

1994

**STATEMENT OF
COMPETENCIES
IN LANGUAGES**

**OTHER THAN ENGLISH
EXPECTED OF
ENTERING FRESHMEN**

**PHASE II:
JAPANESE,
MANDARIN CHINESE,
RUSSIAN**

**THE ACADEMIC SENATES OF:
THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES
THE CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY
THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA**

**FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCY STATEMENT
PHASE II COMMITTEE**

**C. Ben Christensen, Chair,
San Diego State University**

**Timothy Allen,
San Diego Unified Sch. Dist.
Haruo Aoki,
U.C. Berkeley
Henry Decker,
U.C. Riverside
Fred Dobb,
Cal. State Dept. of Ed.**

**Michiko Hiramatsu,
Foothill College
John C. Jamieson,
U.C. Berkeley
Peter Raleigh,
Modesto Junior College
Eri F. Yasuhara,
CSU, Los Angeles**

JAPANESE LANGUAGE COMMITTEE

**Eri F. Yasuhara, Chair
CSU, Los Angeles
Michiko Hiramatsu,
Foothill College
Keiji Matsumoto,
CSU, Fullerton**

**Toshiko Mishima,
San Francisco State Univ.
Yoko Pusavat,
CSU, Long Beach
Yasuhiko Tohsaku,
U.C. San Diego**

MANDARIN CHINESE LANGUAGE COMMITTEE

**Kenneth Luk, Chair
CSU, Sacramento
Samuel H. N. Cheung,
U.C. Berkeley**

**Lewis Robinson,
CSU, Sacramento
Yun-Chen Li,
U.C. Davis**

RUSSIAN LANGUAGE COMMITTEE

**Olga Kagan, Chair,
UC, Los Angeles
Kathleen Dillon,
Polytechnic H.S., Los Angeles**

**Veronika Shapovalov,
San Diego State University**

MAJOR CONTRIBUTOR

**Zev bar-Lev,
San Diego State University**

**Additional copies of this publication may be requested from: Intersegmental Coordinating Council,
560 "J" Street, Suite 390, Sacramento, CA., 95814. (916) 324-8593 FAX (916) 327-9172.**

**STATEMENT OF COMPETENCIES
IN LANGUAGES
OTHER THAN ENGLISH
EXPECTED OF
ENTERING FRESHMEN**

**PHASE II:
JAPANESE, MANDARIN CHINESE, RUSSIAN**

A PROJECT OF THE ACADEMIC SENATES OF:
THE CALIFORNIA COMMUNITY COLLEGES
THE CALIFORNIA STATE UNIVERSITY
THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

FALL 1994

Distributed by
The Intersegmental Coordinating Council of The California Educational Round Table
and
The California State Department of Education

First printing funded by the Language Acquisition Resource Center, San Diego State University,
through a grant from the US Department of Education, Center for International Education

LARC

Preface

In the early 1980s, the Intersegmental Committee of Academic Senates (ICAS) of the California Community Colleges, the California State University, and the University of California set a policy which commissioned the development of *Statements of Competencies in languages other than English expected of entering freshmen: Phase I*. Phase I was completed in 1986 and included competency statements for French, German, and Spanish. This Statement was developed as the first step in the process of creating an instrument for competency assessment and placement of students in postsecondary foreign language programs in California. The Phase I document was developed as a first step toward a definition of guidelines to assess competency and place students in postsecondary foreign language programs. Furthermore, the document was intended to assist secondary schools in planning their curricula and students in preparing for a successful college experience.

This is a concern of great magnitude. Superior education, in general, and foreign language education, in particular, are absolute requisites within a trend of declining numbers of college graduates conversant and literate in another language. The project grew out of a sense of concern over the relatively small number of college graduates who are conversant in another language and who can use that second language competently for functional communication in the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Furthermore, a functional knowledge of the corresponding culture of the people whose language the student studies is thought to be fundamental to the student's competency. The relatively small numbers of students effectively able to use a second language, if allowed to continue, will result in a citizenry unable to function adequately and responsibly in an ever-increasingly multicultural, multiethnic, and multilingual state and nation, and, in the long run, will hamper national efforts to compete in the international economic arena.

Phase II was commissioned in 1988. This phase, like the previously developed Phase I, is intended to assist students in preparing for college, parents and counselors in advising, and high school teachers and administrators in planning the curriculum. Moreover, the Statement provides a common set of guidelines for all interested educators, administrators, parents, and students. Since the State's postsecondary institutions enjoy autonomy and diversity, due to local circumstances, a common denominator, such as this competency statement, will help all interested parties — particularly foreign language teachers — to focus on the same goals of instruction and similar objectives of assessment of students' language competency.

In developing curricular policies, such issues as choice, access, capacity, and interest in ethnic languages should be addressed. The ICAS of the public system of higher education has put forth a language policy by commissioning these competency statements. The policy eventually provides access to better informed curricular planning for commonly and uncommonly taught languages. The policy will eventually lead to planning for greater capacity of language instruction. Phase II of the policy presents three less commonly taught (LCT) languages in California. These three languages, however, are critical on the international scene. As each year goes by, Asian languages become more important in the political and commercial arenas and must be instituted in more schools and colleges in California. Moreover, Russian will continue to hold an international importance, culturally, economically and scientifically. It, too, deserves instructional attention in this country.

Preface

As we approach a mid-decade point of the 1990s, there is a rising cognizance of China's potential as a crucial international force in the marketplace, as well as political and scientific arenas. Moreover, Japan's place in these three arenas, as well as her importance as U.S. ally, partner and competitor, have already been amply demonstrated. Furthermore, as political and economic stresses become less chaotic in Russia, there will be a greater need for the U.S. to interact with representatives of that country. Thus, as more economic, commercial and political forces in these three countries generate new activities and concerns for the well being of life in the U.S., more effective communication between citizens of the U.S. and representatives of Japanese, Mandarin Chinese and Russian must be realized in the near future to protect the world's environment, to maintain stable national economies, and to engage in crosscultural education and appreciation.

The foreign language teaching profession in the U.S. has been instrumental in recent years in shaping new initiatives into law and influencing state and federal appropriations for existing and newly established programs. Successful efforts such as the Foreign Language Assistance Program, the National Security Education Program, and the National Literacy Act are three of several important legislative acts. The profession cannot rest on these achievements alone, for such can lead to complacency and create a misleading sense of calm in a somewhat volatile world. The national education program *Goals 2000: Educate America Act* places languages in the core curriculum of America's schools. The role of languages in the core curriculum and the acceptance of students competent in a second language as linguistic capital or a national resource cannot be taken for granted. The Elementary and Secondary School Act reflects the objectives of *Goals 2000*, including performance standards and assessment. Now, it seems, is an appropriate time to emphasize the priority that must be given to the less commonly taught languages in California and encourage students to study for competency in one of these languages.

The California foreign language teaching profession must be cognizant of the vision the combined Academic Senates of California's three-tiered system of higher education has adopted for the betterment of the state's citizens. We, the total population of California, should take the broadest possible view of languages in our society and, in particular, in our educational system to focus on the goal of the language-competent citizen.

Development of the skills, understandings and functional abilities recommended here correlates with three other publications prepared and published by the California State Department of Education: Model Curriculum Standards, Grades Nine Through Twelve for Foreign Language, Handbook for Planning an Effective Foreign Language Program, and the Foreign Language Framework. The Model Curriculum Standards (MCS) and Statement on Competencies (SC) have important features in common. Both documents promote the functional use of language and emphasize comprehension, production and cultural awareness. Both documents stem from the same premise, that language instruction at all educational levels must prepare students to function effectively in the language and the culture. The MCS describes instructional concepts and practices which lead students to become proficient in using a foreign language. The SC describes a spectrum of abilities students develop as they move toward second-language proficiency.

Both documents underscore the same fundamental principles (taken from Phase I Statement on Competencies):

- The standards of language proficiency are stated in terms of comprehension, productive skills and cultural awareness.

Preface

- The major purpose for learning a foreign language is to use it as a means of communication.
- The most effective way of learning a foreign language is to spend significant amounts of time engaging in communication.
- The most effective way of assessing students' progress is to describe their ability to use the language in terms of standardized, graded descriptions of communicative abilities, as opposed to citing length of time spent in language courses or grade received.

Nationally, there are companion publications developed by the College Board: Academic Preparation for College (the Green Book, 1983) and Academic Preparation in Foreign Language: Teaching for Transition from High School to College (1986). These publications attempt to clarify and specify pragmatic competencies expected of students preparing for college programs. The emphasis tied to foreign language instruction, as in the Model Curriculum Standards and the Statement on Competencies, is on functional use of languages and cultural awareness. The description of competencies to be attained, focus on the four language skills—listening, reading, speaking and writing. The connection between language and culture is a timely theme, based on the increasing bilingualism and biculturalism of many fellow citizens. Foreign language preparation also fits into the context of the Basic Academic Competencies necessary for study and skill development in all the basic subject areas.

Based on the ICAS policy, three groups of language specialists, each representing one of the three Phase II languages, were identified and officially established. These specialists met as separate groups over approximately a five-year period to design their respective competency statements. Each language committee began its task at different times and ended separately, as well. The task of editing the disparate designs required much more time than was originally anticipated. Time, however, was not a critical factor. To date, there has not been a critical mass of public schools in California offering instruction in these three languages to warrant a "rush to print" of the Phase II document. Nevertheless, the work has been accomplished. The editor wishes to note that contrary to one of the original objectives of the Phase II project, which was to create three separate covers, one for each of the three languages, that one objective, due to funding constraints, was unable to be accomplished. Thus, a document under one cover, similar to the Phase I document, has been prepared.

Each committee worked alone and followed general principles found in the proficiency guidelines of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages and the Educational Testing Service. The history and tradition of each of these three languages are different and distinct. As an example, the Japanese language committee, in its introductory commentary, explains some differences they incorporated into their statement of competencies compared to what is found in the ACTFL-ETS guidelines. As another example, the Russian language committee opted to describe Stages 1, 2, and 3 in global terms. The editor further sub-divided those groups into subgroups by incorporating the ACTFL proficiency guidelines. Thus, one must appreciate the uniqueness of each language committee and the singular ethos each one created for the purpose of developing a useful and meaningful statement of competency.

The Phase I Statement of Competencies recommends that Stage 2.1 be the level of competency which students attain for entrance to California colleges and universities. As the more commonly taught languages in public schools, teachers and administrators of Phase I languages, French, German and Spanish have a long history on which to draw for making educated recommendations about what students can attain in reference to recommended levels of competency. Teachers of Phase II languages, Japanese, Chinese

Preface

and Russian do not have the same degree of history across the state, not to mention the country, for making strong recommendations. The degree of difficulty associated with the acquisition of these languages for students of western cultures requires continued dialogue among teachers, administrators and linguists in order to specify with certainty the requisite level of competency for entering freshmen. Meanwhile, the committees of professionals who worked on these competencies believe their recommendation for a Stage 2 level of competency is realistic.

To the members of each of the three language committees, Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, and Russian, who invested many months of valuable time and effort to develop the three respective competency statements, I am deeply grateful. In particular, I wish to thank Professors Eri F. Yasuhara (CSU, Los Angeles), Kenneth Luk (CSU, Sacramento), and Olga Kagan (UCLA) for their extraordinary efforts as chairs of the individual language committees. Further thanks go to Dr. Zheng-Sheng Zhang (San Diego State University) for his editorial advice and to Dr. Veronica Shapovalov (San Diego State University) for her input of additional text. Lastly, profound gratitude is extended to Dr. Zev bar-Lev for his keen insights, suggestions and thoughtful introduction to this document and useful commentary, presented at the beginning of each language section, concerning the special challenge each of the three languages holds for California students.

C. Ben Christensen, Ph.D.
Phase II Advisory Committee Chair
Document Coordinator/Editor
Fall, 1994

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION	1
TABLE	13
Japanese	15
LISTENING	22
READING	30
SPEAKING	40
WRITING	44
CULTURAL AWARENESS	51
Mandarin Chinese	53
LISTENING	57
READING	64
SPEAKING	74
WRITING	81
CULTURAL AWARENESS	87
Russian	89
LISTENING	93
READING	98
SPEAKING	104
WRITING	110
CULTURAL AWARENESS	119

INTRODUCTION:

Language Competency & LCT Languages

Zev bar-Lev
San Diego State University, 1994

Background

There are increasing opportunities, in California and elsewhere in the United States, for students to learn a foreign language. Schools and universities strive to offer fuller curricula in a greater variety of languages. Furthermore, ensuring that this variety will be exploited is the fact that the University of California and, since 1988, the California State Universities now require two years of foreign-language study for admission.

But what do these two-years of "seat-time" imply about the actual abilities that students can be expected to derive from them? What real expectations can there be when students have completed this prerequisite? This question does not arise with the same sharpness and urgency in more traditional academic subjects, such as history or literature or mathematics. To take an elementary example, consider the gap between memorization of the multiplication table and use of the information it contains in practical situations. Different teachers, textbooks, and classrooms can appropriately differ in the exact balance between the table and its applications. But the gap simply does not seem as large as the equivalent gap in language study, and few if any courses in modern times would suffer from a focus so exclusive on the multiplication table itself that students are totally disabled vis-à-vis the ability to use the information.

In foreign language, however, even today, there is no small number of foreign-language courses, at all curricular levels, so grammar-driven that most students do not in fact derive the ability to use the foreign language with the spontaneity and creativity to use it at all. The fault does not lie with the language teachers, but rather with the nature of the subject taught. The "tables" that underlie any language are not simple 10-by-10 matrices of highly patterned information, like the multiplication table, but rather a whole series of tables with relatively idiosyncratic information. For an example, one need only think of the traditional verb-tables. Teachers who emphasize how "logical" the information in these tables is do not mean that a given form is easily and instantly derived by visual inspection (as would be the case if a given number were missing from the multiplication table), but rather that a complexly interacting set of principles (phonological principles, morphological principles, and plain irregularities) would allow the student to derive a given form with a few minutes of intense thought.

The main difference, however, between foreign language and other academic subjects lies not in the intricacy of the underlying structures, but rather, on the contrary, in the spontaneity with which they must be used. A mathematics student who recalled a certain complex derivative in calculus, and thought for a moment about how to apply it, and then performed the needed calculations, would be performing at the expected speed. But a student who performed the needed calculations for gender, conjugation, and word-order in a given sentence, just as he might have done in a traditional foreign-language classroom, and then uttered the resulting sentence, would be demonstrating a curious but essentially unusable language-ability: However many calculations are theoretically involved in any given sentence, speaking and listening, in particular, must be done spontaneously, with a fluency, speed, automaticity totally at variance with the underlying calculus.

Language Competency & LCT Languages

The simple fact is that, for all the structural complexity of languages, a language in use must exhibit the fluency of a sport. However interesting it may be to be able to discourse abstractly about the rules or physical demands of any sport, the real goal is to be able to play it — to run a touchdown, or swim a certain number of laps in a given time. Similarly in language, the traditional ability to discuss, in English, grammatical structures in the abstract is now subordinated to the goal of being able to use the language in real contexts. Further, however one might value the “elegance” with which a given ability is executed, this consideration must surely be subordinated to the skill itself: the ability to kick a football or do a certain swimming-stroke in practice is irrelevant unless these skills can be used in actual play.

Once upon a time, language teachers could content themselves with the illusion that speaking and other language competencies couldn't really be taught in a classroom, but would subsequently emerge (they thought) with practice, and besides that a study of grammatical structure was of interest in itself. Nowadays we are more likely to recognize that a knowledge of grammatical structure for its own sake is of value only to the linguistic scholar, and we are unlikely to be satisfied with any substitute for actual competency, even in speaking.

COMPETENCY

The Nature of Competency

Languages have highly intricate structures, consisting of complex phonological and orthographic, morphological, syntactic, and lexical systems, not to mention the associated cultural system. But this is only one aspect of the problem of foreign-language teaching, for, even if a given student were to know all of these systems, s/he would still be very far from exhibiting the kinds of abilities that we would consider to be the true goal of language teaching.

Many decades ago, the pattern was in fact to teach the structures, and to let students develop the abilities “on the street” if they could. As related in the histories of foreign-language teaching, the crisis came, in the United States, with World War II, and the need for usable language abilities. (In Europe, the need for practical foreign-language teaching was recognized far earlier — at least as early as the turn of the century.)

Finally it was recognized that, no matter how quickly students could describe or even do exercises in given language structures, the relevant question was whether they could use the language in unrehearsed situations, ranging from basic “survival” in another cultural environment to travel, work, or study abroad, and to a level adequate for an appreciation of the literature and the culture represented by that language. This ability constitutes language competency.

Competency includes the ability to speak creatively, saying and writing things that one has not memorized and has not been directly taught to say; the ability to comprehend (in speech and writing) materials on new topics, and containing a significant proportion of vocabulary that one had not studied (since a course can never study the many thousands of words that occur in ordinary materials).

The balance between communication and accuracy is naturally a tricky question, about which much debate will be necessary over an extended period. But one thing must

Language Competency & LCT Languages

be admitted by anyone committed to communication, even if only incidentally: Real communication, especially in speech (i.e. unplanned discourse), is rarely if ever as accurate, in any respect, as classroom models (planned discourses). Even native speakers make mistakes in spontaneous speaking, so surely we must expect non-native learners to do so as well.

Expected accuracy must be calibrated against the degree of spontaneity. Writing (especially with revision) can reasonably be expected to be more accurate than spontaneous speech. Having a student self-correct in spontaneous speech does not improve the accuracy of spontaneous speech, but rather replaces spontaneous speech with non-spontaneous speech.

Thus, accuracy is a characteristic of the language in actual use, rather than existing independently. That is, one can speak or write more or less accurately, but accuracy has no reality except as it describes actual speech or writing. In particular, it makes sense to strive for accuracy only on top of actual competency, and makes no sense to strive for accuracy in preference to actual language abilities. Indeed, correction of actual speech does not improve the quality of the unplanned speech, but merely replaces it by planned speech.

While “proficiency” is also a common term nowadays, we will use the alternative term “competency” here, as in the Phase-I booklet. There is a fear that the term “proficiency” (because of its implicit emphasis on accuracy) might be used by teachers wishing to protect a grammar-driven curriculum against the practical needs of communication. At the same time, the choice is a matter of emphasis, and not an attempt to oppose the use of the term proficiency.

The first formalized system for evaluating language competency used in a widespread way was apparently that of the United States Government Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR), still used to evaluate candidates for government positions. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), and also the Educational Testing Service (ETS), have attempted to adapt the ILR standards to academic settings.

Studies by the Articulation Council Liaison Committee on Foreign Languages, undertaken in 1976, found no uniformity of placement procedures among postsecondary institutions. Not even vocabulary was standardized, in spite of its perceived centrality to language knowledge and use: Among twenty-eight elementary and intermediate German texts examined, less than five percent of the total words listed were common to all texts.

Studies also showed that student perceptions of what was expected in postsecondary programs varied greatly. Also, there was no consensus among secondary school teachers as to student performance expected at the postsecondary level. A survey of colleges and universities giving credit through Advanced Placement examinations revealed that credit given for the same score varied significantly from one institution to another. These and other studies clearly demonstrate the need for a careful review of the articulation process among segments concerning foreign-language assessment and placement procedures.

The outcome of these surveys was the initiation of The California Foreign Language Competency Project, the primary objective of which has been to develop criteria for various levels of competency in the four linguistic skills (listening, reading, speaking and writing), in accuracy (correctness) of usage, and in cultural awareness.

Language Competency & LCT Languages

The Importance of Competency

For commercial and political uses of language, and even for personal fulfillment, what is important about language is not its structure in the abstract, but rather the communications that can be accomplished by using it as a language. Selling and persuading, and also reading the attempts of others to sell and persuade, require functional ability of foreign languages, in preference to abstract knowledge of them.

Foreign-language teachers do increasingly recognize the importance of language competency. Several decades ago, it was not expected that the teacher would necessarily be a native-speaker, or even a fluent speaker, of the language; now, we have begun to focus on whether the students acquire speaking abilities.

Similarly, many teachers once believed that it was their task to teach the linguistic structures in an academic way. But now it has become common to recognize that functional language abilities are the primary goal, and grammar is a means to the end of greater accuracy in actual communicative acts, rather than a goal in itself. Interesting as linguistic structure may be for linguists (and students of linguistics), it is not aimed at the typical student; while foreign-language structure may shed interesting light on the structure of English, there is also the danger that students as well as teachers may become so involved in this secondary aspect of language as to eclipse the competency that is vital for all.

Even in the study of literature, which often was the only direction in which one could pursue advanced language study, certain language competency was assumed — in particular, the ability to read, comprehend, and respond.

As the importance of foreign language to business and politics has been recognized, there has been increased recognition of the need to include non-literary communications, to focus on commercial and political texts as well as literary texts. In addition, the importance of language competency has been increasingly recognized by all teachers. As world trade and diplomacy have taken on increasing importance in the modern world, the need for people who can use foreign languages, and not only know them abstractly, has also increased.

Of course the urgency is greater as the economic position of the United States is challenged. One can buy in one's own language, but not necessarily sell: As the Japanese have learned so effectively, learning the language of one's customers can radically enhance one's business success. In fact, the Japanese have provided us with their own example, since their systems of foreign-language teaching were, until recently, far more traditionally academic than American systems.

The end of the Cold War has not decreased the importance of usable language abilities. On the contrary, we are suddenly faced with a more bewildering variety of languages. The United States quite suddenly has the opportunity, indeed the need, to communicate with a larger number of distinct cultures.

As teachers, we often proclaim our disagreements with missionary zeal, and this is unfortunate to the extent that it discourages open discussion. Let us therefore emphasize that no moral superiority resides in teachers proclaiming one or another position on issues of language teaching. But it is important for us, as teachers, to continue debating the goals of our profession vigorously.

Language Competency & LCT Languages

The Implications of Competency

Appropriate goals are described in this Statement as Stages One, Two, Three and Four. By setting attainable goals, programs can build positive and realistic expectations for student performance as outcomes of particular periods of study. In particular it is proposed that students should have attained, at the least, the competencies described here as Stage Two at the time of college entrance as freshmen.

A student with Stage Two competency has the basic skills necessary to survive in another cultural setting. This stage is also the basis for the development of more advanced language skills associated with critical thinking and cultural awareness. Students who reach Stage Two comprehend messages concerning everyday needs, events, and activities. Comprehension includes listening to and understanding the point of a simple conversation, directions and phone messages. They can get the gist of weather reports, as well as radio and television news broadcasts. Stage Two competency includes reading a variety of authentic materials: signs, public announcements, captions, directions, classified advertisements, cards, letters, descriptions, short essays and narratives.

Students who reach Stage Two can participate in conversations set in everyday situations. They can make basic observations and provide basic information. They can respond appropriately to common greetings, questions, remarks and requests. They are also able to transmit information in, as in lists, biographical information, short messages, outlines or notes, and simple descriptions. In summary, they can exhibit basic skills for interacting with native speakers of the language.

The majority of secondary school teachers surveyed across the state have indicated that Stage Two competency can be attained by motivated students in two years of high school instruction. There will, of course, be some students who will need longer than two years and others who will attain higher stages of competency than Stage Two. We recognize also that each program has to establish its own pace, determined by the variables of the particular program. Nevertheless, we recommend that tests be administered during the junior year in high school to determine whether students are likely to reach Stage Two by the time of admission to a postsecondary program. Students and parents should be counseled accordingly, based on the test results.

In short, while no one would suggest that the standards outlined here immediately become a law binding on all public schools, they are put forth as a serious proposal to initiate experimentation within schools, and dialogue on the issues, as will be described below.

Among the implications of a competency-orientation is the idea that foreign-language study should begin earlier in learners' lives. Why should we begin teaching foreign language at the very age (c.13 years, the "critical age" for foreign-language acquisition) at which the ability to acquire a new language is suddenly compromised drastically?

Indeed, we should be prepared to put a lot more time and effort into this goal if we wish to see significant results. "Immersion" classrooms in elementary schools, in which children study academic subjects such as history and mathematics in a foreign

Language Competency & LCT Languages

language, have already been found to be a pleasurable as well as useful curricular experiment.

A further implication of a competency-orientation is that grammatical structure (including phonetics, orthography, etc.) is suddenly to be regarded as a means towards particular ends (such as accuracy), rather than an end in itself, or as contributing primarily to "intellectual broadening," however interesting such broadening might be regarded by language teachers.

A third implication of a competency-orientation is the necessity for toleration of error. Where teachers once conceived of their primary goal as one of correcting, they must now see it as one of developing an ever-widening range of ability. Plowing through a textbook, supplemented by endless series of worksheets, while the teacher corrects students' efforts, simply misses the point as far as competency is concerned. The proof of the method will now be whether students can in fact speak and write in the foreign language, and comprehend speech and writing — if not at a totally normal pace and totally adult level, then at least at a pace that can be considered practical. The ability to translate a page of prose accurately over a prolonged period with the aid of a glossary — once a primary classroom activity — suddenly becomes marginalized. Accuracy is still nice, but perfection is regarded as impossible, and even accuracy in toto must necessarily (not matter how heretical this may sound to traditional teachers) be regarded as secondary to the communication itself.

LCT LANGUAGES

The Importance of LCT Languages

The "Phase I" booklet focused on the widely taught Western European languages: Spanish, French, and German. The present, "Phase II" booklet is focused on three "Less Commonly Taught" (LCT) languages: Japanese, Mandarin Chinese, and Russian.

There are increasing opportunities for study of these languages throughout California and the United States. Where once it was difficult to find a university program in these languages, one can now find increasing numbers of ever larger programs, even on secondary and to some extent primary levels. It is not yet clear whether this growth will be sufficient to meet the future needs. The government and private industry are likely to need increasing numbers of people with competency in these languages, whether as full-fledged professional specializations, or as auxiliary competencies: People with major or minor specialization in foreign languages are likely to be increasingly sought by government and industry, and, in an increasingly competitive job market, students are well advised to add foreign language to their qualifications.

People study foreign languages for all sorts of needs — personal, cultural, and professional. For example, there are large communities of native speakers of all three languages in the US. Even among Americans who do not know the languages, Russian, Japanese, and Chinese literature (in translation) and arts have already become popular in many ways here. But let us emphasize their potential professional importance for students, as well.

The amazing increase in economic and political interaction with Japan over the last decade, in particular, has shown the importance of the Pacific Rim, with its tremendous potential for California. Japan has been, of late, a worthy and challenging

Language Competency & LCT Languages

economic competitor, and also an increasingly important political ally in an ever more important area of the world.

China may be a sleeping giant, for the present, but there are already economic ties of some significance. And the sheer vastness of the market waiting behind the borders of China, given the initial economic ties, hints at the importance of being prepared. As Hong Kong becomes absorbed into China, we can look forward to an increase in economic activity, already anticipated in the special economic zone developed in Shen Zhen and other coastal areas of mainland China adjacent to Hong Kong and Taiwan.

Significant ties have already been developing for a decade with Russia and other countries of the former Soviet Union: Who could have imagined, even two decades ago, MacDonald's, Pizza Hut, and Ben and Jerry's in Moscow? Perhaps the legal chaos discourages some potential investors, but we are almost certain to see an increase in trade and other forms of interaction with this area of the world as well. And even as the countries of the former Soviet Union and Eastern Europe assert their independence, the Russian language remains a legitimate aid to communication.

In short, these are three languages of tremendous potential importance — economic and political — for the future of California and the United States. We ignore them at our peril. But there are also personal dimensions. Each of these languages is important as a language of personal heritage to increasingly large populations in California and the United States. While we should encourage as many people as possible to study foreign languages in which they have no background, we should not ignore the many people who already have some native competence in a difficult foreign language. (And similarly we should encourage families to preserve and transmit their native languages, along with developing competency in English.)

Then too, there are always those daring students who voluntarily take an interest in a culture beyond their own. Surely this tendency will also increase as more children study martial arts, and everyone is exposed to more world literature, culture, and history through the popular media.

The Special Challenge of LCT Languages

To the linguist, all languages are equal. To the native speaker, as well, there is no such thing as an easy or difficult language: all languages, as languages, are equally easy for native speakers to acquire. When lay people ask which languages are "harder," they are asking a basically meaningless question. Similarly, no language is "exotic" to its speakers — and any language is exotic to people who have little or no contact with it.

Whatever differences in ease or difficulty may be perceived, these can be perceived only relatively, as foreign languages, from the perspective of learners with particular native languages. English may be just as "exotic" to a Japanese person as Japanese may be to a speaker of English. Nor is it established that different languages encapsulate different world-views: It may well be that different languages differ simply in the formal (e.g. syntactic) patterns with which they express concepts.

We cannot, however, convince the student considering LCT languages that these languages are not exotic (however relative this exoticness may be); perhaps we should revel in their exoticness. Perhaps by pointing out that English is also quite exotic to

Language Competency & LCT Languages

speakers of these languages we can suggest the rich experience that awaits the American student who chooses any of of them.

To be sure, this experience will be full of grammatical challenges — but these are challenges that children manage to overcome as native speakers, so the foreign learner too can ultimately master them, at least to a usable degree. And, perhaps more important, these differences are interesting to observe along the way, not in spite of but because of the surprise they offer to the American whose foreign-language exposure is limited to Western European languages.

In any case, for all their importance, the LCT languages present special problems for the learner, teacher, and curriculum developer. We may summarize the discussion by noting, with reference to the table following this introduction, that the Foreign Service Institute classifies Spanish, French, and German as “group I” languages (in which an ILR level 2 speaking competency is achieved after an average of 480 hours), whereas Russian is a “group III” language (average 720 hours for the same level), and Mandarin and Japanese are “group IV” (average 1320 hours).

A similar hint of the relative difficulty can be seen in the fact that even an American who has never studied Spanish can often get more meaning from a Spanish newspaper after a few minutes of casual perusal than a diligent student of an LCT language, after a year or more of study, and a half-hour or more of intensive dictionary work. The structures of LCT languages present an abundance of grammatical categories that have never been heard of by students of Western languages. Teachers of Western European languages often decry the fact that students are increasingly ignorant of English grammar: How much easier it would be to teach the “cases” of German (different forms of nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and articles) if students were more aware of the concepts of subject and object in English! How much easier to teach the complex “conjugations” of Spanish and French if only students knew more about the tenses of English. However helpful grammatical awareness of English would no doubt be for study of LCT languages as well, they would only highlight the difficulty in many cases. For example, the category of “topic” of the sentence as distinct from “subject” is crucial for Japanese (and also Mandarin), in which different marking is used for subjects that are, vs. those that are not, also “topics”. Similarly, Western categories of conjugation will not prepare students for the various conjugated forms for degrees of politeness in Japanese, or for “aspect” of verbs, and “directionality” of motion-verbs, in Russian.

But all this is only the beginning of the special challenge of the LCT languages. LCT languages exhibit phonological systems to challenge American learners far beyond any difficulties encountered in Western European languages. Where students of French and German must cope with a few difficult vowels [ü ö], this is the largest problem in the phonological systems of these languages. In contrast, Russian exhibits not only the difficult vowel [i], but also a full series of difficult “palatalized” consonants, and Mandarin exhibits not only difficult vowels, but also palatal and “retroflex” consonants, not to mention also the major difficulty of this language: the “tones”. In all of these cases, learners must develop whole new sets of contrasts, not only to pronounce new sounds, but to learn all new words with these new phonemic contrasts. To exemplify these various phonemic difficulties we can mention that Russian **brat** means “brother” while **brat’** (with a “palatalized” t) means “to take”; and Mandarin **tang** means “soup” when pronounced with a high-level tone, but “sugar” when pronounced with a high-rising tone. These are not, it is important to emphasize, marginal examples, but examples of contrasts that totally pervade these languages — far more, perhaps, than the traditionally challenging r/rr contrast pervades Spanish. (Even in Japanese, **sake** may mean “rice

Language Competency & LCT Languages

wine” or “salmon” depending on its intonation, but this example is marginal in Japanese, which is a fairly easy language from a phonemic point of view.)

The orthography of these languages is a further massive problem. Teachers and learners of Western European languages must cope with differences in usage with English, namely that the same letters are used with different values. In Russian, a wholly different set of letters is used. A few decades ago, students initially attracted to Russian would often be discouraged on the first day of class, as the alphabet was introduced — not realizing that it was only the first of the difficulties; nowadays, many elementary textbooks use special strategies — once accepted only in phrase-books for tourists— like phonemic or phonetic transcriptions to defer this initial challenge.

The orthography of Russian, however, is a minor challenge next to that of Mandarin or Japanese. Mandarin, as is partly known, uses a different symbol (a “character” consisting of anywhere from 1 to 10 or more “strokes”) for each morpheme. Japanese would seem to be harder, since it supplements these **kanji** (“Chinese characters”) with two sets of **kana** — phonetic spellings for syllables. While the triple system of course presents its own special difficulties, the lesser dependency on Chinese characters seems to offer a major compensating advantage.

The challenge of the reading LTC languages can be seen in all its seriousness when one realizes that approximately half of all class time must be devoted to reading and writing in Chinese and Japanese. Furthermore, reading is a lot less likely to contribute to speaking abilities than in Western languages, in which the gap between written and spoken language is not as large.

Yet all of these daunting difficulties — grammatical, phonetic, orthographic — are themselves not as crucial as one other simple but pervasive difficulty: vocabulary. Vocabulary is such a simple aspect of language that linguists often disdain it. Language teachers, too, may sometimes think of vocabulary learning as an essentially simple (although of course not easy) process.

The vocabularies of the Western European languages have an abundance of cognates: words that have either been borrowed into English (especially from French, or Latin, the parent-language of French and Spanish) or that are parallel, having derived from the same original word in a parent language (especially in German). By virtue of cognates, almost no lesson in a Western European language presents wholly new words. To be sure, learning vocabulary is never really easy, but learning that “West” is expressed as **oeste/oueste/West** is hardly very difficult at all. Learning “see” and “think” may be easiest in German (**sehen, denken**), but Spanish (**ver, pensar**) and French (**voir, penser**) are helped by connections like English “view, video, vision” and “pensive”; the fact that some of these English cognate words may be new to younger learners does not necessarily compromise their potential usefulness. The occasional more distant “Indo-European” connection, like **in/en/en** for “in”, can be a dramatic help, especially where these are function words.

Russian is also related to English via Indo-European, albeit more distantly. **Videt’** for “see” exemplifies this connection. But it is only occasionally so helpful. **Zapad, dumat’**, and **v** for “West, think, in” shows the extent of the strange new words confronting the learner of Russian. Some few “international” words aid the learner, such as **revol’utsiya** for “revolution” — but they are few. The Indo-European connections are usually too obscure to be of any value, such as **slushat’** and its cognate “listen”, which only an Indo-Europeanist would recognize. Quite generally, the words are often of such different phonological shape than the Westerner expects as to make learning difficult, as

Language Competency & LCT Languages

exemplified in the consonant clusters in **mgnovenie** “moment”, or even the common greeting **zdravstvuyte** “hello”.

In Japanese, words borrowed from English do exist, and are even spelled specially enough to be identified. But they are few — limited to specific items of modern culture, whether **koka-kora** (“Coca-Cola”) or **beisuboru** (“baseball”). As these examples show, these words are often far from transparent, with the change of **l** to **r** and others. And they are of no help in exploring the more traditional Japanese topics of communication. Learning **nishi**, **omou**, **miru**, **kakumei**, **shunkan** for “west, think, see, revolution, moment” is a formidable challenge. “In” as a suffix —**ni** (as in **uchi-ni** “in the house”) exemplifies the grammatical difficulties that heighten the difficulties of vocabulary learning.

In Mandarin, cognates are almost non-existent: Ten or fewer are likely to occur in any first-year course. “West, think, see, revolution, moment” as **xi1**, **xiang3**, **kan4**, **ge2-ming4**, **yi4-hui3-r** (where the numbers represent tones) exhibit the difficulty. “In” as a combination of a verb (“is located”) with a suffix (“interior”), **zai ... li**, again shows grammatical difficulties wrapped up with vocabulary learning. In any case, just think of giving directions when the four compass-points are so easily confused, or telling time when the numbers are so different. (Again, Russian is easier than Mandarin or Japanese, but not very easy at all, with **vosem'**, **dev'at'**, **des'at'** for “8, 9, 10”.)

It is not enough to say that the lexical newness of the LCT languages makes their study more difficult: In Western languages, after a certain period of study, words begin to become easy, and advanced study (at least on the level of reading) becomes, if not easy, at least easier, due both to increased familiarity with the language, and the increased number of connections at higher levels. (Indeed a scientific work may be easier to get some content out of at early levels of study, as compared with, say, children’s books.) This leveling out simply does not occur in LCT languages, in which vocabulary learning on higher levels can be far more difficult than on early levels.

If one multiplies the difficulty by two in Japanese and Mandarin for the absence of cognates, and again by two for the problem of reading, then one arrives at numbers close to those given in the FSI grouping.

The Methodological Importance of LCT Languages

The teacher of an LCT language may be tempted to surrender to this increased difficulty: Given such obstacles, how can we possibly think to impart speaking abilities? Perhaps we should aim for some goal that we can achieve, such as knowledge of basic grammar, even reading!

Such teachers of LCT languages, however, will ultimately be left out in the cold, as increasing numbers of teachers of Western languages get on board the currently recognized goals, and their students begin to expect speaking abilities, inter alia, as the natural outcome of a language course. One hopes the clock cannot be turned back.

To be sure, we can never expect the same level of competence in an LCT language; if we demanded the same level, students would have to study up to four times longer to achieve the desired level. On the contrary, their greater challenge will hopefully itself compensate the students who undertake them. But these students will be no happier with false substitutes for speaking, such as old-fashioned grammatical knowledge, or the

Language Competency & LCT Languages

ability to do grammar exercises, or even non-creative ability to communicate, as through memorized conversations. Even reading frustrates many American students, if it not backed up by some speaking ability.

Especially for LCT languages, then, competency must represent an ideal rather than a present reality, and a significant challenge for language teachers. The challenge can be met only by methodological innovations that allow competency to be imparted more efficiently. These innovations, in turn, will be of relevance to the teaching of Western European languages, as well. The present Statement on Competency therefore has a dual intention, as suggested earlier. On the one hand, it is intended as a guide for teachers of these LCT languages, to provide them with a definition of language competency at various levels, to which they could strive in their own teaching.

On the other hand, however, this Statement is also intended as the initiation of a dialogue, in which these same teachers, it is hoped, will participate. The dialogue, to be sure, must include new methodologies, that would allow accomplishment of language competency in these languages, which are more difficult for English speakers. But it must also include proposals to refine the very definition of competency.

Ultimately, we might look forward to a single, wholly unified statement, crossing all language boundaries, in which different languages differed merely in the specific examples (of linguistic items and structures, as well as specific test items). Among the desirable elements of such a unified statement would perhaps be a vocabulary, at least partially defined for various levels, if not by exhaustive listing of specific words, then at least perhaps with samples, and by estimate of size (in spite of the fact that different sizes of vocabulary might be appropriate for different languages). For the present, however, some teachers resist attempts to define specific vocabulary size, much less provide specific listings. Specification of the types of errors that can be expected at different levels is also vital, although some teachers are not yet accustomed to the idea (although it is by now established within the teaching profession as well as acquisition theory) that errors must indeed be tolerated.

Such an ideal, however, is far from present reality. Even the Phase I booklet was not able to completely integrate the different languages, in spite of the far greater homogeneity of Spanish, French, and German, all languages of a specific Indo-European type. Not surprisingly, given that Russian, Mandarin, and Japanese belong to completely unrelated language families, it was found possible to integrate the present, Phase-II booklet far less, apart from its necessarily greater size.

Even the form and focus of the different language sections differ; for example they differ in the extent to which they specifically exemplify different sub-levels. Now it might be thought that defining sub-levels would necessarily be advantageous. But, at the same time that the concept of oral competency has been gaining ground among language teachers and administrators, increasing need has been felt for oral-interview formats more convenient than the 20+-minute format of the traditional Oral Proficiency Interview designed and used by the ACTFL. After all, we cannot conceive of giving a full OPI to every student several times during their study-career; even now, officially qualified interviewers are often overextended with the rather sporadic testing that is so far done. And, in the shorter forms of interview that are currently being designed, sub-levels are generally ignored. So, rather than cause the Phase-II booklet to grow in size even more (it is already larger than the Phase-I booklet), it was felt appropriate to release it in its present form.

Language Competency & LCT Languages

In any case, the Phase-I booklet has already recommended stage 2.1 as a requirement for entrance into a continuation of study of the same language at the college level — and this entrance-requirement sets a standard for high-school language study to achieve. The challenge now remains for professionals of the Less Commonly Taught languages included here to define equivalent levels of competency for their languages.

Language Competency & LCT Languages

TABLE EXPECTED LEVEL OF SPEAKING PROFICIENCY

Group I: Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swahili, Swedish

Length of Training		Aptitude for Language Learning		
		Minimum	Average	Superior
8 weeks	(240 hours)	1	1/1+	1+
16 weeks	(480 hours)	1+	2	2+
24 weeks	(720 hours)	2	2+	3

Group II: Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu

Length of Training		Aptitude for Language Learning		
		Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks	(480 hours)	1	1/2+	1+/2
24 weeks	(720 hours)	1+	2	2+/3
44 weeks	(1320 hours)	2/2+	2+/3	3/3+

Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer, Lao, Nepali, Pilipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Thai, Turkish, Vietnamese

Length of Training		Aptitude for Language Learning		
		Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks	(480 hours)	0+	1	1/1+
24 weeks	(720 hours)	1+	2	2/2+
44 weeks	(1320 hours)	2	2+	3

Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean

Length of Training		Aptitude for Language Learning		
		Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks	(480 hours)	0+	1	1
24 weeks	(720 hours)	1	1+	1+
44 weeks	(1320 hours)	1+	2	2+
80-92 weeks	(2400-2760 hours)	2+	3	3+

Japanese

Japanese

Japanese

Introduction

The Special Challenge of Japanese

The phonemic system of Japanese is fairly easy, containing no contrasts that would cause the American learner any difficulty. The absence of conjugation for person, as well as any inflection for number (nouns, as well as their modifiers, being indifferently singular/plural), make Japanese easy in certain crucial respects.

But these simplicities are more than balanced by the quite new challenges that this language offers. We have already mentioned the crucial fact that cognates are very few, and relate mostly to Western imports. The overwhelming majority of the vocabulary of Japanese is unfamiliar, with no ready "hooks" or helps to facilitate acquisition.

Conjugation is not complex, but the fact that not only tenses but also various degrees of politeness are distinguished through conjugation presents a wholly alien challenge to the American. While students of Spanish must learn to distinguish **usted habla** from **tú hablas**, students of Japanese must distinguish **hanashimasu** "I, you, he, she speaks" (polite) from **hanasu** "I, you, he, she speaks" (familiar), which not only introduces the new distinction of politeness, but also does not mark the distinction of person: The form of the verb is based primarily on the speaker's relationship to the listener, rather than the speaker's relationship to the subject of the sentence.

Teachers of Spanish are accustomed to saying that the Spanish subject is omitted because the verb's conjugation shows the subject. But what can the Japanese teacher say about Japanese, in which the verb's conjugation does not indicate the subject, but the subject is usually omitted anyway?

American students will not only find it difficult to relate to the distinctions of politeness: They will also tend to speak in inappropriate ways, e.g. asking a shopkeeper for cigarettes while expressing an inappropriate personal relationship by using the pronouns "you" and "me" frequently — as required in English but not in Japanese.

Even the tenses themselves, e.g. in which the form that seems to mean "is coming" instead turns out to mean "has come" present significant challenges. The multiplicity of tenses and moods, with "wanting to" and "probably will" being expressed by verb-endings, are perhaps somewhat simpler than Spanish, etc., in the sheer number of forms, but the novelty and subtlety of the specific distinctions that they require more than maintain the challenge.

The subject-final word order of Japanese is not in itself a huge problem: Students seem to learn to say "The student Japanese speaks" easily enough. But the need to use postpositions instead of prepositions, and relative clauses that precede the head-noun, can sooner or later overwhelm the American learner. While some postpositions correspond readily with English prepositions (e.g. **home-ward**), others are sufficiently mysterious to provide almost endless confusion: How is one supposed to speak fluently in a language (the American student may feel) in which the choices for marking the subject (the particles **-wa** and **-ga**) remain a subject for scholarly research, drawing on grammatical notions that, until recently, were all but unknown in Western linguistics?

Japanese

The triple writing system of Japanese is another continuing source of difficulty. Students seem to adjust well to learning separate characters for each syllable (so that **ka**, **ku**, **ma**, **mu** are spelled with four completely unrelated symbols) — even when they must do so twice, for the two essentially different syllabaries used for spelling phonemically in Japanese: one (**katakana**) primarily for foreign words, the other (**hiragana**) for grammatical endings and function words (such as the particle). However, mastering the two thousand **kanji** (Chinese characters) in common use remains a formidable challenge — not least because each such character has a variety of pronunciations: a native Japanese pronunciation, and often more than one borrowed Chinese pronunciation. We can imagine the difficulty as parallel to a learner of English having to learn to read a single “character” 5 in many different ways: “5” (five), “15” (fiftteen), and “51” (fifty-one), but also in “5-uplets” (for “quint-uplets”) and “5-agon” (for “penta-gon”) — and not just for numbers but for most words in the language.

While American students of Japanese are blessed by an abundance of native speakers of Japanese as authentic models, the Japanese teaching methods that have naturally accompanied them have been a more mixed blessing. While the Japanese, in their teaching of English and other foreign languages, have finally learned the importance of natural speech not only as a goal but also as a central element of curriculum, they have not always responded so flexibly when it was a matter of their own language. In short, while they have often overcome the natural reticence of their culture as regards speaking English, they have not always been so anxious to help American learners overcome their natural bashfulness in learning to speak Japanese. As a result, Japanese curriculum in America often dwells on cultural dimensions, as well as grammatical details and fine points of written language, to an extent that hinders acquisition of spontaneous use of the language.

With all these challenges — linguistic, sociolinguistic, and pedagogical — how is it to be imagined that spontaneous and creative use of Japanese can be accomplished within the time limits available? Can a student emerge from the three semesters of the typical foreign language college requirement with truly spontaneous speaking abilities? Obviously their sensitivity to cultural dimensions and command of grammar and vocabulary must be severely limited, but can true competency (especially in speaking) be achieved?

In a sense, it can be necessarily achieved, as long as teachers are willing to so define the expected range as to allow for it. For example, they need only realize the need for toleration of a less-than-perfect accuracy in speech, and then so design the curriculum as to provide for creative and spontaneous use of the language.

Of course all this is easier said than done. Yet, these challenges all have their analogies even in the teaching of Spanish. And indeed it is to be hoped that, in solving them for Japanese, teachers of this language may lead the way even for teachers of the “easier” Western European languages.

Many teachers who have experimented with naturally-based, more purely communicative methods, in which accuracy is supposedly acquired with little or no grammar description and practice, have found that these methods seem to impart little more than “pidgin Japanese”. One goal of Japanese teaching is to redefine the balance between communication and accuracy, as well as to determine the most effective way to inject grammar description and practice into communicative tasks. Inter alia, a more specific definition of what errors can be regarded as more tolerable than others may need to be faced more overtly.

Japanese

Given the challenges, there is always the danger that the teaching of Japanese may lapse into the memorization of fixed dialogues with little time to actually practice even small variations, not to mention true creativity. Teachers who realize the limitations of memorization may not even force development of the limited and artificial "fluency" that it does provide. In such cases, speaking competency may remain just a theoretical possibility. The following effort represents one step in resisting this tendency.

Japanese Language Committee Statement

This Japanese Language Committee has followed the linguistic principles and pedagogical approaches incorporated in the Phase 1 document, which, in turn, owes much to the Proficiency Guidelines developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL). At various times in our deliberations, the Committee members consulted the Phase 1 document, the ACTFL Generic Proficiency Guidelines, and the ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines (Foreign Language Annals 20:6 [December 1987], 589-603). We were especially cognizant of the word-sentence-paragraph progression incorporated in the ACTFL Guidelines (word = novice/Stage 1; sentence = intermediate/Stage 2; paragraph = advanced/Stage 3) and sensitive to the need for authenticity in both teaching and testing materials. We also paid particular heed to the idea of "survival" at Stage 2 (ACTFL: Intermediate); i.e., that an important characteristic of proficiency at this level is the ability to survive in the target language. These three principles informed our thinking and, ultimately, our decisions at every stage of our deliberations: a) word-sentence-paragraph progression, b) survival at Stage 2, and c) authenticity.

In its descriptions of the stages of competency, therefore, it is not surprising that this Japanese Competency Statement is in broad—sometimes exact—agreement with the Phase 1 document and the ACTFL Generic and Japanese Proficiency Guidelines. In general, our Committee followed the lead taken by these groundbreaking earlier documents. There are, of course, some differences. One is that we did not list examples in detail, as do the ACTFL Japanese Guidelines. We felt that, to some extent, the sample test items fulfilled that function, as they do in the Phase 1 document. Another difference has to do with the number of stages and subdivisions within them.

The Phase 1 document describes Stages 1 through 5 in each of the four skills, corresponding to the ACTFL Novice, Intermediate, Advanced, Superior, and Distinguished levels. However, it describes only the general stages, forgoing the sub-stages corresponding to ACTFL low, mid, and high within the stages. Our Committee, on the other hand, felt that the first two stages were of particular importance in setting the entry and exit requirements for college students and therefore that "fine-tuning" these into three sub-stages each would be helpful. Accordingly, this Japanese Competency Statement has sub-divided the descriptions of Stages 1 and 2 for all four skills into .1, .2, and .3 (i.e., 1.1, 1.2, 1.3, 2.1, 2.2, 2.3). For descriptions of Stages 4 and 5 (ACTFL Superior and Distinguished), the reader is referred to relevant portions of the ACTFL document. The entry requirements for both the CSU and UC are at present set in terms of "seat time," so many semesters of high school foreign language or an equivalent level of proficiency. The Phase I document recommends general Stage 2 competency as the entry requirement. While the charge of this Committee did not extend to setting such entry and exit levels, our deliberations naturally included them, if only for practical reasons. That is, at every point in our discussions, we asked whether a certain level of proficiency was attainable after so many terms of high school or college language classes. As a result of

Japanese

such discussions, we formed a consensus on the following entry and exit levels, keeping in mind the global and holistic, not linear, nature of the competencies:

Reading:	entry Stage 1.3, exist Stage 2.1
Listening:	entry Stage 2.1, exit Stage 2.2
Writing:	entry Stage 1.2, exit Stage 2.1
Speaking:	entry Stage 2.1, exit Stage 2.2

Other departures from the earlier documents represent adjustments in the applications of general principles to the particular case of Japanese. For example, Japanese media broadcasts and announcements are generally in the formal mode and thus employ large numbers of Chinese character compounds, far more than can be realistically expected at Stage 2. Therefore, the ability to understand the gist of media reports and public announcements was moved to Stage 3 in Japanese, whereas in the Phase 1 document it is a feature of Stage 2.

Although authenticity was the sought-after ideal in every stage and skill, Stage 2 in Reading presented particular challenges. The hallmark of Stage 2 (in both the ACTFL Generic Guidelines and the Phase I document) is the ability to understand at sentence level. However, there are very few authentic materials at sentence level written entirely in the phonetic script (**hiragana, katakana**), except possibly a limited range of materials aimed at small children. All other sentences contain large numbers of Chinese characters (**kanji**), but the number of **kanji** that can realistically be expected at this level is rather small. Of the nearly two thousand **kanji** considered necessary to read newspapers, for example, passive control of only about 300 to 600 can realistically be expected at Stage 2. Even in Japan, it takes nine years of compulsory education to acquire all 1,945 officially designated "General Usage **Kanji**". On the other hand, an important feature of Stage 2 is the ability to survive in the target language, which in Japanese means the ability to correctly interpret a variety of signs, almost all of which are written in **kanji**. After much discussion and debate, therefore, the Committee decided to include in Stage 2.1 the ability to read signs and instructions deemed necessary for survival, even though such signs are usually not in sentence form. In Stage 2, therefore, the principle of "survival" took precedence over the principles of authenticity and the word-sentence-paragraph progression.

Absolute authenticity again had to be sacrificed at the next stage of reading competency. The materials that can be read at Stage 2.2 are described in this document as "specially prepared or edited prose containing a limited number of **kanji** compounds." It is only in Stage 2.3 that there is the emerging ability to comprehend SOME ideas in authentic texts. In the ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines, even the Advanced (Stage 3) reader is dependent on edited material that "increasingly mirrors . . . authentic material" (p. 598).

These guidelines for setting proficiency levels—to the extent they are disseminated and accepted—have important implications for the future direction of Japanese language instruction in this state, in both pedagogy and curriculum.

Pedagogically speaking, this statement, as well as the Phase 1 Statement and ACTFL Guidelines that preceded it, incorporates the principles of an instructional approach known variously as "communicative," "communication-based," or "proficiency/competency-based." The various methods subsumed under this rubric emphasize meaningful communication within real-life contexts and takes a global and holistic, as opposed to the traditional linear and segmental, approach to language teaching. Together with the Model Curriculum Standards (1985) and the Foreign Language Framework (1989) which have been published by the California State

Japanese

Department of Education, this document is a recognition that students taught "communicatively" achieve higher levels of proficiency more quickly.

The overall curricular implications of such a communicative approach are also far-reaching and profound, since this approach implies a content- and need-driven, as opposed to a traditional grammar-driven, syllabus. That is to say, grammar is viewed as one of many aspects of competency and is introduced as needed to accomplish a particular task. This represents a major departure from most traditional approaches, in which the grammar points chosen for a particular unit dictate the subject matter/vocabulary content for that unit. With respect to reading comprehension in particular, the proficiency levels described in this document call for a reappraisal of traditional attitudes toward the teaching of **kanji**.

One time-honored principle in the teaching of **kanji** is to introduce them in the order of "difficulty," generally determined by the number of strokes. While sensible as far as it goes, by this method a student with no previous background taking perhaps only two years of Japanese may never "get to" some of the **kanji** that are in constant use in Japanese daily life, some of which may even be important to his or her survival: for example, **kanji** for signs such as "kin'en" ("no smoking"), "kiken" ("danger"). If authenticity, need, and real-life contexts are to be important principles in our teaching, it becomes necessary to teach RECOGNITION of such **kanji**—always within the meaningful context of signs, directions, etc.—fairly early.

This emphasis on recognition within real-life contexts changes the traditional order of introducing **kanji**. It is also, we feel, the direction in which the field is bound to go in the future. Given the increasing use of word processors in Japan, the day may soon come when the single most important **kanji** WRITING skill we can teach our students will be the ability to RECOGNIZE the correct **kanji** from an array of homophones—not the ability to write down from memory isolated **kanji** and **kanji** combinations in dictation tests.

Finally, it goes without saying that knowledge of a certain number of **kanji** alone does not equal reading or writing proficiency—although the more one knows, certainly, the better. When viewed from the perspective of the communicative approach, the number of **kanji** a student knows is only one of many indices of proficiency.

It is our sincere hope that this document will become the basis for further debate and discussion among Japanese language educators, lead to more consistent standards of articulation among institutions, and contribute to the betterment of Japanese language education in California.

Japanese Competency Statement Committee

Eri F. Yasuhara, Committee Chair

(California State University, Los Angeles)

Michiko Hiramatsu (Foothill College, Los Altos Hills)

Keiji Matsumoto (California State University, Fullerton)

Toshiko Mishima (San Francisco State University)

Yoko Pusavat (California State University, Long Beach)

Yasuhiko Tohsaku (University of California, San Diego)

Acknowledgements

Japanese

The Committee gratefully acknowledges a grant from the California Postsecondary Education Commission under Title II of the Education for Economic Security Act which supported the early stages of our work during the summer of 1989. The grant was made to the California State University for the project "Teaching Japanese for Communication." We are also grateful to C. Ben Christensen, Chair of the Statewide Coordinating Committee for Phase II, for his guidance; Marjorie Tussing for both her informative presentation to the Committee and subsequent help; and the CSU Institute for Teaching and Learning for their support. Finally, our sincere thanks go to the following for their valuable comments: Seiichi Makino (Professor of Japanese and Linguistics, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign during this statement's development); Southwestern Secondary Teachers of Japanese (Norman Masuda, President); Teachers of Japanese in Southern California (Nancy Sasaki, 1990-91 President)

Japanese

LISTENING

STAGE 1

Stage 1 competency in listening comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to understand high-frequency learned words, phrases, and expressions. May require repetition and/or slow rate of speech.

Stage 1.1

Can identify only isolated words that have entered the common world vocabulary (e.g., "sushi," "sake") and frequently used expressions (e.g., "arigatoo").

Stage 1.2

Can understand familiar, high frequency words and expressions (e.g., **doozo yoroshiku, doomo, jaa mata**).

Stage 1.3

Can understand simple statements and respond to simple commands and questions on the basis of learned materials.

STAGE 2

Stage 2 competency in listening comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- comprehend the main ideas/facts in everyday conversations
- follow simple directions
- comprehend some ideas in simple discourse.

Stage 2.1

Can understand simple questions, answers, and statements in face-to-face conversations on familiar topics.

Stage 2.2

Can understand simple questions, answers, and statements on a wider variety of topics and in telephone conversations.

Can follow simple directions.

Stage 2.3

Japanese

Can understand some facts and ideas in simple discourse (e.g., introductions, simple announcements, descriptions of familiar topics or those of personal interest).

Beginning to recognize different socio-linguistic features of speech, such as honorifics, in-group/out-group, male/female, and formal/informal differentiation.

STAGE 3

Stage 3 competency in listening comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- understand normal speech of native speakers on most general topics
- understand different socio-linguistic features of speech, such as honorifics, in-group/out-group, male/female, and formal/informal differentiation.
- understand gist of some film, radio, and television broadcasts on general topics
- understand gist of public announcements
- interpret some socio-cultural nuances, such as non-verbal messages and expressions like "**Chotto kangaesasete itadakimasu.**"

STAGE 4

(See description of Superior Level, "ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines," pp. 595-596.)

Japanese

Sample Tests

In all of the samples below, students listen to a conversation, announcement, or reading passage, then answer multiple choice questions.

Stage 1

Sample 1

- A. 「いらっしゃいませ。」
- B. 「これください。」
- A. 「はい、100円です。ありがとうございます。」
- B. 「どうも。」

Question:

Where does this conversation take place?

- a. In a doctor's office.
- b. In a store.
- c. In the speaker's home.
- d. In a restaurant.

Sample 2

- A. 「すみません、今何時ですか。」
- B. 「9時はんです。」
- A. 「では、11時に学校で又あいましょう。」
- B. 「はい、わかりました。」

Questions:

1. What time is it now?

- a. 7:30
- b. 9:30
- c. 8:30
- d. 10:30

2. What are they going to do?

- a. meet at school
- b. meet at a coffee shop
- c. go to the library
- d. eat at a cafeteria

Japanese

Sample 3

- スミス： あ！ お早うございます。
森： お早うございます。お待たせしました。森です。
スミス： 初めまして。アイ・ビー・エムのスミスです。どうぞよろしく。
森： スミスさんですか。どうぞよろしく。きょうはさむいですね。
スミス： ええ、雪がふりそうですね。

Questions:

1. When does this conversation take place?

- a. Morning
b. Afternoon
c. Evening
d. Night

What season are they in?

- a. Spring
b. Summer
c. Autumn
d. Winter

3. How well does Mori know Smith?

- a. They are colleagues.
b. They are old classmates.
c. They met for the first time.
d. Mori met Smith at IBM before.

Stage 2

Sample 1

- 女声： 「すみません。ここから新宿まで、どのくらいかかりますか。」
男声： 「電車で30分ぐらいです。」
女声： 「バスでも行けますか」
男声： 「はい、でも道が混むので、一時間ぐらいかかると思いますよ。」
女声： 「どちらの方が安いですか。」
男声： 「電車の方が100円高いですが、便利ですよ。」
女声： 「じゃ、電車にします。」

Questions:

1. How long does it take to go by bus?

- a. 30 minutes
b. 1 hour
c. 1 hour 30 minutes
d. 2 hours

2. Which has the woman decided to take?

- a. Bicycle
b. Train
c. Bus
d. Taxi

Japanese

3. According to the man, why does it take longer to go by bus?
a. The bus makes frequent stops. c. The roads are congested.
b. You have to make a transfer. d. The buses come infrequently.

Sample 2

- 医者： どうしました？
木村： お腹がひどく痛いです。夜中に何度もお手洗へ行きました。それにとても気分が悪いです。五回もはきました。
医者： 熱はありませんか。
木村： 38度6分でした。
医者： ああ、それは高いですね。夕べ何を食べましたか。
木村： さあ、海岸のピクニックで色んな物を食べました。肉は食べませんでした。魚を焼いて食べました。
医者： そうですか。じゃあ他にどんなものを食べましたか。
木村： ああ、ポテトサラダを食べました。それが悪かったんでしょうか？
医者： そうかもしれませんね。薬をあげますから今すぐのんで、後六時間ごとにのんでください。それからセブンアップや、うすいお茶などをたくさん飲むといいですよ。
木村： わかりました。どうもありがとうございました。

Questions:

1. What are the symptoms of Kimura-san's illness? Circle all that apply.
a. A severe headache e. A high fever
b. Diarrhea f. General weakness
c. Frequent urination g. High blood pressure
d. Vomiting
2. What seems to be the cause of sickness?
a. Over-eating c. Eating spoiled fish
b. Fatigue d. Eating spoiled potato salad
3. What are the doctor's directions? (Circle only one.)
a. Drink plenty of liquid. c. Take medicine at 6 o'clock.
b. Avoid alcoholic beverages. d. Take absolute bedrest.

Sample 3

お客様の呼び出しをもうしあげます。カリフォルニアのローゼンベリー様、カリフォルニアのローゼンベリー様、いらっしゃいましたら六階家具売り場までお出でください。スミス様がお待ちでいらっしゃいます。

Japanese

Questions:

1. Mr. Rosenbury
 - a. does not understand Japanese.
 - b. is from California.
 - c. is waiting on the 6th floor.
2. Mr. Smith
 - a. has not come to the department store yet.
 - b. cannot find Mr. Rosenbury.
 - c. is waiting at a food shop.
3. On the 6th floor they sell
 - a. furniture.
 - b. toys.
 - c. books.

Stage 3

Sample 1

- 女 「はい。東西大学英文科研究室です。」
- 男 「もしもし、南北大学の田中と申しますが、山下教授はいらっしゃいますでしょうか。」
- 女 「申し訳ございません。教授は会議のため大阪へ行っておりますが。」
- 男 「そうですか。では、来週の月曜日の研究会のことですが、その打ち合わせを、今週の土曜日の午後2時からわたしの研究室で行なうことになりましたとお伝え下さいませんか。」
- 女 「土曜日午後2時からですね。」
- 男 「そうです、どうぞよろしくお願い致します。」
- 女 「かしこまりました、失礼いたします。」

Questions:

1. Where does Mr. Tanaka work?
 - a. In Osaka
 - b. At Tozai University
 - c. At Nanboku University
 - d. At Eibun College
2. Mr. Tanaka tells the woman that
 - a. he will have a class on Monday at 1:00 pm.
 - b. he will go to Osaka on Saturday at 3:00 pm.
 - c. he will hold a meeting in his office on Saturday.
 - d. he will go to the laboratory on Monday at noon.

Japanese

3. What is the gist of the message?

- a. Finding out where Professor Yamashita is.
- b. Planning when/where the meeting is going to be.
- c. Informing Professor Yamashita when/where the meeting is going to be.
- d. Asking when/where Professor Yamashita wants the meeting to be.

Sample 2

只今七番線に到着の電車は東京行き急行、東京行き急行、東京行き急行電車でございます。途中、横浜、川崎の他は停まりません。東京直行のお方は東京へは次の特急車が先に到着いたします。

Questions:

1. The train at platform 7

- a. stops at Yokohama.
- b. is a special express train.
- c. doesn't stop at Kawasaki.

2. The special express train

- a. has just left.
- b. has just arrived at platform 7.
- c. will arrive at Tokyo before the express train.

Sample 3

- 小野： もしもし、山田先生でいらっしゃいますか。わたくし東芝、人事課の小野と申します。実はスタンフォード大学のデーヴィッド・ブラウンという学生が当社の販売課に就職を希望しているんですが、彼について少々お伺いいたしたいのですがお時間いただけますでしょうか。
- 山田： ええ、すこしならいいですよ。デーブ君はアメリカ人にはめずらしくどちらかというとな無口なほうでおとなしいタイプです。
- 小野： 彼は販売のほうをやりたいといっているのですが、むいているでしょうか？
- 山田： デーブ君ならちょうどいいんじゃないですかねえ。彼は日本文化や習慣などに非常に詳しいし、国民性についてもよく勉強しています。それに日本語もかなり喋べれますよ。
- 小野： なるほど。では人間関係なんかに関してはどうでしょう。
- 山田： ちょっと、すみませんが、もう時間がないのでこのへんで失礼します。
- 小野： ああ、そうですか。申し訳ございませんでした。じゃ、これで失礼致します。ありがとうございました。

Japanese

Questions:

1. Mr. Ono: (Circle one.)

- a. used to be Prof. Yamada's student.
- b. is an employee of Toshiba.
- c. works in the sales section.
- d. knows Mr. Brown well.

2. Professor Yamada says that Mr. Brown

- a. knows Japanese culture very well.
- b. cannot speak Japanese very well.
- c. is not suited to sales.
- d. was his best student.

3. Why didn't Professor Yamada answer the question concerning Mr. Brown's relations with other people?

- a. Because he doesn't know much about it.
- b. Because he feels it would be an invasion of Brown's privacy.
- c. Because he doesn't have time.

Japanese

READING

STAGE 1

Stage 1 competency in reading comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- read/identify learned words in **hiragana** and **katakana**; and
- identify a small number of memorized, high frequency **kanji**; e.g., low numbers, entry/exit signs, some personal/place names.

Stage 1.1

Can identify some **hiragana** and **katakana** letters.

Passive reading vocabulary in phonetic syllabary: under 50

Stage 1.2

Can read some high-frequency words written in **hiragana** and **katakana**.

May also be able to recognize some isolated **kanji**.

Passive reading vocabulary: 50-100 words.

Stage 1.3

Can read some high-frequency words written in **kanji**.

Passive reading vocabulary: 100-500 words.

Able to recognize under 100 **kanji**: 0-100 (numbers 1-10, 100, 1000, 10,000, up, down, left, right, middle, entry, exit, days of week, mountain, river, book, male, female, etc.)

STAGE 2

Stage 2 competency in reading comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- "understand main ideas and some facts from simple connected texts." (ACTFL p. 597)

Stage 2.1

Can glean sufficient information to meet survival needs from such things as:

- simple printed advertisements
- a greater variety of signs (e.g., "Do Not Enter," "Under Construction," "Telephone," "Subway," "No Smoking," "Danger," etc.)

Japanese

- simple written instructions, such as on vending machines, coin-operated washers/dryers, public telephones, keys on Japanese word-processors)
- labels (e.g., on clothing)
- business cards
- simple forms

Able to recognize 100-200 **kanji**.

Stage 2.2

Can comprehend most ideas in specially prepared or edited prose containing a limited number of **kanji** compounds (e.g., letters from friends and acquaintances, simple messages).

Able to recognize 200-400 **kanji**.

Stage 2.3

Able to comprehend some ideas in authentic materials, e.g., newspapers and magazine articles on topics of personal interest.

Able to recognize 400-600 **kanji**.

STAGE 3

Stage 3 competency in reading comprehension for Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- "understand main ideas and facts of longer texts, including simple short stories, news items, personal correspondence and simple technical material written for general readers; and
- follow essential points in [prose on areas] of special interest or knowledge." (Phase I, p. 23)

Able to recognize 600-1,500 **kanji**.

STAGE 4

(See description of Superior Level, "ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines," pp. 599-600.)

Japanese

Sample Tests

Stage 1

Sample 1

Answer the questions based on the following menu:

ソフトドリンク
〈ブレンド、アメリカンは、おかわり自由です〉

- ブレンドコーヒー 300
- アメリカンコーヒー 330
- 紅茶 (レモン、オレンジ、ミルク) 330
- アイスコーヒー 330
- アイスティー 330
- ココア (ホット、アイス) 430
- オレンジジュース 400
- レモンスカッシュ 430
- カフェオレ 360
- ウィンナーコーヒー 400
- ミルク (ホット、アイス) 300
- ヨーグルドシェーク
 - ストロベリー 480
 - フルベリー 500

スパゲッティ
当店のお勧め品—オリジナル麺を使用しております……

- シーフードパザリコ (海の幸とシソ) 600
- ボンゴレピアンコ (おろしとクリームソース) 630
- コールドスパゲッティ 650
- ミートソース (ポロニア風自家製のソース) 600

ピッツァとグラタン
〈グラタンはライスとはパンがつかます〉

- ポテトとクルトンのグラタン 600
- シーフードグラタン 700
- ボイルドエッグとほうれん草のグラタン 650
- なすとひき肉のグラタン 630
- セリカオリジナルピッツァ 580

米飯料理

- オリジナルドライカレー (お肉はみではありませぬ本格味です) 650
- シーフードピラフドリア (ライスグラタン) 680
- セリカ風パエリア (炊き込みピラフ) 650
- スライスビーフのピラフ 880

サラダ

- 和風サラダ 580
- パイナップルとアモンドのサラダ 600
- チキンサラダ 700
- ツナのキューカンパボート 580

サンドイッチ

- チキンサンドイッチ 700
- ツナとオニオンのサンドイッチ 580
- ベーコンとキャバツのサンドイッチ 650

スープ

- 冷製ポテトスープ (クリーム・ド・グリン・ソーズ) 350
- チキンブロススープ 350

※ 出前は コーヒー 1杯から承ります

Questions:

1. How many kinds of salad can you order in this restaurant?
2. If you had only 330 yen, which of the following soft drinks could you order?
a. iced tea b. cafe au lait c. orange juice

Japanese

Sample 2

Answer the questions based on the following menu:

持	四〇〇〇円
菊	三八〇〇円
お子様定食	九〇〇円
味自慢かに寿司	
上 寿司	一人前
にぎり	一、三〇〇円
みそにぎり	一、一〇〇円
盛合せ	一、〇〇〇円
ばってら	九〇〇円
太巻	九〇〇円
胡瓜巻	九〇〇円
ちらし	八〇〇円
活にぎり	三〇〇円
(生身のにぎり寿司)	一ヶ
土産用即席吸物	五〇円

※各種御土産用に折込にてお持ち帰って頂けます。お平日にお申しつけ下さい。
*御土産用券には即席吸物をサービスしてお付けいたしております。

みそ汁	二五〇円
お吸物	二五〇円
赤だし	二五〇円
ぞうすい	三〇〇円
御飯	二〇〇円
香の物	二五〇円
フシャルベツツ	二〇〇円
お飲物	
清酒道楽	四〇〇円
生原酒(冷通)	八〇〇円
焼酎	八〇〇円
ビール	五〇〇円
コーラ	四三〇円
ジュース	二〇〇円
ワイン(ボトル)	一、五〇〇円
スパークニック(大)	八〇〇円
スパークニック(小)	三〇〇円
生ビール	七〇〇円
ビール	五〇〇円

※御飲食金額には概して一律3%の消費税を、又お一人様のご消費額が五、〇〇〇円を超えらる場合、特別地方消費税としてご消費額の3%をお預かりさせて頂きます。
※又サービス料を10%を申し交えます。
(但し、本階一階は頂戴いたしません)
※尚、個室のご利用の場合座席代10%頂戴いたします。

Questions

1. You had *chirashi* and your friend had *battera*. What is the total bill?
2. You have 300 yen and want something to drink. What can you order?
a. beer b. wine c. juice

Japanese

Sample 3

Answer using the letter of the correct sign:

a. 男

b. 女

c. 入口

d. 出口

e. 右

f. 左

Questions:

1. You want to leave the building you are in. Which sign do you look for?
2. Your sister wants to use the restroom. Which sign does she look for?

Stage 2

Sample 1

Where would you find the following signs? Match each sign with the one location where you would most likely find it.

a. 手をふれないで下さい

b. 危険

c. 営業中

d. 芝生に入らないで下さい

e. 禁煙

1. park
2. hospital waiting room
3. museum
4. construction site
5. outside a coffee shop

Japanese

Sample 2

Answer the questions based on the following messages:

メッセージ

- 午前10時15分、おくさまより電話。今夜7時までに帰ってください。
- 午後3時35分、山本先生より電話。土曜日午前10時に大学で会いたいそうです。後で電話してください。
- 午後4時20分、林さんがいらっしゃいました。明日昼ごはんをいっしょに食べたいそうです。
- 青山さんへの手紙は、つくえの上においてあります。明日はまた8時半に来ます。

島田けい子

Questions

1. What message did the wife leave?
 - a. Will call again.
 - b. Will drop by later.
 - c. Please call back.
 - d. Come home by 7:00 today.
2. When does Professor Yamamoto want to meet with this person?
 - a. Thursday
 - b. Saturday
 - c. Friday
 - d. Tuesday
3. What did Ms. Hayashi say?
 - a. She would like to have dinner with this person.
 - b. She would like to have lunch with this person.
 - c. She would like this person to come to her house for dinner.
 - d. She would like this person to call her at noon tomorrow.
4. Where did Ms. Shimada leave the letter?
 - a. Next to the word processor.
 - b. Next to the telephone.
 - c. On top of the desk.
 - d. Inside the desk.

Japanese

Sample 3

Answer the questions on the basis of the following letter.

テニス・クラブの皆さん

八月にはいい、あつい日がつづいていますが、皆さんお元気ですか。毎日、テニスのれんしゅうでおいそがしいことと思います。

さて、八月二十三日、日曜日、東京さくら高校のテニス・クラブの皆さんといっしょにうみへピクニックに行くことになりました。皆さん、ぜひご参加ください。うみではバーベキューをする予定です。会費は三千円です。

参加したい方は、十五日までに、三千円を田中までおくってください。当日は、二十三日午前七時までに東京駅南口JRバス乗り場前にお集まりください。バスは七時十五分に出ますので、おくれないようにしてください。午後8時東京着のバスで帰る予定です。バス料金は千二百円です。でも、会費にバス料金は入っていません。なお、およぎたい方は、水着をお持ちください。

皆さんの参加をお待ちしています。

Questions:

1. What is the weather like now?

- a. hot
- b. cloudy
- c. rainy
- d. changing frequently

2. What day of the week is August 23rd?

- a. Friday
- b. Saturday
- c. Sunday
- d. Monday

3. What activity is planned on that day?

- a. Mountain climbing
- b. Tennis match
- c. Picnic at the beach
- d. Basketball game

4. Where will they meet on that morning?

- a. The south entrance of Tokyo station.
- b. The north entrance of Tokyo station.
- c. At Mr. Tanaka's house.
- d. In front of the tennis club.

5. At least how much money is needed to participate in this event?

- a. 3000 yen
- b. 4200 yen
- c. 1200 yen
- d. 6000 yen

Japanese

Stage 3

Sample 1

Answer the questions on the basis of the following passage:

レストラン案内

ゆっくりと味わいたい北海道料理の店 吉田

営業時間 十二時～十四時 十七時～二十一時

休業 日曜・祝日

おいしい北海道料理が東京でも食べられる。毎日、航空便で北海道から直送してくる魚、貝は新鮮そのもの。ほかの場所では食べられない北海道の珍しい魚を食べさせてくれるのがこの店。夏はいか、冬はかにかがおいしい。

料理もおいしいが、庭園のながめもすばらしい。店内は和風の造りで、落ち着いたふんいきだ。いつも混んでいるので予約が必要。

値段は一人最低一万円位。これだけおいしい魚だったら、高いとはいえないだろう。

パーティー用の大きな部屋もあり、人数がまとまれば、休日でも営業する。

魚料理が専門だが、魚がダメという人にはおいしい肉料理を食べさせてくれる。北海道のおいしい酒もある。

ご主人の佐藤さんは北海道で20年修業した後、3年前にここに開業した。

駐車はとなりのビルの地下の有料駐車場が便利。

Questions: Write TRUE or FALSE beside each sentence.

- ___ 1. This restaurant does not serve lunch.
- ___ 2. This restaurant is not in Hokkaido.
- ___ 3. This restaurant serves fresh seafood only in winter.
- ___ 4. This restaurant's construction is Western-style, although it serves Japanese food.
- ___ 5. If you have 15,000 yen, you cannot treat a friend to dinner.
- ___ 6. You cannot have a party with your friends at this restaurant on Sundays.
- ___ 7. If you are allergic to fish, you can order other dishes.
- ___ 8. Mr. Sato has been running this restaurant for over 20 years.
- ___ 9. You can eat at this restaurant without a reservation.
- ___ 10. This restaurant has free parking.

Japanese

Sample 2

Answer the questions on the basis of the following passage:

「大自然の感動」に出会うカウアイ・オアフ島の夏休み

夏休みハワイの旅6日間 199,000円(東京・大阪発料金)

この旅行パッケージはカウアイ島に2泊、オアフ島に2泊、それから飛行機のなかをいれて全部で5泊6日です。この料金には機内食、到着日のパーティと最終日のパーティの費用が含まれています。渡航手続き費用、オプション・ツアー、自由行動日の食事は含まれていません。ただし、8月出発のお客様には、4日目のオアフ島観光ツアーが含まれています。ツアーの最初から最後まで当社の添乗員が皆様のお世話をします。なお、スケジュールは、飛行機、現地の事情により変更されることがあります。

Questions: Write TRUE or FALSE beside each sentence.

- 1. The price indicated above is effective throughout the year.
- 2. If you leave from Nagoya, you may have to pay extra.
- 3. You will stay in hotels for five nights.
- 4. All meals are included in the price.
- 5. If you travel in August, you will get a tour of Oahu included in the package.
- 6. A tour conductor will be with you throughout the trip.

Sample 3

Answer the questions based on the following passage:

NTTが統一

東京23区内の市内局番

日本電信電話公社(NTT)は四日、東京23区の市内局番を91年(平成3年)1月1日からすべて四ケタに統一すると発表した。市内局番の四ケタ化はパリに次いで世界で二番目。87年から一部地域で3ケタ局番に加え4ケタ局番が導入されたが、急激な電話加入数の増加で、2年後には局番の不足が予想されるため、4ケタ化への全面移行に踏み切ることにした。企業を中心に名刺やパンフレットの印刷代などで新たに数千億円規模の影響が出るものとみられる。

NTTによると、東京23区内の市内局番がすべて四ケタに移行するのは91年1月1日午前2時から。現在、3ケタの局番を使っている利用者の場合、市内局番の先頭に3がつく。例えば、456-7890は345

Japanese

6-7890となる。また、すでに四ケタの市内局番を使っている場合は、変更なく、従来通り。

東京23区内の市内は加入者数が70万件を越えた1960年2月に2ケタから3ケタに移行、最大で約730万回線の容量になったがファクシミリやパソコン通信などの普及でこのところ電話加入者数が急増。今年3月末で620万件となり、91年には回線容量を約3万回線オーバーすることが確実となっている。このため、31年ぶりに23区内の市内局番を変更することになった。

Questions:

1. The passage is about
 - a. the use of facsimile machines in Tokyo.
 - b. the telephone prefix of companies in Tokyo.
 - c. the telephone number printed on business cards in Japan.
 - d. the unification of telephone prefixes in Tokyo.

2. Circle the letter of the correct statement(s).
 - a. The use of facsimiles and computer communication costs a lot of money in Tokyo.
 - b. Some people in Tokyo are already using a 4-digit telephone prefix.
 - c. NTT claims that they have run out of telephone numbers in Tokyo.
 - d. NTT will unify telephone prefixes in Tokyo for the first time in 23 years.

Japanese

SPEAKING

STAGE 1

Stage 1 conversational competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to "communicate minimally with learned material" (Phase I, p. 32; ACTFL p.590).

Stage 1.1

Can produce only isolated words in the common world vocabulary ("samurai," "tempura") and frequently used expressions ("hai," "sayonara").

Stage 1.2

Can respond in isolated words and simple phrases to simple, formulaic questions on familiar topics.

Stage 1.3

Can ask some simple, basic questions.

STAGE 2

Stage 2 conversational competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- "create with the language by combining and recombining learned elements, though primarily in a reactive mode;
- initiate, minimally sustain, and close in a simple way basic communicative tasks; and
- ask and answer questions." (Phase I, p. 32; ACTFL p. 590)

The stage 2 speaker's pronunciation is comprehensible to a sympathetic listener.

Stage 2.1

Can respond, sometimes in sentences, to simple questions on familiar topics.

Can interact minimally with a sympathetic conversant on familiar topics.

Can minimally describe familiar objects, people, places, and events.

Stage 2.2

Conversation skills sufficient for minimal social interaction and basic survival. Can describe past events and future plans.

Stage 2.3

Japanese

Emerging ability to use appropriate socio-linguistic features of the language such as honorifics, in-group/out-group, male/female, and formal/informal differentiation.

Emerging ability to sustain narration/description.

STAGE 3

Stage 3 conversational competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- "converse in a clearly participatory fashion" (Phase I, p. 33; ACTFL p. 592);
- initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those required for complicated or unforeseen situations (adapted from Phase I, p. 33; ACTFL p. 592);
- narrate/describe/persuade on a wide variety of topics at the level of discourse (adapted from Phase I, p. 33; ACTFL p. 592);
- generally use in an appropriate manner: a) male/female speech, b) different styles (formal/informal), c) honorifics (including in-group/out-group differentiation); and
- be understood without difficulty by most native speakers.

STAGE 4

(See description of Superior Level, "ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines," pp. 592-593.)

Japanese

Sample Tests

The following prompts and role playing situations—described in English except where noted—may be used to assess conversational skills in an interview format.

STAGE 1

Sample 1

"Tell me what you see in this room / house." [Show a picture]

Sample 2

Interviewer asks simple questions in Japanese such as:

"Where do you live?"

"Where / What do you usually eat for lunch?"

"Do you like sushi / Japanese movies / sports etc.?"

Sample 3

"I'm a clerk in a department store. Ask me where something is (cameras, children's clothing, the restroom) or how much something is."

STAGE 2

Sample 1

"You meet a friend after a two-week semester break. You catch up on news of each other."

Sample 2

"Describe a movie you have seen recently."

Sample 3

"You have lost an item (wallet, purse, package) on the train. Go to the lost and found. Tell the clerk your problem, describe the item, identify the train you were on."

Sample 4

"Call a friend on the telephone and invite her or him to a party. Give all necessary details."

Sample 5

Japanese

"Go to the front desk of your hotel and ask for directions to the museum. Find out the hours of operation, entrance fee, etc."

STAGE 3

Sample 1

"It's the height of the tourist season in Kyoto. You go to an expensive hotel where you have made advanced reservations. The room is not to your liking. Go back to the front desk and try to get another room from an uncooperative clerk."

Sample 2

"A product you have purchased proves unsatisfactory (apparel or footwear that is the wrong size, a small appliance that malfunctions, etc.). You take the item back, explain the problem, and try to get a cash refund from an unsympathetic clerk."

Japanese

WRITING

STAGE 1

Stage 1 writing competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- write isolated words, learned materials, and simple high frequency expressions in **hiragana** and **katakana** (e.g., one's own name, names of familiar objects);
- write a limited number of words in **kanji**.

Stage 1.1

Can write isolated **hiragana** and **katakana** letters.

Stage 1.2

Can write isolated words, such as one's own name and learned items, in **hiragana** or **katakana** as appropriate.

Can write learned expressions, such as "ogenki desu ka," "arigatoo gozaimashita," in **hiragana**.

Stage 1.3

Can write months, dates, days of the week, and numbers in **kanji**.

Can fill out simple forms with basic personal information, such as name, nationality, sex.

STAGE 2

Stage 2 writing competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to

- write simple letters and messages
- write simple statements and descriptions on topics of personal interest.
- write with increasing use of **kanji**.

Stage 2.1

Can write short messages and descriptions.

May be limited in range of vocabulary and structures used.

May make frequent errors of grammar, vocabulary, or orthography.

Sporadic use of **kanji**.

Stage 2.2

Japanese

Can write short letters to friends and acquaintances, using appropriate seasonal greetings.

Can write messages, notes, and descriptions using an increasingly wide range of vocabulary and structures with fewer errors.

Can write descriptions of past events and future plans.

Can fill out simple forms such as: hotel registers, address forms, registration forms, simple application forms, lost and found forms.

Stage 2.3

Demonstrates basic control of both simple and complex structures.

Emerging ability to develop paragraph-length discourse, though on familiar topics or those of personal interest.

Beginning to show awareness of socio-linguistic features of the language, such as: formal/informal, honorifics, written/spoken modes, in-group/out-group differentiation.

STAGE 3

Stage 3 writing competency in Japanese is characterized by the ability to:

- write cohesive descriptions, summaries, narratives, and reports on a variety of topics
- write formal letters, such as business letters; letters of recommendation and introduction
- prepare resumes
- take notes
- demonstrate higher control of appropriate vocabulary, styles, and syntactical/discourse structures.

STAGE 4

(See description of Superior Level, "ACTFL Japanese Proficiency Guidelines," p. 603)

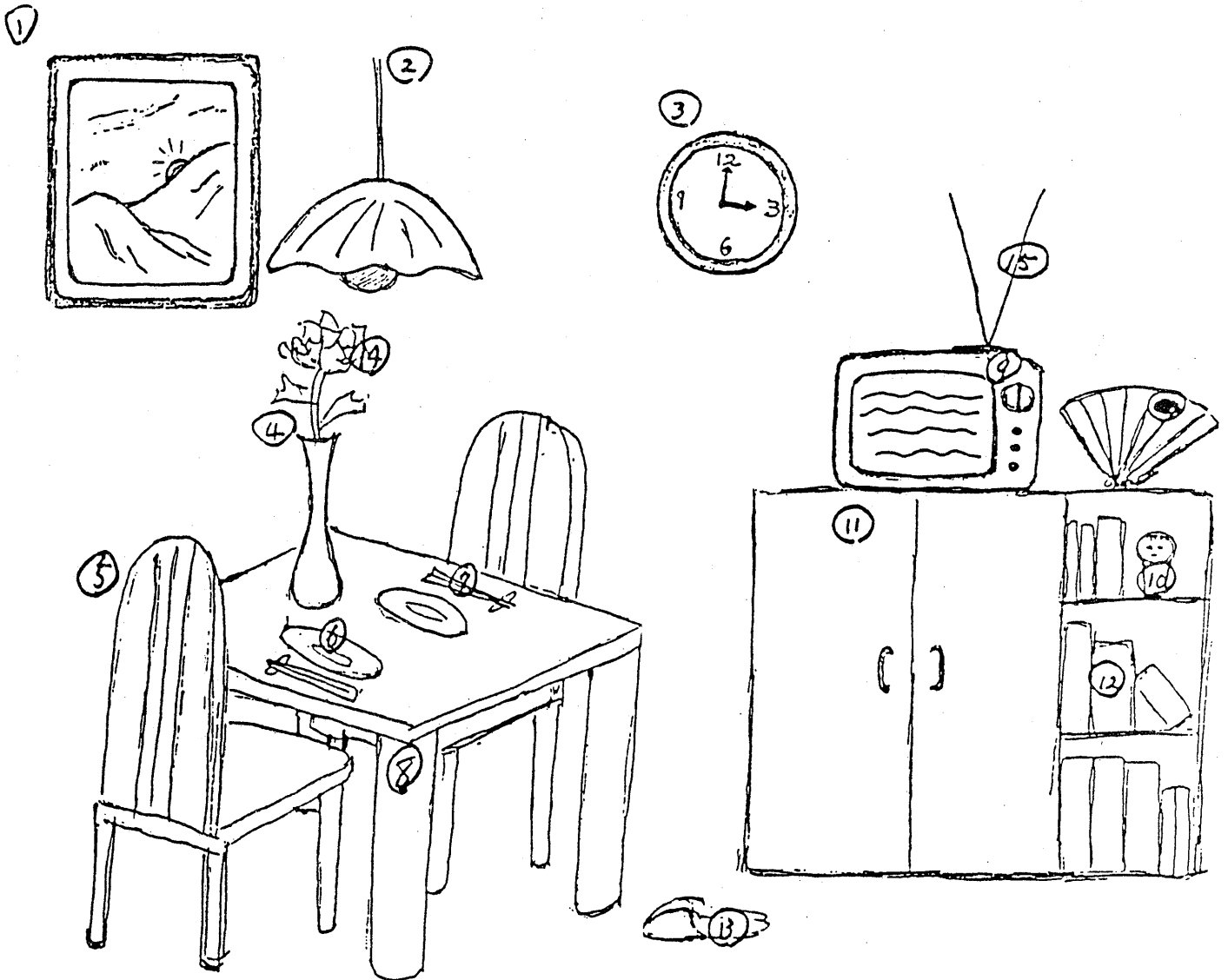
Japanese

Sample Tests

Stage 1

Sample 1

You are asked by the apartment manager to list your possessions. So, write the names of as many things in this picture as you can. You must use **hiragana** and **katakana** appropriately. **Kanji** is not required.



Japanese

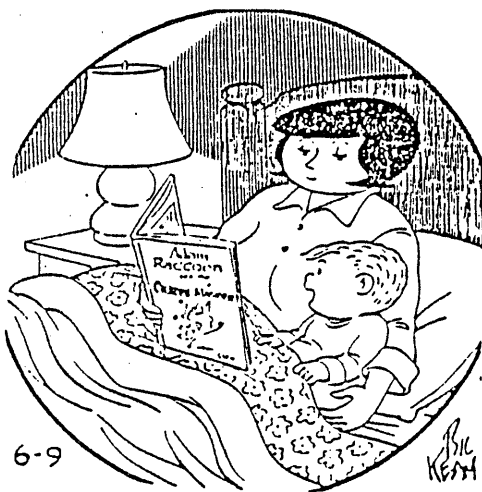
Sample 2

You are asked to fill out the following form in both English and Japanese. Please use **hiragana** and/or **katakana** appropriately. (**Kanji** is not required.)

名前(name)	
国籍	
(nationality)	
現住所	
(city where you currently reside)	
勤務先/学校名	
employer/school	
滞在期間	
(period of stay)	
生年月日	
date of birth	

Stage 2

Sample 1



Describe these pictures using at least two sentences each.

Examples (next page)

Japanese

1. a. 子供が本を読んでいます。
b. お母さんはきいています。
2. a. 犬はおなかがすいています。
b. ごみばこからたべものを見つけようとしています。
3. a. 子供がクッキーをたべようとしています。
b. ふたがひらきません。

Sample 2

You are going to have a birthday party for AKIKO. Write an invitation card to your friend, Toshio, to inform him about the party. (You have to include the place, time, address, etc.)

Example

としお さま

6月20日、日曜日、ごご4時から あきこさんのたんじょう会をひらきます。ばしょは わたしの家です。じゅうしょは 下のとおりです。つごうがよければ ぜひ来てください。

とうきょう すぎなみ あまぬま 2ちょう目 3-1

はなこ

Sample 3

Write a short paragraph describing your teacher. Please include his or her

1. physical appearance
2. style of dress
3. manners
4. personality

Example (next page)

Japanese

私の先生は、とてもハンサムです。いつもきれいなふくを着ています。日本人ですが、英語もじょうずです。時々、大きい声でわらいます。先生は、とてもおもしろくて、やさしいです。わからない時に、しつもんすると、いつも答えてくれます。時々、じょうだんも言います。先生は、日本の車に乗っています。先生は、おすしが一番好きだそうです。終わり。

Stage 3

Sample 1

In a letter to your parents, describe one of your friends: his/her physical appearance, outlook and character, and what/why you like or dislike about him/her.

Example

私の親友のミキは、身長が高く表情の豊かな人です。喜怒哀楽が激しいのが彼女の特徴です。今、ある高校の教師をしています。生徒からの評判も良いそうです。彼女は大学時代からの親友で、英語クラブをとおして知り合ったのですが、彼女は部長で常に皆を引っ張っていました。彼女はスポーツと旅行が好きで、週末にはいつもテニスや水泳を楽しんでいます。私にたいして常に正直に悪い点を指摘してくれますし、相談も親身になって聞いてくれます。

Sample 2

Write a letter to Professor Takamoto, giving him the following information:

1. There will be a conference on modern Japan at Tokyo University from August 5th to August 10th.
2. This year's special topics are (a) economic growth and (b) the family
3. If he is interested in presenting a paper, it should be sent to Prof. Sakai by May 31st.
4. The university will pay travel expenses for those presenting papers.

Example (next page)

Japanese

高本先生へ

この度、8月5日より8月10日にわたり、東京大学において、“近代日本”に関する会合を催すことになりましたので、通知させていただきます。今年度のトピックは (1)経済成長と (2)家族 に絞ってあります。論文発表御希望の方は5月31日までに坂井先生宛、御提出下さいます様お願い致します。

尚、発表者には、旅費、宿泊費を御支払させていただきますことになっておりますので、よろしく御願い申し上げます。

敬具

Japanese

CULTURAL AWARENESS

A major difference between Japanese and Western European languages is its socio-linguistic complexity, including the honorifics. There are differences in male/female and in-group/out-group language, as well as differences in the language used toward one's "superiors," peers, and "inferiors," all of which are also dependent on context. For example, a young man speaking TO his superior at work would use a certain level of honorific language involving a certain choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, morphological changes in verbs and adjectives, and body language. He would, however, use a very different mode in speaking ABOUT this superior to someone from another company and yet another to his peers at work. Even in the case of speaking to his peers, the general context of the conversation would also dictate a different choice of sentence endings: a fairly formal business conference versus an after-work round of drinks at a bar, for example. In all of these situations, a young woman would speak in a different mode altogether.

The differences between written/spoken and formal/informal modes are also vast, and must take into account a large lexicon of Chinese character compounds.

Partly because there are so many different ways of saying the same thing (depending on medium, audience, mode, the speaker/writer's sex, age, station in life, relationship with person being addressed and being spoken about, general context, etc.), the student of Japanese must control a fairly large total vocabulary in order to be able to function authentically in realistic situations. There is research that suggests, for example, that in order to understand 96% of conversations in French, one needs approximately 5,000 vocabulary items. By comparison, the suggested number of items needed to understand 96% of Japanese conversations is 22,000. (Iwabuchi Etsutaro, "Gendai Nihongo" in **Kindaichi Haruhiko, Nihongo**, p. 121.)

Simply in terms of quantity of material to be learned, therefore, it takes much longer for most students to reach the same levels of proficiency in Japanese as in French, German, or Spanish. A widely quoted document developed by the Foreign Service Institute in 1973 states that it takes at least four times as long for students of Japanese to reach the same levels of proficiency as students of French or Spanish. Many Japanese language educators would say that it takes even longer. While the Committee emphatically rejects any notion of Japanese as an inherently difficult language, we nevertheless stress that it takes much longer for most American students to reach certain levels of proficiency in Japanese than in other languages.

Mandarin Chinese

Chinese

Mandarin Chinese

Introduction

The Special Challenge of Mandarin Chinese

In some ways, Mandarin Chinese offers a most attractive possibility for the student of foreign language, for here is a language with none of the traditional difficulties. Not only are there no irregular verbs: There is no conjugation whatsoever, neither for person, nor even for tense. Not only are there no irregular nouns or adjectives: There is no plural, no gender in the Western sense at all.

Yet, the phonemic contrasts of Mandarin are formidable. The multiple contrast between different series of consonants (e.g. the consonants spelled, in “**pinyin**”, as **c**, **ch**, **q** and other parallel plain, retroflex, and palatalized consonants) is difficult enough, and little aided by the “**pinyin**” spelling (in which **c** represents **ts**, and **q** represents palatalized **ch**).

The main phonemic difficulty is, of course, the “four tones”, for the American student must suddenly learn to regard intonation — in English used to distinguish questions from statements, or express degrees of surprise — as just another phoneme, so that **ren4** (pronounced approximately **run!!**) means “to admit something”, while **ren2** (pronounced approximately **run??**) means “person”. Students are traditionally expected to develop a conceptual understanding of the tone-system within a few days, although it may be several years before they develop any real competence with tones in spontaneous speaking.

While Americans, in particular, easily transfer the voicing contrasts of English (**t**, **d**) with its aspiration, into the aspiration contrasts of Mandarin, the highly restrictive Mandarin syllable structure results in a situation in which words are more similar to each other than Americans are used to: However relative their perception, there is a structural reason that the words may actually “look alike” to the American student, even after prolonged acquaintance with the language.

The word-order of Mandarin is parallel enough to English to cause few initial problems, but the American learner is confronted by word-order variations that are quite different than in English, i.e. they appear at once looser and tighter than the syntactic patterns Americans are used to. It is difficult, for example, for Americans to get used to the idea that objects may be brought to the front of the sentence except when they are question-words — the one case in which this movement is obligatory in English. Thus the learner of Mandarin must learn to say “That book, I haven’t read” for special emphasis in Mandarin, even while getting used to saying “You are reading what?” The rigidities are similarly difficult e.g. with relative clauses, which always precede their noun, so that one says not only “(the) very-red books are on the table” but also “(the) I-yesterday-read books are on the table”. In the English pattern, modifiers must precede or follow depending on very specific details of their internal structure (“the broken stick is on the table” vs. “the stick, broken by the boy, is on the table”, and not *“the broken-by-the-boy stick is on the table”); but this complexity, as it confronts the Chinese learner of English, may give only slight comfort to the American student of Chinese.

The writing system of Mandarin, with a separate character of up to ten or more “strokes” for each morpheme of the language (usually equivalent to a syllable), seems

Chinese

simple enough in principle, but represents a continual, almost brutal problem, draining class time as well as student efforts.

The teaching traditions of Chinese, with their emphasis on the correct writing of characters, do not much help the classroom teacher focus on speaking needs. On the contrary, they may tend to skew the curriculum towards American-born Chinese — and even for them to neglect the goal of spontaneous speaking in Mandarin, so that many of these American-born Chinese are left with little more speaking ability than they came with (in whatever variety of Chinese this is).

Teachers who have experimented with more naturally-based, more purely communicative methods, in which accuracy is supposedly acquired with little or no grammar description and practice, have found that these methods seem to develop a shocking level of inaccuracy even while providing a disappointing communicative range and creative ability. One goal of Mandarin teaching is to redefine the balance between communication and accuracy, as well as to determine the most effective way to encourage creativity and communicative range. Inter alia, a more specific definition of what errors can be regarded as more tolerable than others may need to be faced overtly.

Given the challenges, the teaching of Mandarin may lapse into the memorization of fixed dialogues with little time to actually practice even small variations, not to mention true creativity. Teachers who realize the limitations of memorization may not even force development of the limited and artificial “fluency” that it does provide; in this case, speaking competency may remain a theoretical possibility, that there is simply not enough time to test, much less actually teach, in reality. The following outline of competency levels for Mandarin is an effort to resist this tendency.

Mandarin Chinese Language Committee Statement

On the rim of the Pacific and with its population of immigrant citizens from Asia and Latin America continuously growing, California is increasingly a multicultural and multilingual state. Today, in California, demography is forging a rapid transition from the majority-minority distinction in ethnicity to a citizenry of cultural and linguistic diversity. Social harmony and utilization of human resources demand multiculturalism and multilingualism in California.

Economic considerations are major factors in motivating foreign language and culture instruction. The education system in California, and in the nation in general, has not placed foreign languages and cultures in a position of priority. Few college graduates are competent enough to sustain communication in a foreign language. Due to insufficient knowledge of foreign cultures and over-reliance on our trading partners and *competitors* to provide us with information in English, we are losing the competitive edge in the present global economy.

The major purpose of this Statement is to encourage pre-college instruction of Mandarin Chinese. It is not expected that every student studying a foreign language will become proficient in the language. It is important, nevertheless, that all students be exposed to foreign languages and cultures to develop a keener appreciation of their own languages, to broaden their outlook on ways of life, to heighten their intellectual curiosity, and to foster open-mindedness.

Chinese

Most universities in California have Mandarin Chinese programs in place and some high schools have begun to teach the language. It is unlikely, however — nor is it deemed desirable — for all language programs to adopt a standardized series of instructional materials. The second purpose of this Statement is to suggest language-skill levels as minimum requirements for college entrance and graduation. Given the diversity of instructional approaches and curricula, it is hoped that these competency-based language-skill levels would serve as guidelines for Mandarin Chinese instruction and learning in California.

The competency guidelines in the following pages make no attempt to define core vocabulary and core grammatical structures for each competency stage. The vocabulary and grammatical structures of an individual are very much a function of his training and personal experience in the language and culture. Novice speakers have been known to use vocabulary items unfamiliar to more advanced speakers: speakers sharing the same vocabulary might, on the contrary, have quite different abilities in the language. In view of the diversity in personal experience and the multitude of textbooks in use, the adequacy of any "core list" is doubtful at best in defining competency stages. In the guidelines, the same words or grammatical structures may be found in illustrations of different competency stages. Although different tasks associated with the different competency stages may require special vocabulary items and structures, it is not the intention of the guidelines to identify single vocabulary items or grammatical structures with a specific competency stage. (*Chow mein* places a speaker at stage 1.1; a better pronunciation of the same word suggests more training.) Competency is judged by total ability in the language

NOTE

Tone marks have been omitted from the examples in the *pinyin* romanization to facilitate printing.

Chinese

LISTENING

STAGE 1

The Novice level is characterized by the ability to understand minimally learned material.

Comprehension of spoken language is limited to learned words and expressions. Repetition or slow speech is often necessary.

Stage 1.1

No functional ability in understanding the spoken language. Comprehension is limited to the recognition of isolated words such as the common loan words in English (**chow mein, kungfu**) and some high-frequency courtesy formulae (**xiexie, ni hao, zaijian**).

Stage 1.2

No functional ability in understanding the spoken language. Comprehension is limited to high-frequency courtesy formulae (**guixing**) and common, everyday nouns (**fan, pijiu, qishui**).

Stage 1.3

Emerging ability to understand simple statements, questions, and commands based on learned material (**qing jin, qing zuo, ni/nin shi Meiguoren ma**).

STAGE 2

The Intermediate level is characterized by the ability to:

- understand high-frequency situations in face-to-face conversations;
- understand simple directions; and
- understand some connected discourse on a number of topics.

Able to comprehend main ideas and facts on familiar topics in everyday conversation and simple discourse.

Stage 2.1

Able to understand simple questions (**Ni qu ma? Ni yao chi shenme?**) and statements (**Wo bu he pijiu**) in face-to-face situations and on familiar topics. Comprehension vocabulary is limited to the most elementary needs. Simple constructions such as basic subject-verb-object sentences, topic-predication (**Ta ye shi Shanghairen, Zheige bu gui**), and simple modifications with **de** (**ta de pengyou, ganjing de fangjian**) are comprehensible, perhaps at a slow speech speed or after repetition. Emerging ability to distinguish between completed and non-completed events.

Chinese

Stage 2.2

Able to understand questions and statements on a wider range of topics related to survival needs, such as personal history (**Wo zai Beijing zhule yinian.**) and topics of personal interest (**Zheige/bu dianying bi zuotiande hao**). Able to follow simple instructions (**Qing ni xie-xialai**). Recognition of past and future references and sequence of events (**Ta chile wanfan jiu zou / Ta chile wanfan jiu zou le**). Ability to follow simple directions on how to get to a place and comprehend more complex **de**-modifications (**Ta xin renshi de pengyou**).

Stage 2.3

Able to grasp more facts and ideas in simple discourse such as introductions, descriptions of personal interest, and telephone messages. Able to understand more complex constructions such as **ba**-disposal, **bei**-passive, and resultatives. Shows awareness of focal changes in sentences (**Ta zuotian zoule / Ta shi zuotian zou de**), narrative strategies, and use of discourse markers such as sentence connectors. Shows emerging awareness of socio-linguistic features of speech, differences in meaning by intonational variation, and cultural nuances.

STAGE 3

The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to:

- understand main ideas and details on a variety of topics beyond the immediate situation; and
- understand description and narration, including interviews, short lectures on familiar topics and news items and reports dealing with factual information.

Able to understand most face-to-face, non-technical speech of a native speaker with possible repetition and re-wording, and basic telephone conversation. Understands everyday topics related to school and work and current events. Able to get the gist of some radio and television broadcasts for the general public. Shows increasing awareness of socio-linguistic features of speech and cultural nuances.

Chinese

Sample Test

In this section, you will hear a series of conversations in Mandarin Chinese, each to be followed by a question given in English. For each question, there are four answers printed in your answer sheet. Check the most appropriate answer according to the conversation.

Stage 1

Stage 1.1

Dialogue 1

- A. 你好吗？
B. 我很好，谢谢。你呢？

Question: What is the nature of this conversation?

- Answers: a. To express concern about someone's health condition
b. To exchange social greetings
c. To express gratitude to someone for a favor
d. None of the above

Stage 1.2

Dialogue 2

- A: 请问您贵姓？
B: 我姓王。我叫王小明。
A: 啊，王先生，您好，请喝茶。
B: 谢谢。真不好意思。

Question: What is the relationship between the two people?

- Answers: a. Waitress and customer c. New acquaintances
b. Student and teacher d. None of the above

Chinese

Stage 1.3

Dialogue 3

- A: 谁啊? 啊, 是你呀! 白小姐, 请进, 请进。
B: 张太太, 您好。请问, 张先生在吗? 我有事儿找他。
A: 对不起, 他出去了。您坐一会儿, 喝点儿茶吧。
B: 不了, 我还有事儿。
A: 那, 让他下午给您打电话吧。

Question 1: Where does the conversation most likely take place?

- Answers: a. In Ms. Bai's house c. In Ms. Bai's office
 b. In Mr. Zhang's house d. In Mr. Zhang's office

Question 2: What is the purpose of Ms. Bai's visit?

- Answers: a. To have tea with Mrs. Zhang
 b. To discuss some business with Mr. Zhang
 c. To have Mr. Zhang call her in the afternoon
 d. To pay a social call

Stage 2

Stage 2.1

Dialogue 4

- A: 那个年轻的小姑娘真漂亮。你认识他吗?
B: 哪个小姑娘啊? 噢, 李老师旁边的那个啊?
她也是我们班上的同学。
A: 那, 好极了。请你给我介绍一下儿。
B: 嗨, 嗨。我只知道她姓高。

Question 1: Do they know the person in question?

- Answers: a. They don't really know her but one of them knows her surname.
 b. They don't know anything about her at all.
 c. They know her well since they are all in the same class.
 d. None of the above.

Chinese

Question 2: What is Ms. Gao doing when this conversation takes place?

- Answers:
- a. Ms. Gao is introducing someone to her friend.
 - b. Ms. Gao is in a class.
 - c. Ms. Gao is standing next to Teacher Li.
 - d. None of the above.

Question 3: How would you best characterize Ms. Gao?

- Answers:
- a. She is both young and pretty.
 - b. She is the daughter of Teacher Li and she is very pretty.
 - c. She is a young student in Teacher Li's class.
 - d. She is a student and she is both young and pretty.

Stage 2.2

Dialogue 5

A: 老张，你这个表真不错。是在哪儿买的？

B: 就在电影院对面的那个商店里买的。很便宜，才十多块钱。

A: 真的，我听说小方上星期也在那儿买了一个，价钱比你的贵多了，可是没有你的好。你等会儿陪我一起去挑一个，好吗？我想给我弟弟买一个作生日礼物。

B: 好，咱们下午下了课以后就一起去看。

Question 1: How does Lao Zhang feel about his new acquisition?

- Answers:
- a. It is rather inexpensive.
 - b. It is not as good as the one that his friend has bought.
 - c. He wants to get another one.
 - d. None of the above.

Question 2: What are their plans for the afternoon?

- Answers:
- a. To go see a movie
 - b. To go to the shops for ideas for a birthday present
 - c. To go shopping with the brother
 - d. To buy a watch

Chinese

Question 3: How much did Xiao Fang pay for his watch?

- Answers:
- a. Ten dollars
 - b. Less than ten dollars
 - c. A little more than ten dollars
 - d. Probably twenty dollars or more

Stage 2.3

Dialogue 6

- A: 我刚把皮包搁这儿，怎么一会儿就不见了，一定是给谁拿走了。
- B: 这屋子里只有你跟我两个人，刚才又没有谁进来过。不可能是被偷了。E，陈月兰，你不是刚上过洗手间吗？会不会是放在那儿忘了没带回来？
- A: 我是一个多小时以前上的厕所，而且回办公室的时候，我还到小吃店那儿去买了一包香烟。啊呀，我准是在付钱的时候，把皮包给落【la】在柜台上，就匆匆忙忙地赶回来了。
- B: 那，你赶紧给他们打电话，让他们替你先保管一下儿，我这就给你去取。你别担心，一定找得到的。

Question 1: Where could Chen Yue-lan have left her purse?

- Answers:
- a. In the office
 - b. In the snack bar
 - c. In the restroom
 - d. At the cigarette stand

Question 2: When did Chen Yue-lan realize that she had lost her purse?

- Answers:
- a. Not until she had returned from the restroom
 - b. Not until her friend had alarmed her of theft
 - c. Not until an hour ago
 - d. Not until just now

Question 3: When was the last time Chen Yue-lan used her purse?

- Answers:
- a. When she paid for her cigarettes
 - b. When she went to the restroom
 - c. When she made a telephone call
 - d. When she talked to her friend

Chinese

Stage 3

Dialogue 7

- A. 郑教授，请问您这次回国，除了开汉学会议以外，还打算去哪些地方参观呢？听说您对明清瓷器很有兴趣，我们这儿的国立博物馆，在这方面的收藏，颇有成绩。要是您有空儿的话，我可以陪您一块儿去看看。
- B. 那可好极了。我正想找个志同道合的人一起去。我记得你从前学的不是艺术史吗？有您从旁讲解一番，看起来一定是过瘾多了。你知道博物馆每日开放的时间吗？
- A. 除了星期天以外，每天都是从上午九时到下午五时。星期四，开到晚上八点。明天不是周末，我们上午去，比较不那么挤。你看如何？

Question 1: What is the main purpose of Professor Zheng's visit to China?

- Answers:
- a. To attend a conference on porcelain ware
 - b. To attend a conference on Chinese studies
 - c. To attend a conference on the history of the Han dynasty
 - d. To attend an exhibition at the museum

Question 2: Why do they choose the next morning to visit the museum?

- Answers:
- a. Because that is the only day when the museum is open
 - b. Because that is the only time when there is a docent tour
 - c. Because they will be busy in the evening
 - d. Because that is a weekday and it will not be crowded

Question 3: Why do you think that Professor Zheng will enjoy the companionship of his friend?

- Answers:
- a. Because they will have a lot of business to talk about
 - b. Because his friend shares his interest in porcelain art
 - c. Because his friend is familiar with the museum
 - d. Because his friend will be informative

Chinese

READING

(in simplified or traditional characters)

STAGE 1

The Novice level is characterized by an ability to

- identify isolated words and phrases when strongly supported by context;
- identify learned material.

Stage 1.1

No functional ability in reading Chinese. Can recognize a few simple characters, such as the characters for "one," "two," "three," and "big."

Stage 1.2

No functional ability in reading Chinese. Can recognize a small set of frequently encountered characters and compounds in public writing, such as the ones for "men," "women," "exit," and the characters for the pronouns "I," "you," and "he/she." Can recognize certain pictographic characters previously memorized with increasing awareness of the recurrence of some of them as components, such as the "wood" and "mouth" radicals, in other characters. Recognition is limited to printed or clearly written material.

Stage 1.3

Can recognize a greater variety of characters (up to 100) and compounds used in signs, such as the ones for "pull," "push," "post office," and "ticket office," and high-frequency, everyday characters such as the ones for "rice," "noodles," and "China." Characters and compounds are approached for essential information and detail is overlooked. Emerging ability to read simple sentences of high-frequency characters. Errors are frequent.

STAGE 2

The Intermediate level is characterized by an ability to understand main ideas and some facts from simple connected texts.

Can understand main ideas and some facts from simple sentences of high-frequency characters.

Stage 2.1

Can understand the main ideas and and some facts from simple sentences of high-frequency characters. Can puzzle out, with difficulty and frequent error, very simple hand-printed messages, personal notes, and very short letters which may contain certain

Chinese

greetings, forms of address, and queries about well-being where such materials are written by a native speaker used to dealing with foreigners.

Stage 2.2

Sufficient comprehension to understand specially prepared discourse for informative purposes and to understand with the use of a dictionary main ideas and some facts in authentic material written in the oral style. Can understand printed or clearly hand-written, simple, edited prose, such as a simple letter from a friend or a simple message.

Stage 2.3

Can understand longer specially-prepared material. Begins to connect the meaning of sentences in discourse but cannot sustain understanding of longer discourse, especially on unfamiliar topics.

STAGE 3

The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to

- understand main ideas and facts of longer texts, including simple short stories, news items, personal correspondence and simple technical material written for general readers; and
- follow essential points in ideas of special interest or knowledge.

Occasional use of dictionary is common among Advanced-level readers.

Chinese

Sample Test

STAGE 1

1. The emergency telephone number in the U. S. A. is 911. Which of the following should you dial in an emergency?

1. 八三五 2. 六一一 3. 一二三
4. 九一一 5. 八七十

2. Which channel would you turn to in order to watch "Good Morning America"?

一月十七日 (星期二)

上午七: 00

一月十七日 (星期二)

上午七: 00

- | | | | |
|---------|------|---------|------|
| 1. 第三频道 | 日安纽约 | 1. 第三频道 | 日安纽约 |
| 2. 第四频道 | 我爱露西 | 2. 第四频道 | 我爱露西 |
| 3. 第五频道 | 早安美国 | 3. 第五频道 | 早安美国 |

3. You are walking down the street when you realize that you need to locate the nearest restroom. You spot a public building with double doors at the entrance. Which combination of characters will help you enter the building and locate the men's room? Which combination for the ladies' room?

	Entrance	Inside Building
MEN'S ROOM		
1.	出口	男
2.	入口	女
3.	出口	女
4.	入口	男

Chinese

LADIES' ROOM

Entrance Inside
Building

- | | | |
|-----|----|---|
| 1 . | 出口 | 男 |
| 2 . | 入口 | 女 |
| 3 . | 出口 | 女 |
| 4 . | 入口 | 男 |

4. Which line tells you when the following table tennis match will take place?

乒乓球友谊赛

- 1 . 留学生队 - 中文系代表队
- 2 . 时间: 八月十二日(星期五)下午四点
- 3 . 地点: 学院乒乓球室

欢迎大家观看

乒乓球友谊赛

- 1 . 留学生队 - 中文系代表队
- 2 . 时间: 八月十二日(星期五)下午四点
- 3 . 地点: 学院乒乓球室

欢迎大家观看

Chinese

STAGE 2

1. Pick the best answer for each question based on the contents of the following note left for you by Wang Guangming.

你好！今天下午三點半我來找你，你不在家。明天晚上八點我們學校有一個中文電影，我們一起去看，好不好？請你明天晚上七點來我家，我在家等你。再見！

王光明

三月八日

你好！今天下午三點半我來找你，你不在家。明天晚上八點我們學校有一個中文電影，我們一起去看，好不好？請你明天晚上七點來我家，我在家等你。再見！

王光明

三月八日

Questions:

1. Who is Wang Guangming?

A. a doctor C. your father
B. a client D. a fellow student

2. What kind of movie is mentioned in the note?

A. a Japanese film C. a film about China in English
B. a Chinese language film D. a Middle Eastern film

3. From where are you to set out?

A. Wang Guangming's house C. your school
B. the movie theater D. your house

Chinese

2. Match the following information by drawing a line between the corresponding English and Chinese versions.

姓名	姓名	nationality
性别	性别	age
年龄	年龄	address
国籍	国籍	sex
住址	住址	name

3. Match the following advertised notices by drawing a line between the corresponding English and Chinese versions. (Make educated guesses as necessary.)

教授钢琴	Missing Person
征男室友	Piano Teacher
寻人	Looking for a Girlfriend
诚征女友	Looking for a Male Roommate

4. You are looking for a language teacher. Whom would you call on the basis of the following business cards? (Circle the number.)

(1)

北京语言学院教授	
王书文	
北京语言学院五楼三号	电话 二七七五三一

Chinese

(2)

中国美术家协会会长

李金宝

北京宁海路一二三号

电话 六三一六三六

(3)

中国国际交流协会书记

张天明

北京长江路十二号

电话 八四二五三

STAGE 3

1. You are looking for a house that is fully equipped, thus allowing you to move in right away. In addition, it must be near to public transportation and big enough for a family of five (parents plus three children). You are prepared to rent, if necessary, but would prefer to buy if the price is fair. Which of the following ads would you be apt to answer first? (Circle the number.)

1 .

吉房招租

现有新房一所出租交通便近菜市场杭州南路十五号

2 .

住宅廉让

交通便 设备全 四间 南海路二巷十二弄九号

Chinese

1 .

吉房招租

現有新房一所出租交通便近菜市杭州南路十五號

2 .

住宅廉讓

交通便 設備全 四間 南海路二巷十二弄九號

2. Give the best answers for the following questions based upon the advertisement below.

十月份大特價

各式新車二手車每年一次機會絕無僅有本月份
大減價可讓您買到最便宜的豪華轎車請勿失良機有意者
請電五三五六

十月份大特價

各式新車二手車每年一次機會絕無僅有本月份
大減價可讓您買到最便宜的豪華轎車請勿失良機有意者
請電五三五六

1. What types of vehicles are being advertised for sale?

- A. New cars C. Luxury cars E. All of the above
B. Second-hand cars D. Sedans

2. Which of the following statements most aptly describes the general price of the cars?

- A. Expensive, but you must pay for such quality
B. Reasonable if you trade in your old car at the same time
C. Big discount if you buy in the month of October
D. Good bargains available throughout the year

Chinese

3. You are looking for a job that requires a knowledge of English at a rudimentary level, but does not require any specialized knowledge or experience (only a conscientious and responsible attitude toward work). Which of the following job openings would you pursue? (Circle the number.)

(1)

休士頓銀行招人

德州休士頓首都銀行徵貸款行員需有經驗及通英文

有意者請寄履歷照片

(2)

求才

嬰兒用品連鎖店。徵分店經理及助理。不限年齡、性別。能誠意負責，

兩人以上共同輪班經營亦可。需輕勞動及基本英語。

(1)

休士頓銀行招人

德州休士頓首都銀行徵貸款行員需有經驗及通英文

有意者請寄履歷照片

(2)

求才

嬰兒用品連鎖店。徵分店經理及助理。不限年齡、性別。能誠意負責，

兩人以上共同輪班經營亦可。需輕勞動及基本英語。

4. You wish to place an advertisement in the employment section of this newspaper's classified ads. What are the terms for placing an ad and what information is requested of the person placing the ad? (next page)

Chinese

國際日報分類廣告

歡迎刊登：房地產 出讓 招租 啓事
尋求 遺失 徵求 聘請 待聘等廣告。

每單位可容標題五字、小字四十五字。

每單位一日4元、至少登刊三日。

連續登刊六日、一日收費3元。

長期刊登每日2元、(每月計二十六日以上)

共刊登	月	次	拾	元	日
至	日	月	日		

委託人：
地址：
電話：

5. If you were to place an advertisement in the newspaper using the above form, and you wanted to run it for thirty days using a three-character heading and forty characters of text, how much would it cost altogether?

- A. \$120 B. \$90 C. \$60 D. \$30

6. What type of advertising is *not mentioned* as specifically available?

- A. employment C. real estate
 B. lost and found D. school recruitment

Chinese

SPEAKING

STAGE 1

The Novice level is characterized by the ability to communicate minimally with learned material.

Stage 1.1

No functional ability to speak Chinese. Oral production is minimal and limited to a few common loan words in English (**chow mein, kungfu**) and perhaps a few high-frequency, courtesy phrases (**xiexie, zaijian, ni hao**).

Stage 1.2

No functional ability to speak Chinese. Oral production is limited to learned material such as isolated words and learned phrases (**duoshao qian, bu yao**). Can count from one to ten and name common objects related to basic, everyday needs (**fan, cesuo**), and direct address for kinship terms of the immediate family. Pronunciation and tones may be barely intelligible.

Stage 1.3

Emerging ability to form simple statements based on formulaic utterances (**Wo yao qishui. Wo yao mai piao.**) and ask simple questions (**You pijiu ma? Ni he shenme?**). Pronunciation and tones are often faulty and word order may be influenced by native language (***Shenme ni yao?**). Can use common measures (**neige ren, liang-ben shu**). Vocabulary includes a larger number of objects of basic, everyday needs, high-frequency place names, kinship terms of the immediate family, and common verbs and adjectives. The time frame of utterances is limited to the present.

STAGE 2

The Intermediate level is characterized by the speaker's ability to:

- create with the language by combining and recombining learned elements, though primarily in a reactive mode;
- initiate, minimally sustain, and close in a simple way basic communicative tasks; and
- ask and answer questions.

Stage 2.1

Can ask and respond to all four types of simple questions (**Ta shi Meiguoren ma? Ta shi-bu-shi Meiguoren? Ta shi Meiguoren haishi Yingguoren? Ta shi neiguoren?**)

Chinese

and initiate and respond to simple statements (**Wo qing ni chi fan**). Can use basic constructions, such as subject-predication sentences (**Wo bu he pijiu. Ta shi Yingguoren. Neige fanguan hen gui.**) and simple nominal and adjectival modifiers (**wo pengyoude fuqin, ganjing de fangjian**). Ability to use the particle **le** to describe status change (**Ni lei le ma?**). Pronunciation and tones may still be faulty.

Stage 2.2

Can give simple personal history and talk simply about leisure activities (**Wo xianzai zai Meiguo nianshu.**) Able to make comparisons (**Zheige gen neige yiyang. Ta bi wo meimei gao.**) Shows ability to use, though sometimes incorrectly, time words (**yijing**) and verbal particles (**le, zhe**) in describing completed and continuing events, making past and future references, and use directional endings (**V + chuqu**) in simple constructions. Able to distinguish between pre-verbal "time when" and post-verbal "time spent."

Stage 2.3

Emerging ability to sustain longer stretches of speech and to use connectors in discourse (**yinwei, suoyi, houlai, jiezhe, keshi, na(me, ...)**). Shows increasing ability to indicate focal points in a description or narration by using syntactic constructions such as **shi-de-focus, ba-disposal, bei-passive, and resultatives**. Emerging awareness of cultural nuances (**Ta bu zai—Ta bu zai le; baba—fuqin; duoshao sui—duo da nianji**).

STAGE 3

The Advanced level is characterized by an ability to:

- converse in a clearly participatory fashion;
- initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those that require an increased ability to convey meaning with diverse language strategies due to a complication or an unforeseen turn of events;
- satisfy the requirements of school and work situations; and
- narrate and describe with paragraph-length connected discourse.

Able to sustain face-to-face conversations on everyday, non-technical topics. Able to converse on well-known current events, routine matters involving school and work, and can discuss topics of personal history and interest. Emerging ability to support opinions, explain in detail, and hypothesize. Demonstrates a good control of many cohesive devices (**yi fangmian...yi fangmian, bushi... jiushi**) and ability to use complex syntactic constructions (various types of passive construction, use of question words as indefinite) to indicate focal points in a description or narration. Be understood by native speakers without difficulties, though errors still occur in complicated constructions. Increasing awareness of cultural nuances (**Ni fafu le.**)

Chinese

Sample Test

1. Select one thing handy in the office such as a desk, a chair, a book, a pen, etc. Ask the student to say as much as he or she can in Chinese about the object. To elicit the most speech from the student, some prompting may be needed.

For example, select an old, black-color ballpoint pen for the student to describe. Depending on the proficiency level, the student's description may include some of the following.

1. 1 笔

1. 2 圆珠笔

1. 3 这是一支圆珠笔。这是你的。这是一支旧笔。

2. 1 这是一支黑的圆珠笔。这支笔不新。是旧的。

2. 2 这支黑圆珠笔很不错。很好用。很便宜。跟那支一样。

2. 3 这种圆珠笔可能是美国货。大家都喜欢用。可是不便宜。

3. 这种圆珠笔很粗。写出来的字很好看。你喜欢细的。也可以买得到。这支笔你大概用了很久了。看起来象是旧的。因为又脏。又没有光泽。

2. Ask the student to describe one of the following topics. (Outlines in English may be provided as a guide.)

A. School and studies

D. Items in a student's apartment

B. Leisure activities

E. Items in the classroom

C. Activities of a typical day

F. Items in the student's bag

3. Select a picture such as one of the following drawings. Ask the student to give an oral description of it in as much detail as possible.

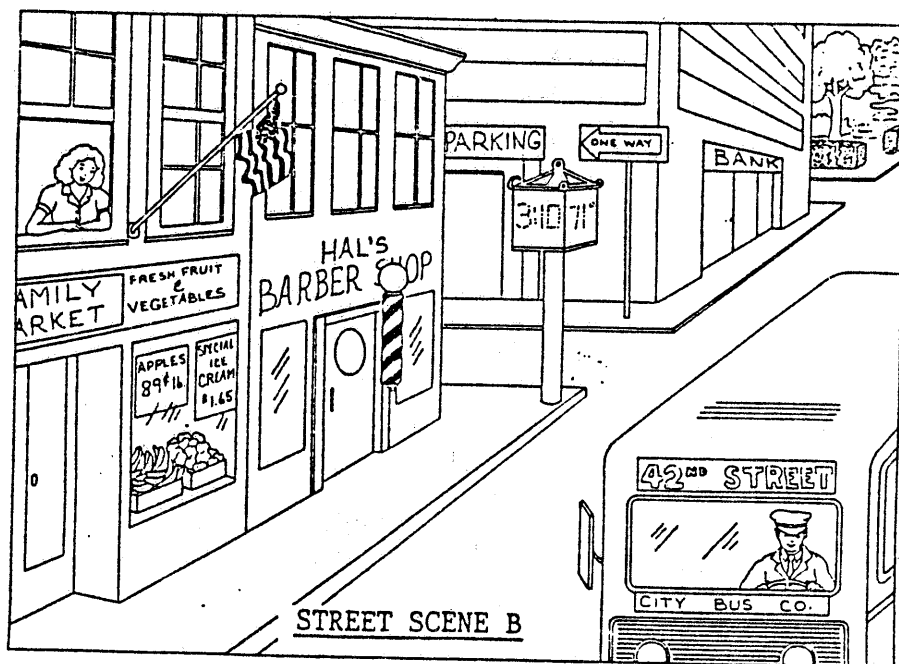
Chinese



街景甲

1. 1 车、人
1. 2 小车、小人·男人、女人
1. 3 小汽车、小男孩、年轻男人、年轻女人
小男孩走·年轻男人开车·年轻女人买东西·
2. 1 汽车很小·里边有一个年轻男人·他开车·他的头发不长·他的头发是黑的·小男孩走路·他穿一件衬衫·一条长裤·一双皮鞋·他的头发不长·他的头发不黑·年轻女人有一包东西·她的头发很长·她的头发是黑的·她穿一件大衣·她没有穿裙子·
2. 2 这辆车很小·只有一个男人坐在里边开车·车子只有窗子·没有门·年轻的女人可能二十多岁·穿着一件大衣·开车的男人可能比那个女人大·小男孩大概八岁·街上人很少·也很干净·
2. 3 小男孩是白人·可能是北欧人·因为他的头发的颜色很浅·他跟一只鸡一起散步·开车的男人是南欧人·因为他的头发的颜色很深·而且是卷的·皮肤是黑的·他的车轮是方的·而且车子没有门·年轻的女人头发很直·很光·可能是亚洲人·她腿向前走·身子却向后·
3. 这张画很奇怪·街景又象城里·又象城外·街景上半边象商业区·可是·人行道旁边没有车·街景下半边·人行道旁边种着草·又象是住宅区·

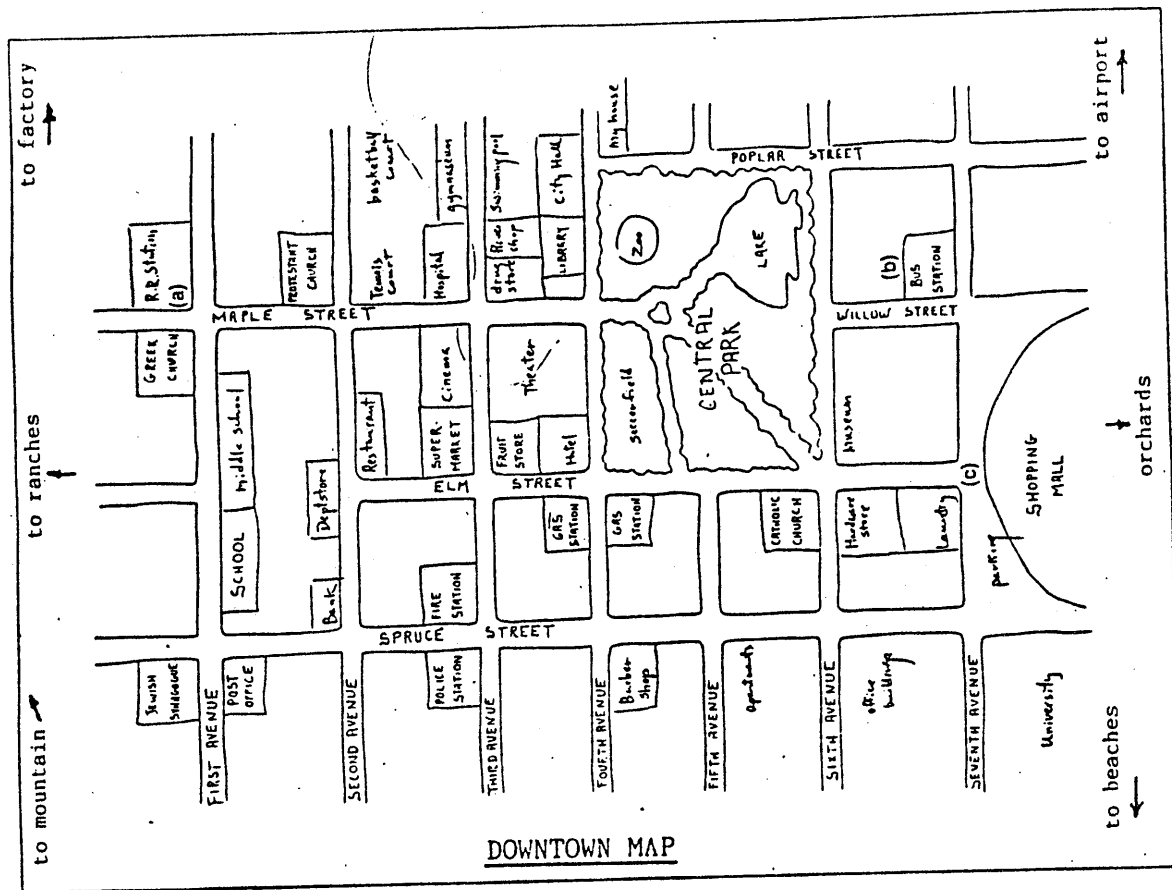
Chinese



街景乙

1. 1 人 (pointing at the woman and the driver)
1. 2 银行、公园、汽车、商店、旗
1. 3 街上有银行、公园、美国国旗、公共汽车、汽车司机、理发店。
2. 1 街上没有人。银行关门了。停车场在银行的旁边。公园里有树。现在是三点十分。理发店的名字叫“HAL'S”。理发店的旁边是水果店。
2. 2 水果店楼上有个女人。现在气温是七十一度。水果店上挂着一面美国国旗。水果店卖水果和蔬菜。苹果八毛九一磅。冰淇淋一块六毛五一个。
2. 3 公共汽车很大。司机正在开车。现在是三点十分。还没到下班的时候。所以公共汽车很空。水果店的名字叫“家庭市场”。店里卖冰淇淋，也卖新鲜的蔬菜。
3. 图中有一条单行道。那里有一个停车场。美国的银行一般在下午三点关门。现在是三点十分。所以银行关门了。二楼上的女人正在看风景。但是大街上很安静，没有人。只有一辆空的公共汽车。这辆公共汽车是在四十二街上开的。

Chinese



城区地图

- 1.1 树 (pointing at the park)
- 1.2 图书馆, 办公楼, 商场...
- 1.3 图书馆在公园的北边, 银行在小学的南边...

- 2.1 博物馆在公园的西南边, 动物园在公园的东北边, 邮局在小学的西边...
- 2.2 邮局在第一街和 Spruce 街的角上, 五金行在教堂对面, 中央公园的西南角对面, 中学离商场很远, 医院的对面有花店和药店...
- 2.3 中央公园在市中心, 公园的东北角是动物园, 公园的西北角是个足球场, 公园的东南角有个湖, 城的东北边有山, 西边有海滩, 南边有果园, 北边有牧场, 东边有工厂, 城里有很多教堂, 饭馆和戏院, 城里还有购物中心, 百货商场, 警察局, 市政府, 办公楼五金行, 消防队...

3. 这个城市依山傍海, 交通方便, 各种交通设置都有, 有各种宗教的教堂, 有中学, 大学, 也有中央公园, 博物馆, 戏院, 电影院等娱乐场所。

Chinese



宴会

1. 1 男人、女人，吃饭。
1. 2 三个男人，三个女人，他们吃饭。六把椅子、一张桌子
1. 3 他们一起吃饭。有的人说话，有的人听。他们都三十多岁。

2. 1 有六个人在饭厅吃饭。窗外边有一棵树，树上有鸟。猫坐在窗户后边看鸟。
2. 2 门开着，窗户没开。衣架上挂着一顶帽子、一件大衣、一个皮包。餐桌上有桌布，有酒杯。有一个人在看主人切一只大火鸡。有一个女人穿着很漂亮的衣服，戴着很漂亮的项链。有一个女人戴眼镜。一个男人穿西服。还有两个男人可能也穿西服，可是我们只看见背，看不见前边。
2. 3 餐厅里有六个人正在吃饭。桌上有烛台，点着蜡烛。今天他们吃火鸡，所以这可能是感恩节或者圣诞节的宴会。大家都在等男主人切那只大火鸡。

3. 有三对夫妇在一起吃饭。一只猫坐在窗台上望着窗外树上的鸟儿，心里很想吃它。这是一个相当富裕的家庭。房子看起来很宽敞。地上有地毯。玻璃橱里陈设着艺术品。家具也是相当的讲究。饭桌上方天花板上挂着一个漂亮的吊灯。

Chinese

WRITING

(in simplified or traditional characters)

STAGE 1

The Novice level is characterized by an ability to produce isolated words and phrases.

Stage 1.1

Can copy isolated characters with simple stroke configurations, such as the characters for "one," "two," "three," "man/person," and "big." May be able to reproduce such characters from memory with no consistent stroke order.

Stage 1.2

Can copy isolated characters with more complex stroke configurations and short phrases. Can write from memory the characters for one's own name, for the numbers and simple phrases associated with numbers, such as dates (**yi-jiu-ba-jiu nian, shi-er yue, san ri**).

Stage 1.3

Can write frequently used memorized material, such as one's own name, address, and nationality (**Meiguoren**). Can make simple lists using learned characters (**cha, qishui**). Can write some memorized simple sentences (**Wo shi daxuesheng. Wo shiba sui.**) and shows emerging ability to write simple sentences by combining and recombining learned characters and phrases. Knows 50 to 100 characters and high-frequency, speech-based compounds derived from these characters. Mistakes occur frequently in writing characters and grammatical accuracy reflects the writer's control of the spoken language.

STAGE 2

The Intermediate level is characterized by an ability to meet practical writing needs by communicating simple facts and ideas in a loose collection of sentences in the conversational style.

Stage 2.1

Can write simple notes in a highly conversational style (**Ni hao. Ni jiao shenme mingzi?**) Can recount everyday events in a list-like manner (**Wo lai. Ni bu zai. Wo mingtian lai.**). Vocabulary is mainly related to everyday objects, common verbs and

Chinese

adjectives. Makes persistent mistakes in characters and word choice. Sentence structure is limited to basic constructions.

Stage 2.2

Can write short stories, diary entries, and simple letters to friends using a wider range of vocabulary. Shows increasing ability to write about past events and future plans, although sentences are still disconnected and writing shows little or no discourse structure. Can fill out simple forms on personal history. Fewer errors occur in everyday characters and basic grammar.

Stage 2.3

Shows basic control of high-frequency constructions. Shows increasing ability to use sentence patterns (**shi-de**-focus, **ba**-disposal, **bei**-passive) to organize topics of focus in sentences and paragraphs.

STAGE 3

The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to:

- write routine social correspondence, cohesive summaries, and resumés as well as narratives and descriptions;
- take notes; and
- write on a variety of topics, including informal business correspondence.

Demonstrates integrative skill in writing cohesive descriptions of common events and everyday routines. Can write simple letters consisting of several paragraphs. Shows emerging ability to use structural devices (lexicon and patterns) typical of Chinese written style, such as **yinci**, **jiran**; **yi...wei...**, and **buru** rather than **X meiyou Y...** Although errors occur in the use of these stylistic devices, textual cohesion is obvious.

Chinese

Sample Test

SAMPLE QUESTION FOR ANY STAGE:

Write a description of a good friend. As much as you can, include the friend's name, a physical description of the person (e.g., height, weight, hair color), his/her personality or likes and dislikes, work, school and leisure activities, and explain why you consider the person a good friend.

SAMPLE ANSWERS:

STAGE 1

他是美国人·他很高·他念中文·

他是美國人·他很高·他念中文·

STAGE 2

……他現在在北京學習漢語·他是一個非常用功的學生·……

……他現在在臺北學習漢語·他是一個非常用功的學生·……

STAGE 3

……他不但是我們班上的高才生·而且也是我們的足球健將·……由於他為人正直·樂於助人·班上同學誰都樂意跟他交往·……

……他不但是我們班上的高才生·而且也是我們的足球健將·……由於他為人正直·樂於助人·班上同學誰都樂意跟他交往·……

SEPARATE QUESTIONS BY STAGE:

STAGE 1

1. A Chinese friend has ask you to send him the date and time of a certain event. Copy down the date and time from the given announcement for him. (Provide an announcement describing the event for this assignment.)

Chinese

2. You are at the door of a friend's apartment. Your friend is not in. Leave a note, giving your name (in Chinese, if possible) and the present time and date, to let him know that you called in person.
3. You want your Chinese room-mate to take the following things to school for you: the Chinese books, the Chinese-English dictionary, the notebooks, pens and pencils, and the map of China. Write a list for him or her as a reminder.
4. Your friend's birthday is May 9, 1967. He/she is American. He/she is studying Chinese and can speak the language. Write down the information for a Chinese person, giving your friend's name in Chinese, if possible.
5. Give a Chinese version of the following family tree. (Provide a family tree in English for this writing assignment.)

STAGE 2

1. You have arrived at a friend's apartment to invite him to the movies and dinner next Saturday. Your friend is not in. You will be at the university from 1:30 to 3:45 this afternoon. If your friend wants to, he may find you there. Otherwise, you will stop by his apartment again on your way home. In any case, you will be home this evening and tomorrow morning. Write a note to let your friend know why you have come to see him, how you plan to get in touch with him later on, and how he might be able to get in touch with you.
2. Pretend that you are on vacation in Hong Kong or that you are a visitor to the city or town where you live. Write a postcard to a Chinese friend to tell him about the place, what you have done and seen, what you plan to do next, what you have bought, and the date and travelling arrangements of your return.
3. The following is an outline of your daily routine. Write a short letter to a Chinese friend and give him a description of your typical day or typical week.

by	7:00	get up
	7:30	breakfast (Describe what you eat.)
	8:00	off to school (Describe how you get there: e.g., by bus)
	8:30	Chinese class (Describe what you do in class.)
	10:00	English literature class (Monday, Wednesday, Friday) or American history class (Tuesday, Thursday)
	12:00	lunch with friends
	1:30	science class (Tuesday, Thursday)
		part-time work at the library (Monday, Wednesday)
	3:30	study in the library or sports team practice (tennis, football, basket ball, etc.)
	6:00	arrive at home, watch TV news and prepare supper (You eat with friends, sometimes.)
	7:00	supper
	8:00	study, visit with friends (Describe what you do in each case.)
	11:30	bed-time

Chinese

4. Write a diary entry on what you did last Saturday.

SAMPLE WRITING: Postcard to a Chinese friend

<p>小高： 六月五日晚上我从东京到了 香港。昨天我去看了太平山。 香港真好玩，可是人多极了。 香港的东西没有日本的贵。我 每天都去买东西。下星期我到 北京去。 再见。</p> <p style="text-align: right;">比利</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 50px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto 20px auto;"></div> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
---	---

<p>小高： 六月五日晚上我從東京到了 香港。昨天我去看了太平山。 香港真好玩，可是人多極了。 香港的東西沒有日本的貴。我 每天都去買東西。下星期我到 北京去。 再見。</p> <p style="text-align: right;">比利</p>	<div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 50px; height: 40px; margin: 0 auto 20px auto;"></div> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
---	---

STAGE 3

1. Write a letter of two or more paragraphs to a Chinese friend and describe to him/her your summer plans.

Chinese

2. A Chinese friend is coming to visit you in the United States. Write to him/her about the climate of the region in which you live and the types of clothes and everyday necessity items you think he/she should bring. Give him/her a description of your family (who they are and what they do), of your house or apartment (include the living arrangement for your friend), and of your hometown. Tell him/her the plans (trips, activities, etc.) you have made for his/her visit.
3. You are planning to go to China to study or work. Write a letter of two or more paragraphs to an academic advisor or potential employer to introduce yourself, describe your training and experience, your plans, and explain why you want to go to China.
4. You have just seen a good movie or TV show. Write a summary of the movie or show and explain why you think it is great.
6. You are visiting a city or country for the second time (or pretend that you are a visitor to your hometown for the second time). Write to a Chinese friend about what you remember of the place before, describe to him the changes you have noticed, and tell him what you think about the changes.

SAMPLE WRITING: Summer plans

今年暑期，我打算到中国去旅行。我准备六月动身。本来我是希望十月才去的。中国南方的夏季相当热，常下雨，不如秋季凉快。可是十月时学校有课，无法走开。

我这次到中国去的目的是要看看长江和黄河。我希望先到香港，然后坐火车北上。我打算在上海南京一带玩十来天，看看长江流进大海的地方，然后到华北去。在华北，我希望到北京和天津等几个大城市去观光。至于中国别的地方，也许得等待下一次了……

今年暑期，我打算到中國去旅行。我準備六月動身。本來我是希望十月才去的。中國南方的夏季相當熱，常下雨，不如秋季涼快。可是十月時學校有課，無法走開。

我這次到中國去的目的是要看看長江和黃河。我希望先到香港，然後坐火車北上。我打算在上海南京一帶玩十來天，看看長江流進大海的地方，然後到華北去。在華北，我希望到北京和天津等幾個大城市去觀光。至於中國別的地方，也許得等待下一次了……

Chinese

CULTURAL AWARENESS

Cultural concepts in language use include self-degradation/honoring the person(s) with whom one is communicating, taboos, indirect declines, daily expressions, auspicious expressions, and common literary and historical allusions. The following are some examples of the cultural concepts.

STAGE 1

Able to use titles (**xiansheng**, **Zhang laoshi**) and avoid using titles for self-reference. Able to distinguish between neutral and honorific forms (**ni/nin**, **Ni xing shenme?/Nin guixing?**). Able to respond to compliments with polite declines (**Nali, nali. Meiyou, meiyou.**)

STAGE 2

Able to decide under what circumstances to use just titles, titles with names, and names alone. Able to use full names as the normal form of address and given names as intimate forms of address. Emerging ability to avoid directness in situations in which politeness is required (**Qingwen nin shi ...?** instead of **Nin shi neiwei?** or **Ni shi shei?**) Aware that, as a measure of self-degradation, one does not dwell on one's personal achievements and strong points or those of one's family. Aware that certain taboos in this country, such as inquiries about age, income, how much people paid for their houses, and comments about people getting fat, are not usually considered as such in China. On the contrary, **Ni pang le** is often used as a compliment on someone's good health.

Aware of the greeting function of certain expressions such as **Shang nar qu? Chiguole meiyou? Zuijin zenmeyang?** which usually requires no factual answers. Aware that telephone conversations require no smooth wind-down and may end abruptly with just **Jiu zheyang ba** or less. Able to use **shangge, zheige, xiage** with days of the week to refer to the proper days. Able to use **Duibuqi** correctly as an apology and not as an expression of sympathy. Aware that the Chinese listener's frequent nod of the head and repeated **shi ... shi ... shi ...** throughout what is said to him are usually signs of his attention to what is said or eagerness for the conversation to continue rather than agreement with the speaker.

STAGE 3

Able to associate certain polite statements (**Wo xiang wo bu tai xing ba. Mei shenme cai. Bianfan.**) with self-degradation rather than factual statements. Able to use special vocabulary and expressions in compliments and responses (**fafu le** instead of **pang le; tuofu**). Aware that certain indefinite answers (**yanjiu yanjiu**) are likely to be indirect declines rather than promises of possibility. Able to use special terms in talking about taboo subjects (**bu zai le** instead of **si le**). Increasing awareness of what the taboo subjects are (for example, to ask if someone is married is common; to ask if someone is divorced is not; one does not ask the listener if his parents are dead.) Emerging

Chinese

awareness of puns and extended meaning (**yao fan, song zhong**), and allusions (**Ta shi women banshang de Xi Shi**. 'She is the most beautiful in our class,' use **Caocao** for a villain). Increasing awareness of and ability to use the polite forms of salutation and reference in formal correspondence.

Russian

Russian

Russian

Introduction

The Special Challenge of Russian

As compared with those of Japanese and Mandarin, the problems of acquiring Russian may seem modest, but they are frightening enough to the average American student, who may have thought even of German as an “exotic” and difficult language.

As mentioned, the alphabet — as difficult as that of Greek, and certainly a larger difficulty than the student of a Western European language ever encounters — is difficult enough, boasting no fewer than five letters that look somehow like the Roman letter **b**, and several similar letters for consonants whose only similarity for the American is their pronunciation difficulty.

No less important, this alphabet is a complex representation for a complex phonemic system, with certain vowels often including a representation for a modification (“palatalization”) of the preceding consonant. The very phonemic contrast between plain and palatalized consonants represents a continual strain on the mouth and memory of the American learner.

But the alphabet and phonemics of Russian are the merest hint of the difficulties to follow over the coming years of study, especially in the inflectional system.

Students of Western European languages, for example, must often deal with two past tenses, differing in a nuance that linguistic theory labels “aspectual”, e.g. the preterite vs. imperfect of Spanish. Now what if this aspectual contrast pervaded the verb-system, so that future tense and infinitive also made the distinction? What if, instead of just a different set of endings (as in **-aba** vs. **-é**) the distinction was made by using a different verb-stem, which unpredictably differed in suffix, or prefix, or whole stem? With these additional complications, the Spanish verb has almost been turned into the Russian verb, in which each verb comes in aspectual pairs, such as **poluchat’/poluchit’**, **davat’/dat’**, **delat’/sdelat’**, **chitat’/prochitat’**, **govorit’/skazat’**, **brat’/vz’at’**. To this must be added the special difficulty of verbs of motion, which distinguish not only unidirectional vs. multidirectional motion, but also self-propelled motion as opposed to motion in a vehicle (for transitive verbs of motion like “bring” as well as intransitives like “come”).

German is popularly regarded as a difficult language, and rightly so, since, instead of the single form “the”, it boasts a variety of forms, distinguishing not only singular and plural, but also three genders, and four sentence-functions, called “cases”. Thus, even where one knows that “fish” is masculine, one must distinguish between **der Fisch** and subject of the sentence, **den Fisch** as object, but **in dem Fisch** for “in the fish”. Fortunately the contrasts are generally expressed in the article, with the noun generally unchanged (except for singular vs. plural), and the adjective generally using a more restricted set of endings.

Although Russian has no articles, its case system is far more complex. It boasts six cases, in conservative analyses. (Separate sub-cases, such as a partitive genitive or a locational prepositional case, exist for some nouns.) The endings differ for the three genders of Russian and for certain sub-genders, as well as for plural; they are full of irregularities in stress, and radically change the form of words (e.g. **moy otets** “my father” changing to **moyemu ottsu** “to my father”). Adjectives and pronouns exhibit entirely separate inflectional systems for case, so that nouns and their modifiers have non-rhyming, completely different endings (unlike Greek, for example).

Russian

All of these inflectional complications represent a specially difficult, if not continuing, torture for American learners, whose native language does not even prepare them for the relatively mild complications of Western European languages.

As with other LCT languages, teaching tradition is an additional hindrance. While the teaching of English and other foreign languages in Russia has managed to absorb some modern innovations, Russian students (since their native language is already inflectionally complex) do not face the sudden "inflation" in inflectional complexity that American students of Russian face. Furthermore, teachers of Russian in America tend to draw not on Russian methods for teaching English, but rather on their own experiences with studying Russian as native speakers. Thus, they may tend to focus on details of inflection while neglecting the full competency that such details ought to presuppose.

Many teachers who have experimented with more naturally-based, more purely communicative methods, in which accuracy is supposedly acquired with little or no grammar description and practice, have found that these methods seem to develop little more than "pidgin Russian". One goal of Russian teaching is to redefine the balance between communication and accuracy, as well as to determine the most effective way to inject grammar description and practice into communicative tasks. Inter alia, a more specific definition of what errors can be regarded as more tolerable than others may need to be faced more systematically.

Given the challenges, the teaching of Russian may lapse into the memorization of fixed dialogues with little time to actually practice even small variations, not to mention true creativity. Teachers who realize the limitations of memorization may not even force development of the limited and artificial "fluency" that it does provide; in this case, speaking competency may remain a theoretical possibility, that there is simply not enough time to test, much less actually teach, in reality. The following effort to define competency levels represents one step in resisting this tendency.

Russian Language Committee Statement

Assessing competency in a language is not the same as testing achievement. Achievement tests are constructed to check mastery of some discrete body of material; for example, as a quiz on a textbook lesson, or an exam on what has been covered by a course. They are useful ways of providing students, teachers and parents with feedback at regular intervals, but they typically test for specific, often unconnected elements of language. A competency test, on the other hand, is a holistic assessment of what the student can actually do with the language in unrehearsed situations. The student's response to a testing prompt is not simply right or wrong; it is indicative of a stage of competency and helps define the student's performance level.

By way of illustration, imagine this test: "Demonstrate the ability to swim two lengths of the pool." This is a competency test. It addresses what can be done now - not whether swimming lessons were ever taken. It does not ask how the ability to demonstrate was acquired, or how long it took to acquire this ability. In one version of this test, it would not matter if the only demonstrated skill was the dog-paddle, provided it got the candidate to the end of the pool and back. Another version, though, might specify certain swim strokes to be employed, each of them accurately and consistently in good form, while also keeping up speed. And the candidate might be required to show ability to use swimming skills to carry out certain tasks - as a lifeguard, for example, or to right a capsized canoe. In this latter version, the notion of stages of competency enters the picture: rating will be based on how well the candidate swims or how effectively the tasks assigned are performed.

Russian

Sample test items have been included in the descriptions of competencies in order to illustrate a range of possible testing procedures. Currently there are two predominant approaches to competency testing. On the one hand, a sample prompt is developed to illustrate a given stage, such as "list the things you have in your room" (an appropriate prompt for stage one). Within each stage there is a range of abilities, and the nature of the student's response established whether the student places within the anticipated range. On the other hand, it is possible to provide a more general prompt, such as "Would you please describe this room?" In this case, the nature of the candidate's response places the student at a specific stage of competency and also at a range therein.

The descriptions that follow are intended as guidelines. Each stage is described in terms of communicative tasks with representative examples. Each section is preceded by a summary that captures the essence of that stage within the five categories of competency: Comprehension, production Cultural Awareness Vocabulary Control and Language Accuracy. The summaries include extracts from the Proficiency Guidelines publishes in 1986 by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL).

Olga Kagan (UCLA) — Chair
Kathleen Dillon (Polytechnic H.S.)
Veronica Shapovalov (San Diego State University)

Aknowledgements

We wish to thank the various specialists whom we consulted in the preparation of these guidelines. We are especially indebted to Irene Thompson, George Washington University, who gave generously of her time and expertise in reviewing and criticizing the manuscript. Particular thanks is also due Alla Akishina of the Pushkin Institute for her suggestions. Finally, we are grateful to Sandra Rosengrant, Portland State University, and Frederick Johnson, Northfield-Mt. Hermon School, who also evaluated the work in its earliest stages.

Russian

LISTENING

STAGE 1

ACTFL: The Novice level is characterized by the ability to understand high-frequency, learned material

Stage 1.1

Generic. Understanding is limited to occasional isolated words, such as cognates, borrowed words, and high-frequency social conventions. essentially no ability to comprehend even short utterances.

Examples. Borrowed words (Америка, метро, Аэрофлот); high frequency social conventions (да, нет, спасибо, хорошо).

Stage 1.2

Generic. Able to understand some short learned utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible, Comprehends some words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high-frequency commands and courtesy formulas about topics that refer to basic personal information or the immediate physical setting, The listener requires long pauses for assimilation and periodically requests repetition and/or slower rate of speech.

Examples. Very simple memorized material relating to everyday courtesy formulae (Здравствуйте, До свидания. Пожалуйста.); simple questions (Как вас зовут? Как дела? Что это? Кто вы?); high-frequency commands (Идите сюда, Возьмите книгу, Откройте дверь); short statements (Это студент, Вот университет).

Stage 1.3

Generic. Able to understand short, learned utterances and some sentence - length utterances, particularly where context strongly supports understanding and speech is clearly audible, Comprehends some words and phrases from simple questions, statements, high - frequency commands and courtesy formulae. May require repetition, rephrasing and/or a slowed rate of speech for comprehension.

Examples. Understand short, learned questions and statements mostly about self and family. (Кто вы? Где вы живёте? Сколько вам лет?); Learned material relating to topics such as the weather, days of the week (Какой сегодня день? Сегодня хорошая погода?), as well as some utterances in situations where context strongly aids understanding, such as at the table (Передайте, пожалуйста соль), in a restaurant (Что вы будете пить), on the subway (Следующая станция), and in stores (Платите в кассу).

Sample Test

1. Play simple board games such as Bingo or Lotto.
2. Play "Simon says" and respond to the teacher's commands.

Russian

For example, Откройте книгу! Сядьте! Встаньте!

3. You found a message for your Russian house guest on your answering machine. Who called? Where did that person come from?

Маша, здравствуй. Меня зовут Боря. Я только что приехал из Ленинграда. Твоя мама попросила меня позвонить тебе. Мой телефон 201-4356.

STAGE 2

ACTFL: The Intermediate level is characterized by the ability to:

- understand high frequency situations in face-to-face conversations;
- understand routine speech such as telephone conversations, simple announcements, and reports over media; and
- understand some connected discourse on a number of topics.

Stage 2.1.

Generic. Able to understand sentence length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned elements in a limited number of content areas, particularly if strongly supported by the situational context. Content refers to the personal background and needs, social conventions and routine tasks, such as getting meals; and receiving simple instructions and directions. Listening tasks pertain primarily to spontaneous face-to-face conversations. Understanding is often uneven; repetition and rewording may be necessary. Misunderstandings in both main ideas and details arise frequently. Examples. Simple questions and statements referring to personal background. (Откуда вы? Кто ваши родители? Где вы учитесь?); social conventions, such as apologizing (Извините за беспокойство); lodging (Номер на пятом этаже. Покажите бронь); transportation (Станция площадь Маркса через три остановки); schedules (начало спектакля в девятнадцать часов); simple directions (Перейдите площадь поверните направо); routine commands from officials (Предъявите пропуск, откройте чемодан, покажите декларацию); questions and statements about time and weather (Который час? Московское время девятнадцать часов тридцать минут, Сейчас в Москве десять градусов тепла).

Stage 2.2.

Generic. Able to understand sentence-length utterances which consist of recombinations of learned utterances on a variety of topics. Content continues to refer primarily to basic personal background and needs, social conventions and somewhat more complex tasks, such as lodging, transportation and shopping. Additional content areas include some personal interests and activities, and a greater diversity of instructions and directions . Listening tasks not only pertain to spontaneous face-to-face conversations, but also to short routine telephone conversations and some deliberate speech, such as simple announcements and reports over the media. Understanding continues to be uneven. Examples. Simple questions and statements about personal history, daily life, studies, leisure time activities and interests (Где вы выросли? Какие предметы вы изучаете? Чем вы увлекаетесь?); simple telephone routines (Позовите к телефону Вы не туда попали); short public announcements (Объявляется посадка на рейс...). Can distinguish different parts of radio broadcasts, e.g., последние известия — from сводка погоды and pick out information about a program from TV and radio listings (В шестнадцать часов пятнадцать

Russian

минут —спортивные известия). can get main idea and a few details from simple TV broadcasts, when the verbal message is strongly supported by visual context.

Stage 2.3.

Generic. Able to sustain understanding over longer stretches of connected discourse on a number of topics pertaining to different times and places; however, understanding is inconsistent due to failure to grasp main ideas and/or details. Thus, while topics do not differ significantly from an Advanced level listener, comprehension is less in quantity and poorer in quality.

Examples. Short conversations, narratives and descriptions about personal life, school, work, interests and activities, but not in any detail; main points of some simple radio broadcasts on some uncomplicated news items (Priezd delegacii, Peredaet gidrometcentr); TV broadcasts where the verbal message is strongly supported by visual information; simple messages (Передайте, что звонил.... Пусть перезвонит после 10 часов); oral instructions (Вы должны заполнить анкету, Билеты можно получить за полчаса до начала спектакля).

Sample Test

1. Watch a video-taped interview. (This sample text is reprinted from Contact— Russian Language Video Magazine — with permission of Gosteleradio, USSR)

The interviewer is asking questions about:

A. work B. leisure C. studies

Журналист. А какой ваш самый любимый день недели?

Девушка. Выходной!

Андрей. Как вы считаете, что такое досуг, свободное время?

женщина. Ой, это когда все отдыхают, наверное.

Журналист. А вы как считаете?

Мальчик. Это когда ходят в театр... там... ну, не учатся.

2. Copy down in English the instructions given over the telephone to get to your friend's apartment.

Перейди улицу и пойдй направо. На углу сядь на восьмой троллейбус. Сойди на остановке Улица Космонавтов напротив книжного магазина. Поверни налево. Мой дом второй от угла.

3. Listen to a television program announcement and write down what time the indicated shows will be broadcast.

1. Ритмическая гимнастика —
2. В мире животных —
3. Фигурное катание —

Russian

ВОСКРЕСЕНЬЕ, 27 января

По первой программе: 8:00 — Ритмическая гимнастика 8:45 — Тира «Спортлото»
9:00 — С утра пораньше 11:30 — В мире животных 13:00 — Сельский час 15:15 —
«Марафон-15» 19:00 — Чемпионат по фигурному катанию 21:00 — Время 21:45 —
Художественный фильм «Зимняя вишня».

STAGE 3

ACTFL: The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to :

- understand main ideas and details on a variety of topics beyond the immediate situation; and
- understand description and narration, including interviews, short lectures on familiar topics and news items and reports dealing with factual information

Sample Test

1. Watch a clip from the Contact Video Magazine and answer the questions below.
 1. In what respect was Simonova a typical young girl?
 2. How did she decide to become an actress?
 3. What kind of roles does she play?

Ведущая: Скажите, Женя, а вы в детстве мечтали стать актрисой

Актриса Е. Симонова: Я мечтала. Но это было, наверно, совсем, совсем в раннем детстве. И это было как мечтают абсолютно все девочки возраста 11, 12, 13 лет.

Ведущая: А почему, интересно, вам хотелось быть актрисой

Е. Симонова: А в этот момент я не понимала почему. Ну у меня было какое-то представление, мне хотелось сняться в какой-то картине, где бы был такой зелёный луг, и я бы в длинном платье бежала по этому лугу, вот...

Ведущая: Мы в гостях у популярной советской актрисы Евгении Симоновой. Надеюсь, эта встреча поможет вам получить собственное представление о жизни наших актёров. Симоновой — 33 года, она работает в драматическом театре имени Маяковского. Во многих спектаклях играет главные роли. Часто снимается в кино.

2. Listen to a classroom lecture and answer the questions.

1. What group of artists is the lecture about?
2. Where did they show their works?
3. Who was Tretyakov and how did he support the artists?

В 1870 году в Москве возникло «Товарищество передвижных художественных выставок», организованное художником Мясоедовым. «Товарищество ежегодно устраивало выставки

Russian

картин художников и перевозило их из города в город. Передвижники писали картины на темы русской истории, природы, современной им жизни. Богатый московский купец Павел Михайлович Третьяков систематически покупал лучшие произведения этих художников и создал картинную галерею русской живописи, которую в 1892 году принёс в дар Москве.

3. Listen to the weather forecast and indicate which of the conditions listed below are expected in Moscow today.

- A. rain
- B. snow storms
- C. southerly winds
- D. daytime temperature -10 degrees C

В выходные дни и в начале предстоящей недели циклоны с северо-запада европейской территории страны принесут в Москву и Подмоскowie снег, метель, порывистый ветер, сохранение резких колебаний температуры.

В Москве 26 января днём минус 3-6, к вечеру до минус 10 градусов, ожидается снег, метель, ветер северный с порывами.

Russian

READING

STAGE 1

ACTFL : The Novice level is characterized by the ability to:

- recognize the symbols of an alphabetic and /or syllabic writing system and/or a limited number of characters in a system that uses characters
- understand learned material such as standardized messages, phrases or expressions; and
- derive meaning from high frequency material supported by the situational context

Stage 1.1.

Generic. Able to occasionally identify isolated words and/or major phrases when strongly supported by context.

Examples. No functional ability in reading Russian. Can recognize some letters of the Cyrillic alphabet in printed form and a few international words and names, such as такси, метро, паспорт, Аэрофлот Америка.

Stage 1.2.

Generic. Able to recognize the symbols of an alphabetic and/or syllabic writing system and/or a limited number of characters in a system that uses characters. The reader can identify an increasing number of highly contextualized words and phrases including cognates and borrowed words, where appropriate. Material understood rarely exceeds a single phrase at a time, and rereading may be required.

Examples. No functional ability in reading Russian. Can identify all letters of the Cyrillic alphabet in printed form and some isolated words, such as personal names (Иванов, Ленин); street signs (улица Горького, проспект Маркса), simple designations (ресторан, кафе), institut, signs (вход, выход, автомат, туалет), some newspaper mast heads (Правда, Известия), prices (руб., коп.), and some familiar names on maps (Москва, Петербург, Вашингтон).

Stage 1.3.

Generic. has sufficient control of the writing system to interpret written language in areas of practical need. Where vocabulary has been learned, can read for instructional and directional purposes standardized messages, phrases or expressions, such as some items on menus, schedules, timetables, maps, and signs. At times, but not on a consistent basis, the Novice -high reader may be able to derive meaning from material at a slightly higher level where context and/or extralinguistic background knowledge are supportive.

Examples. Can identify various typefaces in printed form or in longhand (cursive). Can recognize names on maps (Владивосток, Новосибирск), signs (Магазин открывается в 10 часов, Закрыт на ремонт, У нас не курят, Стойте), some words on tickets (партер, ряд, начало спектакля в 18:00 часов), names on metro stations (Вго-Западная Баррикадная), items on menus (суп, борщ, котлеты, вино), class schedules (практические занятия, фонетика, лингафонный кабинет), movie and television guides, documents and forms (passports, receipts, bills), advertisements (cultural events, sports, sales), parts of very simple personal notes, messages and invitations (not exceeding a sentence)

Russian

Sample Test

1. Look through the TV program for Tuesday. When can you watch sports?

- A. 8:00 C. 9:00
B. 8:45 D. 9:25

Ленинградская программа. 18.10 — «Без вины виноватые» Художественный фильм. 20.00 — Реклама. 20.10 — Телестанция «Факт». 20.30 — «Большой фестиваль». 20.45 — «Спорт, спорт, спорт». 21.00 — Время 21.45 — «600 секунд».

2. Here is an ad for a job in the Soviet Union. They are looking for a person who knows

- A. English C. Italian
B. French D. Spanish

ЕСЛИ ВЫ ГОВОРИТЕ ПО-НЕМЕЦКИ,
но-французски
и, возможно еще на других языках,
если вы педагог,
то обратитесь, пожалуйста к нам:
Тверская ул., д. 20, первый этаж

3. A Russian roommate has left you a note saying that she is going out.

A. Where did she go?

- A. to class
B. to a concert
C. to a movie

B. When will she be home?

- A. 7:00
B. 8:00
C. 10:00

Трейси, я ушла в кино. Буду дома в десять часов. Аня (in cursive)

Russian

STAGE 2

ACTFL: The Intermediate level is characterized by the ability to :

- understand main ideas and/or some facts in connected texts dealing with immediate needs
- understand basic information in material intended for a wide audience; and
- understand main ideas in description and narration in texts dealing with personal interest and/or knowledge.

Stage 2.1.

Generic. Able to understand main ideas and/or some facts from the simplest connected texts dealing with basic personal and social needs. Such texts are linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure, for example chronological sequencing. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and knowledge. Examples include messages with social purposes or information for the widest possible audience, such as public announcements and short, straightforward introductions dealing with public life. Some misunderstandings will occur.

Examples: Can get main facts from simple personal correspondence (such as personal notes, messages and reminders), simple written directions (how to get from one place to another) and uncomplicated items in newspapers (weather forecasts, simple sports reports, announcement of community and cultural events, advertisements about job vacancies, educational opportunities, etc.).

Stage 2.2.

Generic. Able to read consistently with increased understanding simple connected texts dealing with a variety of basic and social needs. Such texts are still linguistically noncomplex and have a clear underlying internal structure. They impart basic information about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and knowledge. Examples may include short, straightforward descriptions of persons, places and things written for a wide audience.

Examples: Can get main facts and some details from simple political announcements (e.g., those dealing with arrival / departure of foreign delegations, exchange of telegrams between heads of state), simple descriptions of services and places (such as travel brochures), slightly more detailed announcements of public events, weather and sports reports.

Stage 2.3.

Generic. Able to read consistently with full understanding simple connected texts dealing with basic and social needs about which the reader has to make only minimal suppositions or to which the reader brings personal interest and knowledge. Can get some information and main ideas from texts at the next higher level featuring descriptions and narration. Structural complexity may interfere with comprehension; for example, basic grammatical relations may be misinterpreted and temporal references may rely primarily

Russian

on lexical items. Has some difficulty with the cohesive factors in discourse, such as matching pronouns with referents, While texts do not differ significantly from those at the advanced level, comprehension is less consistent. May have to read material several times for understanding.

Examples: Can consistently interpret simple connected texts to determine who, what, where, when, why, and how regarding such subjects as sports events, concerts, theater, radio, TV, simple political announcements (e.g., reports on talks, negotiations, results of elections, reports on space missions, short encyclopedia entries, simple biographies). In addition, dependent upon reader's background knowledge of areas covered, can get main facts from short descriptive passages, such as frequently appear in the «Зарубежный калейдоскоп» section of «Известия» and the «Интеркурьер» section of «Советская Россия».

Sample Test

1. Read the following excerpt from a Soviet newspaper and check the correct answer.

A. Where were the school children from?

- A. USSR
- B. England
- C. USA

B. Where did they stay?

- A. at a hotel
- B. in a dorm
- C. with Russian families

Двадцать английских мальчиков и девочек из двух школ графства вернулись из поездки в Советский Союз, где они провели десять дней. Вся группа жила в семьях своих сверстников, учащихся школы 23 во Владимире. Это английская спецшкола.

2. You are a 20-year old computer buff. Look through this ad and find out

- A. Who is sponsoring the contest?
- B. What do you need to do to apply?
- C. What are the prizes?

Всесоюзный совет
молодых учёных и специалистов
ОБЪЯВЛЯЕТ КОНКУРС
«КОМПЬЮТЕР + ИГРА + ЧУДО»
на лучший сценарий компьютерной игры
Возраст участников — до 25 лет.
Трое победителей награждаются туристическими
путёвками в ФРГ, Францию, Англию.
О себе необходимо сообщить: адрес, место учёбы или работы,
возраст.
Материалы до 10 апреля 1991 года направлять по
адресу: Москва, ул. Б. Хмельницкого, 3/13

Russian

3. According to this report from the newspaper "Novoe russkoe slovo", what are the standings for these two teams:

	NYU	Nevada
Total games		
Wins		
Losses		

**БАСКЕТБОЛЪ:
КТО ЛИДИРУЕТ У СТУДЕНТОВ**

Команда нью-йоркского университета провела всего 19 матчей, из них 16 выиграла и 3 проиграла. Команда Невады провела 15 матчей и все их выиграла, но 10 матчей она выиграла у соперников из группы «Биг Уэст».

STAGE 3

ACTFL: The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to:

- understand main ideas and facts of longer texts, including simple short stories, news items, personal correspondence and simple technical material written for general readers; and
- follow essential points in ideas of special interest or knowledge

Sample Test

1. Which problems of today's world are NOT mentioned in the article from the newspaper «Аргументы и факты»?

- A. AIDS
- B. ecology
- C. poverty
- D. unemployment

По мнению американских учёных, занимающихся прогнозированием будущего, главной проблемой человечества сейчас является ухудшение состояния окружающей среды. Вслед за этим в списке следуют экономические проблемы, наркомания, бедность и нищета, эпидемия СПИД, рост стоимости медицинского обслуживания, гонка вооружений, недостатки системы образования, энергетический кризис, проблемы транспорта.

2. In this article from the newspaper «Известия» the Swiss students were pleased with

- 1.
- 2.
- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

and were surprised at

Russian

Побывавшие в Москве швейцарские школьники с восторгом описывают теплоту, сердечность и искренность человеческих отношений, которые они ощутили на себе, оказавшись всего на несколько дней гостями московских семей. Что касается восприятия школьной жизни, то здесь мнение швейцарских школьников заметно разделилось. Одни считают, что требования и правила в Советской школе более строгие, чем в швейцарской. У них, в частности, вызывает удивление ношение единообразной школьной формы, требование подниматься с места при ответах учителю. Другие же, наоборот, поражены той лёгкостью с которой нашим учащимся сходят с рук частые прогулы школьных уроков, удивляет распространённость этого нарушения, а также отсутствие чувства вины за прогулы.

3. You've found this ad in the newspaper «Вечерняя Москва».

- A. What kind of a competition is announced?
- B. Who is eligible?

ВНИМАНИЕ: КОНКУРС!

Творческий конкурс среди желающих стать журналистами воспитанников детских домов проводят пресс-клуб «Школьник» и журнал Советского детского фонда «Мы». Цель конкурса: из числа юношей и девушек, не имеющих материальной поддержки со стороны семьи, но мечтающих получить профессию журналиста, отобрать наиболее одарённых для учёбы на четырёхгодичном отделении журналистики.

Russian

SPEAKING

STAGE 1

ACTFL: The Novice level is characterized by the ability to communicate minimally with learned material

Stage 1.1.

Generic. Oral production consists of isolated words and perhaps a few high-frequency phrases. Essentially no functional communicative ability.

Examples: Isolated words, such as да, нет, спасибо

Stage 1.2.

Generic. Oral production continues to consist of isolated words and perhaps a few high-frequency phrases with very predictable areas of need, although quantity is increased. Vocabulary is sufficient for handling only simple elementary needs and expressing basic courtesies. Utterances rarely consist of more than two or three words and show frequent long pauses and repetition of interlocutors words. Speaker may have some difficulty producing even the simplest utterances. Some novice -mid speakers will be understood only with great difficulty.

Examples: Speakers can produce basic courtesy formulae (здравствуйте, до свидания, извините) and respond to simple questions with a vocabulary which is severely limited and can include some common nouns (дом, брат, машина), pronouns (я, ты, вы, он, она), adjectives, (хороший, красивый, новый), adverbs (хорошо, плохо), and some simple verb forms (я знаю, я понимаю, я читаю).

Stage 1.3.

Generic. Able to satisfy partially the requirements of basic communicative exchanges by relying heavily on learned utterances but occasionally expanding these through simple recombinations of their elements. Can ask questions or make statements involving learned material, Shows signs of spontaneity although this falls short of real autonomy of expression. Speech continues to consist of learned utterances rather than of personalized, situationally adapted ones. Vocabulary centers on areas such as basic objects, places, and most common kinship terms. Pronunciation may still be strongly influenced by first language. Errors are frequent and, in spite of repetition, some Novice-High speaker will have difficulty being understood even by sympathetic listeners.

Examples: Short statements involving simple formulaic utterances. (Меня зовут ... Я студентка Извините пожалуйста Я не понимаю) and ask simple questions (Что это? Кто это?). Vocabulary is largely limited to basic objects (город, газета, книга), names of

Russian

members of immediate-family (отец, мать, брат, сестра), days of the week (понедельник, вторник), colors (белый, красный). There is increasing ability to qualify nouns using a few adjectives (большой, красивый, новый, американский) and possessive adjectives (мой, его, ее, ваш). Shows a limited control of a few common verbs (понимать, читать, работать, говорить), mostly in the present tense. Can occasionally use a few simple spatial adverbs (там, здесь, далеко) and a few temporal adverbs (утром, сейчас, сегодня). Shows partial control of personal pronouns ты and вы. Word endings are often omitted, confused or distorted. There is little development of stress and intonation.

Sample Test

1. You have met a Russian student at a party. Introduce yourself.
2. Ask your Russian roommate who is going to the market to get you a few items.

Example:

I.—interviewer; R. — respondent

I.— У вас есть брат или сестра?

R.— Один брат.

I.— Как его зовут

R.— Кларенс.

I.— Где он живёт?

R.— Он живёт в Алтадина.

I.— Он студент?

R.— Да, он студент.

I.— Он живёт дома?

R.— Да, он живёт дома, он уже не работает.

I.— Ваша мать живёт в Алтадене?

R.— Не понимаю.

STAGE 2

ACTFL: The Intermediate level is characterized by the ability to:

- create with language by combining and recombining learned elements, though primarily in a reactive mode.
- imitate, minimally, sustain, and lose in a simple way basic communicative tasks; and
- ask and answer questions

Stage 2.1.

Generic. Able to handle successfully a limited number of interactive, task oriented and social situations. Can ask and answer questions, initiate and respond to simple statements and maintain face-to-face conversation, although in a highly restricted manner and with

Russian

much linguistic inaccuracy. Within these limitations, can perform such tasks as introducing self, ordering a meal, asking directions, and making purchases. Vocabulary is adequate to express only the most elementary needs. Strong interference from native language may occur. Misunderstandings frequently arise, but with repetition, the Intermediate-Low speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

Examples: Speaker can handle greetings (Здравствуйте как дела?), introductions (Как вас зовут? Очень приятно познакомиться), leave taking (До свидания Увидимся); provide simple autobiographical information (Я американский/ая студент/ка Я учу русский язык в университете Я немного говорю по-русски Мой отец—адвокат), attract attention (Можно вас спросить/попросить?); exchange social amenities (Что нового? Рад/а вас видеть.); make invitations and accept/turn them down (Приходите завтра Пойдем кино С удовольствием К сожалению не могу). Can handle simple situations such as ordering a meal (Принесите мне ... Дайте, пожалуйста, котлеты по-киевски. Сколько с меня?); ask for directions (Скажите, пожалуйста, где станция метро? Где тут остановка автобуса? Какая следующая остановка?); make simple purchases (Покажите, пожалуйста Сколько стоит У вас есть?); handle routine exchanges with authorities such as hotel clerk (Вот мой пропуск Дайте, пожалуйста, ключ от номера). Speaker demonstrates some awareness of the case system and subject-verb agreement, but there are frequent errors in cases, in choice of prepositions, and in verb forms even in familiar contexts.

Stage 2.2.

Generic. Able to handle successfully a variety of uncomplicated, basic and communicative tasks and social situations. Can talk simply about self and family members. Can ask and answer questions, and participate in simple conversations on topics beyond the most immediate needs, e.g., personal history and leisure time activities. Utterance length increases slightly, but speech may continue to be characterized by frequent long pauses, since the smooth incorporation of even basic conversational strategies is often hindered as the speaker struggles to create appropriate language forms. Pronunciation may continue to be strongly influenced by first language and fluency may still be strained. Although misunderstandings still arise, the Intermediate-Mid speaker can generally be understood by sympathetic interlocutors.

Examples: Speaker can sustain very short conversations by giving information about self (Я родился/родилась в... Мне... лет); asking simple questions (Откуда вы? Где вы сейчас живете? Где вы учитесь?). Can talk simply about leisure time activities (Я люблю играть, Я собираюсь ... Я увлекаюсь)). Speaker can handle an increasing number of simple situations, such as grocery shopping (Дайте, пожалуйста, двести грамм ...) getting a hotel room (У вас есть номер на двоих? В номере есть ванная?), ask for and give directions (Вы не скажете как лучше дойти до станции метро? Вам лучше ехать на метро); make simple arrangements (Приходите в шесть часов; Я вернусь через полчаса); ask for simple information about events (Когда начинается вечерний сеанс? У вас есть билеты на «Лебединое озеро»? Дайте, пожалуйста два билета на восемнадцать часов) make simple travel arrangements (У вас есть билеты на утренний рейс до Киева? Дайте два билета на двадцатое декабря). Speaker can express some feelings and states (Мне холодно; Я люблю теплую погоду Я очень люблю современную музыку). There is improving accuracy in adjective-noun and subject predicate agreement, and in control of some cases, e.g. nominative, genitive accusative and prepositional. There is partial control of some common imperatives (Скажите, дайте, идите, принесите, покажите). Able to use such verbs as хотеть, мочь, любить, though without complete control of conjugated forms.

Russian

Stage 2.3.

Generic. Able to handle successfully most uncomplicated communicative tasks and social situations. Can initiate, sustain and close a general conversation with a number of strategies, appropriate to a range of circumstances and topics., but errors are evident. Limited vocabulary still necessitates hesitation and may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocution. There is emerging evidence of connected discourse, particularly for simple narration and/or description. The intermediate-high speaker can generally be understood even by interlocutors not accustomed to dealing with speakers at this level, but repetition may still be required.

Examples, Speaker can sustain a general conversation on factual topics by giving more detailed autobiographical information (Я закончил/а школу в ... году; Я поступил/а в университет в ... году Я ездил/а в Советский Союз в ... году). Speaker can describe daily activities (Я обычно встаю в семь часов, принимаю душ, завтракаю; После лекций я занимаюсь у себя в комнате); describe leisure activities and likes/dislikes in greater detail (Я часто хожу в театр; Я очень интересуюсь искусством). The speaker is a more active participant in conversations being able to express agreement/disagreement (Я с вам (не) согласен/на ...), show interest in what the interlocutors has to say (Как интересно Неужели) and state and ask for opinions (Я считаю; Как по-вашему?). Speaker is increasingly able to describe objects/places/people (Я живу в трехэтажном доме; Мой родной город находится в северной части штата ... Мой брат блондин, он высокого роста, и него голубые глаза). there is occasional evidence of simple narration (Когда я закончил/а среднюю школу я поступил/а в университет, я заинтересовался/лась русским языком). Speaker displays increased control of cases, as well as some familiar verbs in limited situations. begins to use time expressions and dates, but errors are common, Can use common predicate adjectives (рад, должен, готов). Occasionally uses subordinate clauses, particularly with conjunctions (что, когда, где, потому что, поэтому чтобы). Occasional use of relative clauses with который (Мой друг, который живет в Вашингтоне, работает в университете).

Sample Test

1. Describe your apartment to a prospective roommate.
2. You are in Moscow. Ask a passer-by how to get to a place of your choice.

Example:

I.— Interviewer R. — respondent

I.— У вас есть ещё братья и сёстры?

R.— Да, у меня два брат. Один, ему 25 лет и одна сестра .. она .. ей 24 лет, и другой брат ему 20 лет. Мне 21.

I.— С кем из ваших братьев, или с сестрой, с кем вы больше всего дружите?

R.— С... я не знаю, потому что иногда с сестрой, но обычно с братом... меньше чем я. Меньше... Он очень высокого роста. Я высокого роста...тоже, но он очень высокого роста. Он шесть футов шесть инчис. Но потому что мы так близки, потому что он... ему 20, а мне 21, это легче чтобы дружи. И когда я живу с родителями, мы с братом делать... делали всё вместе.

Russian

I.— Вы помните какой-нибудь эпизод из детства, когда вы с братом что-то вместе делали?

R.— Я не вспомню много о детстве, не знаю почему. Однажды мы с братом принимали душ вместе, когда мне было около пяти лет, а ему четыре. Он ... закрыл горячую воду. Нет, нет. Холодную воду, и только горячая вода была на меня. И потом я ненавидела его, может быть на неделю.

STAGE 3

ACTFL: The Advanced levels characterized by the ability to:

- converse in a clearly participatory fashion;
- initiate, sustain, and bring to closure a wide variety of communicative tasks, including those that require an increased ability to convey meaning with diverse language strategies due to a complication or an unforeseen turn of events;
- satisfy the requirements of school and work situations; and
- narrate and describe with paragraph-length connected discourse.

Examples. Can handle arrangements with local Russian administrators regarding study and travel in Russia. Can communicate needs and thoughts in a situation with a complication, such as losing documents or missing an appointment. Can talk in a general way about topics of general public interest (e.g. academic programs, social life, events on campus, current event) and personal interests (e.g., studies, work, leisure activities). Can make factual comparisons (e.g. life in America, life in Russia, studying Russian versus studying some other language). can explain a point of view in an uncomplicated fashion (e.g., why it is difficult/easy to study Russian, what is the best way to study Russian, etc.). However, discussions in which the speaker attempts to support his/her opinions may lead to difficulty e.g. the speaker may explain what can be done to improve the study of Russian in the U.S., but breaks down when forced to ward off objections to the proposed solution. Good control of all cases and verb tenses, partial control of aspect, sequence of tenses, voice, mood and verbs of motion. Partial control of non-hypothetical, but almost no control of hypothetical conditional. Partial control of reported statements (i.e. those using *ли, чтобы*). Frequently expands discourse by using various types of subordinate clauses, although errors involving *который* are common, especially in oblique cases. Emerging ability to use word order to distinguish between "old" and "new" information. Occasional use of some high-frequency particle (*же, ведь*). Good control of indefinite pronouns and adverbs with *-то* and *-нибудь*.

Sample Test

1. Your dormitory accommodations have proven to be unbearable. Complain to the Soviet program director and try to get your room changed.
2. You arrive an hour late for dinner at your friends' apartment. Apologize and explain what happened to you.
3. A group of Soviet high school students is visiting your town and you are given the task of telling them about your school. Be as detailed as possible.

Russian

Example:

I.— Interviewer R. — Respondent

I.— А где живёт ваша мать?

R. — В северной Финляндии. У нас собственный дом. Но недавно она продала дом моей старшей сестре и теперь живёт в квартире, но недалеко от нашего дома.

I.— Она на пенсии? А что она делала раньше?

R. — Просто была домохозяйка. У нас была ферма, и, конечно, она работала на ферме, когда мой отец был ещё жив. Но мой отец тоже умер уже 16 лет назад и так что после этого моя мать... просто там жила, но она ничего не выращивала.

I.— Вы с удовольствием вспоминаете своё детство?

R.— Очень, да. Моё детство мне кажется было самое счастливое из всех людей, которых я знаю. У очень редких людей, кажется, счастливое детство. Ну это было на деревне, там очень красиво, кажется у меня были хорошие родители, были сёстры, которые близко ко мне. Так что я не выросла одиноко.

Russian

WRITING STAGE 1

ACTFL: The Novice level is characterized by the ability to :

- copy or transcribe familiar words or phrases and
- write simple high-frequency expressions and learned material.

Stage 1.1.

Generic. Able to form some letter in an alphabetic system. In languages whose writing systems use syllables or characters, writer is able to both copy and produce the basic strokes. Can produce romanization of isolated characters, where applicable.

Examples. No functional ability to write in Russian. Can print or write some or most Russian letters.

Stage 1.2.

Generic. Able to copy or transcribe familiar words and phrases and reproduce some from memory. No practical communicative writing skills.

Examples. Able to write memorized words, copy printed words or short familiar phrases into Russian script. (Москва, Петербург, Я студент)

Stage 1.3.

Generic. Able to write simple fixed expressions and limited memorized material and some recombination thereof. Can supply information on simple forms and documents. Can write names, numbers, dates, own nationality, and other simple biographical information as well as some short phrase and simple lists. Can write all the symbols in an alphabetic or syllabic system of 50-100 characters or compounds in a character writing system. Spelling and representation of symbols (letters, syllables, characters) may be partially correct.

Examples. Can write all letters of the Russian alphabet in long hand. Is able to fill in personal information on some simple forms, such as travel documents, hotel; registration, and compile simple short lists (personal objects, things in room, names of family members, grocery items, etc.) Can take down some simple information from a phone conversation if it represents learned material or some recombination thereof. Can write several sentences about self using learned words and sentences by transforming them to express personal meaning. Most of the writing consists of short, disconnected sentences or lists and is characterized by frequent misspellings and such linguistic inaccuracy. Use of English letters instead of Cyrillic is common. largely unfamiliar with rules of Russian punctuation.

Russian

Sample Test

1. Copying the information from a letter you have received, address an envelope to a friend in the Soviet Union.

*СССР, г. Москва
Тверская ул., д. 25, кв. II
Шатровой Гале*

2. Your Russian roommate is going grocery shopping. Please make a list of 8-10 items you need.

3. You are going to the Soviet Union to stay with a Russian family. To complete your application write in Russian a few simple sentences about yourself.

4. Your Russian pen pal wants to know what your house is like.

Example

Я живу в доме в городе Лос Анджелес. Мой дом — большой и красивый. Шестнадцать комнат в доме. Моя комната — маленькая. У меня есть стол, телевизор, радио, и телефон в моей комнате. Я читаю книги. Некогда читаю журналы или газеты.

STAGE 2

ACTFL: The Intermediate level is characterized by the ability to:

- meet practical needs such as short messages, simple letter;
- take down notes and respond to personal questions; and
- paraphrase and write summaries of personal experience.

Stage 2.1.

Generic. Able to meet limited practical writing needs, Can write short messages, postcards, and take down simple notes such as telephone messages. Can create statements or questions with the scope of limited language experience. Material produced consists of recombinations of learned vocabulary and structures into simple sentences on very familiar topics. Language is inadequate to express in writing anything but elementary needs. Frequent errors in grammar, vocabulary and punctuation, spelling and in formation of nonalphabetic symbols, but writing can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.

Examples: can provide simple autobiographical information mostly in the present time (e.g. имя, отчество, фамилия, день рождения, гражданство, специальность, расписание, etc.). Can write schedules, compose short, simple notes (message to a roommate or teacher) and take down basic information from simple phone conversations. Writing

Russian

mostly consists of recombinations of previously mastered material into simple sentences or sentence fragments. makes continual errors in spelling, grammar and punctuation and often inserts English vocabulary for unknown Russian words.

Stage 2.2.

Generic. Able to meet a number of practical writing needs. Can write short simple letters. Content involves personal preferences, daily routine, everyday events and other topics grounded in personal experience. Can express present time or at least one other time frame or aspect consistently, e.g., nonpast, habitual, imperfective. Evidence of control of the syntax of noncomplex sentences and basic inflectional morphology, such as declensions and conjugations. Writing tends to be a loose collection of sentences or sentence fragments on a given topic and provides little evidence of conscious organization. Can be understood by natives used to the writing of nonnatives.

Examples: can compose notes to friends and acquaintances with personal messages (to invite, to congratulate, to make arrangements or to respond to an invitation, congratulations, etc.) Can write short, simple letters to acquaintances about self, family, daily life, likes/dislikes, mostly in the present time. Can take down simple phone conversations or brief notes on familiar topics grounded in personal experience (such as entries in a diary). Writing is characterized by simple, short sentences, with a great deal of grammatical and lexical inaccuracy. Little use of subordination and of cohesive devices (such as personal and demonstrative pronouns, and word order) to bind sentences into paragraphs.

Stage 2.3.

Generic. Able to meet most practical writing needs and limited social demands. Can take notes in some detail on familiar topics and respond in writing to personal questions. Can write simple letters, brief synopses and paraphrases, summaries of biographical data, work and school experience. In those languages relying primarily on content words and time expressions to express time, tense or aspect, some precision is displayed; where tense and/or aspect is expressed through verbal inflection, forms are produced rather consistently, but not always accurately. An ability to describe and narrate in paragraphs is emerging. Rarely uses basic cohesive elements, such as pronominal substitutions or synonyms in written discourse. Writing, though faulty, is generally comprehensible to natives used to the writing of nonnatives.

Examples: Can compose and respond to personal letters dealing with autobiographical facts and personal matters, including academic subjects, by writing simple paragraphs (наш университет, мои занятия, мой любимый предмет, как я провожу свободное время). There is increasing evidence of description and narration in the past and future, but mistakes in aspect are frequent. Increased control of most cases and adjective-noun and subject-predicate agreement. Word order is still largely confined to subject-verb-object, and placement of temporal spatial, and manner phrases is frequently inappropriate. Attempts to expand written discourse by using some subordinate clauses but errors occur when venturing beyond familiar constructions.

Russian

Sample Test

1. Write a letter to your Russian friend describing your school day and asking your friend questions about his/her routine.
2. Fill out an application for an exchange program in the Soviet Union. (See Appendix 5 for a complete questionnaire.)

1. Фамилия, имя _____

дата рождения _____ пол _____

2. Увлечения, интересы, привычки
Чем Вы занимаетесь в свободное время?
спортом (каким) _____
музыкой (какой) _____
укажите другие занятия: _____

3. You are in a summer camp in the Soviet Union. Put a sign on a bulletin board asking if anyone has found an item that you have lost. Describe the item in as much detail as possible.

4. Your Russian pen pal wants to know what your house is like.

Example

Моя квартира небольшая — две ванные и две спальни. Но у меня три друга по комнате. В моём доме лифт есть. Это хорошо потому что я живу на четвёртом этаже. Моя квартира дорогая потому, что я живу в Вествуде. У нас хороший вид Вествуда, и иногда можно видеть океан.

В моей квартире, у нас очень хорошая кухня. Есть духовка, микроволновая печь, конечно холодильник, и много шкафов. Квартира рукой подать от университета — десять минут ходьбы.

STAGE 3

ACTFL: The Advanced level is characterized by the ability to:

- write routine social correspondence cohesive summaries, and resumes as well as narratives and descriptions;
- take notes; and
- write on a variety of topics, including informational business correspondence.

Examples: Can handle routine social correspondence, essays on personal interests (мои увлечения мой любимый писатель телевидение (кино, спорт, театр) в моей жизни),

Russian

academic programs, events on campus, social life, current events and comparisons (e.g. life in America, life in Russia, studying Russian versus studying some other language) featuring narration and description at all time frames. Can compose factual summaries of radio and television broadcasts, straightforward reviews and plot summaries of films and literary works. Has good control of all cases and verb tenses and partial control of aspect, voice, mood, verbs of motion and conditional. Increasing control of some common verb prefixes, particularly those associated with verbs of motion. Word order shows emerging signs of flexibility and is occasionally used to mark emphasis in discourse. Emerging use of pronominal substitutions and synonyms, but intrasentential markers (such as с одной стороны, во-первых, однако, кроме того) are rarely used. When constructing original sentences, particularly ore complex ones, frequently relies on literal translations from English. When using a dictionary, may still select an inappropriate Russian equivalent, particularly for abstract verbs.

Sample Test

1. You are applying to a semester abroad program in the Soviet Union. The application includes an essay in which you must explain your academic and personal qualifications.
2. You are an exchange student at a school in Novosibirsk. You have been asked to write an article about yourself for the school newspaper. Include information about your home town, school, family, hobbies, etc.
3. Leave a note for your Russian host family explaining why your plans have changed and why you can't go with them to their summer cottage.
4. Your Russian pen pal wants to know what your house is like.

Example

В моей комнате царит беспорядок. Все мои вещи лежат на полу. Мебель у меня есть, но она совсем не видна. Гора одежды лежит на ней. У меня есть соседка по комнате, потому что в Лос Анжелесе слишком дорого жить одна. Её вещи всегда в своём месте, но она никогда не сердится на меня за беспорядок.

Russian

VOCABULARY

Speaker of a language exercise control over an ever-expanding personal vocabulary. This vocabulary is composed of words that the speaker uses, plus a much larger body of words that are understood when they are heard or seen in context. In foreign language study, the term production vocabulary refers to those words and phrases that the learner actually uses in conversation or in writing. Comprehension vocabulary includes all further items that are recognized or understood while listening or reading.

The establishment of a core vocabulary has grown out of a series of studies in placement procedures, including student perceptions of their own language competency (Association of departments of Foreign Languages Bulletin, Fall 1985) as well as from the need for greater articulation among programs. Working with a core vocabulary will provide a common focus for each stage and a basis for testing. Current studies by the California Foreign language Competency Project on word frequency in secondary and post secondary materials substantiate the need for a core vocabulary in each language. (Study forthcoming)

A core vocabulary begins with high frequency terms in relation to the students in their environment and expands to include familiar topics and abstract concepts. At a higher stage the core vocabulary includes the items acquired at each preceding stage. In addition to the core vocabulary, each stage contains a range of items which may be acquired depending upon the learning style of an individual student and the objectives of a given program. The statement on competency maintains this distinction: that the continually increasing production vocabulary remains more limited than the larger and constantly expanding comprehension vocabulary for all stages. Words make up every aspect of language testing, including both production and comprehension. The functional use of vocabulary that will be assessed on any category in the test is based upon, but not limited to, the core vocabulary. The production aspects of the test make use of the active vocabulary. The comprehension aspects use the receptive vocabulary.

STAGE 1

1. demonstrate recognition of vocabulary in context of 800-1,600 words determined by familiar topics.
2. Demonstrate knowledge of vocabulary by using a 300-600 active vocabulary with a 300 core vocabulary.

TOPICAL AREAS/SEMANTIC AREAS

TIME CONCEPTS: days, weather, months, seasons, numbers 1-100

FAMILY MEMBERS: father, mother, sister, brother, grandparents, daughter, son (grand—), uncle aunt, nephew, niece, cousin.

DESCRIPTIONS : color, size, shape feelings and emotions: good-bad, pretty - ugly, hard - easy, big - little, sad - glad.

MOTIONS AND STATES: e.g. have, do wash, sleep, write, read, work, play, learn, know, speak, talk, want, like, take, study, eat, be. open.

FORMS OF GREETING: everyday expressions, introducing, directions.

BASIC OBJECTS: (Semantic categories)

- classroom: pencil, desk, chair, blackboard, door, lights, floor, ceiling, phone, paper, book, notebook, student, teacher.
- Home: house, garage, room(s), furniture, utensils, articles of clothing, car
- Immediate environment: school, neighborhood
- Food: generics, high frequency items.

Russian

STAGE 2

1. Demonstrate recognition of vocabulary in context of 1000-3,000 words determined by familiar topics.
2. Demonstrate knowledge of vocabulary by using a 600-1,000 active vocabulary with an additional 300 word core vocabulary for a total core vocabulary of 600 words.

TOPICAL AREAS/SEMANTIC AREAS

General feelings and characteristics, states of health
Food - ordering meals, table set-up (combinations less basic, more complex)
Common entertainment and sports, games, hobbies
daily activities and routines, social activities,
Measurements, weight
Basic geographical terminology
Numbers (beyond 100), dates, year
Professions and occupations
Transportation - cars, bicycles, planes, trains, buses, subways
Weather in greater detail
Important events, celebrations, Stores, shopping items, prices
Basic tools

STAGE 3

1. Demonstrate recognition of vocabulary in context of 2,400-4,500 words determined by familiar topics.
2. Demonstrate knowledge of vocabulary by using a 1,200-2,000 active vocabulary with with an additional 400 word core vocabulary for a total core vocabulary of 1.000 words.

TOPICAL AREAS/SEMANTIC AREAS

Travel arrangements, hotel accommodations
Accessories - grooming
Emergency assistance, natural disasters
Simple business transactions
Parts of things (greater detail)
Politics, basic political features
Traditions, customs, habits

ACCURACY

People who learn a new language usually care about being able to do things with it - get along in the culture, understand and read, communicate. Competency is a measure of those abilities; at each stage, we want to know how well someone can be expected to perform in the language.

The language teaching profession finds it useful to distinguish:

- A) how we use our knowledge of a language (our native language or another language we acquire) and
- B) the knowledge itself that we put to use.

In any real communicative situation, we utilize what we know of the formal aspects of language along with at least two other kinds of knowledge (and much more): (1) all purpose strategies we have for figuring things out from the context, getting the gist, catching inferences, managing a conversation, and the like; (2) our feelings, based on what we have learned, seen, and sensed, for what is appropriate in the culture. Performance lies at the intersection of several cognitive systems. We can think of

Russian

competency as a measure of how effectively they interact in relation to the task. This integration is commonly viewed as fluency.

Knowledge that we can use readily and creatively while our mind is on communicating has to have been internalized - made almost automatic and become "a part of us". This is true of grammatical accuracy, productive vocabulary, pronunciation, orthography and certain socio-linguistic and cultural aspects. The reason relates to something we can experience very generally; we cannot focus on content and also on form at the same time at the stages being described in this Statement. We cannot concentrate on what we want to say if we have to give conscious attention to the words and forms and constructions we need.

With these facts in mind, we propose to assess LANGUAGE ACCURACY in two different modes:

- (A) ACCURACY DURING PRODUCTION students attention focused on communication
- (B) USABLE KNOWLEDGE OF GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY, PRONUNCIATION, ORTHOGRAPHY, SOCIOLINGUISTIC-CULTURAL ASPECTS AND FLUENCY INTEGRATION. students attention focused on form and structure, limited to what students can use to correct their own production

The emphasis on teaching grammar is currently the major focus in most programs. For this reason grammar has been used to illustrate an example of usable knowledge of language components. Both modes assess the student's ability to use grammatical forms and patterns correctly and creatively in meaningful contexts. The difference is one of focus and the degree of sustained accuracy that we can realistically expect. During production (A) we should not expect consistent, reliable accuracy even with the forms the student may actually know and use well in mode (B). Students (and teachers) who understand this will not find a test of production frustrating; at earlier stages of competency, though, we may also want to look separately at the usable knowledge the student has so far of grammar.

Notice that competency assessment does not involve (C) KNOWLEDGE ABOUT GRAMMAR (familiarity with labels, textbook rules, and explanations).

A. Grammatical Accuracy during Production

STAGE 1

DEMONSTRATE BASIC CONTROL OF CERTAIN HIGH FREQUENCY EXPRESSIONS AND PHRASES IN:

CONVERSATIONAL SKILLS - Student will be able to : enumerate, ask questions using interrogatives, talk about future plans or what he or she is going to do tonight, give simple commands as formulaic expressions

WRITING SKILLS - Student will be able to compose : a list, a basic outline, a simple telegram, a simple note.

Russian

STAGE 2

DEMONSTRATE BASIC CONTROL TO BE UNDERSTOOD BY A FLUENT SPEAKER WHO IS SYMPATHETIC TO NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS;

CONVERSATIONAL SKILLS - Student should be able to : construct questions to gain specific information and construct sentences to provide descriptions and information on personal experiences.

WRITING SKILLS - Student will be able to compose : an informal invitation to a party, a telephone message, a postcard.

STAGE 3

DEMONSTRATE SUSTAINED CONTROL TO BE UNDERSTOOD BY A FLUENT SPEAKER WITH RELATIVE EASE IN:

CONVERSATIONAL SKILLS - Student will be able to : narrate an event that happened and provide detailed description

WRITING SKILLS - Student will be able to compose: a detailed outline, a personal letter (from an outline).

B. Usable Knowledge of Grammar

This section deals with the grammatical knowledge which learners at any given stage are able to use to correct themselves when circumstances permit. The specific grammatical knowledge will differ from one language to another.

STAGE 1

Demonstrate recognitions of the most basic grammatical concepts and relationships, for example: present tense, gender distinctions, some case endings.

STAGE 2

Demonstrate knowledge of basic grammatical concepts and relationships, for example: frequent case markers, past tense forms and functions, adjective endings.

STAGE 3

Demonstrate knowledge of the more complex grammatical relationships, for example: aspect and mood.

Russian

CULTURAL AWARENESS

What follows is a list of some common situations where misunderstanding or even offense can occur when communicating in Russian.

1. The Russian language contains two pronoun equivalents for “you”.

«Bbl», the formal form, is used in all official circumstances, and in personal conversations to address all adults until such time as they become close friends. Usually, a Russian will indicate to a foreign friend when this moment has arrived. The familiar «Tbl» is used among members of a family, close friends, or by an adult addressing a young person.

2. A problem arises when one wishes to address people in Russian since the designations Mr., Mrs., Miss, and Ms. do not have equivalents. Russians use a person's first name together with the patronymic generally in the same circumstances when they use «Bbl». At an intermediate stage of relationship, adults sometimes may address one another by first name only, while still using the formal «Bbl». Among close friends, family members, and young people, the first name is used without the patronymic. The family name, or surname, is never used in informal, social communication, except in fun among teenagers. It is used in official or bureaucratic situations, and, of course, on official documents. In school, athletic coaches and more formal classroom teachers address their students by their family name whereas other teachers use the first name only.

...

