalt osaliselt ka rootsi lingvistidele, kellest ainult üksikud on seni pidevalt huvi tundnud keeleõpetamise probleemide vastu. Teiselt poolt peaksid hariduselu juhtivad ringkonnad vabanema dogmatismist ja kitsarinnalisusest metoodika küsimustes; neile peaks selgeks saama, et biheivioristlikul psühholoogial baseeruvad vaated keeleõppimise protsessile on palju iganenud.

Autor juhib lõppkokkuvõttes tähelepanu vanale tõele, mida keeleõpetamist suunavad organid kipuvad ikka ja jälle unustama: ei ole olemas ega saagi olla universaalset õpetamismeetodit. Keeleõpetamise metoodika sõltub sellest, kellele, mis tingimustee ja mis eesmärgil võõrkeelt õpetatakse. Kui nooremal astmel on kõnekeele arendamisel rajanev õpetamisviis õigustatud, ei ole ta seda vanemal astmel, kus vähegi püsivamate tagajärgede saamiseks on tarvis teadlikku suhtumist õppimisse, sealjuures ka elementaarse grammatika, ning iseseisva lugemis- ja tõlkimisoskuse arendamist.

MSV Liidus pole võõrkeelte õpetamise metoodikas mindud häärmustesse nagu Rootsis ja mõnes teises kodanlikus riigis. Ühtlasi on nõukogude didaktika üheks nurgakiviks alati olnud teadlikkuse printsip. Seepärast pole meil põhjust rääkida mingi epohhi lõppemisest ega kriisist keelte õpetamises. Siiski on kasulik Bertil Malmbergi väikese, kuid sisutiheda raamatu kaudu tutvuda sellega, kuidas ühel meie naabermaal on pärast ulatuslikku ning pettumust valmistanud eksperimenti otsustatud kurssi muuta realistlikuma ning diferentseerituma keeleõpetamise suunas.

Oleg Mutt

A Concise Pronouncing Dictionary
of British and American English.
By J.Windsor Lewis. Oxford University
Press. London 1972. xx + 233 pp.

With the highly developed mass-media communications and geographical and social mobility we have today, linguistic changes are fairly rapid, and phonetic ones among them.

If we compare the pronunciation of the English language of the beginning and the second half of the present century and the attitude towards Received Pronunciation (RP) before World War II and after it, it is clear that great changes have taken place.

Fairly recently (in 1962) Professor A.C.Gimson in "An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English" made a summary of the phonetic changes and tendencies which by that time had been clearly reflected in the pronunciation of the post-war period. In 1967 a new revised edition of "Everyman's English Pronouncing Dictionary" (EPD) was published, and it incorporated some of these changes in pronunciation. This new EPD was criticised for being too conservative and not reflecting all changes. In 1972, J.Windsor Lewis published "A Concise Pronouncing Dictionary of British and American English" (CPD). The need for that publication arose from the wider use of the English language and the incompetence in the choice of the right variant of pronunciation, especially by foreigners. J.Windsor Lewis drew up a carefully selected list of 24,000 words. The pronunciation of those words consistently reflects current usage. The value of this dictionary lies also in registering additional British and American types of pronunciation of different words.

J.Windsor Lewis uses the term "General American" (GA) to denote the most general pronunciation in the U.S.A. and

Canada. On the other hand, he uses the term "General British" (GB) pronunciation, which is not "public boarding-school" pronunciation, but the pronunciation used by the BBC and ITV, and refers to A.C. Gimson and his "An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English".

When compiling the book J.Windeor Lewis analysed the speech of as many different speakers as possible. In the CPD J.Windsor Lewis tried to give the most often used pronunciations of words.

In a recent article "Das CPD, ein neues Aussprachewörterbuch des Englischen" A. Neubert points out as a new development the omission of the diphthong [ɔə] by J. Windsor Lewis. Actually this is not a particularly new development in the pronunciation of English. This diphthong was replaced by [ɔ(:)] already in the 1967 edition of the CPD (in words like 'sore, four, more, board', etc.). It is interesting to point out that the word 'sure' is also given in the CPD with [ɔ(:)] - [ʃɔ(:)]. No variant pronunciations with [ɔ(:)] are listed for the words 'soft, lost, frost', etc., the only pronunciations indicated being those with [ɒ]. The diphthong [əʊ] pro [oʊ] was also introduced already in the revised edition of the EPD.

The CPD does not reflect any other major changes in the vowels occurring in stressed positions. But there are many changes in the vowels used in an unstressed position.

I. Changes in Unstressed

Vowels

1. The change [ɪ] > [ə] occurs in the following suffixes:
 - 1) -ity [-ɪtɪ] - activity, capacity, authority, diversity, cavity, formality.
 - 2) -ess [-ɛs], -ness [-nɛs], -less [-ləs] - actress, business, emptiness, hopeless, powerless.
 - 3) -ible [-əbl] - admissible, divisible, visible.
 - 4) -ate [-ət] and omission of the [ə] sound preceding

the suffix -ate - delegate [delegæt],
passionate [pæʃnæt], elaborate [rɪəlbret].

- 5) When the word ends in '-bility' the [ɪ] sound preceding '-bility' and the [ɪ] sound following the [l] sound in '-bility' change into the [ə] sound: sensibility [sənsəbɪlɪtɪ], edibility, fallibility, feasibility, flexibility, possibility, illegibility.
2. The [ə] sound is omitted in the following suffixes:
- 1) -ent [-nt] - accident, accent, adherent, ancient, efficient.
 - 2) -al [-l] - approval, amoral, federal, natural, liberal, racial, lateral, professional, anatomical, classical; socialism, capitalism (the [l] sound becoming syllabic [səʊʃlɪzム], [kəpɪtlɪzム]). And even omission of the suffix -al - mortally [mɔ:tli], usually [ju:ʒli], originally [ɔ:ridʒnlɪ]. This phenomenon (in the three last words) may also be treated as the omission of the [l] sound of the suffix -ly because it is very difficult to say to which suffix the syllabic [l] belongs phonetically, to the suffix -al or to -ly. Due to the omission of the [ə] sound in the suffix -al a number of words change their pronunciation very noticeably, viz. the words in which the vowel combinations [aus], [aɪə], [ɔɪə] were formerly used. Now only diphthongs are used with a syllabic [l] following them: trial [trail], denial [dɪnɔɪl], royal [rɔɪl] and the words 'vowel, trowel, to-wel, dowel' are also pronounced without the [ə] sound and a syllabic [l] is used

at the end. The words 'dual, duel, jewel, renewal' are pronounced as follows:
[dju(:)l], [dju(:)l], [gru(:)l], [dʒu(:)l],
[riŋju(:)l].

- 3) -ery, -ary, -ory [-rɪ] - discovery, documentary, victory, recovery, inventory, battery, parliamentary, confectionary, slippery, dictionary, factory, history. In the above mentioned words the [r] sound is not syllabic but in the words 'contrary, literary, library', in which one [r] disappears in addition to the [ə] sound, the [r] of the suffix becomes syllabic:
contrary [kɔntrərɪ]>[kɔntrɪ],
literary [lɪtərərɪ]>[lɪtrɪ],
library [laibrərɪ]>[laibrɪ].
In the word 'revolutionary' the [ə] sound in the suffix -ary is not omitted - [revəlu(:)ʃnərɪ]. That is probably due to the fact that the [ə] sound has disappeared in the suffix '-tion'[ʃn].
- 4) -ance, -ence [-ns] - accordance, reference, conference.

3. Omission of the [ə] sound preceding the following suffixes:

- 1) -(r)able - comparable, favourable, memorable, inseparable, intolerable, measurable, pardonable, pleasurable, separable.

It is interesting to point out that the [r] sound immediately preceding the suffix -able is sometimes indicated in the CPD as a syllabic [r] (in 'favourable, inseparable') but not in the majority of cases. This inevitably leaves an impression of inconsistency.

- 2) -ize, the consonants preceding the suffix

become always syllabic: commercialize [-ʃlaɪz], civilize [-vlaɪz], mobilize, moralize, nasalize, nationalize, generalize, idolize, modernize, summarize.

- 3) -ly - compulsorily [-lsrlɪ], contemporarily [-prlɪ], ordinarily, happily, funnily, luckily, easily, family.

But in the word 'temporarily, voluntarily' the [r] and [l] sounds become syllabic: [temprlɪ], [voləntrɪ], which seems unexplainable.

- 4) -(r)ous, -(l)ous - boisterous, frivolous, generous.

4. Omission of other vowel sounds in suffixes or in the second component of compound words:

- 1) -ful [-fl] - artful, beautiful, deceitful, doubtful, fanciful, tactful, fitful, powerful.

But in nouns the [ʊ] sound is not omitted: eyeful [aɪfʊl], cupful [kʌpfʊl].

- 2) -berry [-bri] - blackberry, burberry, cranberry, gooseberry, strawberry, but: elderberry [-berɪ], huckleberry [-berɪ].

- 3) -some [-sm] - cumbersome, meddlesome.

5. Miscellaneous changes of the vowels in unstressed syllables: accuracy [ækjərəsɪ] ([ʊ] > [ə]), animal [ənəməl] ([ɪ] > [ə]), always [ɔ(:)lwɪz] ([ɔ] > [ɪ]), anticipate [əntɪsəpeɪt] ([ɪ] > [ə]), bicycle [baɪsəkl] ([ɪ] > [ə]), candidature [kændɪdeɪtʃə] ([ɪ] > [eɪ]), regularity [regjələrəti] ([ʊ] > [ə]; [ɪ] > [ə]), congressman [kɔŋgrɪsmən] ([e] > [ɪ]), meteorological [mi(:)tjərəlɒdʒɪkəl] > [mi(:)trəlɒdʒɪkəl], threepence [θ्रəpəns] > [θrəpəns], figurative [fɪgərətɪv] ([fiːgjurətɪv] > [fɪgərətɪv]), Athens [æθənz] > [əθənz], Edinburgh [ˈedɪnbərə] > [ednbro], elephant [ˈelɪfənt] > [eləfnt], Greenwich [grɪnɪdʒ] > [griːnɪtʃ], honorary [ɔːnrəri] > [ɔːnrɪ].

II. Consonant Changes

- 1) [tj]>[tʃ] - accentuate, actual, amplitude, costume, mutual, capitulate, congratulate, obituary, estuary, mature, situated, factual, But if the consonant cluster [tj] occurs in a stressed syllable, it does not change into [tʃ]: futurity [-tʃʊəritɪ], tutor [tju(:)-tə], tuition, tulip, Tuesday.
- 2) [dʒ]>[dʒ] - educate, graduate, individual.
- 3) [sʒ]>[ʃ] - sensual.
- 4) [ksʒ]>[kʃ] - sexual.

There are many more minor changes in the CPD. It is impracticable to try to enumerate them all, and this is not, moreover, the task of the present review.

All the numerous changes in pronunciation which have been mentioned do not mean that the learner should not use the old norms of pronunciation. The latter are still widely used by educated native speakers. A number of the new pronunciations introduced in the CPD were mentioned already by D.Jones as possible alternative ones. Now they have become a norm.

An analysis of the above mentioned examples reveals that unstressed syllables have been further reduced and obscured and at the same time the number of syllables in a word has decreased ([temprərəri]-four syllables - [tempri]-two syllables; [bɪnrərɪ]>[bɪnri], etc.). J.Windsor Lewis says "Spoken English style in Britain has perceptibly speeded up in the last generation or so" (J.Windsor Lewis, p.xix).

J.Windsor Lewis has tried carefully to avoid homophones. It seems that the frequency of occurrence of words has been taken into account (either by the author or spontaneously by the speakers). Thus we see that 'temporally' [tempərɔ:lɪ]-an infrequent word, and 'temporarily' [tempri:lɪ] - a more frequent word, have different pronunciations, or 'littoral'

[lɪtərəl] and 'literal' [lɪ:tɪrl].

The bold summary presented by the CPD of what is going on in the pronunciation of the English language may be called revolutionary. No less bold is J.Windeor Lewis' approach to transcription. The transcription in the EPD (the 12th edition published in 1962) was criticised as outdated. In his "An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English" A.C.Gimson introduced a new possible transcriptional system but when reviewing the EPD he did not use that system. J.Windsor Lewis was bold enough to do so with some additional changes of his own. He abandoned the indication of the length of vowels (:). This really is unnecessary if we use different symbols for traditionally short and long vowels: [i], [ɪ], [ʊ], [u], [ɒ], [ɔ], [ɑ], [ə], [ʌ], [ɑ]. But when we speak about these vowels we still have to mention whether they are long or short, especially when teaching foreigners, because if we place the vowels in short close syllables the length becomes essential to a certain extent, e.g. [pit] - [pit], [pu:l] - [pul], etc.

J.Windeor Lewis has deliberately overlooked two (or traditionally three) sounds, viz. the [ʌ], [ə] and [ɑ] sounds. Already A.C.Gimson was reprimanded for still using different symbols for [ʌ] as in 'cup' and [ɑ] as in 'time' (practically they are supposed to be of the same quality).

J.Windsor Lewis has used the same symbol for the traditional [ɑ(:)] and [ɑ], which actually cannot be identified, as the [ɑ(:)] sound is a back, while the [ɑ] is a front vowel.

Professor A.Neubert (p. 303) points out that J.Windsor Lewis has no justification for using [o] instead of the English open back vowel, indicated as [ɒ] by A.C.Gimson. In the IPA [o] is classified as a back mid-close vowel. So it would have been more appropriate to use [o] for the traditional [ɔ:] sound. As for the symbols designating diphthongs, J.Windsor Lewis' choice for the traditional [ɛə] is not very good, because in his [ɛə] the nucleus is the same as in the diphthong [eɪ]. It is not pointed out that the nucleus of

the diphthong [eə] is much more open than that of [eɪ].

The CPD has a new system of accentuation. This is probably less important because it makes no difference whether you indicate the primary stress as ['], ['], or [~], only the place of the stress is essential. J. Windsor Lewis has also made an attempt to indicate syllable boundaries, e.g. [di'strɪŋkt], [dɪs'terst]. But as linguists have not yet succeeded in producing a universally acceptable theory of syllabic boundaries and as the peak of the syllable is in any case formed by the vowel, this problem is also of secondary importance.

On the whole, it must be said that the publication of a dictionary such as the CPD which reflects changes and new tendencies in the pronunciation of English is an extremely welcome development for the foreign learner of English.

The dictionary provides us with invaluable information in three important areas: (1) the pronunciation of Present-day English, (2) new developments concerning the transcriptional system, and (3) the differences between the two main variants of Present-day English.

Nora Toots

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**ТРУДЫ ПО МЕТОДИКЕ ПРЕДОЛАВАНИЯ
ИНОСТРАННЫХ ЯЗЫКОВ**

III

На разных языках

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