# Teaching particular languages

## English

**87–461  Abbott, Gerry** (U. of Manchester). EFL as education. *System* (Oxford), **15**, 1 (1987), 47–53.

Certain recent influences upon the teaching of EFL in our schools derive from the learning/acquisition of English outside the school EFL setting. This article is concerned with the resulting mismatch, and in particular with a failure to observe the requirements of education. The establishment of a threshold level for modern language learning in schools is taken as a case in point. A school syllabus based upon such a specification may need to be supplemented. Two possible complementary lines of approach, both drawn from the work of others, are put forward: the first is some ideas of Cook's concerning the use of English instead of the mother tongue to teach a school subject, recount the student's experiences, describe other cultures, present interesting facts etc., the second is to supplement the present oral-based inventory with one based on the written word (the language of 'monologue', or uninterrupted language). It is concluded that much further thought is needed if EFL in schools is to be a truly 'educational' experience.

**87–462  Cohen, Andrew D.** (Hebrew U., Israel) **and others.** Advanced EFL apologies: what remains to be learned? *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* (Amsterdam), **62** (1986), 51–74.

The five main strategies which make up the apology speech act set – apology, explanation, responsibility, repair, and promise of forbearance – are available to speakers across languages, but a preference for any one of these or for a combination will depend on the specific situation within a given language and culture group. A research study was carried out to discover (1) what differences there were between advanced non-native learners and native speakers in their apology behaviour and (2) what these differences result from. Two versions of a language-use questionnaire were designed so as to elicit apologies in a series of situations for which the degree of offence and the familiarity of the interlocutors were varied [sample questionnaire.] Each apology situation was analysed according to 13 variables.

The findings showed that there were not many differences between the natives and non-natives with regard to the main strategies for apologising, but striking differences emerged in the 'modifications' of such apologies (intensity of the apology, minimising or denying responsibility, emotionals, minimising the offence, and comments). Non-natives lack sensitivity to certain distinctions that natives make between forms for expressing apology such as *excuse me* and *sorry* and between intensifiers such as *very* and *really*. The non-native pattern is either to overgeneralise one of the forms (*very* and *sorry*) or to use a variety of forms. Non-natives also tend to avoid interjections and curses and cannot be relied on to produce the appropriate social lubricant in difficult situations (e.g. *Are you OK?* after possibly hurting someone). It is not certain how learners can benefit from overt instruction on some of these finer points.

**87–463  Crookall, David** (U. of Toulon). Writing short stories for the BBC World Service. *System* (Oxford), **14**, 3 (1986), 295–300.

Extensive authentic writing is a difficult thing to achieve in ELT situations. It is argued here that authenticity lies, not in (the formal features of) a sample of language plucked from its context, but in the social situation of an instance of language use, and therefore that authentic writing above all requires an authentic reader – or listener.

Writing for the BBC World Service 'Short Story' programme is one way of providing students with an 'authentic audience' and thereby with the necessary conditions for extensive authentic writing. Such writing has three main advantages: it is both authentic and communicative, it encourages acquisition (partly through related activities such as reading and listening to short stories) and it also improves the learner–teacher relationship. The advantages of writing stories on a computer with a word-processor are considered.

**87-464  Cross, David** (Ecole Normale Supérieure, Abidjan Côte d'Ivoire). A language policy for EFL? *System* (Oxford), **15**, 1 (1987), 43–5.

There is a need for a greater degree of co-operation between the international agencies which send consultants into third-world countries to support the teaching of English, French, German and other languages. Such co-operation would better serve the interests of host governments, few of which have a coherent policy for language education. Where there is a shortage of qualified and competent EFL teachers, it would be better to 'share out the cake' and allow British and American experts to focus attention and resources on one part of the school system.

**87-465  Graham, C. Ray and Belnap, R. Kirk** (Brigham Young U.). The acquisition of lexical boundaries in English by native speakers of Spanish. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **24**, 4 (1986), 275–86.

One hundred and thirty-three English speakers were presented with a series of pictures of objects associated with eating and drinking, seat-like objects and footware, each varying in different dimensions and other details. In a forced choice they were asked to choose a suitable name for each object. Forty Spanish-speakers in ESL classes in the US were presented with the same pictures and asked to choose Spanish and English names. Lexical boundaries (e.g. between *cup/glass/mug*) were drawn for each native-speaker group. Major boundary differences were identified between Eng. *chair/stool/bench* and Span. *silla/banco* and between Eng. *boot/shoe* and Span. *bota/zapato*. The Spanish-speakers' English responses were strongly influenced by their L1 lexical boundaries.

**87-466  Lightbown, Patsy M.** What's an ESL teacher good for? *TESL Canada Journal* (Montreal), special issue **1** (1986), 1–15.

While ESL teachers often must play many roles, their fundamental task is to help learners progress in their ability to use English. In this paper, the ESL teacher's role as a language teacher is explored and five specific areas of responsibility are elaborated: (1) providing comprehensible input; (2) preparing learners to cope with non-classroom language; (3) providing references and resource materials and guidance as to their use; (4) providing focused instruction in particular areas of language or language use; (5) providing corrective feedback under certain conditions.

**87-467  Mangubhai, Francis.** The literate bias of classrooms: helping the ESL learner. *TESL Canada Journal* (Montreal), special issue **1** (1986), 43–54.

It has been argued recently that the language of the classroom is more decontextualised ('bookish' language) than the language of normal, everyday conversation. Those children who have had an early exposure to bookish language are better equipped, it seems, to handle the language of the school. For the ESL learners the problems are two-fold: they have to learn a new language and they have to learn the language of school. In order to bridge the gap between the home language and the language of the school, an experiment in which reading materials were introduced into a print-deficient environment is discussed. The results of this experiment indicate that the provision of books and regular reading in the school curriculum not only improves proficiency in the second language but also has a positive effect on academic achievement in other subjects.

**87-468  Noguchi, Rei R.** (California State U.). The dynamics of rule conflict in English and Japanese conversion. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **25**, 1 (1987), 15–24.

The failure of many Japanese to master English conversation is not merely linguistic or psycholinguistic in nature but sociolinguistic. The problem lies in the cultural relativity of conversational rules. Although a common core of conversational rules probably exists across cultures, different cultures will emphasise the rules to different degrees. What is especially highly valued in Japanese culture (but to a lesser degree in American culture) is the rule to protect face, both one's own and the addressee's,

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and this rule is more highly valued than the rule to maintain talk in conversation. If a Japanese and an American are having a conversation, there is potential for disruption, in the form of a sudden and painful silence, since both will assume that the conversation will be regulated by the values that their own culture customarily assigns to the rules.

Silences of this kind also occur in class: they reduce the student's opportunities for practising the language and cause anxiety to the student. Teachers should therefore be more sensitive to this issue.

**87–469 Westney, Paul.** How to be more or less certain in English: scalarity in epistemic modality. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **24**, 4 (1986), 311–20.

'Epistemic modality' is a rather vague term generally used to denote the kinds of qualification a basic statement like *he's right* undergoes in expressions such as *I think he's right, he must be right, perhaps he's right*, and so on. As such, it represents a major area of language use of obvious communicative importance. In functional terms, this is concerned with expressions of, for example, 'certainty and uncertainty', 'degrees of probability' and 'speculations about the past, present and future', all to be subsumed under 'expressing and finding out intellectual attitudes' in Threshold Level terminology.

For an advanced learner, competence in this area should include not only the appropriate use of individual items (sometimes called 'epistemic qualifiers', but also an understanding of their interrelations, so that, for example, an expression of high probability can be modified 'downwards' or one of

inferred conclusion qualified or contradicted; and such processes have a place both in self-correction (including 'repair') and in conversational exchange. The main concern is therefore primarily with speech, and with the interactional function of language.

It is clearly desirable to be able to organise epistemic modality – or rather epistemic qualifiers – within a structured framework. This, however, has proved to be singularly difficult. In this paper, the author considers why this should be the case, and suggests that no simple scalar organisation is to be sought here. The author first briefly discusses epistemic modality and its major exponents, and then turns to questions of structural organisation, and sees how far epistemic 'scales' can be set up and justified. He tries to show the significance of some relevant data from a spoken corpus of English, and suggests some pedagogical implications.

**87–470 Wenden, Anita L.** (City U. of New York). Incorporating learner training in the classroom. *System* (Oxford), **14**, 3 (1986), 315–25.

Some guidelines are offered for teachers and administrators who wish to provide students with more systematic training in learning how to learn. (1) Inform students of the value and significance of the strategies they are being trained to use, and let them experience their value; (2) provide training in both cognitive and metacognitive strategies (training in metacognition should include both awareness raising and training in the planning, monitoring and

evaluation of learning activities); (3) determine how to integrate learner training with language training, and (4) consider the learner's attitudes, skill acquisition, task improvement, durability and transfer.

These guidelines are exemplified in discussion of training in five different ESL settings: American high schools, a language school in England, an American Language Program, a French engineering college and a continuing education programme.

# French

## 87–471 Cammarota, Marie-Ange and Giacobbe, Jorge (GRAL, Paris).
L'acquisition du lexique en français par des adultes hispanophones. [Acquisition of French vocabulary by Spanish-speaking adults.] *Langages* (Paris), **84** (1986), 65–78.

The strategies adopted by two monolingual, Spanish-speaking political refugees in France, of similar social and educational backgrounds, are analysed. Both proceed on the assumption that French is a language closely allied to Spanish and that certain systematic modifications applied to the

Spanish word will yield the word they are looking for in French. But whereas the first speaker is successful in constructing and consolidating a French vocabulary during his first year in France, the second speaker is unable to apply her hypotheses in a systematic fashion to construct an interlanguage,

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but uses her own language instead. It is concluded that the blueprint for the system of the target language is to be found in the source language. The key to the success or relative failure of the two informants lies in their ability, or inability, to mobilise their source language (Spanish) in such a way as to provide them with a model system with which to approach their target language, French [examples].

**87–472 Chappell, Martin** (National Inst. for Higher Ed., Limerick, Ireland). The foreign language feature film and language teaching activities. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **24**, 3 (1986), 139–45.

A report of using a feature film, *La Dentellière*, as the source of active language work. Film can provide more realistic input than much pre-prepared 'authentic' material and can therefore generate a more varied output. The teaching aim is to get students to describe, explain, compare, argue and express their reactions towards the film, then to handle confrontational situations, such as aggression, anger, affection and everyday social intercourse. A second aim is to introduce students to the study of film.

Initial preparation involved cataloguing all the sequences within the film. Teaching centred round three areas: selected sequences from the film, image and film analysis and the literary adaptation (from a novel). [Detailed discussion of how to exploit a scene in class, some examples of image and film analysis, and ways of tackling the question of a literary adaptation.]

**87–473 Cornish, Francis** (U. of Kent at Canterbury). The 'ce/il' distinction in French: some pedagogical implications. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **24**, 4 (1986), 287–310.

Existing grammars give misleading accounts of the distinction between *ce* and *il*; they stress formal criteria, but grammatico-semantic and discourse considerations are decisive. We need to make two separate distinctions, one between *ce* and impersonal *il* as subject of *être* in a complex sentence involving complementation, the other concerning the anaphoric relation between *ce* or the gender-number-variable *il* (i.e. *il/ils/elle/elles*) and a preceding antecedent.

*Ce* is distinguished from impersonal *il* in that it is demonstrative and thematic, and has greater referential 'power' in most contexts. As for the second opposition, *il* is used when the speaker believes that the identity of the referent is fully established for the listener, *ce* otherwise. [Examples of French usage and learner errors.]

**87–474 Dufeu, Bernard** (U. of Mainz). Rythme et expression: apprentissage de l'intonation: quand le son est aussi porteur de sens. [Rhythm and expression: learning intonation: when sound also carries meaning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **205** (1986), 62–70.

French speech rhythm is characterised by great syllabic regularity, articulatory precision, lack of diphthongs and a tendency to simple (CV) syllabic structure (which also gives rise to liaison, elision, metathesis and epenthesis). Only the group-final, pre-pausal, syllable is accented. Various exercises are suggested to develop students' appreciation of French rhythm. They begin by listening to their own and others' rhythm of breathing, then proceed to imitating rhythmic claps or beats and walking rhythms. Rhythmic dialogues in pairs and groups and counting ternary and quaternary rhythms lead to recitation of short rhythmic phrases, sometimes associated with the passing of sticks in a circle, and the recitation of poems.

Students also work on exercises designed to sensitise them to the meaning value of individual sounds, short words and phrases pronounced with different intonations, gestures and bodily movements imitating intonational contours. [Texts of poems, photos of exercises carried out by students.]

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**87–475  El Andaloussi, Jeanne** (MITEN, Paris) **and others.** Communiquer autrement: les réseaux télématiques. [Another way of communicating – computer link-ups.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), **205** (1986), 55–61.

Following a meeting of experts in the teaching of French organised by the Centre International d'Etudes Pédagogiques on the theme of communicative approaches to the teaching of French, a computer link-up was arranged on an experimental basis between four teams in schools in Lisbon, Madrid, Naples and Sèvres, for five consecutive 2½-hour evening sessions. Teams were able to send messages, chat and collaborate in writing an adventure story. Since the teams each worked and communicated as a group, writing was not the usual solitary activity and the fact that it was all 'for real' supplied motivation.

This type of activity requires thorough preparation and care must be taken in allocating roles within the group, e.g. keyboard operator, secretary, resource person – though roles may be rotated if this suits the group better. The *animateur* in charge of the whole experiment is called upon to fulfil many functions which would be better shared between two or three people. [Appendix: text of story and messages sent.]

**87–476  Ensz, Kathleen Y.** (U. of Northern Colorado). Perceptions of French slang: l'autre face de la médaille. [The other side of the coin.] *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **19**, 6 (1986), 499–505.

This article reports on a second study of reactions of native French persons to use of French slang. In a previous study, French interviewees listened to thirty selected French slang expressions spoken by young Americans. In the present study, the French listeners heard the same expressions used by French youths. A comparison of reactions to French v. American usage of French slang was therefore possible. The same interviewing procedure was used in both studies. French listeners residing in different areas of France rated the thirty tape-recorded slang expressions ranging in nonstandard usage from 'very familiar' to 'rather vulgar.' The possible reactions, *très mauvais goût* (very bad taste), *un peu incorrect* (socially inappropriate) or *language normal* (acceptable speech), were scored one, two and three, respectively, and mean scores were calculated for each expression. Reactions were evaluated according to the sex, profession, age and residence of the listeners as well as to the sample as a whole.

As in the previous study, findings reveal a generally critical attitude towards slang usage. Several sample subgroups found the Americans' use of French slang less acceptable, and there were notably lower tolerance ratings for various expressions when used by the Americans. Results of this study reinforce those of the first and suggest the need for discrimination, especially in terms of the quality of the expression, when considering the inclusion of slang in French-language classrooms and in the curriculum.

**87–477  Holec, Henri** (CRAPEL, University of Nancy II). La recherche en didactique du FLE futuribles. [Future directions for research in the teaching of French as a foreign language.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **64** (1986), 55–63.

Studies carried out during the last 15 years have focused on how second languages are acquired. A research priority should now be to explore the methodological implications of this work and in particular to redefine both the relationships between acquisition, learning and teaching and the objectives, content and processes involved in learning and teaching.

**87–478  Richterich, René** (U. of Lausanne). A la recherche du temps oublié. [In search of the forgotten time factor.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **64** (1986), 93–102.

The author presents his personal priorities for action, research and teacher training for French as a foreign language. Firstly, the action would involve replacing the boring pseudoscientific discussion of lectures, seminars, conferences and academic articles with more inventive forms such as poems, telegrams, plays and songs. Secondly, there should be research into the time factor. Despite the importance of time, it has never been the object of proper research. The relationship between time spent teaching and time

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spent learning and the significance of time to the learner, the teacher and the institution are all detailed. Some practical studies are suggested, with special emphasis on the importance of biorhythms. Finally, a programme for teacher training is presented aimed at stimulating the imagination of teachers, so that they can transmit their knowledge in more varied and inventive ways. This would involve working with professionals such as musicians, actors and publicists, and would culminate in a huge 'happening' at which everything produced at the various workshops would be presented.

**87–479  Stern, H. H.** Movements, projects and Core French today. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **43**, 1 (1986), 15–33.

This article introduces a distinction between 'movements' which more or less spontaneously influence the course of language pedagogy and 'projects' which are deliberately designed to steer the course of events or to deal by research methods with specific issues or problems. Some projects and some movements are sketched and briefly discussed. In the light of this distinction the plan for a National Core French Study, recently put forward by the Canadian Association of Second Language Teachers, is presented as a proposal for a major nation-wide project, comparable to the British Pilot Scheme for French in the Primary School and the Modern Languages Project of the Council of Europe. The article attempts to draw lessons for the National Study and to highlight some of its characteristics.

**87–480  Van Eibergen, Joëlle** (Inst. de Phonétique de Grenoble). Le *e* latent en français. [Latent *e* in French.] *Bulletin de l'Institut de Phonétique de Grenoble* (Grenoble), **15** (1986), 75–107.

This study, based on a corpus of current French, examines realisations of a vowel peculiar to French: the latent *e*. To study the different realisations for this *e*, the author first of all calculated its [+] and [−] occurrences, i.e. the number of times it appears or is effaced in the speech string, the difference between their respective percentages and their importance with regards to other phonic constituents in the corpus. He further analysed its distribution in order to determine the roles that this vowel plays. He then tried to show the consequences that its effacement or appearance would have on French consonantism. To do so, he organised an account of the number of existing consonantal sequences, in four positions: word-internal, word-internal resulting from effacement of the *e*, word-frontier and finally word-frontier resulting from the effacement of the word. The number of sequences and their position actually realised was then compared to the fictive ones in which were included isolating *e*'s, realised [+]. The corpus was treated by computer and a systematic statistical analysis was made possible by adapted software. The aim of this study was to bring some basic facts to bear on this peculiarity of French which creates many problems in the teaching of French as a foreign language.

# German

**87–481  Balzinger, Sylvie** (Coll. Hans Arp, Strasbourg). Comment susciter l'expression écrite personelle des élèves par le biais d'un journal-recueil de textes libres? [Improving pupils' written self-expression by means of a class magazine composed of free compositions.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **80**, 6 (1986), 67–72.

Children learning German (classes 3 to 6, L1 French or Alsatian dialect) are invited to produce class magazines, built up over several months from voluntary, non-assessed compositions with free choice of topic. All mistakes are corrected, but only serious, avoidable ones explained. The children are responsible for re-copying, illustrating, cover design and choice of title. The aim is to make German enjoyable and rewarding and to foster co-operation, self-correction and meaningful production. [Examples of pupil writing.]

The scheme has worked well with younger pupils (classes 5 and 6), who produce extensive material in their own time. Classes 3 and 4 have been less prolific, and the author therefore recommends in-class work with specific stimuli provided.

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**87–482 Dressel, Thomas** (Erfurt). Gelenkt-produktive Arbeit an der Wortbildung als eine Möglichkeit zur Effektivierung des Fortgeschrittenenunterrichts Deutsch als Fremdsprache. [Guided production of compound words as a possibility in the advanced teaching of German as a foreign language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), **23**, 6 (1986), 336–41.

It is usually claimed that learners of German should be taught to understand unfamiliar compound words, but not to form their own, as there are no reliable rules and errors are likely. The author argues, however, that advanced learners sometimes need to create compounds, and can be taught to do this by guided exercises, involving pattern recognition, combination of previously given words, and invention (e.g. thinking of different kinds of table: *Küchentisch, Schreibtisch, Blumentisch, Holztisch*, etc.).

A test taken by 200 advanced foreign learners revealed some difficulties with interpretation tasks, e.g. *verkehrssicher* was understood as *sicher vorgegen den Verkehr* instead of *sicher im Verkehr*. The guided production task, however, yielded 81·2% correct answers. Most significantly, a freer production task yielded 68·8% correct when taken before the guided task, 88·2% after.

**87–483 Götze, Lutz.** Interimsnorm und zielsprachliche Norm im Unterricht Deutsch als Fremdsprache/Deutsch als Zweitsprache. [Interlanguage norm and target language norm in the teaching of German as foreign or second language.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig, GDR), **23**, 6 (1986), 360–6.

Foreign learners' utterances should not be judged solely by the norms of standard (written) German, firstly because not even native Germans speak this way in everyday life, secondly because interlanguage has its own norms. Königs has suggested four sub-norms for learners, the lower ones generally more dynamic, the higher more static. Teacher correction and interaction should be sensitive to the learners' current interlanguage level, should be designed to foster acquisition, and should focus on situationally adequate language behaviour rather than formal correctness. This applies even when German is taught as a foreign language, but is crucial when it is a second language, and teaching must reflect and support out-of-class language experience.

**87–484 Hill, Brian** (Brighton Poly.). Adults learning German. *Treffpunkt* (London), **18**, 3 (1986), 11–13.

Some statistics about the state of German teaching in the UK, focusing specifically on class-based learning, teacher training and devising courses for adults. According to a 1985 BBC survey, 75% of the population appear to know no German; only 1% regard themselves as 'pretty fluent'. 18% wished to improve their German (some eight million people). When assessing the skill which would be most useful, most people chose the ability to understand German accurately. Close behind came the ability to speak, then read, and finally to write German. Some 80% of adult education centres offer courses on German, and, on average, 20% of a centre's students would be learning German (as opposed to 35% for French, 15% for Spanish and 8% for Italian). The provision of equipment is gradually improving but 29% of centres reported having no audio-visual facilities at all. Just over half the classes offered were at elementary level, 32% were intermediate and 13% advanced. The average class size was 14; 13% of learners were over 60. Little is known of success rates or learners' satisfaction. Training of teachers for these courses is inadequate and many felt isolated. Only 22 local education authorities provide any language-specific training for their adult education tutors, many of whom have no qualifications at all.

Key factors which should be taken into account when running courses for adults are: (1) students' lack of confidence; (2) students from very different educational backgrounds with different levels of motivation and reasons for studying; (3) the need for teacher training (or at least the opportunity for teachers to meet colleagues to exchange ideas: CILT's Network scheme is recommended. In the future there should be an increasing choice of courses and of learning strategies.

**87–485 Rogers, Margaret** (U. of Surrey). Learners' difficulties with grammatical gender in German as a foreign language. *Applied Linguistics* (Oxford), **8**, 1 (1987), 48–74.

The author reviews research into gender acquisition in German as L1 and FL, and in the assignment of gender to loan-words, then presents her own findings on the gender errors of first-year University of Surrey students in a written German essay.

Although gender assignment by native speakers seems to be rule-governed, the rules are complicated, full of exceptions, and implicitly known; explicit knowledge of rules by foreign learners does not ensure correct usage. Furthermore, the morphological expression of gender is inextricably bound up with that of number and case, which has important implications for error analysis. Thus, 78·5 % of the Surrey students' gender errors (second sample) involved feminine nouns, but further analysis showed this bias to be entirely attributable to dative-case errors: the *-m* ending of the masculine/neuter dative was used in all 21 errors (as against 37 correct *-r* forms). As the *-m* ending is the only one associated with a single case, this may support the theory of saliency, rather than markedness (one gender taken as default option in all cases), as an explanation of error.

We should not teach gender separately from case, and should not use the definite article as a gender label, as this obscures its semantic functions such as definiteness, exclusivity, and countability, as well as over-emphasising the nominative form.

# Japanese

**87–486 Kataoka, Hiroko C.** (North Carolina State U.). Televised Japanese Language Program: the first year. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **19**, 6 (1986), 491–8.

The Televised Japanese Language Program is a system for providing Japanese long distance instruction by recycling videotapes of live classes. This system, supplemented by local co-ordinators and native-speaker tutors, has been in operation since the fall semester of 1984, and has been quite successful in terms of students' performance and programme evaluation. At institutions where employment of a full-time instructor is not feasible, this system may prove to be the most effective and economical means of offering instruction in critical foreign languages.

# Russian

**87–487 Adamantova-Abbas, Vera.** Using SuperPILOT for creating the Russian characters set. *CALICO Journal* (Provo, Utah), **4**, 2 (1986), 9–16.

The lack of appropriate software in Cyrillic alphabets is among the most notable obstacles in teaching and learning Russian language through a computer. This paper examines the possibility of creating the Russian character set using a 'pro-grammerless' authoring language, SuperPILOT, which allows a teacher or a learner to produce and use the Russian alphabet with no programming skills.

**87–488 L. M. Kalamanova** (Kishinev State U.). Цели Обучения и пути их реализация в практическом курске русского языка. [Teaching aims and their realisation in practical Russian language courses.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **5** (1986), 85–9.

The following hierarchy of aims can be observed in the teaching of Russian as a foreign language: (1) the ultimate aims of study, (2) the aims of a certain stage, (3) the aims of a sub-stage, (4) the aims of a group of lessons, (5) the aims of a certain stage in a lesson, (6) the aim of a certain exercise. The ultimate aim predetermines the content and aims of all the other levels; each level becomes more specific and directed towards this ultimate aim. There are objective and subjective aims. Subjective aims are

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the personal aims formulated by an individual and objective aims stem from the influence of society on the individual's personal aims. From this a scheme can be formulated relevant to all levels of the hierarchy of aims. There are three components, aim of study (pupil), aim of teaching (teacher), modified by subjective and objective aims. Objective aims play an important role if a profession necessitates the use of Russian as a means of communication. Subjective aims do not always correspond with objective aims but play an important part in student motivation.

Research was carried out in preparatory faculties (for teachers of the Russian language to foreigners) into the aims of studies: (a) students' and teachers' awareness of the system of aims and tasks, (b) methods of formulation of aims, (c) individual aims and tasks, (d) links between students' personal aims and motivation, (e) links between the aims of study and teaching.

After interviewing teachers of Russian, it was found that 82% had a clear idea of the ultimate aims and 63% had a clear idea of the aims of the sub-stages. Only 20% had a clear idea of the aims of a particular lesson, 10% of a stage in a lesson and 27% of the aim of a particular exercise. The conclusion was that many teachers do not have a clear idea of a system of aims in teaching and in particular the specific aim of a given lesson.

The students questioned were of three types, (1) specialist linguists, (2) non-linguists with an arts background, (3) non-linguists studying Russian for technical purposes. It was found that 83% of students' motivation was result-oriented and for the most successful 10% the process of study was motivation in itself. Experimental lessons were carried out in which it was attempted to orientate each stage of a lesson to the objective/professional needs of the students. These lessons were followed up by a questionnaire in which students endorsed the system of aim orientation, which increased motivation amongst students and created a collective working relationship with the teacher.

**87–489  Van Fu Sian.** Русский яеык в Китае. [Russian language teaching in China.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **6** (1986), 122–3.

Foreign languages have been taught in China for the past 36 years but the last few years have seen increased development in this area. Russian is one of the 34 languages taught. In middle schools, three foreign languages are taught, English, Russian and Japanese. 600,000 middle-school pupils study Russian. The main problem is the lack of textbooks and trained teachers. In 1980, 26 institutes of higher education began to accept students of Russian at an average of 500 per year. Initially linguistics is taught together with practical courses in Russian. Subsequently grammar and phonetics are taught with emphasis on speech skills. Post-graduate students study functional stylistics.

Foreign languages are also taught to non-linguists, mainly technical English, but now many institutes also teach technical Russian. In 1985, Peking radio began to broadcast Russian lessons with an audience of around 40,000 people. Since 1980, 33 textbooks on various aspects of the language and culture of the USSR have been published along with five specialist journals. In 1981, the first all-China association of Russian teachers was set up; it held its first conference in 1985.

The level of Russian teaching in China does not meet the needs of current technical development; reforms and improvements are badly needed in materials and teaching standards.

# Spanish

**87–490  Castelly, Colette** (Coll. Roumanille, Nyons). Du commentaire au texte de création en langue étrangère. [From commentary to creative writing in a foreign language.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **80**, 6 (1986), 29–34.

In order to overcome the passivity of a secondary school class in their third year of Spanish when faced by a traditional commentary on the text (in this case a description of a painting), the teacher declared the classroom to be a studio. By involving the class in a number of varied activities she succeeded not only in evoking a greater degree of participation from them but also a greater awareness and appreciation of painting. The creative writing which the students were asked to produce at the end of this series of lessons was made into a book and a copy given to each.

**87–491  Glisan, Eileen W.** (Indiana U. of Pennsylvania). Total Physical Response: a technique for teaching all skills in Spanish. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **19**, 5 (1986), 419–27.

Research in foreign language learning continues to reveal positive effects of an initial listening period with a delay in oral production. Studies have shown that use of Asher's 'Total Physical Response' strategy, through which students internalise meaning initially by physically responding to oral commands, results in better listening comprehension, speaking, and reading performance. Despite TPR's acclaimed success, many teachers hesitate to adopt the entire method, because of the lack of explicit guidelines and materials for its use and because of the constraints of traditional language programmes. This paper presents a strategy for utilising an expanded version of TPR as one tool for teaching listening, speaking, reading, and writing in Spanish. Ways are suggested to implement the technique within the language curriculum. Although examples are given for Spanish, the guidelines are applicable to any foreign language programme.