
Teaching particular languages

English

90-70 Banerjee, Janet and Carrell, Patricia L. (Southern Illinois U.). Tuck in your shirt, you squid: suggestions in ESL. *Language Learning* (Ann Arbor, Mich), **38**, 3 (1988), 313-64.

A discourse completion questionnaire consisting of 60 situations designed to elicit suggestions in English was administered to 28 native speakers of Chinese or Malay and 12 native speakers of American English. The purpose of the study was to determine what, if any, differences exist between the way adult native speakers and non-native speakers make suggestions and what implications there may be, if any, for the ESL classroom teacher in helping students develop pragmatic competence. Situations reflected three degrees of embarrassment to addressees who were varied by familiarity and sex.

Speakers provided suggestions to about 50% of the situations, natives slightly more frequently than did non-natives; however, non-natives were slightly

more direct in their responses than were natives. All subjects provided suggestions more frequently in urgent situations and less frequently in embarrassing situations. Simple statements of fact were the most common and neutral type of suggestions made by all speakers.

Although suggestions made by native and non-native speakers were basically similar in directness and frequency, they differed in the number and type of politeness strategies used. Examples of successful strategies used by native speakers, which could be taught to ESL students using a functional approach, as well as some of the pragmatically less successful strategies used by non-native speakers, are discussed.

90-71 Bentahila, Abdelâli and Davies, Eirlys (Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah U., Fez, Morocco). Culture and language use; a problem for foreign language teaching. *IRAL* (Heidelberg, FRG), **27**, 2 (1989), 99-112.

Linguistic rules and cultural factors are normally clearly distinguished, but in order to communicate effectively, learners need to know certain aspects of the target language which may be either linguistic or cultural. Moroccan and British cultures are contrasted in terms of the expression of routine formulas, requests, thanks, congratulations and discourse organisation; the scope for communicative breakdown is indicated. Imposing the cultural patterns of the target language on learners is morally questionable. It is preferable to encourage them to

use the L2 according to their personalities and preferences, particularly where the L2 is used as a lingua franca rather than with native speakers. Quirk's 'Nuclear English' is criticised on the grounds that users from different cultures would inevitably leave their own stamp on it. Teachers should develop learners' awareness of the cultural dimension of the target language and provide them with the choice of conforming to, rejecting or compromising with its cultural norms.

90-72 Brennan, Moya and van Naerssen, Margaret. Language and content in ESP. *ELT Journal* (London), **43**, 3 (1989), 196-205.

In higher-education settings where English is a medium of instruction, it is very important for lecturers in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to establish channels of communication with content lecturers. Content lecturers have the responsibility for introducing students to and training them in a particular discipline/profession. Therefore, ESP lecturers need to hear the content lecturers' concerns about the students' ability to communicate effectively in English in their academic and professional work, and they need to be open to their suggestions. By focusing on the particular needs for communication skills, rather than on ESP at a more

general level, the ESP lecturer is able to provide the necessary and appropriate support to the content lecturers for the education of the students in specific disciplines.

Co-ordination with content lecturers can be done at various levels of formality and involvement; it need not always be highly time-consuming and formalised co-ordination. In this article several practical co-ordination approaches are suggested and illustrated by a range of concrete examples which could be adapted to various institutions and student populations.

90-73 Dole, Robert (U. of Québec at Chicoutimi). On teaching the neglected fourth skill. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Canada), **11**, 1 (1989), 49–55.

The article presents the results of an experiment carried out in 1987, involving fifty undergraduates from different academic backgrounds who had enrolled in an ESL composition course. The experimental goals of the course were to make the students feel as unanxious as possible when faced with the task of writing in English, to have them

write as much as possible, and to make them concentrate on either accuracy or fluency in writing, depending on which type of exercise was assigned. The results of this experiment reflect the varying effects of these three factors on the students' progress in ESL composition writing in the course of the semester.

90-74 Holden, Nigel J. (Manchester Sch. of Management, UMIST). Toward a functional typology of languages of international business. *Language Problems and Language Planning* (Austin, TX), **13**, 1 (1989), 1–8.

International business literature, on the one hand, and linguistic literature, on the other, appear to say very little on the importance of particular languages in relation to the international activities of firms and the economic, political, and technological power associated with individual languages. This paper attempts to apply criteria for classifying languages according to their function and geographical spread

in international business activity. Three language-types are identified: languages of marketing contact; market languages; and languages of marketing value. It is suggested that the overwhelming volume of the world's business is conducted in 23 languages – 18 European and five non-European – classified under languages of marketing value.

90-75 Oster, Judith (Case Western Reserve U.). Seeing with different eyes: another view of literature in the ESL class. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **23**, 1 (1989), 85–103.

Focusing on point of view in literature enlarges students' vision and fosters critical thinking by dramatising the various ways a situation can be seen. This is especially valuable in international classes, wherein students from traditional education systems are often unfamiliar with critical ways of reading, questioning, and analysing texts. Short stories told from a single, limited point of view or through the eyes of one character make excellent vehicles for demonstrating the extent to which limited knowledge or an emotional stake in the events colours a character's vision. As students respond to stories and analyse their impressions, they see how their

information was filtered through a point of view and limited by it; furthermore, they begin to see how their own experiences, cultures, or values affect their views. Once students see how point of view and sympathy can be manipulated in a story, they are assigned writing tasks requiring them to shift points of view in a given story or in a story of their own. They must speak with different voices and see with different eyes, which will foster more flexible reading, writing and thinking. Moreover, contact with literature stimulates more imaginative student writing, and with it an increase of significant detail and appropriate figurative language.

90-76 Takashima, Hideyuki (Hyogo U. of Education, Japan). How Japanese learners of English answer negative 'yes-no' questions – a case of language transfer. *IRAL* (Heidelberg, FRG), **27**, 2 (1989), 113–24.

This article describes the difficulties caused by negative *yes-no* questions to Japanese students of English. In general, English *yes* and *no* indicate agreement or disagreement regardless of the form of the statement/question made by the person speaking, whereas Japanese *hai* or *ie* indicate agreement or disagreement/with a statement/question which has just been made. The pattern learned initially by students seems to determine later usage.

A research study concerning the response made to negative questions was conducted by giving ques-

tionnaires to 288 Japanese students in four classes, chosen so as to provide a range of university entrance examination scores in English. Questions were asked in Japanese and then in English; one class was interviewed to ascertain the reasons for their answers. Their responses were classified into four main groups. The percentage of correct answers had a direct relationship to average entrance examination scores in each year, which suggests that the test accurately reflects English proficiency.



90-77 White, Cynthia J. Negotiating communicative language learning in a traditional setting. *ELT Journal* (London), **43**, 3 (1989), 213-20.

In motivating students to learn English through a more communicative approach it is important to take into account habitual learning styles, aspects of language which are seen as significant and attitudes to less formal teaching. Confidence can be developed in new ways of learning and using language through a skilful combination of meaningful tasks which provide learners with individual feedback on their performance, and in which both individual and collaborative activities are seen to be an integral part

of the overall design of a well-structured course. The language-teaching circumstances outlined in this article are located in China with a part-time adult class of varying background and proficiency. An indigenous means of communication, namely wall posters, was transferred to the classroom and used as a basis for an extended session of fluency-focused activities, through which students became independent users of the language they had acquired.

French

90-78 Brunet, Jean-Paul. L'onomatopée dans la classe de français. [Onomatopoeia in the French class.] *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **45**, 1 (1988), 139-45.

Onomatopoeia is sadly overlooked in many French grammar courses and yet it plays a key role in everyday speech. Onomatopoeia is the naming of a thing or action by a vocal imitation of the sound associated with it. 'Echo words' are far from being only used in poetry or rhetoric. A classification of types of onomatopoeia according to the feeling they

convey will attempt to stress their importance in spoken French. Students enjoy learning the sounds produced by various animals in a second language and discovering the abundant use of onomatopoeia in French songs, commercials, comic books, and even slang.

90-79 Carton, Francis and others. Trois jours pour parler français? Compte-rendu d'une expérience de prise en charge d'apprentissage. [Three days to learn French? An account of an experiment in learners taking responsibility for their own learning.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy, France), 1986/7, 15-29.

A group of 15 Indonesians training to be engineers had studied French semi-intensively for six months in Indonesia then for six months intensively in France before beginning their scientific studies, but in fact had regressed during their subsequent ten months of scientific study in a francophone milieu.

CRAPEL gave them three consecutive Saturdays of orientation towards taking charge of their own learning progress, the first being diagnostic of their

current language state. Annexes show the diagnostic questionnaire, scoring sheet and suggestions for improvement in aural comprehension, oral production and vocabulary build-up; the body of the article describes and justifies the content.

The teachers became counsellors and instead of teaching had to analyse problems and suggest solutions for them which the participants could apply on their own.

90-80 Chartrand, Suzanne and Paret, Marie-Christine (U. of Montreal). Enseignement de la grammaire: quels objectifs? quelles démarches? [Grammar teaching: what are the objectives and limitations?] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Canada), **11**, 1 (1989), 31-8.

Grammar has always been one of the main focuses in teaching the French language. Although no one has ever demonstrated the relevance of grammar teaching to a functional mastery of the language, no real questions have ever been raised concerning the objectives and methods of grammar teaching in the schools. In this article the authors attempt to

distinguish between two possible objectives for grammar instruction, and stress the importance of involving the students in activities that require them to think about the language. They also underscore the limitations of a strictly pedagogical approach to remedying the problem of the students' extremely poor writing skills.

90–81 Kline, Rebecca R. (Dickinson Coll., Carlisle, PA). Teaching advanced level students to hypothesize: proceeding one step at a time. *Foreign Language Annals* (New York), **22**, 3 (1989), 255–62.

Most textbook approaches to the linguistic function of hypothesising rely heavily on presentation of the conditional mood, thus neglecting simpler structures, lexical items, and strategies used by native speakers as they proceed incrementally through the 'cognitive/emotional range' representative of the hypothetical mood. Furthermore, in the majority of cases, intermediate- and advanced-level textbooks fail to lead students beyond the sentence-length utterance. This effectively limits their ability to

develop a number of linguistic functions, not the least of which is hypothesising.

This article discusses incrementally-organised instructional strategies for teaching students of French how to hypothesise. The organisation is based on the naturally-occurring phenomenon present in a French short story by Michelle Maurois, titled '*La Vie Conjugale*'. Instructional activities designed to aid students in developing their own mastery of this function are described.

90–82 Kornum, Lis (Christianshavns Gymnasium, Copenhagen). L'application des technologies nouvelles dans l'enseignement du français: expériences et avenir. [The application of new technology in the teaching of French: experiences and future.] *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **27**, 1 (1989), 25–9.

The use of computers to help teach French as a foreign language in a Danish school is described. Eight years ago computer software was not very suitable for teaching purposes. However, pupils quickly realised advantages, such as working individually and having faults corrected immediately. A class taught with the aid of a computer achieved far better results than a parallel class taught without one.

Simulations and computer games are often popular amongst teachers, but pupils are not always motivated by them to speak French and can quickly become bored. Games and simulations can be useful

aids in compiling a teaching programme such as *Un menu français*, devised by the author and others. Part I uses strip cartoons of everyday situations and can be used at all teaching levels. Part II consists of exercises on two levels and grammatical aids. Part III consists of information on French civilisation and exercises. The teaching programme was designed to be wide ranging and cover all the grammar of French; to allow the pupils themselves to write whole sentences; and be ready for immediate use. Other useful teaching aids are data bases (currently little used) and computer communication between schools.

90–83 Marchand, Frank (ENI de Paris). Français langue maternelle et français langue étrangère: facteurs de différenciation et proximités. [French as a native language and French as a foreign language: differences and similarities.] *Langue Française* (Paris), **82** (1989), 67–81.

In many French schools there are now children of foreign origin learning French. This article discusses differences and possible similarities between French taught as a native language (FLM) and French as a foreign language (FLE), taught in a French-speaking environment.

The current teaching of FLM and FLE is considered. There are many more teachers of FLM than of FLE. FLM long pre-dates the arrival of linguistics, whilst FLE is contemporary with it. FLM has close links with the universities, whilst FLE results from private, diverse and dispersed initiatives. One ministry deals with FLM; several deal with FLE. The relationship of FLM to linguistics is

different to that of FLE. Linguistics does not play a dominant role in FLM, which is less concerned with research than FLE. Different aims in learning also distinguish FLM from FLE, the principal aim of which consists in learning how the language functions, whilst FLM's aim is to use the language for cultural purposes.

When considering the science of teaching as an autonomous discipline, a rapprochement between FLM and FLE seems possible. Various advantages are evident on a scientific level, whilst on a strategic level questions are asked, such as whether the large scale FLM could benefit FLE.



90–84 Pestre de Almeida, Lilian (U. fédérale Fluminense, Rio de Janeiro). Pour l'interculturel: pratique et questions de méthode. [Interculture: practice and questions of methodology.] *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Canada), **11**, 1 (1989), 9–21.

This article attempts to discern intercultural conditions in the emerging, problem-ridden cultures of North and South America. Every teacher of French as a second language lives in an intercultural situation, whether or not French is his/her native language. However, the specificity of the dialogue between cultures must be dealt with in terms of the place from which one speaks. Indeed, now that the extension of capitalism has made the economies of countries more complementary with each other and exchanges have intensified through electronic media, it may seem an impossible task to try to establish intercultural differences. They do exist,

nonetheless, and intercultural forces come into play in ways differing according to the context. On the basis of critical reflections made by West Indians and Brazilians, the author discerns two imaginary models of American cultures, i.e. the fugitive slave model and the cultural cannibalism model, based on the notions of detour and return as means of analysing and apprehending surroundings. These notions should orient intercultural practice in the classroom. The author considers in particular intercultural fields such as translation, comparative studies of civilisation and literature, and conscious work on differences.

90–85 Querbach, Carl W. (U. of Windsor). Teaching French gender through a computerised approach based on phonology. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Canada), **10**, 2 (1988), 81–91.

This paper addresses the severe difficulties which anglophone students of French encounter in trying to determine the gender of French nouns they wish to use and in organising the often confusing data in such a way that the correct genders can be remembered. It presents a short, easily understood system of rules for gender determination based on phonetic terminations, supplemented, where necessary, by orthographic criteria. The system consists of

three parts: (1) A list of semantic, grammatical and historical considerations which, when they apply, take precedence over the phonetic/orthographic rules; (2) the phonetic/orthographic rules, arranged into three levels of difficulty and accompanied by lists of exceptions to the rules; and (3) computer-aided learning materials designed to facilitate mastery of the system.

90–86 Rivenc-Chiclet, M.-M. (U. of Toulouse – Le Mirail). Méthodologies, enseignement, apprentissage d'une langue étrangère. [Methods, teaching, and learning a foreign language.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **90** (1989), 49–81.

The concept of learner-centred teaching is examined in two Level 1 French language courses, *De Vive Voix* (1972) and *Archipel 1* (1982), which are representative of the two dominant didactic trends of the last 30 years – the Structuro-Global Audio-Visual approach and the Communicative Approach. In the author's opinion, although *Archipel* has completely altered the way in which the language is presented, and has also partially used more flexible teaching methodology, *De Vive Voix* is more attentive to the psycholinguistic and pedagogical

realities of learning. The author's opinion is based on her own practical experience of the two courses and an analysis of the progression of the lessons as proposed by their authors.

De Vive Voix and *Archipel* have complementary qualities. What is now needed is a synthesis of the two which takes into account the theoretical advances of the last few years, especially in the field of psycholinguistics, and also a proposal for a new kind of progression based not only on the language but also on the different stages of learning.

German

90–87 Johnson, Jo Ellen (Montgomery County Public Schools) **and Markham, Paul L.** (U. of Maryland). Evaluating secondary school German textbooks: how communicative are they? *Die Unterrichtspraxis/Teaching German* (Philadelphia, PA), **22**, 1 (1989), 41–5.

The purpose of this exploratory study was to evaluate four recent series of German textbooks, intended for use by first- and second-year students in the American secondary-school system, to determine whether these textbooks were likely to lead the foreign language students to increased communicative ability. The exercises in each text were categorised according to Paulston and Bruder's

classification system: mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. The results revealed that textbook authors devoted no more than 11 to 28 per cent of the exercises to communicative activity. It was also determined that the second-year texts were only slightly more communicative than the first-year texts.

Italian

90–88 Sinyor, Roberta (York U.). Group writing with computers: a pilot study in Italian. *Bulletin of the CAAL* (Montreal, Canada), **10**, 2 (1988) 93–7.

This paper describes a year-long pilot study on group learning using computers to assist in the writing of Italian composition. The main objectives were to ascertain whether student groups produced a better composition than in the traditional classroom setting and whether the computer motivated

them in their group work. Informal observations of the writing groups suggested that the second aim was achieved while the first one could not be confirmed. More importantly, with computers functioning as a catalyst, students took responsibility for their own learning.

Russian

90–89 March, Cynthia (U. of Nottingham). Some observations on the use of video in the teaching of modern languages. *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **27**, 1 (1989), 13–17.

Work with video with first-year undergraduates of Russian is described. The equipment was minimal: two video recorders and one television camera. The first stage takes place as part of a course based in the language laboratory during which the emphasis is on comprehension of various kinds of taped material. It begins with a monitoring exercise, with a short dramatic sequence on video providing the basic material. The task is to write a transcription of the scene; after correction of the scripts, groups are formed and students produce their own version of the scene ready for filming, which is the third stage. During the playback session, points to note are language errors and body language. This method has valuable benefits for pronunciation, etc., and helps students to be objective about their language

'performance'. One possible pitfall is that tactless handling can destroy confidence.

The next stage, taking place several weeks later, is the introduction of a video made by the teacher of an interview between herself and a native speaker. The filming task for the students is to conduct an interview without a script, so that the language spoken is extempore. The final stage involves students in making their own film, either fictitious or documentary, with five minutes filming time. The aim is to improve language use, not to train actors or make quality films. These exercises with video benefit the majority of students, building confidence and self-awareness. These students went on to make a longer film outside course-time.

90–90 Koshanova, N. I. О восприятии устно-разговорной речи. Материалы и сообщения. [About the understanding of oral–colloquial speech. Materials and information.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **2** (1989), 69–73.

One of the most important problems facing a student newly arrived in the USSR is that of adaptation to a new communicative medium. Students are generally more competent at reading than at speaking; they often have a large ‘passive’ stock of words, but possess a limited range of spoken language. Various facets of spoken language are described: its subjective nature, its spontaneity, its repetitions. A classification system of spoken language is given which distinguishes four levels or skills of understanding: differentiating linguistic units or of determining the meanings of words; picking out key words; summarising the details of

the content; and understanding the information given.

Two types of dialogue are considered, situational and thematic (of which the topics are more free-ranging and creative). Various factors, such as the way certain words are used, can help in the understanding of spoken dialogue. For example, *vo* is commonly used, either alone or with other words. It can signal the beginning of conversation, its continuation or completion, as well as other functions. By considering all these points, a strategy for understanding spoken language can be evolved.