# Teaching particular languages

### **English**

90–193 Bahns, Jens. Kollokationen als Korrekturproblem im Englischunterricht. [Collocations as a correction problem in English teaching.] Die Neueren Sprachen (Frankfurt am Main), 88, 5 (1989), 497-514.

Collocations can pose problems not only for learners of English, but also for teachers, especially when they mark students' papers. Teachers may, of course, consult dictionaries. General dictionaries of English, however, seldom cover all possible collocations of lexical items to a sufficient degree. This paper

analyses and compares two specialised dictionaries of English devoted to the problem of word combination from the point of view of the teacher who has the task of spotting and correcting collocational errors in students' papers.

90–194 Beedham, Christopher and Bloor, Meriel (U. of Aston). English for computer science and the formal realisation of communicative functions. Fachsprache (Vienna), **11,** 1/2 (1989), 13–24.

The investigation on which the present paper is based had two aims. The first was the practical aim of performing a (communicative-)functional analysis of that variety of English used in the computer sciences. The second objective was theoretical, i.e. to examine the relationship between communicative function and lexico-grammatical form: to try to uncover the formal realisation of communicative functions in language.

The first aim arose out of the need to run a course of English in the Language Studies Unit for Aston's overseas pre-M.Sc. computer science students. The second aim arose from the authors' feeling that language course writers have been too hasty in basing courses on an entity, the communicative function or notion, about which so very little is known. They wanted to be sure exactly what it is we are doing when we teach students communicative functions.

The article presents the results of a (communicative-)functional analysis of three computer science textbooks. A total of thirteen functions are given, but the authors concentrate on one of them, the desription of algorithms, to illustrate the relationship between communicative function and form. They show: (i) that any given form appears in nearly all the communicative functions, and (ii) that any given communicative function is realised in several different forms. They conclude from this that there can be no inherent connection between form and communicative function. It is proposed that there is an apparent close 'association' between form and communicative function only when the grammatical function (i.e. the meaning) of a form coincides with the communicative function in which it appears. Non-associated forms can appear in a communicative function because lexical items are the formal markers of the communicative function. Therefore communicative functions must be realised primarily by lexis, and only secondarily by grammatical form. The implication for language teaching is that greater attention must be paid to vocabulary development if students are to acquire communicative competence.

Bertoldi, Elizabeth and others. Learning how to learn English: from awareness to action. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **42**, 3 (1988), 157–66.

This article describes a three-step process of autonomisation designed for adult students within the framework of an intensive ESL program of the Canadian federal government. The process begins by raising students' awareness of individual linguistic strengths and weaknesses. Next, students are encouraged to set personal priorities for areas which

require most attention. Then, students take action in a variety of ways which suit their learning styles and strategies. The article explains the way in which the process is reinforced throughout the major components of the program. [Case study of one student's experience as he worked through this process.]

Brennan, Moya and van Naerssen, Margaret. Language and content in ESP. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **43,** 3 (1989), 196–205.

In higher-education settings where English is a lecturers in English for Specific Purposes (ESP) to medium of instruction, it is very important for 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' concern 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.

**90–197** Davies, Alan (U. of Edinburgh). Is International English an interlanguage? *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **23**, 3 (1989), 447–67.

A connection between two major developments in applied linguistics and language-teaching studies in recent years, English as an international language and interlanguage, is made in this article. Three problems addressed are (a) whether it is possible to define English as an international language and whether or not it makes sense to distinguish it from any other kind of English; (b) whether it makes sense to speak of the learner as having a language, whether learners everywhere all follow the same route, and whether it makes any difference what sort of input they receive; and (c) the relation between theory and practice in language teaching. It

is argued that a language variety needs prestige to be regarded as a standard, which raises problems for certain ESL situations. Two major alternatives open to international languages have been put forward: (i) an existing language, either as itself or simplified in some way, and (ii) an artificial language. Whereas English as an international language deals with societal varieties, interlanguage, on the other hand, is an account of individual variation. Both are necessary approaches to language in use, but neither can be incorporated in the other. It is pointed out that the concept of language proficiency may act as a link between the social and the individual concerns.

**90–198** Girard, Denis (Paris Inspectorate). Communication ou culture: faut-il choisir? [Communication or culture: do we have to make a choice?] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **38**, 5 (1989), 25–33.

There is no fundamental antagonism between the teaching of communication and of culture, and both are considered complementary in the requirements for English teaching in the first and second cycle of French schools. The apparent incompatibility derives from the impulse of communicative teaching, particularly the 'Threshold Level', to make mastery of survival oral skills the first objective of teaching. To achieve this, the focus falls on the learner, and the omniscient and dominant teacher has had to recede into the background, along with 'explication

de textes', which was a favoured method of teaching both language and culture together.

Both aims can be reconciled by allowing students to interact on the basis of cultural data, whether literature or more utilitarian. Examples are given and it is shown that cultural data thus used enhance rather than inhibit communication. Communication is induced by pedagogic procedures, whereas cultural knowledge derives from content, and so there is no conflict requiring us to make a choice.

**90–199** Hirvela, Alan and Boyle, Joseph (Chinese U., Hong Kong). *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **42**, 3 (1988), 179–84.

A questionnaire was given to second-year students of English language and literature (Hong Kong Chinese, first language Cantonese) at Hong Kong University, to discover how they felt about studying literature. The students were working adults studying part-time in the evenings; their attitude to literature was less enthusiastic than their attitude to English language. Responses showed that the stu-

dents have many fears and anxieties about studying literature, especially poetry, partly because of their lack of background in literature.

Teachers were agreed that the language of the chosen texts should be contemporary, that literature can usefully be approached as a particular example of discourse, that reading a literary work can be a valuable personal experience which can lead to

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increased emotional awareness and maturity, and that the study of literature can develop the critical faculty.

In current courses, short stories are used to introduce the students to prose fiction. Then follow

longer novels and some drama. Clear language and interesting themes are essential; it is best if novels have direct relevance to the students' situation, e.g. Sons and Lovers, A Passage to India and 1984.

**90–200 Holden, Nigel.** The treatment of language and linguistic issues in the current English-language international management literature. *Multilingua* (Amsterdam), **6**, 3 (1987), 233–46.

A survey of nearly 500 English-language management texts, of which approximately half are wholly or partly devoted to international business matters, has revealed that only a small proportion of the authors treat language issues at all and that these issues are handled with perfunctory brevity and frequent ignorance of linguistic fact. On the other hand the survey highlights an extraordinary range of language topics which that small proportion of

authors mention. Given that only one of the authors reviewed has made it his business to consult linguistics literature, it is only too evident that linguistics has had minimal impact on the development of the management sciences. Reasons are adduced to account for this situation and it is argued that those linguists who aspire to an integration of linguistics into the management sciences face a herculean task.

**90–201** Kharma, Nayef N. and Hajjaj, Ali H. (Kuwait U.). Use of the mother tongue in the ESL classroom. *IRAL* (Heidelberg, FRG), **27**, 3 (1989), 223–35.

An attempt is made to investigate and evaluate the use of the mother tongue in teaching a second/ foreign language. After reviewing the literature relating firstly to the place given to this aspect by the various approaches to foreign/second language learning and teaching, and then to the use of the mother tongue irrespective of the approach adopted and employed, a field-study was conducted in which teachers, supervisors, and students were asked about their attitudes to the issue and also about their actual use of the mother tongue and the situations and the purposes for which they use it. Data from class observation were also collected.

It was found that most non-native teachers use their own mother tongue to some degree in teaching a second language, and that they accept the use of the mother tongue by their students, whatever their level, though mother-tongue use decreases as L2 experience increases. It is mainly used to explain difficult lexical items or grammatical points, or to provide a context of situation for the 'communicative' use of the L2. Most teachers believe use of the mother tongue facilitates L2 teaching and learning. Students find the use of the mother tongue to be helpful.

The use of the mother tongue in the L2 classroom should be systematised and controlled. It should have a 'framing function' at the beginning and end of the lesson, provide a context for presentation and practice, provide explanation for certain new items or complex grammatical constructions, draw comparisons between the L2 and the mother tongue, for checking comprehension and free reading, for explaining cultural aspects of the L2, for translation activities and in code-switching. The mother tongue should not, however, be over-used.

**90–202** Morrison, Bruce (Tsing Hua U., Beijing, China). Using news broadcasts for authentic listening comprehension. *ELT Journal* (Oxford), **43**, 1 (1989), 14–18.

Authentic listening materials can and should be used at all levels of ELT from beginners to advanced, because it is only through exposure from the initial learning stages that the learner can fully integrate the individual listening micro-skills that may be isolated and presented by the teacher. The radio offers authentic material designed for native speakers but the topics are often of international relevance; content can be selected which is interesting and

motivating for the student; English is being used to communicate something real.

Two examples are given of lesson outlines for exploiting the same World Service radio news broadcast for two different linguistic levels, elementary and advanced. Quite a lot of preparation by the teacher is needed but the material is flexible, highly motivating and widely exploitable.

**90–203** Olsen, Roger E. W.-B. A survey of limited English proficient student enrolments and identification criteria. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **23**, 3 (1989), 469–88.

This article reports the results of a national survey of limited English proficient (LEP) student enrollment (K-12 and adult) conducted in the winter of 1988-89. The survey found that (a) although there are many students enrolled in the nation's schools who are reported as LEP, there may be three to six times

as many who are in need of specialised instruction and (b) there continues to be considerable variation in identification criteria as well as in reporting procedures used by the states. Thus, the term 'limited English proficient' does not yet have uniform significance nationwide.

**90–204** Peirce, Bronwyn Norton (Ontario Inst. for Studies in Ed.). Toward a pedagogy of possibility in the teaching of English internationally: People's English in South Africa. *TESOL Quarterly* (Washington, DC), **23**, 3 (1989), 401–20.

In recent years, a number of ESL professionals have pointed to the ambivalent role of English in different parts of the world. Whose interests are served in the teaching of English internationally? What is the significance, for teachers and learners of English, of the debate on the 'new marriage' between language and politics (Walters, 1989)? In seeking to address these questions, this article draws on a poststructural theory of language to challenge the hegemony of 'communicative competence' as an adequate formulation of principles on which to base the teaching

of English internationally. It argues that the teaching of English can open up possibilities for students by helping them to explore what might be desirable, as well as 'appropriate', uses of English. By way of example, the article examines the current movement in South Africa for 'People's English': how teachers and learners of English are attempting to resolve the ambivalent role of English in South Africa by appropriating the language in the interests of freedom and possibility for all South Africans.

**90–205** Ragan, Peter H. (Embry-Riddle Aeronautical U., Daytona Beach, FL). Applying functional grammar to teaching the writing of ESL. *Word* (Mitford, CT), **40**, 1/2 (1989), 117–21.

Tertiary-level foreign students writing in English, while aware of meaning potential in their own language, have little experience of English in use outside the classroom, and limited practice in choosing language appropriate to a given context. Task-based language learning activities exist, but there is a need for development of more materials which provide contextualised writing practice, for specific purposes and audiences. There is also a need for students to be encouraged to evaluate written texts, and discuss how to communicate more effectively in a given situation.

An experiment was carried out by English-

speaking and foreign students in which they were asked to write sets of instructions. The sets were then compared and differences and similarities discussed, particularly in terms of clause relations, cohesion, word counts, and whether spoken instructions are different from written ones. By applying such text analysis techniques students can be made aware of the range and effectiveness of various ways of expressing meaning, in given contexts, and are provided with a means of improving their awareness of the meaning potential of English.

**90–206** Richards, Keith (Aston U.). Pride and prejudice: the relationship between ESP and training. *English for Specific Purposes* (New York), **8** (1989), 207–322.

The relationship between training and ESP has not always been an easy one. This paper argues that the relative neglect of research into training by ESP practitioners has been unwarranted and presents the case for a shift in perspective. It seeks to show that training is a much broader concept than is often assumed and that at both theoretical and practical levels it has much in common with our own discipline. The relationship between training and

education is explored and lines of possible collaboration are outlined. A case is made for the development of greater sensitivity to training practices and the broader organisational context in which they operate. Finally, areas of potential benefit to ESP are indicated, and it is suggested that there are strong reasons for turning attention to training as soon as possible.

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**90–207** Robb, Thomas N. (Kyoto Sangyo U., Japan) and Susser, Bernard (Soshisha Women's Junior Coll., Japan). Extensive reading vs skills building in an EFL context. *Reading in a Foreign Language* (Oxford), **5**, 2 (1989), 239–51.

Reading has been taught by the translation procedure in EFL situations such as Japan, but today there is a trend towards the use of ESL-type 'skills building' text books and procedures and, to a much lesser extent, towards extensive reading. There is a considerable difference between these two procedures, not only for teachers and learners, but also for the allocation of institutional resources. Despite this, there is little useful research comparing them.

This paper examines previous research on extensive reading, and then describes an experiment comparing the improvement of reading comprehension by Japanese college freshmen taught by either a skills-based or extensive reading procedure. The results suggest that extensive reading may be at least as effective as skills-building, with the important advantage that is more interesting for the learners.

**90–208** Tosi, Arturo (U. of London Schools Examining Board). Neither the customer's language nor customised English. *Lingua a Nuova Didattica* (Rome), **18**, 2 (1989), 30–41.

An Italian introduction explains that the article is a discussion under the rubric 'languages and the right to work', a concept loaded with ambivalent implications which are discussed in the preamble. The subsequent discussion is largely confined to work-related language teaching in Europe, though the imbalance between US and Japan in both language competence and trade is highlighted. The universal need for business is to train speakers of the customers' languages and thus has led to the provision of ever more specialised language courses, which, on the basis of the impoverished and narrow provision for languages in British schools, is unlikely to resolve the problem. Other European countries have a better record in language learning and have the advantage of being able to concentrate on

English as a business lingua franca. The enormous growth in English teaching, and of more specialised varieties of English, is highlighted.

This purely utilitarian demand for lanaguages, however, deflects attention from the need for good provision in schools from an early age where monolingual children can best be introduced to both language and foreign cultures, and bilingual children helped to maintain their adopted and ancestral languages. The teaching of school subjects in a foreign language, particularly European history, would greatly assist in this and help meet the need for cultural and behavioural knowledge of foreign communities, now increasingly demanded by business.

### **French**

**90–209** Bate, Michèle (U. of Reading). C'en sont des sons. [What a lot of sounds!] Français dans le Monde (Paris), **226** (1989), 55–61.

This article offers a selection of games and puzzles for advanced learners of French, all based on the sounds of words. Examples include making up dialogues based on the sounds of the letters of the alphabet; responding with words ending in a certain syllable; poems based on particular sounds; tongue-

twisters; inventing meanings for unknown or nonsense words on the evidence of their sound. Such exercises are not communicative in the normal sense but can be fun and can heighten awareness of phonetic aspects of language and eliminate certain pronunciation problems.

**90–210 Compte, Carmen** (BELC and CEIP, Paris). L'image animé dans l'apprentissage du français langue étrangère. ['Moving pictures' and teaching French as a foreign language.] *Langue Française* (Paris), **83** (1989), 32–50.

'Moving pictures' (a comprehensive term covering all types of film and video material) have an important contribution to make within the context of a communicative approach to language teaching.

The familiarity of the visual language of cinema and television assists comprehension and facilitates learning, brings greater realism and authenticity to the classroom and throws light on the socio-cultural background. Materials need to be carefully chosen and skilfully presented in order to evoke the active interest and participation of learners.

The wide and varied selection of video material available to the teacher – whether specifically designed for the language classroom or of general interest and intended for a wider public – is de-

scribed, and ways of using and exploiting it in class are suggested. Modern computer technology has also made available a limited range of interactive materials, which combine both the communicative and the cognitive aspects of language acquisition and use. However, the teacher retains the role of mediator.

**90–211 Courtillon, Janine** (ENS – Saint-Cloud – CREDIF). Lexique et apprentissage de la langue. [Lexis and language learning.] *Français dans le Monde* (Paris), special number, Aug/Sept (1989), 146–53.

Lexis is more important than syntax and morphology in the early stages of both the acquisition and the learning of language. It is vital, however, that the point of departure of exercises that will encourage the most effective learning should be the pupil's own spontaneous use of language. Three stages of vocabulary learning are described: (a)

'natural acquisition of lexis', (b) the ability to give equivalent meanings, and (c) the ability to compare lexical items. Classroom techniques encouraging 'natural acquisition' at each of these stages are demonstrated [suggestions for specific exercises are made at each stage].

**90–212 Duda, Richard.** Autonomisation et scolarisation [sic] en milieu scolaire. [Learner autonomy and socialisation in the school.] *Mélanges Pédagogiques* (Nancy), 1988. 49–57.

Activities of a type leading to learner autonomy can also assist pupils' socialisation since both involve acquisition of the same skills: teamwork, problem recognition, negotiation, decision-making, problem solving and evaluation. Both individual and group work can foster autonomy but, given the large classes to be found in both secondary schools and universities, preference has to be given to group work.

Autonomous-type activities comprise three phases: linguistic input, demonstration and experimentation. In the experimental phase the learners' right to make errors has to be recognised. Errors can be fruitful, and are a way of learning. Though learner autonomy is not a cure-all, for some students the process of discovery and self-discovery can itself be highly motivating.

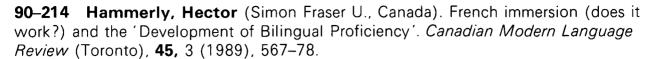
**90–213** Esarte-Sarries, Veronica (U. of Durham). 'Onions and stripey tee-shirts' or how do primary pupils learn about France? *British Journal of Language Teaching*, **27**, 2 (1989), 65–71.

During a project on the effect of secondary-school language teaching upon the perception of other peoples (principally the French), information was gathered from primary pupils on their views of different aspects of French culture (so as to determine how pupils viewed France and the French prior to beginning structured language learning in the secondary school).

It was found that 45 per cent of the primary pupils had been abroad, but only 15 per cent had been on holiday in France. Thus, for the majority, impressions of France were gained from other sources, especially television (news, comedy programmes like 'Allo 'Allo'). French was often equated with anything 'foreign'. Other sources of infor-

mation were books, opinions of friends or relatives who had visited France, French-speaking relatives (rare), exchange visits of older siblings, French food, and memories of holidays in France.

These types of images of France and French culture are often inaccurate and stereotyped. Pupils need to be helped to go beyond viewing everything from a British norm. Gender affected attitudes even before language learning had started, girls having a more favourable attitude than boys. Pupils have access to a wide (even bewildering) array of information, but often lack guidance in making sense of it. Negative attitudes among boys tended to continue into secondary education, which is disquieting.



The history of French Immersion (FI) reveals that it has consistently been supported by the establishment despite counterevidence published by certain researchers. In the three-volume 1987 report Development of Bilingual Proficiency, OISE leaders acknowledge that there are serious problems with FI but fall far short of admitting that the philosophical foundations of FI are faulty and that therefore FI not only does not but cannot produce graduates whose

output is grammatical. This article sketches the background of FI; refers to some of the counter-evidence and how it has been received; discusses the findings published in this report in light of pedagogical rather than theoretical second language acquisition assumptions; and briefly outlines an alternative road to bilingualism through classroom instruction.

**90–215** Lamy, André. La grammaire, partie intégrante de l'acquisition. [Grammar, the integrative part of acquisition.] *Etudes de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), **74** (1989), 19–35.

Defining acquisition as 'progressive access to a knowledge of how to understand and produce a foreign language', the article demonstrates how grammar, in its currently rehabilitated form allied with communication, provides a stabilising framework from which time-saving generalisations can be made to acquire new language, thus accelerating and consolidating the acquisition process. As acquisition proceeds, the framework adjusts.

Three stereotypes of students are proposed: the 'communicators', the 'repeaters' and the 'conceptualisers'. The various elements of the acquisition process are shown to benefit each differentially but the 'conceptualisers' seem to benefit most from

grammar, though all benefit from the fact that the rules for language to which they have been exposed are made explicit. This confirms or corrects tentative hypotheses they may have already made on the basis of raw data.

A diagram illustrates the relationships and eight detailed examples of the acquisition of grammatical points in French are provided. Four theses should underlie grammar teaching: (1) that one form has one function, (2) that one form can have several functions, (3) that several different forms can perform the same function, and (4) that several forms will have several functions.

**90–216** Lodge, Anthony (U. of Newcastle upon Tyne). Beyond GCSE in French – a university view. *Modern Languages* (London), **70**, 3 (1989), 141–4.

Modern Language departments in universities are increasingly optimistic about the future of their disciplines. Languages (European ones, at least) are held in higher esteem and greater importance is being attached to them in the proposed National Curriculum. University French departments are generally enthusiastic about developments at GCSE, A-level and A/S level. There is, however, no guarantee of enough qualified modern language teachers to teach the National Curriculum, and the fate of languages other than French is uncertain. At

18+, the traditional primacy of the written word has given way to greater emphasis on the spoken word. Communicative competence embraces grammatical competence; it does not displace it. Textbooks are needed which provide solid and readable descriptions of the grammar of spoken French for the benefit of teachers. 'Culture' in the new A-level and degree courses is being defined in broader terms than before. The role of literature is being reduced.

**90–217** Wiss, Corrinne. Early French immersion programmes may not be suitable for every child. *Canadian Modern Language Review* (Toronto), **45,** 3 (1989), 517–29.

The question of whether or not French immersion programmes are suitable for all children has concerned educators and researchers for some years.

This paper presents the case study of a child who may represent a subgroup of children who are not developmentally ready to handle the linguistic demands of a second language in an academic setting. Data from the case study suggest the need

for new paradigms to research issues of the suitability of early French immersion for all children.

#### German

**90–218 Ammon, Ulrich** (UG Duisburg, FRG). Zur Geschichte der Sprachverbreitungspolitik der Bundesrepublik Deutschland von den anfängen bis 1985. Kommentierte Dokumentation der Diskussion im Bundestag mit anschließendem Ausblick. [A discussion of the West German politics of German language teaching from the early days until 1985.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Berlin, FRG), **3** (1989), 229–63.

The government of the Federal Republic of Germany, like the governments of various other countries, maintains a policy for the German language abroad within the framework of its foreign cultural policy. Its aim is to spread the German language abroad, or at least to halt its decline. This article documents and comments on the discussion of this policy in the Bundestag (including reports submitted) in the period 1949–85. The points clarified include, among others, the conceptual

development of this policy, the way in which it is influenced by political circumstances (e.g. relations between East and West) and by the changing international status of the German language, and the differences and similarities in the views of the political parties. It is hoped that this article will help direct the attention of linguistics to this politicolinguistic research field, which has so far been neglected.

**90–219** Cieutat-Merly, Brigitte (U. of Strasbourg). Grammaire et approche communicative ou l'inséparabilité des contradictoires. [Grammar and the communicative approach, or the inseparability of opposites.] *Langues Modernes* (Paris), **38**, 5 (1989), 35–49.

Teachers of German in France have been slow to adopt the communicative approach, but they are now doing so and learning from the mistakes of the early starters. Grammar teaching remains essential, but communicative considerations can guide what is taught (e.g. excluding the genitive and the future from early teaching) and what theory is used (a valency grammar is suggested). Rules should be

learned inductively and related to affective variables. The examples given are subdivided into grammar exercises and games: for the former, it is important to provide a concrete and clearly explained situation; for the latter, the information-gap principle is paramount, and unnessary error correction should be avoided.

**90–220 Sagarra, Eda.** The German language in Ireland; a personal view of its recent history and its support system in the late 1980s. *Teangolas* (Dublin, Ireland), **26** (1989), 12–19.

The context in which Irish teachers of languages work is different from, and more favourable than, that in the UK. This could be one reason for the resurgence of German in the Republic's schools although in 1987/8, only 4.9% of all senior cycle pupils studied German as compared with 62.5% who studied French. But since 1988 there has been an explosive demand for German sustained by a number of factors: an awareness campaign mounted by teachers of German, increased numbers of German tourists, German firms operating in Ireland,

the needs of Irish exporters and increased employment opportunities in the Federal Republic. Educational reform has also contributed to the process, as well as the enhanced role of German institutions, especially the Goethe Institute, in promoting in-service training, seminars and conferences. However, financial stringency could reduce the numbers of teachers of German and further growth could be checked by the importance of the British labour market for Ireland and the dominant position of English within the EEC.

#### Russian

**90–221 Daver, M. V.** Грамматические рифмовки (в помощь учителю русского языка как иностранного). [Grammar rhymes as an aid to teaching Russian as a foreign language.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1989), 50–2.

The use of rhymes in teaching Russian to foreigners facilitates a more rapid acquisition of grammatical forms and a more spontaneous activation of them in class. Rhymes are in themselves interesting and entertaining. They can be classified under three headings (phonetic, lexical and grammatical) according to the aims of the lesson. Work with rhymes consists of two stages: (1) learning and

memorising them, and (2) practising the grammatical patterns, etc., which they illustrate. A number of suggestions are given on how to organise classroom activities: group work, team work, competitions, information gap exercises. Six examples of rhymes are given, illustrating stress, adjectival agreement, numerals, verbs, impersonal constructions and nouns.

**90–222 Gorbachek, A. L.** 'Еще' или 'уже'? ['Still' or 'already'?] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **4** (1989), 33–8.

The use of the words yeshcho and uzhe usually pose problems for learners of Russian. The former is used when a previous situation obtains contrary to expectations and refers to past time, whereas the latter is used to denote a change in the previous situation and the beginning of a new one, thus

referring to future time [examples]. A further distinction is that *yeshcho* refers to a period preceding an event and stresses its remoteness, whereas *uzhe* stresses its speed and topicality [examples]. Further examples are given of usages in specific contexts. [The bulk of the article consists of 27 exercises.]

**90–223 Kostromina**, **M**. **V**. Составные слова, называющие предметы двойного назначения, в современном русском языке. [Compound words, of two components, in contemporary Russian language.] *Русский язык за рубежом* (Moscow), **3** (1989), 35–40.

This article discusses the compound word and the ways in which a student can discover its meaning. Compound words such as *lyotchik-kosmonavt* are often found in contemporary Russian. New compound words are constantly being formed, using previous words as models. The press, in particular, is a rich source of new word creations.

The first step towards discovering the meaning of compound words is to find the meaning of each component word from the dictionary – although difficulties exist in choosing the right interpretation for each word. To help the student recognise the right meaning, exercises are suggested. Familiarity

with semantic models of compound words should help students understand their meaning. Exercises are again suggested, such as replacing the components of the compound word with a more common name. The context in which the compound word is found can often help in understanding it. More exercises are suggested, such as choosing the correct interpretation of particular compound words, where a choice of meaning is given to the student; or asking the student to imagine that there is no word in Russian for 'newspaper' or 'armchair' and what compound words could be made up to name these objects.

90–224 Ryabova, A. E. (U. of Moscow). Проблемность как один из способов реализации взаимосвязанного обучения видам речевой деятельности. [A problem-solving approach as one of the methods of realising interlinked training for aspects of spoken activity.] Русский язык за рубежом (Moscow), 4 (1989), 61–6.

A problem-solving approach to learning for students is recommended in this article. This approach concentrates more on thinking and on resolving problems, than on the use of perception or memory. The teacher creates conditions in which the student can discover educational knowledge for himself,

rather than the teacher dictating and illustrating all the relevant educational ideas (although other methods can still be used). This type of teaching is useful in a wide variety of educational fields.

The practical aspects of a problem-solving approach are reviewed. The initial stages of instruction

are examined in detail. The discussion of topics (based on problem situations) in groups is suggested as an early type of work for relatively inexperienced students. The usual texts of domestic themes can be used as the basis for the discussion of themes such as social causes. Three steps of work organisation are envisaged: the first consists of knowledge about the

situation; the second raises the problem and the third gives solutions.

Several types of discussion work are considered – texts can be used to enable the students to make suppositions about events and people, or to stimulate social topics, or several texts can be considered together to provide material for a common theme.