



The II International Conference «METHODS OF TEACHING ORIENTAL LANGUAGES: ACTUAL PROBLEMS AND TRENDS»

Abstracts

Methods of Teaching Japanese

May 14-15, 2014

May 14

1. Numano Mitsuyoshi: Russian Literature in Japan: Translation, Reception and Influence (a Brief Survey) (p. 3)

2. Strizhak Uliana: Desiderata for the New Paradigm of Japanese Language Teaching (p. 4)

3. Kireeva Maria: Metshods of Teaching Basic Japanese to the 1st Year Students (p. 5)

4. Jain Roli: Teachong of Japanese Speech Etiquette in Russia: Importance, Barriers. Metshods (p. 6)

5. Bessonova Elena: Role of Adjectives in Teaching Japanese at the Starting Level (p. 7)

6. Korsakova Ekaterina: Teaching Japanese to Adult Students: A Theoretic Course for Students and Young Teachers of Japanese (p. 7)

7. Zhukovskaya Nadezhda: The Phraseological Competence of the Freshmen University Students Taught Japanese Idioms (p. 9)

8. Vlasova Nataliya: Concerning the Problem of Teaching *beneficial constructions* in the Grammatical Course of Japanese Language (p. 10)

May 15

1. Kimoto Megumi: Teacher's Questions in the Classroom: How Teacher's Questions Elicit Learners' Output (p. 11)

2. Dubrovskaya Tatiana: Using Communicative Method in the Process of Teaching Vocabulary at the Japanese Lessons (p. 13)

3. Ogata Taro: Reexamining of Pedadodical Grammar of Japanese as Foreign Language: A Case Study of Teaching *passive* in Russia (p. 13)

4. Rumak Natalia: Teaching Techniques of Oral Japanese at Different Stages of Learning (p. 15)

Oguma Rie: Home Visit Project in Languge Learning in Foreign Countries (p. 16)

6. Farizova Nina: Linguistic Consciousness as a Factor in Language Acquisition (p. 17)

Russian Literature in Japan: Translation, Reception, and Influence (A Brief Survey)

Mitsuyoshi Numano, The University of Tokyo, Japan

It is well known that Russian literature influenced the formation of modern Japanese literature in a decisive way. In 1889, when Roan Uchida read *Crime and Punishment* by Dostoevsky for the first time in English translation, he was surprised "as if he was struck by a thunder in the midst of a vast steppe" and decided immediately to translate it into Japanese. It was the kind of literature that Japan had never known before. Roan Uchida didn't know Russian, so he translated the novel from English, but he was well aware of the danger of such indirect translation and consulted with his friend Shimei Futabatei, who had a wonderful mastery of Russian. As it turned out, Futabatei's deep knowledge of Russian literature was crucial in his struggle for the new Japanese literary language, and his translation of the "Svidanie" from *The Hunter's Sketches* by Turgenev became a breakthrough in the process of searching for new realistic style in Japanese literature.

Thus, from the 1880's on, a vast amount of modern Russian literature (basically nineteenthcentury prose) was translated into Japanese and acquired an enormous readership in Japan. The influence, however, was not limited to the Japanese archipelago: it went across the borders and reached Korea and China. The influence of Russian on Japanese literature has been well traced by specialists of comparative literature in Japan and Russia: there are a huge number of articles and monographs devoted to the study of the influence of such individual writers, as Tolstoy, Dostoevsky, Turgenev, and Chekov, on modern Japanese writers. Therefore we can say that the genealogical "tree" (to use the terminology of Franco Moretti) has been studied fairly well. On the other hand, the horizontal "wave" of influence (Russia→Japan→Korea and China) attracted little attention so far.

It should be also stressed that Russian literature still continues to play a great role in the consciousness of the Japanese readership in various ways. First, there is a remarkable "wave" of translations of both the 19th-century Russian classics and newly translated modern works. The former includes a series of so-called "new translations of classics", including the famous new translation of The Brothers Karamazov which was newly translated by Ikuo Kameyama and becaom a million seller. The latter includes translations of such various authors as Nabokov, Vaginov, Krzhizhaonvskii, Sasha Sokolov, Siniavskii, Petrushevskya, Tolstaya, Dovlatov, Brodskii, Ulitskaya, Sorokin, Pelevin, Akunin, Shishkin.

Desiderata for the new paradigm of Japanese language teaching

Strizhak Uliana, Institute of Foreign Languages, Russia

Nowadays we are experiencing a big change of the communication pattern all over the world which means that the different languages and cultures are confronted. Therefore, the goals of language education are also the subject to change: for successful communication we should have clear understanding not only of the grammar, lexicon, culture patterns, but also of the *pragmatic background* of the message, in the other words, understand how context contributes to meaning.

Analyzing current situation with the Japanese language teaching materials we can discover that due to the long academic tradition of teaching Japanese in Russia the basic concept of some courses and textbooks does not meet modern expectations of the language learners. To go beyond the traditional Japanese language education we would like to demonstrate how the results of the applied linguistics and pragmatics may contribute to the foreign languages teaching process, whereas at the moment this contribution is still poor.

It is well known that the national way of thinking reflected in a language couldn't be translated directly into other languages as it may cause cross-cultural misunderstanding and miscommunication. Let's consider how the perception of the linguistic vision reflected in the grammar patterns could help us to identify and correctly interpret such kind of discrepancy in different languages. Moreover, how it could prevent possible errors in the learning process of these languages.

By the investigation of the different research papers we have identified a few basic features of the Japanese linguistic vision which is manifested, e.g. in the predominance in the Japanese language utterances, describing the *state* rather than an *active action* in terms of functioning of such grammatical categories as *transitivity* and *intransitivity*. In the learning process of the foreign languages students should be taught first to detect and describe the patterns of the native language-specific view of the world and then investigate the linkage and their reflection in the target foreign language. In this paper practical illustrations and examples from the fiction will be presented to demonstrate how the ignorance of the foreign language rules could be explained by a discrepancy of the linguistic vision of the world, e.g.: *I am touched by your affection* (passive) / *O-kimochi ha arigatai to omou* (intransitive) / *Bawa любовь трогает меня* (transitive) ["Seagull" by A.P. Chekhov]

Thus, preceding or accompanying introduction of the language structure by providing the explanation of the pragmatic background – the ways how this grammatical pattern has been developed and used in the language – we make it more efficient in terms of better understanding of

the structure of target foreign language. And it should be indicated once again that the data of the comparative analysis of the native and non-native ways of perception of the world should be included into the Japanese language teaching materials which could be beneficial both for linguistic as well for teaching process

On Methods of Teaching Basic Japanese Course to the First Year Students

Maria Kireeva, Higher School of Economics, Russia

The report is based on the experience of teaching Basic Japanese Course at the School of Asian Studies, NRU High School of Economics. Two main goals of this course are to provide knowledge of basic Japanese phonetics, writing system, vocabulary and grammar, and to develop main linguistic skills and communicative abilities. The report presents how we reach both goals not focusing on only one of them.

Firstly, being limited by time (6 classes a week) we strictly estimate the amount of learning material. It is done on basis of three principles: 1) minimization, 2) differentiation (main and additional information), 3) function orientation. This enables us to devote much time to the development of linguistic skills. So we enlarge an amount of activities on speaking, reading, listening and writing. In addition, we vary a set of exercises on grammar and vocabulary practice. Some types of such exercises enable us to develop communicative skills as well (for example, free discourse composition in given situation). On the other hand, new grammar and vocabulary are being learnt and practiced while doing many exercises and activities on speaking, reading, listening and writing. Translation practice is mostly performed as a final activity, and its goal is the development of translation skills rather than grammar and vocabulary training. The ways of grammar presentation play important role as well. Different ways are being used such as using pictures, models, mini-situations, comparisons etc.

Most of applied ways involve students in active acquisition of the new material. This highly increase their interest and motivation, and develops cognitive skills. And such methods as comparison enable students to look at Japanese grammar as a system, to integrate and structure their knowledge.

Teaching of Japanese Speech Etiquette in Russia: Importance, Barriers, Methods

Roli Jain, Higher School of Economics, Russia

Most people learn foreign languages for communication – to be able to speak and understand. The instructor is then faced with a difficult task of not only teaching grammar and vocabulary necessary for communication, but also of developing the socio-cultural competence in students. It is widely accepted that the cultural aspect of the language must be included in the language teaching process, irrespective of the teaching methods or the aims of the learners. Japanese language is not an exception, and Japanese speech etiquette constitutes an important part of this cultural aspect.

Importance: Etiquette is a code of behavior that sets expectations for social behavior according to conventional norms within a society. Speech (or language) etiquette is an accepted set of expressions used in relevance to certain situations. In other words, speech etiquette relates to words and phrases used for greeting, to ask for permission, to invite, to apologize etc. It is thereby closely related to the politeness of speech. Regular use of language etiquette is considered to be an appropriate behavior. Failure to use it correctly, on the other hand, may be taken as a desire to offend or insult, or as bad manners. This is especially true in case of Japanese language and culture, which is characterized by a number of unspoken rules: strict hierarchy, indirectness of speech, importance of non-verbal communication, etc.

Challenges: Learning of a foreign language is characterized by many factors such as mother tongue, culture, educational background etc. After having learned basic grammar, students tend to use it by directly translating phrases from their native language to the studied language. In case of Russian speakers who are learning Japanese, we get a hybrid of Russian-Japanese, wherein students produce essentially Russian sentences using Japanese words and grammar. The product is nowhere close to actual Japanese and may either sound very artificial to Japanese speakers, or be entirely incomprehensible (and in some extreme cases even insulting).

Another challenge is the Japanese politeness and Japanese preference for understatement, muted expression. Being a high-context culture Japanese tend to be more indirect and formal compared to Russians, who are rather verbally explicit. Understanding and acceptance of this difference poses one of the biggest challenges for the Japanese language learners.

Methods: In the early stages of language teaching, teachers introduce language etiquette for better understanding of cultural aspects. This is partly due to the fact that language learning usually starts from "Hello", and "My name is…"etc. With time though, speech etiquette must be given more consideration and highlight. Most efficient method for learning speech etiquette is through its reenactment in role-play games. It encourages thinking and creativity, lets students develop and practice new language and behavioral skills in a relatively nonthreatening setting, and can create the motivation necessary for learning. This report will examine this technique in detail.

Adjectives at the Initial Stage of Learning Japanese

Elena Bessonova,

Lomonosov Moscow State University

Adjectives in the Japanese language are an important part of the language system. At the initial stage of learning the concept of adjective in Japanese is introduced through three classes ("keiyoushi" predicative adjective, "keiyoudoushi" semi-predicative adjective, "rentaishi" non-predicative adjective), two of the classes "keiyoushi" and "keiyoudoushi" are studied systematically. The report will consider the ideas of the process of teaching the predicative adjectives "keiyoushi", which are characterized by the suffix "i". During the first year of studying students have to remember about 80 predicative adjectives and learn rules on the following aspects: simple forms, past and present tense, negative form, forms "ba", "tara", "te/de mo", suffix "sou", adverbial form, ect. Students write essay or do reports trying use adjectives. Practical mastering of the material passes without any problems, except for the past tense (suffix "katta"): even if students easily understand the rule, there are still many mistakes in the tests.

An important component of the educational process is to repeat the adjectives at the end of the academic year. Repetition is held on: paradigm conjugations, compilation of phrases, synonyms/antonyms, classification, etc.

Teaching Japanese to Adult Students: a Theoretic Course for Students and Young Teachers of Japanese

Ekaterina Korsakova, Herzen State Pedagogical University, Russia

We would like real experts in Japanese language and culture to teach our students, but not every person who has a good command of Japanese, who has stayed in Japan for several years, who socializes very well in Japanese culture and is quite authentic using Japanese behavior-patterns and above all, a person who has an inner ability to teach, can teach Japanese well. Surely, a person should be an actor to teach well, to breathe into his/her students the desire to investigate the language and culture, but there are some technologies of developing skills which should be followed in the teaching process. And we offer the course for students who are going to teach Japanese, and also for graduates and young teachers of Japanese language a theoretic cause of teaching methods: basic knowledge of methodology, teaching and developing skills and different ways to control if the skills are developed to some extent, types of exercises and so on.

The program is 40 hours, 12 hours of lectures, 12 hours of seminars and 26 hours for students to prepare their homework and to prepare for the final exam. At the lectures first we speak about teaching of aspects, and then about skill development in auditing, speaking, reading, and writing. So, "teaching phonetics": "teaching grammar", "teaching words". Every lecture has a name that depict its essence in an attractive way. So, the lecture where we explain how to teach phonetics is called "Japanese A-I-U-E-O", "teaching grammar" is "Japanese is the language of verbs and others", and teaching words is "the Story ofc ango-wago-gairaigo". When we teach skills we call the lecture of teaching auditing "And what did he say?", the lecture for teaching speaking is "I want to say "I love you!" in Japanese", and the lecture about reading is "I want to read Haruki Murakami in Japanese", teaching writing is "I want to write a letter to my Japanese friend"

When speaking about deferent aspects and skills, we discuss different types of exercises, which are used for developing different skills and aspects of skills.

As a separate module of the course, we have planning: both topic planning and lesson planning.

The educational process combines lectures and seminars. At the lectures we speak about theoretical aspects of each topic, and at the seminars we discuss the fragments of lessons created by students, with the define aim: for example, to develop reading skills (reading of an article); or, teaching grammar: irregular verbs and their conjugation.

Concerning the final exam, the students are given some fragments of lessons, and they are asked to define the aim and goals of the lesson, and then they try to create a fragment of a lesson with definite aims and goals.

This course focuses on the main features of teaching the Japanese language to adult students and provides the students of the course with basic theoretical knowledge of teaching methods and techniques.

The Phraseological Competence of the Freshmen University Students Taught Japanese Idioms

Nadezhda Zhukovskaya, Herzen State University of Russia, Russia

In the modern conditions of the worldwide globalization the teaching of a foreign language only as a system does not seem to be quite appropriate. The Japanese teachers in any institution should now start producing the personality able to use the most common communicative units in the native environment. In this article we are going to discuss the phraseological competence which will definitely raise not only the confidence of a non-native speaker but could also be a great help to socialize in a new culture.

Key-words: phraseological competence, phraseological units, skills, exercise, linguistic world image.

First of all, we state that *the phraseological competence* is a certain part of the lexical and then the general communicative expertise. It is meant to not only to perceive the figurative means of language and interpret them adequately but also to use various phraseological units according to the situation, conversational topic, field of the communication and a partner's status [Pugacheva, 2012]. As for *the phraseological units*, they are "steady contextual units" where it is impossible to change one of the elements without changing the whole unity of the phrase [Amosova, 1963].

When we say "Japanese idioms", we mean at least three main types of the phraseological units: 慣用句 [kanyo:ku] – the closest to the classical idiomatic expressions in European languages, usually consisting of nouns+preposition+verb (e.g. 腹が立つ – lit. stomach rises – to get angry), 四時熟語 [yon-ji-jyuku-go] – usually 3-4 symbols smart and sharp expressions, originally came from Chinese (e.g. 一心伝心 – lit. one heart transfers to the other heart – mutual understanding), ことわざ [kotowaza] – proverbs and sayings (e.g. 七転び八起き-7 times fall, but 8 times get up – never give up).

When classifying the Japanese idioms, a teacher could use different categories: *the topic* (food:味噌 を付ける-lit. to spill soup miso – to fail), *the main semantic component* (頭[atama] head: 頭が固 い – lit. head is solid – he's too conservative); *the grammatical structure* (e.g. 手に手を取って – to take one hand into the other); *the part of the speech* (adverb: 頭がぐらぐらする – to get dizzy); and even *the sphere of communication* (business idioms:顔を立てる – not to let anybody to lose his/her face).

No doubts, the most fruitful category will be 'the topic' meaning the certain lexical group, because it is the easiest way for a teacher how to systemize all the material for the lesson and when to teach it.

As for teaching the Japanese idioms to the freshmen university students, there are many variants how to make it: to include into the every-day kanji lesson plan from the freshmen years, or make special lessons for idiomatic speech, or – which is the most natural way – to find an adequate material in tune with the topic or the text.

As an example we took the number of phraseological units with the semantic field 'body parts', because it is one of the most well-spread group for the body is the first thing any human being would see in the world around.

Taking the E.I. Passov's exercises classification, we made the following types of exercises:

I. Language level: matching an idiom and a translation; building up an idiom; filling in the gaps; choosing the right word from the list – into an idiom; inserting the right particle; choosing the pictures for idioms and call the part of the body.

II. Semi-speech level: finding the right equivalent phrase for each idiom, changing a Russian lose phrase with a Japanese idiom.

III. Speech level: translation exercises; using in the tiny monologues; explaining the meaning etc.

In conclusion, we have to say that the phraseological competence building is a quite long process, as a teacher should continue developing students skill during all the stages of their studying.

Teaching the Japanese "benefactive constructions" for the beginner Russian-speaking students

Vlasova Nataliya, Russian State University for the Humanities, Russia

On the early stages of any foreign language teaching process a teacher often needs to explain certain grammatical structures of this language using constructions that exist in a vernacular of students. For example, in Japanese there is a part of speech called 助词 (joshi). In English the whole class of joshi is normally explained as "particles", while in Russian it is divided into two classes: "particles" and "case markers". Although the Japanese doesn't have cases (noun forms do not change), a joshi can often express the meaning that in Russian is conveyed through the case endings. Therefore, the usage of the term "case marker" is reasonable, because it draws a parallel between the Japanese and the Russian for the Russian students and creates a "supporting point" for further study of the language. Such "supporting points" are later expanded through other grammatical constructions, and thus the language basics can be established. This stage is extremely important, because it is certainly the basics that determine the later success.

The book that exerted a huge influence on the Japanese teaching theory in Russia was the work edited by I. Golovnin: several generations of teachers relied on the methodological ideas developed in this textbook, and moreover, continue to do so. However, this work was published more than 50 years ago; during this period not only the Japanese language itself has changed, but also new methods of teaching have appeared. That's why currently it is necessary to revise some basic principles of teaching grammar for beginners.

In our report we will focus on the so-called "benefactive" constructions. In Russian textbooks they are usually referred to as constructions with "action directing verbs". The term itself is rather vague, and its usage makes understanding of this category extremely difficult for the students. Moreover, in Russian there is no direct parallel for the construction. From our point of view, the term "benefactive" (from Latin *bene* "well" + *facere* "to do"), proposed by M. Shibatani, is much more informative. When a teacher uses this term, students realize that in Japanese an action can be emotionally marked; and the benefactive constructions create a positive nuance (while the passive constructions are used for negative).

When Russian-speaking teachers of Japanese explain these constructions, they usually focus on the analogy with the persons and numbers in Russian. "The first person gives to the second, the second gives to the third, the first gives to the third" etc. However, unlike the situation with the "case markers" described above, the Japanese lacks even remote counterparts for the Russian person and number categories, that's why such explanation does not convey the essence of the benefactive construction. Therefore, in that case it is extremely important to completely avoid parallels with Russian, because such parallels rather do harm than are helpful. The subject in question can be easily explained using the indigenous Japanese categories *uchi-soto* ("in-group" and "out-group"). These categories must be introduced at the earliest stages of Japanese learning, and then the students will be familiar with them, when starting to study benefactive constructions, and will have no problems with their use.

Teacher's Questions in the Classroom

Kimoto Megumi, Moscow city Teacher-Training University, Russia

The reporter has been teaching in the speaking classes at the present workplace. The role is to summarize what the students have already learned followed by whatever the Russian colleagues taught based on the textbook.

This study will re-think about "teacher's questions in the classroom". It is considered that teacher's 11

question is one of the techniques which enables to activate classroom interaction because teacher's questions elicit learners' output (Ito, 1998).

In general language classes, a teacher tend to use time for explanations and instructions, in which situation learners may not have enough practice for speaking. For providing the students enough opportunities to practice, the teacher should make an effort to extract the learners' more utterances and support them to apply their linguistic knowledge outside the classroom. One of its solution strategies led me to teacher's questions as this research topic.

It is not necessary to say that interaction is important. Many researches have been conducted since after the importance of interaction was introduced as the central notion of Communicative Approach. From the viewpoint of language teaching, as Rivers (1987) says, interaction helps language learning for both the speaker and the listener in the meaningful context.

How teacher's questions work positively? It is clear that the teacher usually plays dominant role whereas the students are predominant. Following to this relationship, student usually have to answer when the teacher ask questions to them. The basic exchanges between teacher and students has discourse analytical features (Ellis, 2012; Lee, 2006; Mehan, 1979; Ohta, 2001; Seedhouse, 2004), in which classroom discourse differs from daily conversational one. The model which is called IRE exchange (Sinclair & Coulthard, 1975) and IRF exchange (Mehan, 1979) are the typical patterns. Applying this vertical relationship, the teacher should be able to extract the students' utterances according to what sort of questions to use (Ito, 1998).

Question type is the key for explaining methodology. There are several taxonomies on teacher's questions in the old studies. This study will apply DQ/RQ classification by Long and Sato (1983); DQ is Display Question that the teacher often uses for confirming the known information and the teacher knows the answer. RQ is Referential Question that the teacher elicits information that the teacher does not know. When it comes to the form of questions, DQ tends to be closed question while RQ is likely to be open question. For example, a question such as "Did you have breakfast?" is typical DQ. On the other hand, the question "What did you have for breakfast?" is RQ. In case of "What time did you have breakfast?", according to the form, it is also RQ, however, the latter RQ bears limitation in its answer, the student may just say number (closed-RQ). the taperecorded data was used and analysed focused on three teacher's questions and also the students' answers. The data was collected from the reporter's classroom and the speech test.

Summarizing of the result, the case of the reporter was not exceptional seen in some old studies. All DQ, open-RQ and closed-RQ were used in the exchanges between the teacher and the students. Same as the classic DQ/RQ classification represents that open-RQ undoubtedly valid for extracting the students' utterances and DQ worked as the confirmation. Compared open-RQ and closed-RQ, closed ones assisted the flow of exchanges by collecting information successively. Whilst the students replied to too open-RQ, it may cause the lack of important information about the topic. In 12

such case, the teacher could use DQ and closed-RQ to confirm the unclear statement as the students' answers become comprehensible.

Using the Communicative Method in the Process of Teaching Vocabulary at the Japanese Lessons

Dubrovskaya Tatiana, Far Eastern Federal University, Russia

Vocabulary is the first and foremost important step in language acquisition. In a classroom where students are not finding themselves comfortable with L2, language learning can be made interactive and interesting with the introduction of appropriate vocabulary exercises. Vocabulary is difficult to teach because of the complexity of its linguistic, semantic and psycho-cognitive aspects. So teachers should keep looking for ways to substitute rote repetition with more effective techniques.

Starting from the assumption that the aim of learning a foreign language is none other than communicating in the respective language and that there is no fundamental difference between the ways in which general terminology and specialized vocabulary are acquired, this paper aims at analyzing how this communicative method could be successfully applied in the process of teaching vocabulary at Japanese lessons. After a brief presentation of the main principles the communicative theory is based on, we tried to exemplify some of the ways in which its methods could be successfully used in our particular case, laying special emphasis on the advantages of choosing such an approach, among which that of meeting the students' learning needs and that of offering them the chance to become truly competent and efficient language users. In other words, they will be able to adequately convey an intelligible message to a speaker, within a larger social and situational context. As vocabulary is not an aim in itself, but a means of fulfilling a communicational aim, we find that the use of such a method is not only possible, but also recommended.

Reexamining the Pedagogical Grammar of Japanese as Foreign Language: a Case Study of Teaching the Passive in Russia

Taro Ogata, Higher School of Economics, Russia

This study is based on research in passive sentences in a corpus of conversations between native speakers of Japanese. It will provide some important facts that we can apply to the Japanese teaching in Russia. In this study, I examine three of them.

The first one is the frequency of each type of the passive voice. The Japanese passive includes not only the direct passive, whose construction is cross-linguistically "canonical", but also the possessive passive and the indirect passive, which can be considered as "deviant" syntactically and also semantically. The data of the corpus shows that the rate of using the possessive and indirect passive is much lower than that of the direct passive. Almost all of the passive expressions used by native speakers in conversation is of the direct passive. This result leads us reexamine current grammatical syllabuses regarding all types of passive as one grammatical item to teach at the elementary level. The present study calls into question the necessity of teaching the not-canonical passives at the elementary level because it is doubtful that it can contribute to elementary learners' production and comprehension.

The second finding is concerned with phenomena of the omission of arguments. Not only the agent, but also the subject are not uttered by the speakers in most of the passive expressions. Thirdly, the research makes it clear that among verbs in the passive voice, the verb iu (to say, to tell) appears the most frequently in the corpus. Contrasting Japanese with Russian, this study discusses the pedagogical importance of these two facts. Sentences with the predicate *iwareru* (to be said, to be told) are grammatical and frequently observed in Japanese, but not in Russian. So, for example, it is possible to say in Japanese, "Onaka ga itakatta node byouin ni ittara, isha ni kyou ha nanimo tabenai de kudasai to iwareta ([I] had a stomachache, so [I] went to a hospital, and */I] was said by the doctor, "Don't eat anything today."). The corresponding Russian sentences are below: У меня заболел живот, поэтому я пошёл в больницу, и врач мне сказал: —Не ешьте ничего сегодня. (І had a stomachache, so I went to a hospital, and *the doctor said to me*, "Don't eat anything today"). The difference between them is related to the point-of-view from which the speaker describes sentences. Like previous studies pointed out, normally the speaker takes the point-of-view of the subject, and, in Japanese, keeping a point-of-view unchanged thorough discourse is one of the factors forming the coherence of discourse. In contrast, the consistency of the point-of-view is less required in Russian. This difference is reflected in that of the voice seen in the sentences mentioned above. The consistency of the point-of-view is also one of the elements that make it possible to omit arguments. One of the reasons that the communication is not affected by the omission is that both the speaker and the hearer has knowledge about the point-of-view. Although the point-of view plays an important role in production and comprehension of passive expressions, it does not occupy any proper places in teaching the passive, not even in pedagogical grammar of Japanese.

Based on the analysis abstracted above, this study propose two idea: 1) to divide the grammatical item of passive into the two, i.e. the direct passive and the others and to teach only the former at the elementary level, and 2) to instruct the rules concerning the point-of-view at the same time with the direct passive.

Teaching Techniques of Oral Japanese at Different Levels of Studying

Rumak Natalia, Lomonosov Moscow State University, Russia

Teaching techniques of oral Japanese is a question of constant interest for all teachers of the Japanese language. Several reports were presented at different conferences, but most of them touched upon either skills the students should obtain in the process, or learning materials – also concerning skills and techniques, while methods of teaching were rarely explained.

At the beginning, pronunciation should be taught. For that thorough explanation of articulation and a number of exercises are advisable. One should pay attention on common mistakes made by students in connection with their native languages or foreign languages learned (or being studied). To train pronunciation students should be made to repeat, for example, "gojuon" alphabet with different intonation, learn and produce in class "tongue twister" exercises, write down different words and word sequences choosing right variant of sounds difficult for perception (such as N, N nasal or G nasal etc.) marking their intonation.

Different lingaphone materials (Minna-no Nihongo, Ryu:gakusei-no Tame-no Nihongo, Mainichi-no Kikitori, etc.) suggest listening comprehension exercises (such as answering questions, filling in the gaps, choosing the right variant and so on), and it is always useful to make students memorize some dialogues and perform them in class. Also the expressions learned from textbooks can be used by students in role-play dialogues, and topics studied should be later reviewed in the form of speeches. The teacher or other students may ask questions concerning the speech delivered to train the ability of speech recognition and activate use of grammar and lexical expressions.

Advanced levels of education suggest broader abilities of students and, therefore, more complicated and advanced training methods. It is necessary to activate lexical and grammatical expressions which the students have already learned, so from speeches based on textbooks, prepared at home and performed in class, the teacher may proceed to retelling, for example, the news, including those read in Russian. The students should learn to organize the text and use words for connection of logical parts of the speech (such as tokoro ga, sate, sunawachi etc).

As the students advance in their studies, they can be offered spontaneous speech exercises, such as talking for several minutes on the subject specified by the teacher. Everyday use words or up-todate problems may be used as such (for the latter, preliminary reading may be useful). Also, roundtable talks, discussions (where two groups of students discuss pros and contras of the problem) can be organized. Role-play dialogues are still useful at this stage, as they can activate "social" skills, such as use of polite "keigo" forms etc.

Home Visit Project in Language Learning in Foreign Countries

Oguma Rie,

Centre for Global Communication Strategies, Japan

1. Background

It is very rare for the students to be exposed to authentic Japanese when learning Japanese in a Foreign Language setting. This Home Visit Project is a language learning activity for JFL learners with visiting Japanese native speakers' home in foreign countries. It can provide an opportunity to the students to communicate with Japanese people. Therefore, it can be a good practice for the students to improve speaking and listening skills and to gain Japanese cultural experience. This study reports how Home Visit Project was conducted in a university Japanese course in Moscow.

2. Purpose of the study

The main purpose of the study is to describe the scheme of Home Visit Project conducted in Moscow, which will give a better idea in planning this type of project work in other countries. Other purposes are to analyze what the students learned through this activity and to seek improvement of Home Visit Project through reflection by the students and feedback from Japanese host families, who accepted the visit.

3. Purpose of Home Visit Project

The purpose of Home Visit Project is to provide an opportunity to actually communicate with Japanese people to the students learning Japanese in Moscow. For this project, the students have to prepare for the discussion which is held at Japanese home, therefore they should learn about the discussion topic. At the visit, the students can gain knowledge and experience about how Japanese people live, how to make a discussion with the native speakers of Japanese.

4. Home Visit Project Scheme

Home Visit Project was conducted to the class of 4th year students of a university in Moscow, who major in Japanese language teaching. The scheme of the activity is shown as below; (1) 10 Russian students in the class are divided into 5 pairs.

(2) Each pair sets their own topic to discuss at Japanese home and studies to gain knowledge about it.

(3) Each pair makes a presentation about their topic in the class.

(4) Each pair makes a contact with their Japanese host family by e-mail to negotiate the date and time for the visit.

(5) 5 pairs of students visit 5 Japanese families living in Moscow.(6) All the students write a report about Home Visit Project, which is a part of the course evaluation.

5. Data

(a) Reports of Home Visit Project written by the students

- (b) Questionnaire and follow-up interview made to the Japanese host families
- (c) Year-end questionnaire written by the students

6. Results and Discussion

The scheme of Home Visit Project and the details how it was conducted are described, and all the reports and questionnaires are examined in the study. The reports from the students indicate that most students worked hard to prepare for the Home Visit Project and gained new vocabulary, expressions, and cultural knowledge. Moreover students have got Japanese cultural experience at the visit through talking to children and being offered to eat some Japanese food. It revealed that Japanese people tend not to write the unfavorable feelings on the questionnaire, therefore follow-up interviews are critical to examine their feedback. What type of support both the students and Japanese family needed is also discussed in the study. Reflections from the students and feedback from Japanese host families can make the project to improve.

Linguistic Consciousness as a Factor in Language Acquisition

Nina Farizova, Higher School of Economics, Russia

By language acquisition here I mean a relatively successful process of studying Asian (mainly Japanese) language as a foreign language, second or third. By linguistic consciousness I mean the basic knowledge of linguistic special vocabulary (for instance, 'subject', 'intransitive verb', 'agglutinative'), strong confidence in what these words mean, and efficient usage of this knowledge in the student. On one hand, this seems to be a very traditional thing which most of the teachers would support, or at least would not actively reject. On the other hand, modern methods of teaching

actually neglect this 'linguistic' component, trying to deal with language in a more natural, communicative way. While both attitudes have their advantages, I think that a person who has as her goal fluency in a certain language, and intends to use this skill as a professional, should mentally posess not only the structure of the language itself but also the 'meta structure', by which I mean: to be conscious of how the language works. These persons I am speaking about here are primarily high school students majoring in Asian Studies. To these students the Asian language they study is not simply a 'skill' which is mentioned in CV along with some other basic skills. It lies in the very core of their profession, is needed to understand the culture. It is necessary almost for any professional work, and cannot be replaced with any other skill or knowledge. That is why, in my opinion, such a professional, even when she is yet a student, should be fully aware of the inner mechanics of the language, have a very deep knowledge of it. This is important to be able to develop linguistic intuition, and master the language to the maximum extent. By all this I do not mean that an educational institution should raise a linguist in every Asian Studies student, able to conduct linguistic research, to write academic texts concerning linguistics etc. A passive understanding of the lingustic processes in the language studied is sufficient. As a result of such understanding we will see the student being able to interpret and translate correctly, and to express her own thoughts in good Japanese, and these are normally more difficult activities than comprehension which does not require any special linguistic background.