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ABSTRACT

This volume contains papers presented at the first conference for teachers of Japanese in Australia. Section one of the volume contains the opening presentation, by J. Neustupny, which discusses current trends in Japanese language teaching in Australia. Section two contains nine symposium papers, which deal with problems in secondary curricula for Japanese in various parts of Australia: "Japanese Language Teaching in Queensland," by B. Bonning; "The Queensland Secondary Syllabus and Teaching of Japanese at Tertiary Level," by J. Ackroyd; "Teaching of Japanese in New South Wales," by H. McLachlan; "Problems in Secondary Curricula for Japanese, Victoria," by S. Wilson; "Teaching of Japanese in South Australia," by K. Nishida; "Problems in Secondary Curricula for Japanese in South Australia," by H. Quackenbush; "Japanese Teaching in Tasmania," by B. Cole; "Teaching of Japanese at Western Australian Secondary Schools - Problems of the Curriculum," by K. Boston; and "A Statement on the Japanese High School Textbook Project," by S. Pulvers. Section three contains two lectures, delivered by F. Koide and E. Jordan, respectively, and entitled: "Japanese Language Teaching in Japan" and "Language Teaching in the U.S.A.: the Cornell Paradigm." A final section of the volume contains syllabus samples from five different states in Australia. (AM)

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LINGUISTIC COMMUNICATIONS 17
PAPERS IN JAPANESE LINGUISTICS 4



PROCEEDINGS
FIRST AUSTRALIAN SEMINAR
ON
JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING

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J. V. Neustupny

and

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Monash University

1976

PAPERS IN JAPANESE LINGUISTICS 4

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PREFACE

The First Australian Conference on Japanese Language Teaching was held at Monash University from March 26 to 28 1976. It provided the first opportunity for members of the growing profession to meet, exchange information, and discuss questions of common interest. The conference, attended by more than 100 teachers of Japanese from all Australian states, adopted the suggestion to work towards the establishment of an Australia-wide association of teachers of the language.

Apart from the Australian participants, a number of overseas observers were present, and we are especially grateful to Professor F. Koide, Professor E.H. Jordan, and the Consul-General of Japan in Melbourne, Mr. W. Miyakawa, for their most active involvement in the conference programme. Professor Koide's participation would not have been possible without the support of the Japan Foundation.

This volume contains papers presented at the conference the manuscripts of which were available. In addition, we included the texts of the "matriculation" syllabuses for each state. Such documents are in a constant process of change and it will soon be necessary to bring this collection up to date. The publication of this volume has kindly been supported by the Asian Studies Coordination Committee.

22/12/1976

J.V. Neustupný

H.M. Rowe

FIRST AUSTRALIAN SEMINAR ON JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING

held at MONASH UNIVERSITY, 26-28 March, 1976

PROGRAMME

Friday, 26 March 1976

- 7.30 Opening Session
Professor W.A.G. Scott, Vice-Chancellor, Monash University
Mr. W. Miyakawa, Consul-General for Japan in Melbourne
Professor J.V. Neustupný, "Current Trends in Japanese Language Teaching in Australia"

Saturday, 27 March 1976

- 9.30 Fumiko Koide
"Japanese Language Teaching in Japan - Special Lecture"
E.H. Jordan
"Japanese Language Teaching in the U.S.A. - Special Lecture"

- 2.00 Problems in Secondary Curricula for Japanese - Symposium
Speakers :
B. Bonning, J. Ackroyd (Queensland)
H. McLachlan, G. Sargent (New South Wales)
S. Wilson, W. Eggington (Victoria)
K. Nishida, H. Quackenbush (South Australia)
B. Cole (Tasmania)
I. Welch (Asian Studies Coordinating Committee)
E. Biggs (Australian-Japan Business Cooperation Committee)

- 7.30 Discussion

Sunday, 28 March 1976

- ▲ 10.00 Showing of films and videotapes

SOME CURRENT TRENDS IN JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING
IN AUSTRALIA

J.V. Neustupný

THE AUSTRALIAN RECORD

As perhaps not many realize, Australia has the distinction of being the country with the highest percentage of population engaged in the study of the Japanese language as a foreign language in the world.

This surprising fact convincingly emerges from statistics compiled by the Japan Foundation (Bunkacho 1975, pp.422-423). In 1974 the country with the highest absolute numbers of students of Japanese was the U.S.A. (21, 562), followed by South Korea (12, 324) and Australia (6, 301). Calculated per 10,000 head of population the order is exactly reversed: Australia with 4.86 per 10,000 occupies the first place, followed by South Korea (3.65) and the U.S.A. (1.02). If we use statistics compiled by the Australia Japan Business Cooperation Committee, which indicate the number of students of Japanese in Australia as 7,009, our conclusion is that more than one person in every two thousand in Australia studied Japanese in 1974. The accuracy of any statistical data of this type can of course be questioned and discussed, but no matter how one looks at these figures the Australian lead is undeniable.

The comparison between the U.S.A. and Australia may be especially significant. The U.S.A. is a country with very strong historical and economic relations with Japan. There is a considerable number of Americans of Japanese origin, especially in Hawaii and California, and this fact alone should help to improve the American statistics. Besides this, the most active relationship between Japan and the U.S.A. in the recent history of the two countries has led to considerable investments in Japanese studies in America during her years of plenty. The Australian figures, on the other hand, do not have the support of any special circumstances that might counter the two negative factors which Australia and the U.S.A. share: the anti-Japanese feelings resulting from World War II, and the radical decrease in student enrolments in all language subjects.

If we have arrived where we are, obviously this is because some hard work has been done. Credit for this work should be granted to all those who participate in this process, and because many forget about them, I would like to say in the first instance that it should go to the teachers. However, credit for the *planning* of this spectacular growth belongs undoubtedly to four particular agents. And it would be interesting to learn from people who directly participated in the process just how this came about.

(1) One of the four agents is the *Australian Universities Committee* which in the past readily sponsored the introduction of Japanese in a number of Australian universities. At present Griffith, Queensland, Newcastle, Sydney, ANU, Melbourne, Monash, Tasmania, Adelaide and Western Australia have all introduced degree courses in Japanese, and five of these universities are teaching full four-year honours sequences in the language. The role of the universities has not been limited to their own internal development. They also participated, sometimes in a most active fashion, in the process of the introduction of Japanese at the secondary level, in the setting of standards, and the preparation of teachers.

(2) Another agent which must be mentioned is the Federal government, through its *Advisory Committee on the Teaching of Asian Languages and Cultures* (the so-called Auchmuty Committee), on the basis of which the Co-ordinating Committee on Asian Studies was established. The Federal government, together with the government of Japan, has also recently established the Australia-Japan Foundation, which undoubtedly will play an important, hopefully positive role, in the further development of the teaching of Japanese in Australia.

(3) The third important agency has been the *Australia Japan Business Cooperation Committee*, especially some of its

members. And I do not hesitate to say clearly that much of its work, both at the secondary and tertiary level, has been connected for us especially with the name of Mr E.T. Higuchi.

(4) Finally we cannot omit from our list the *Japanese Government* which through its Foreign Office, the Mombusho scholarships, and more recently through the Japan Foundation has always strongly supported our work.

As a result of all these forces, we have the numbers, we have our budgets, we have established the Japanese language teachers profession in Australia, we have established standards, and we will also have a new textbook of Japanese produced with Federal assistance to provide a possible alternative to some of the good textbooks used in our secondary schools at the moment.

While accepting these facts with thanks to all those who acted in the process, and acknowledging that these developments mark an era, I also wish to say that in my opinion, that era is very nearly at an end, and that what we need is to proceed to the next stage of development, to re-think the basic conception of the teaching of Japanese in Australia, and open the way to the implementation of a completely new pattern, a model, or as I shall call it, a new paradigm.

SOME DETAILS OF THE TRADITIONAL PARADIGM

1. The problem of numbers

In the following remarks I wish to discuss three of the basic problems of our present situation: the problem of numbers, the problem of funding, and the whole conception of the teaching of Japanese in Australia. First, can we be satisfied with the statistics I mentioned at the beginning of my speech?

The international statistics notwithstanding, any internal Australian statistics immediately reveal, that even in 1975 Japanese remained the Cinderella of foreign language teaching, compared with the so widely discussed and publicly condemned traditional school languages. Although the number of students who sat for the HSC examination in French in Victoria fell to only 7% of the total number of HSC candidates in 1974, Japanese scored only 0.3 of the total. In other words, despite the Japanese "boom" there were 24 times as many candidates for French as for Japanese. No doubt, the gap between Japanese and the Old Languages will narrow in the future, but the dream that Japanese might overtake, or perhaps replace French, seems to be quite unrealistic at this moment.

Obviously, Australians do not accept the idea that Japanese should simply replace French with its present numbers and

methods. Are *they* at fault, or are *we* at fault if we suggest that it should?

Let me say that I do not agree with those who would claim that enrolment figures are not important. Japanese should be available widely, to provide an equal opportunity for all to learn the language, including those who are likely to become especially good students. At the same time I do agree, that large numbers of students are *not a basic, and certainly not the only prerequisite* for the further development of the teaching of Japanese in Australia.

What concerns me more than the absolute numbers is the percentage of students who attain the intermediate and advanced level of competence in the language. In other words the basic question about student numbers is: how many people are we producing annually who "know" Japanese?

Statistics compiled by the ABJCC show that out of the 8,197 students who studied Japanese at the primary, secondary, or tertiary level, 7,030 were primary or secondary learners. And I am afraid that the public sometimes does not realize that even if these students complete the secondary programmes their knowledge of the Japanese language remains at the introductory level. From this basis, without further formal study, they can develop some basic fluency in daily conversation. Without coming back to the classroom, they will never

be able to talk about any professional matters, they will never be able to read, and in nine cases out of ten, they will lose whatever competence they may have acquired within the period of two or three years.

Further, in 1975 we had 1,167 students at the universities and colleges of advanced education. How many of these students attained the intermediate level of competence in Japanese, defined as a stage from which they are able to develop independently, without further formal studies, a relative fluency both in the spoken and the written language? I wish to claim that this stage is normally achieved only by 4th year level students. How many did we have of these? In the absence of statistics I can only guess, and my optimistic guess is about 20 in the whole of Australia.

Notice that these people are still not necessarily efficient speakers and/or readers of Japanese. They may become so, and if they do, this is usually achieved by one of the following methods

- further advanced postgraduate study in Australia (with periods of stay in Japan),
- further study in Japan, e.g. on a Mombusho scholarship, or
- exceptionally, through employment in a position which entails an extensive use of the language.

How many persons, then, can we place in one of these categories? Again, statistics are unavailable, but even the most optimistic guess could not claim that Australia produced annually more than five to ten Australians who have ultimately "mastered" the Japanese language, who are able to use it effectively in elaborate communicative situations.

Compared with the situation in the early sixties these figures are certainly promising.

If however we compare these 5-10 with the eight thousand of those who hoped to get to "know" Japanese, our conclusion can only be horrifying. Some wastage, of course, should be allowed for, but must there be so much? Is Australia leading not only in the percentage of population who study the Japanese language, but also in the wastage of energies and confidence of those who entrust themselves into our hands? My conclusion can only be that the increase in the number of people who can communicate in Japanese is tragically out of proportion with the overall number of people who enrol for the Japanese language.

There is a solution to this problem. To reach it we must reconsider the teaching as it is done at the introductory, intermediate, and advanced stage. I wish to return to this problem later.

2. The problem of budgets

The present conception of the teaching of Japanese in Australia as a process appropriate for higher secondary schools and undergraduate university studies, is clearly reflected in the structure of financing.

Money for the teaching of Japanese at the tertiary level comes almost exclusively from normal budgetary allocations. The effective teaching of Japanese requires an exceptionally high number of contact hours. To my knowledge no adequate consideration is given to this.

A similar situation obtains at the secondary level, though I understand that some special provision for native assistants has recently been introduced in some states.

The Asian Studies Co-ordinating Committee governs a considerable budget, but this budget is distributed purely for projects supporting the traditional secondary level courses. The committee itself consists of representatives of the state Departments of Education, who may or may not consult specialists of their own choosing and may or may not be bound by their advice.

I wish to say very explicitly that except for these traditional routes there are no public funds currently available for any projects which cannot be financed through one of the traditional channels. And this includes a large number of

those projects which are indispensable for the establishment of the new paradigm, of which I intend to speak later this evening. Whenever we want to send students to Japan, we must appeal to private donors. When we want to establish an intensive course in Japanese, the only source is again private enterprise. When a subsidy for the production of a newspaper reader is needed, again private funds are the only ones available. The problem, as we all know, is that the amount of private money available for the teaching of Japanese is extremely limited, and again and again I hear of projects which cannot get off the ground because they do not fit into any of the traditional budgetary compartments. And I wish to emphasize that they are all *public* projects, and Australian projects. They should be financed from *public* funds, and from Australian funds.

An interesting question here is how will the new Australia-Japan Foundation operate. Will it be administered purely by public servants? Will it accept the traditional pattern of Japanese language studies or will it be prepared to go beyond that? Unfortunately, teachers of Japanese do not even know to whom they should address such questions. And by the time they do, all of these questions may have been decided.

3. The problem of conception

The most important problem in our present situation in

the teaching of Japanese in Australia is the problem of conception, how we see the aims and methods of our work.

We have concentrated exclusively on traditional programmes: several years of high school Japanese followed by several years of undergraduate study. The problems as we saw them were the problems of textbooks and teachers, and the problem of how the teaching of Japanese could fit, both administratively and conceptually, within the established educational structures. The aims and objectives have never been discussed in any detail. We expected that the community would supply large numbers of bright boys and girls who would not ask why they should undertake this enormous amount of work. The problem of relevance was relegated to the end of the course.

Fortunately, times have changed. Students have begun asking questions, either directly, or through their decision to enrol or not to enrol, to go on or to discontinue. And those who accepted our promises of paradise were few, and not always those we would have chosen. The public, too, started asking what we were achieving and what was the sense of it all.

In a way we have been fortunate in having before us the sobering lesson of the spectacular decline of the traditional school languages. From this we have been able to learn that by replacing French we simply would take its problems on our own shoulders, and prepare a similar fate for ourselves.

Obviously, a new paradigm is needed. And let me say that Japanese language teaching, still relatively undeveloped, free from the burden of long tradition and yet to be established as a profession, is in an excellent position to accept new developments.

SOME SUGGESTIONS

What then are the principal features of the new developmental stage of the teaching of Japanese which in my opinion awaits us in the later part of the 1970's?

1. Replacing language teaching by communication teaching

The first problem is in the conception of language teaching.

I believe that at every stage of the teaching process we must respond to the needs of the student and to the needs of the community. At every stage teaching must reflect the need to communicate with Japan. This need, in my opinion, is not widely felt at present. The first aim of the teaching of Japanese must be to develop this need for a knowledge of the Japanese language, not only as a general and vague feeling of being "a part of Asia" but also in a detail appropriate to each stage of the learning process. It is my assumption that this need does exist, and it is our duty to uncover it. However I am vigorously opposed to the festival-costumes-food approach to the motivation of the teaching of languages.

at the primary and secondary level. Children and students who discuss serious and complicated problems in their social studies courses should not be fed exclusively with Japanese festivals, customs, and fairy tales. There must be other facts about Japan that attract their attention. There are social topics, there are technical topics, and there are international relations in general, and relations with Japan in particular. Furthermore, topics which directly concern Japan are not the only ones which can and should be discussed in Japanese. There are many problems which are Japanese simply because they are discussed in Japan, but have a universal validity which makes them exceptionally suitable for discussion anywhere. These are the topics which are likely to be raised when a Japanese visitor attends our class. And the method of using guest speakers, by the way, is one of the basic methods of the new approach.

At the tertiary level, I believe, the teaching of Japanese must liberate itself from the "Japanese Studies" approach. Only an extreme minority of tertiary students in a modern society become academics. Yet, the overall pattern imposed on our undergraduate courses by university tradition is still largely an introduction of the student to an academic discipline, in the expectation that the student's ultimate aim is to conduct research on Japan. Certainly

we must retain, and I would say further emphasize, the spirit of enquiry. But it need not necessarily be an enquiry confined within the limits of an academic discipline.

If we want to make each student feel the need to communicate with Japan, we must be interested in the general state of communication between Japan and Australia in all its aspects: cultural, political, and economic. In these fields there is still very much to be desired and I regret that time does not allow me to follow this topic in detail. I wish to emphasize however that this is a topic of primary importance for Japanese language teachers and that we are interested in it professionally, not simply as sympathetic observers.

Once the need for the study of Japanese is indentified and developed, we are faced with the problem of what to do next. I shall mention only a few points.

If we emphasize the teaching of communicative, not simply grammatical, competence, the first change we must consider is an emphasis on *meaning and vocabulary*. The old paradigm of language teaching for which language teaching was an abstract exercise did not develop the teaching of vocabulary at all. Not infrequently we meet introductory textbooks with as little as 700, 800 words. Obviously, no

meaningful communication can take place with a vocabulary as limited as this. Our VUSEB list of minimum vocabulary for an introductory course in Japanese may prove to be the start for a new development. The National Language Research Institute in Tokyo at present is working on a similar list for the intermediate stage of the teaching of Japanese to foreign speakers, and we only hope that it will be completed and made available soon.

Secondly, the new paradigm must widen the *range of communication domains* to which a student is introduced in the introductory, intermediate and advanced stages of teaching. I personally believe that it is a mistake to limit the range of our objectives in an introductory course to the domain of the everyday general communication. Notice that the VUSEB regulations for the HSC examinations require that the student selects one special field of his own interest and acquires extended competence in this field. Let me add that I can foresee a danger in concentrating our courses too much around particular textbooks; this contradicts the principle of individualized instruction, which is one of the basic principles of the new paradigm.

Thirdly, instead of teaching a fixed set of language rules I hope that we are going to develop the teaching of a *dynamic learning competence*, introducing the students to

the methods of learning and independent acquisition, and providing them with situations in which this competence can be applied.

Fourthly, instead of teaching only the rules of grammar, we should teach the whole of the Japanese *communicative competence*: not only the rules of grammar, but also rules which decide what is communicated, to whom, in which situations, through which channels, etc.

2. Development of the intermediate and advanced stage of Japanese language teaching

The second suggestion I wish to make is that we must escape from the present teaching structure which is a pyramid extremely heavy at the bottom. We must find ways to improve radically the ratio of students who continue their Japanese studies at the next stage. At present, at least in Victoria, we do not seem to know what makes secondary students sit for the HSC examination without continuing their studies at the tertiary level. The number of HSC students undertaking at tertiary level the study of a language begun at secondary level varies considerably according to the language concerned and the year of the HSC examination. For German, for instance, the figures have been traditionally high in Victoria, between 30 and 40 per cent. We do not seem to enjoy the same high ratio in Japanese. What are

the reasons and what could be done in order to improve this situation?

3. Development of new programmes

As I said before, the types of courses for which the traditional paradigm provides a framework are high school courses and undergraduate majors. Let us now survey at least some of the teaching forms which either exist in a nascent state or which have already been proposed. This survey is based on my own experience. It will be of great interest to obtain information on similar projects as they have developed in other centres in Australia.

Introduction to Japanese communication

A course that teaches almost no Japanese but tells the student how to communicate with individuals who are native speakers of Japanese should be taught to everyone before he approaches the language study. It should be available for those who wish to travel to Japan, and an advanced form of this course, dealing with Japanese communication in the administrative and business domains should be available at some universities and colleges for those who are actually engaged in such forms of communication with Japan.

I would like to emphasize that the development of such a course is not a task for just any active and enthusiastic language teacher. This course must take a full advantage of

the existence of the modern discipline of sociolinguistics, and must be worked out by a team of people, both in Japan and in Australia.

+ Special purpose courses

There is a need for specialized short term intensive introductory language courses which would respond to the immediate communicative needs of individuals and groups (businessmen, tourists, etc.).

I propose that the "intensive courses" which from time to time we run at Monash, or which are organized by other tertiary institutions in Australia, are most often rather adaptations of our normal introductory courses, that they offer much information that is irrelevant and contain a huge gap where more specialized information should be offered. It seems to me that there is still much room for improvement here.

- Bilingual schools

A state school which teaches some subjects, not simply the Japanese language, in Japanese should be designated in each capital city. This school could also be suitable for Japanese children who live temporarily in Australia. It is only through this form of education that people who are close to-perfect bilinguals can be produced.

- Activization courses in Japan

Monash University has been conducting six-month activization courses at the Monash Japanese Centre in Tokyo, available to all 4th year students, since 1970. During the past 7 years 31 students have taken part in these programmes, which have proved to be not only extremely popular but also academically most successful. Other tertiary institutions which to my knowledge have conducted similar programmes are the University of Queensland, the University of Western Australia, and the Swinburne Institute of Technology. I feel quite strongly that this opportunity should be available to all students who reach a certain level of competence in Japanese. This level should not, in my opinion, be less than a completed major in Japanese.

Public funds are still unavailable for this purpose and we struggle each year in order to collect sufficient support from private sources. The Japan Foundation has been very sensitive to the needs of these programmes over the last three years.

- An advanced intensive course

Since 1973 Monash University has been publicly campaigning for support for an advanced intensive course which would bring the students within one year of study to the

level of a university major. The campaign has so far been totally unsuccessful but I understand that our proposal has now been incorporated into the programme of the new Australia-Japan Foundation.

An intensive course of this type would lead to postgraduate work and/or further training in Japan. It would be designed for graduates with an exceptionally high degree of motivation and it would cut down the time necessary for the acquisition of the intermediate level of linguistic competence of the students to less than one half of the usual time.

- Postgraduate programmes

Forms of postgraduate programmes other than the research oriented MA and PhD programmes should be made available to those who have completed the intermediate level and wish to proceed towards the advanced level. At Monash we have commenced a postgraduate Diploma in Japanese Studies in 1976. It may not be a perfect course but it does seem to cater for some needs within our Melbourne community.

- A summer school in Japanese studies

We might investigate the possibility of establishing a postgraduate summer school in Japanese studies, probably to be held at a different university each year. This school would be able to offer a greater variety of subjects than

any single university in Australia can offer, and should, in particular, serve the needs of Japanese language teachers. We must expect that the numbers of students would necessarily be small, even if the courses are counted as coursework towards diplomas and postgraduate degrees. I am sure that the Japan Foundation would be able to sponsor one or more speakers for each session. Perhaps it might be advantageous to hold an undergraduate summer school at the same time.

CONCLUSIONS

The current situation in Japanese language teaching in Australia seems to me to be that of transition. We are changing from the traditional paradigm of teaching grammatical competence into the contemporary paradigm of teaching how to communicate.

In these introductory remarks to our conference I wanted to present some suggestions with regard to the methods by which the new paradigm can be implemented in the particular case of Australia.

Planning for Japanese language teaching has so far been discussed almost entirely without the participation of Japanese language teachers. This is why the convenors of this conference decided to organize it as a teachers'

conference. I hope that by the end of our sessions we will be able to arrive at some conclusions and recommendations that may help to bring Japanese language teaching in Australia to a new historical stage.

JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN QUEENSLAND

B. Bonning

1976 is an important year in the history of Japanese language teaching in Queensland. This is the tenth year since Japanese was introduced into the high school curriculum, and although the growth has not been spectacular, it has shown a steady yearly increase. This, combined with the fact that we have been around for ten years, shows to others that we are not just a passing fad. We were here yesterday; we are here today; and, Education Department and school administrations willing, we will be here tomorrow.

In 1966, Japanese was introduced at Queensland University and, in the following year, into six State High Schools, my own included. I feel it is important at this point, when I am speaking of the very beginnings of our history, to pay tribute to Professor Ackroyd for all she has done in the promotion and establishment of Japanese in our schools, - in convincing the relevant authorities that Japanese was a viable subject, that there was or would develop a need for Japanese speakers, that it was possible to train the necessary teachers, and

that it was not too difficult or impossible to teach to Australian children.

The number of schools teaching Japanese grew to seven when one private school introduced it independently, later the same year. Unfortunately that school became our first casualty, and no longer offers Japanese. Of the original six schools, four were to be found in Brisbane, and two in the country.

Ten years later, there are twenty four schools, - not spectacular, you will agree, - a growth rate of fewer than two additional schools a year (we have had 2½ casualties). Of these twenty four schools, eleven are State high schools and thirteen are private schools. Or if we look at this another way, eighteen schools are located in the Brisbane area, and six in the country. In this context, the word "country" means the cities of Toowoomba, Townsville, Rockhampton, and the town of Yeppoon. It is difficult to foresee the spread of Japanese to smaller country areas, especially when we bear in mind the prevailing Australian attitudes to foreign language learning in general.

As yet, there are no full figures available for the 1976 population of Japanese students. The Japanese Syllabus Sub-

Committee is currently undertaking a survey of these numbers, but they are not yet available. However, the following figures obtained from fourteen schools at a meeting earlier this year may be of interest.

Grade 8	945
Grade 9	318
Grade 10	318
Grade 11	78
Grade 12	48

From these fourteen schools comes a population of slightly over seventeen-hundred. It must be pointed out that the ten schools not represented in these figures are those whose population lies mainly in the Grades 8 and 9, areas where numbers are highest. So it is not unreasonable to assume that the State-wide population is more than two-thousand.

Although the number of schools offering Japanese has increased fourfold, only eleven schools this year will have students in Grade 12 (matriculation class). (It sometimes happens, that, for various reasons, there is a nil population in certain schools in certain years.) It is interesting to note that, since 1971, when our first

students completed Grade 12, although the number of schools has increased, the Grade 12 population has remained fairly constant.

1971	61 students
1972	44 "
1973	54 "
1974	64 "
1975	56 "
1976	48 "

This can hardly be seen to be encouraging, but the seventy-eight students anticipated to complete Grade 12 in 1977 represent a dramatic increase, and we can hope for a further gradual improvement as other schools progress to Grade 11 and Grade 12 levels.

As we all know well, statistics can be very misleading, unless they are interpreted in conjunction with any number of relevant and influencing factors. Our Grade 8 students number more than the total of the other grades taken together. Then there is a big drop to the number who continue into Grades 9 and 10, and a further decimation to the number who continue into the Senior school.

Here we ought to consider the variety of ways Japanese is offered to Grade 8 students, and this is, of course, a matter for individual school policies. There are schools which offer Japanese as an alternative to at least one other language - French, or German, or both. In the first years at my own school, I was allowed to offer Japanese to students from what were considered the top streams in French and German classes. These students formed a single class, and studied Japanese as an extra subject in lieu of one lesson from each of Music, Physical Education, and Art. In theory, this should have given me a class of high achievers, but in actual practice, this was not necessarily so. Further, students did not always regard an extra subject as seriously as I might have hoped.

Since 1973, students entering Grade 8 have been offered the choice of French or Japanese, and this has given me, in 1976, over one hundred students in Grade 8. It is also satisfying that this year we break with the normal pattern in that this number is less than the total number of Japanese students from Grade 9 to Grade 12, who number one hundred and twenty. I must point out, however, that this could not have been possible, had I not had a sympathetic administration in my school.

To return to the consideration of how Japanese is offered in other schools, we find that there are schools which give their Grade 8 students a varied experience with foreign languages, i.e., students are introduced to two or three foreign languages, by studying each language for a term or a semester; or by studying two or three languages concurrently, with perhaps only one lesson per language per week. And there are schools which offer their students a general linguistics course for a term or a semester before beginning the study of a single language. Lastly, we have at least one school where Japanese is offered at Grade 8 level only.

Policies as diversified as these create very serious complications in the design of the syllabus, which is currently under review. The Syllabus Sub-Committee has undertaken a review of the present syllabus, with a view to writing a new five-year syllabus for implementation in 1977.

Until 1972, Queensland had a public examination system and this meant that Japanese became an established subject under that system. I think an obvious advantage was that this controlled situation showed up some of the weaknesses and problems that we faced in teaching Japanese.

And also, because we were considered "foreign", we were not expected to follow patterns and standards existing in French or German. This has always allowed us far more flexibility in method and testing. Since 1972, Queensland has had a program of continuous internal assessment, which operates at Grades 10, 11, and 12 levels. Of these, Grade 10 is the simplest. Grade 10 students are rated by means of a seven-point scale, on the results of internal examinations, and are issued with certificates by the school, on behalf of the Board of Secondary School Studies. It was hoped that this system would eliminate examination stresses and provide a fairer and more accurate indication of achievement. However, in Grades 11 and 12, there are still more than a few problems, and there are, at the moment, certain areas of controversy. Briefly, continuous assessment in Queensland works like this: schools meet in districts to moderate programs of assessment, testing schemes, and finally students' scripts and results at the end of each semester. In practice, this means meetings at the end of the first and third semesters only. Each district is administered by a District Moderator, who in turn is responsible to a Chief Moderator, who recommends final ratings to be issued to the students by the Board of Secondary School Studies. In this system, Japanese teachers have one advantage: we are not fragmented into districts, and so can meet

as one group. This allows us to obtain an overall picture of standards throughout the state. At the end of the fourth semester, students receive certificates issued by the Board, listing the rating achievement in each semester studied.

Matriculation is currently governed by the T.E.S., or Tertiary Entrance Score, a figure which represents a student's anticipated achievement in tertiary study, and which is arrived at by a combination of the results of an ASAT (Australian Scholastic Aptitude Test) test and school assessment. It would seem that this is not the answer either, and I have heard it suggested that tertiary institutions set their own entrance examinations.

The Japanese we teach is constantly changing. Our earlier students developed a far greater skill in reading and writing Japanese, at the expense of the oral/aural skills. There has been a swing to the other end of the scale, and perhaps we are attempting the near impossible. However, we seem to be achieving a better balance. I feel that our standards have changed, in fact have become lower, but there is a different sort of student continuing. That in itself is a good thing, because I feel very strongly about Japanese being an elitist subject. Were this to

happen, I think we would see very rapid and drastic effects on the future of Japanese.

Within our present situation, teachers and schools have greater freedom in selecting textbooks, and a variety of course-books are being used, either singly or in combination. This has forced the teacher of Japanese to be imaginative and inventive, and although this is time-consuming in the extreme, it can only be for the good of our teaching on the whole. I believe teaching is a highly individualistic skill, and a teacher must be flexible to adapt to changing students, administration problems and inadequate time allocations, especially in the lower levels.

It has been suggested that the slow growth of Japanese in State high schools can be attributed to an inadequate supply of trained teachers, and, although I cannot accept this entirely, I can understand the reluctance of principals and the Education Department to introduce a subject if they cannot feel sure that they can keep faith with students who elect to study Japanese in Grade 8. Last year, eight teachers were trained, and nearly all of them are teaching Japanese this year. This year, twelve are training to teach Japanese, but it would seem unlikely that they will be so successful. The pity is that these people lose their

proficiency and are then lost to Japanese forever.

Queensland has had only one or two teachers who were native speakers. In the high school system, we have had only one, Mariko Iwasaki, who came to us on a scholarship from the Australia-Japan Businessmen's Corporation Committee, and taught in Queensland in 1974/75. It was felt that our lone native speaker had too much to offer to isolate her in one school; so a scheme was devised that we hoped would be satisfying both to Mariko and to teachers in Departmental schools. Under this plan, Mariko was to spend half a term at schools in Brisbane, and, because of their isolation, a complete term at Toowoomba and Townsville. Certainly there were problems, but on the whole, the plan was a success.

I would like to mention one need about which I feel quite strongly. Most of our teachers get themselves to Japan by one means or another, but I would hope that more could be done in this area. At the end of 1973, and again at the beginning of 1975, the Japan Foundation sponsored short-term courses for teachers of Japanese outside Japan. The course was intensive and covered language and method. The first of these courses consisted of only nine people, of whom I was the only Australian.

For me, that was an invaluable experience in so many ways, particularly as I was living in Japan, but not as a tourist. We visited and observed lessons at I.C.U., Naganuma School, Keio, Waseda; it was in fact a total immersion in Japan and Japanese, in more ways than one, for I learnt my *kyōgo* by polite conversation as I simmered in the bath! I do recognize, and am grateful for the opportunities that teachers have of visiting Japan, under the auspices of the A.J.B.C.C. and the A.S.C.C., but perhaps we can hope that the Australia-Japan Foundation, when it becomes a reality, will sponsor similar courses.

What do we need to improve our teaching? Obviously many things, such as charts, flashcards, pictures and slides, and so forth. We are grateful for the material that has been supplied under the auspices of the A.S.C.C.: maps, slide sets, and some books. I have become a little wary of wanting too many things. If they are not really good quality, they end up being rather expensive dust collectors. In some areas, it is preferable to build a personal collection. One area where we do feel a lack is reading material, suitable in interest level and linguistic content for our students. But it is a mistake to see our "needs" on this level alone. What we do need is more students, more teachers, more community awareness and

acceptance of us. We need more people to see the need for employing Japanese speakers. In these, we are really no different from the teachers of all foreign languages in Australia.

What does the future hold? Current trends indicate a continued growth, albeit a slow one. But this is not a bad thing. Our future is tied to the general language situation, and to Departmental policies. If we are to have a bright future, then we need to do all we can to ensure that our teachers are well trained, that they think of themselves as teachers of language whether it is Japanese or French or whatever, that this is not simply a subject to fill up the timetable.

Whoever has created the present, the future lies with us.

THE QUEENSLAND SECONDARY SYLLABUS AND
TEACHING OF JAPANESE AT TERTIARY LEVEL

J. I. Ackroyd

I am to speak briefly on the Queensland secondary school syllabus in Japanese as it affects teaching at tertiary level.

I should perhaps note that, at Queensland University, we operate within the straight-jacket of a traditional arts structure, which strictly limits what tertiary language can accomplish. Also, we have been brought face to face with reality without the protection of administrative cottonwool by the recent abolition of the foreign language requirement. In the Japanese Department, we have taken as our aim not Japanese studies but practical language mastery, and we have diversified communication domains to include the media, from newspapers to T.V. and films, and also technical fields.

Anything less than a completely prescriptive syllabus, detailing linguistic and cultural items to be studied, selecting textbooks, prescribing methods of instruction,

and defining standards, must create difficulties for those responsible for developing the succeeding stages of training.

The next best thing would be an examination, ascertaining what ground had been covered, in what depth, how accurately, and by what methods.

Neither of these is in your now. And, in fact, the present situation in secondary school teaching does not help tertiary teachers very much.

The requirement in Queensland that syllabuses should be non-prescriptive, has sometimes been carried so far that some language syllabuses are mere collections of generalities of little practical help to the inexperienced or over-worked teacher. The Queensland Japanese syllabus, has, as I see it, attempted to provide adequate guidance for teachers by listing basic grammatical and cultural items it is considered desirable to cover by a certain level.

But it gives complete freedom as regards choice of textbooks, and, at least at the sub-senior level, of topics. Some prescriptions remain regarding topics at senior level,

but hopefully these will soon be removed.

Difficulty has been experienced in deciding the weight to be apportioned to oral and written work in the syllabus. Two points arise: first, it seems to me that the criterion observed here has been *not* what is best or most useful for the students, but what lies within the school's teaching capability. I have been conscious of pressure to maintain emphasis on written at the expense of oral work. Secondly, it does appear that syllabus requirements can be nullified by decisions taken at moderation meetings. My only comment on this second point is that, in this case, the syllabus cannot be accepted as a reliable guide to secondary school studies. From one point of view, it seems common sense to allow the teacher some latitude in shaping the course he delivers to fit the teaching capability at his school. Perhaps, in some states, not enough latitude is allowed. A syllabus placing main emphasis on reading ability may be acceptable to the teacher who must work under handicaps of one kind or another, but may be frustrating to the teacher who, say, is a Japanese national. Some places in Australia are fortunate in having some trained native speakers available as secondary school teachers, and it appears that more are beginning to seek registration here. On the other hand,

a syllabus that placed what may be considered merely a reasonable emphasis on spoken facility may impose a burden felt as intolerable by a teacher who lacks adequate teaching aids.

These two problems, and the handicaps under which language teaching is carried on in some secondary schools, produce a rather unsatisfactory situation at tertiary level.

Despite the listing of grammatical and cultural items in the present syllabus, for instance, we are somewhat in the dark as to how many of these items, of one kind or the other, have actually been mastered, in what depth, with what degree of accuracy, or how much practice has been given on them through substitution, response, or other drills. Again, although the Queensland Japanese Department spent considerable effort on producing a list of the 500 most frequently used kanji for the guidance of high school teachers, our teaching efforts are somewhat hampered by not knowing how many or what kanji a student can recognise or write.

Further, we have not found the grades assigned to students by the present assessment procedures a reliable

guide to a student's capabilities. Many who have come to us with high grades have been quite unable to cope with second* year university courses.

But more to the point, we find that most students with previous training in Japanese have developed some problem requiring remedial attention at tertiary level. I attribute this to a lack of proper teaching opportunity. And, of course, some leave us in like case - again, for the same reason. How does the high school graduate make out in our courses?

We are in a position to make comparative judgements on this point because we have to provide for students with five different kinds of background :

1. those with no previous knowledge of Japanese;
2. those with five or fewer years of study of Japanese at high school;
3. those who have studied Japanese at adult education institutions;
4. those who have studied in Japan without previous study at school;
5. those who have studied in Japan after study at school.

* Until now, we have permitted students who have studied Japanese for 5 years at high school to enter University work at second year level.

Leaving out of account here the few native speakers of varying age and educational background for whom we have to supply further training, we find the above students fall into several groups. The first group can be described as top-grade, its composition largely decided by the intelligence quotient of the individual student, regardless of his background. Consequently, this group includes one or two from most categories. The group furthest removed from this can be described as the lowest grade, and is composed of the "slackers", again regardless of background. The groups in between cannot so much be graded as good, bad, or fair, as characterised rather by having specific problems.

Those from high school are generally deficient on the spoken side. They usually experience difficulty on the hearing side and more on the speaking side, and sometimes have a fairly blatant Australian accent. In reading ability, they are average, but are not strong in writing Japanese. Most of them have developed idiosyncrasies in forming the Japanese script that sometimes render their written work hard to decipher. They also significantly tend to get bored more easily than any other group, and this is so whatever their point of entry into tertiary courses. Those who have studied in Japan, even without

any school background, are often glib and self-confident in speech, though purists frequently fault their accents as provincial, but with one or two exceptions, we have found them weak on the written side, notably in grammatical comprehension, and, curiously, in the recognition of kanji. It is just by the way that those from adult education institutions seem to have most problems, doubtless stemming from the difficulty of study at a mature age while working full-time, but also no doubt from the widely-spaced and limited contact hours of tuition.

We have, for some time, attempted to deal with this problem of diverse backgrounds of students by permitting some to go straight into second year. This has compounded the problem, since it has resulted in mixing with students with outside background those who have done all their study within our department. However, it has provided us with a control group, as it were, and we have had consistent proof that this group is the best *all-round* group.

We now propose to modify our solution of this problem, but details of our new policy lie outside my topic today. The point is that the problems created by secondary school teaching will remain.

Speaking for the Japanese Department at Queensland University, I can say categorically that we do not regard the secondary school as exclusively a preparatory institution for university study. If only those students intending to go on to tertiary level studied Japanese in high school, we should consider the aim of those interested in the diffusion of knowledge about Japan largely defeated. It follows that we do not expect the secondary school curriculum in Japanese specifically to service the needs of our department. In fact, I personally am conscious of a fundamental opposition between what should ideally be the object of a secondary school syllabus in language, and the background requirements for taking up the study of language at University. This is bound up with the immense questions of what should be the general aims of education at secondary school, and before that at primary school. I have often felt the aims were not always made clear in syllabuses, and when they were, they were not the right ones, or if right, were not being tackled the right way. But that whole problem is too big for now. What I take to be my main job right now is to suggest how the secondary school syllabus in Japanese, whatever its guiding aims may be, and however liberal it may be desired to make it, might also help tertiary level teachers more.

It would, of course, help us if students came to us with a reasonable command of their own language, but since that, too, lies outside the scope of the secondary school syllabus in Japanese, could we perhaps make a plea for the syllabus to require an understanding of the basic grammatical terminology involved in learning Japanese? I know that, right away, I have raised the question of what particular terminology would be acceptable. I am going to grasp the nettle by saying it would seem obvious that it ought to be the one the Japanese use.

One of the greatest difficulties we face in teaching Japanese is the utter insensitivity of students to the existence of grammatical structure; so I would like to see some teaching along this line encouraged in the syllabus, - perhaps a simple contrastive study of Japanese and English. I take most keenly Professor Neustupny's and Professor Jordan's point about imparting total communication skills, but we would be grateful for the restoration of a little old-fashioned grammatical "nous".

It would assist us if students came to us with effective study habits for language-mastery already established. So I should like to see some attention given in the

syllabus to the analysis of methods of acquiring a second language.

It would also assist us if there were a general upgrading of the art of penmanship in the schools, but, in the absence of that general background, some emphasis might be placed in the syllabus on correct training in writing the Japanese script. It would help if teachers were exhorted to prefer the overhead projector for displaying specimens of model modern script to writing their own necessarily idiosyncratic versions on the blackboard for further distortion by their students.

It would help if the place of oral training in teaching a second language were thoroughly thought out, and the practicality of intensive use of tapes for a wide variety of drills prepared by native speakers researched in depth. As regards kanji, although free choice in textbooks certainly complicates matters, it should not be impossible to agree on a compressed list of absolutely indispensable characters which should and could feasibly be acquired at school.

Apart from these fundamental problems of methodology, my own feeling is that syllabuses, despite the influence

of teachers (or perhaps because of it?), are still too conservative and uninspirational. I mean this particularly with the regard to the reading content of study material. Why can we not have, for example, simple versions of science fiction or straight popular science, much more about how to write letters to pen-friends, simplified news-sheets, more pop-songs, more T.V.-type presentations, more vocabulary from advertisements, more about teenage life? I think bilingual schools will not come to Australia in several lifetimes, but in the meantime I strongly support Professor Neustupný's suggestion for individual choice of communication domains.

Finally, our state has considerable contact with businessmen and their families, and with tourists, particularly youth groups. I should like to see, in the syllabus for the advanced level, an option in commercial Japanese, and another in Japanese for sight-seeing guides.

I am hopeful the more formal requirements I should like to see written into the syllabus would benefit secondary as well as tertiary language training, while the beneficial effect of the more delectable material I should like to see introduced would carry over from secondary to tertiary level.

In his penetrating and many-angled preview of a new future for language teaching last night, Professor Neustupny spoke of updating concepts, approaches, and planning. But, behind it all I had the feeling he was telling us we can change the world to suit the aims of Japanese language teachers. I wish we could. I wish we could change school timetables and university degree structures. I wish we could change the Australian attitude to languages. I wish we could change the Australian ethos. I wish we could make Australians less interested in football, beer, and industrial disputes, and more interested in foreign affairs, self-culture, and their world image. But I do not see how you can induce in a sea-girt continent with an arrogant Anglo-Saxon tradition, the motivations of small landlocked European communities. Not overnight anyway. And until we do, I do not think language teaching in Australia is going to produce results commensurate with the efforts those assembled here put into it.

But, on the other hand, if we ceased these efforts, I can only express my conviction that Australia would become a most "unlucky" country indeed. I know we must slog on, trying to close the gap between what the community wants and what the community needs.

TEACHING OF JAPANESE IN NEW SOUTH WALES

H. McLachlan

Japanese is being taught in fifteen high schools in New South Wales as an elective subject. This is an increase of three schools this year. It is also being taught to Grade 7 (Form 1) in a number (unknown) of other schools, as part of introductory language courses. Excluding Grade 7 students, approximately 900 students are learning Japanese, the majority, of course, in Grades 8-10.

The syllabus governing Grades 8-10 states as its basic aim "simple communication". It requires of students at School Certificate level the ability to communicate in simple Japanese in everyday situations, the ability to read and write hiragana and a restricted range of characters, and the ability to read katakana. The syllabus also states that the cultural aspect is to be considered equally important.

The senior school syllabus for Grades 11 and 12 also emphasises the development of students' oral ability, but prescribes a list of characters for writing, and selected chapters of a prescribed text for translation.

No language text is prescribed by either syllabus.

In the junior school, Japanese is allocated five 40-minute periods per week (as for any elective subject). This is one period per week less than English, Mathematics and Science. In the senior school, in Grade 11, six periods per week are given. In Grade 12, there are six or nine periods per week, depending upon the level of study. In some schools, face-to-face period allocations are reduced due to small class sizes.

Our Problems : One is persuading school principals to introduce Japanese. As a rule, they are reluctant for one or more reasons probably well-known to everyone here : the belief that Japanese is "too difficult for high school students"; the belief that teachers of Japanese are scarce, and nigh impossible to replace; the problem of staffing small classes; the belief that the learning of foreign languages is not relevant for Australian children.

Another problem is teaching material. Although there are some very suitable materials available, there is little variety, and teachers are forced to adapt and select themselves. There is a particular lack of reading material suitable in content and linguistic scope for

students in Grades 8 and 9.

PROBLEMS IN SECONDARY CURRICULA FOR JAPANESE - VICTORIA

S. Wilson

Japanese is now being taught at approximately sixteen secondary schools in Victoria. While a major proportion of these schools offer it as an elective subject from Form Three, some commence it in Form One, with a small number having Japanese as a compulsory subject in the junior high school curriculum. With the increased decentralization of education in Victoria, the position of Japanese in the school curriculum has become a matter of individual negotiation with the school administrations.

In Victoria, there are no external course prescriptions for any level except the final year of high school. The courses for all subjects in the final year are in practice prescribed by an external body, the Victorian Universities and Schools Examination Board (V.U.S.E.B.). The Japanese Standing Committee, which determines the Higher School Certificate Japanese course for this Board, has changed the prescriptions for Japanese commencing this year, 1976.

In the past, the course was largely based on the content of a single text, N. Naganuma's "Standard Japanese Reader Book One". The new course no longer prescribes a text but, instead, prescribes the grammar, vocabulary and characters

which must be mastered. Also, the new examination will give credit for aural and written comprehension skills, composition writing and the student's ability to converse on a topic of his special interest. This contrasts with the pre-1976 examinations' stress on translation skills. This alteration of the Higher School Certificate prescriptions has freed teachers to select their own teaching materials at this level, and has served to accentuate the need for a wide range of suitable teaching materials at this level, although this need has always existed at all levels.

I see three main problems for the future of Japanese in secondary curricula: the nature of the courses offered, the teaching methods, and materials used in conjunction with these courses.

Japanese should be taught to a larger number of students than it is at present. And, if it is to be more widely taught throughout our secondary schools, it will inevitably be offered to students with a wide range of abilities and social backgrounds. With the trend to a higher level of retention of students until the final year of high school, there must be an accompanying flexibility in the nature of Japanese courses offered. To devise courses suitable for as many students as possible, we need to look to motivational

methods in our language teaching. It must be through stimulating and involving classroom activities, which have students using the language in meaningful situations, that we make Japanese a subject with appeal for many students.

In conjunction with this, prospective teachers of Japanese must be offered appropriate method courses at teacher-training institutions to enable them to acquaint themselves with current teaching trends in their subject. It must be within a structured training program that the student teachers are exposed to Japanese teaching materials and methods. At the moment, too often the student teacher of Japanese is only presented with French or German examples in method classes, and is totally dependent on the classroom teachers he or she is assigned to on teaching practice rounds for information on specific Japanese materials available and methods used. Further, the employment by the Victorian Education Department of native speaker assistants to assist classroom teachers has proved to be a success, with several schools sharing the benefits of such persons' assistance. This practice could well be broadened to enable all teachers to have access to the assistance of a native speaker.

The need for native speaker assistants is heightened by

the lack of suitable teaching materials for Japanese. The search for suitable teaching materials is a particularly important concern for teachers of Japanese. The development and pooling of teaching materials is essential for the enrichment of students' learning experiences. There clearly must be closer contact between the States to enable constant feed-back with regard to materials being produced by institutions and individuals. Further, closer liaison with such bodies as the Japanese Ministry for Cultural Affairs, the Japan Foundation and Japanese publishing companies would enable teachers of Japanese in Australia to utilize the vast amount of resource material which is available in Japan.

In conclusion, the future of Japanese in secondary curricula is dependent on the willingness on the part of those involved in the teaching of Japanese to design their courses to suit the abilities and interests of a broad section of the student population. Further, there must be close liaison between teachers, teacher training institutions and sources of materials.

In connection with this, I would like hereby to call for the formation of an Australia-wide association of those interested in solving these problems. The resources of the already existing State associations of teachers of Japanese

could be called upon. And while not replacing these State bodies, a nation-wide association could become an established vehicle for efficiently representing the needs of teachers of Japanese, with a united voice, to the Australian government and institutions within Australia, and for liaising with such overseas bodies as I have previously mentioned.

TEACHING OF JAPANESE IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA

K. Nishida

The study of Japanese in South Australia was first started in 1965 by Miss Baddams, principal of Woodland Church of England Girls' Grammar School. Pulteney Grammar School and Walford Church of England Girls' Grammar School also began teaching the language early. In the area of Departmental (State) schools the teaching of Japanese began only in 1969 at Daws Road and Marion High Schools. In 1971, a further two Departmental schools began courses, in 1973 one, in 1974 five, and in 1976 one. As a result, 11 Departmental schools and 4 private schools are offering Japanese in South Australia this year. A total of 1,450 students are learning Japanese at both private and Departmental schools. There are 21 teachers of Japanese this year, of whom 15 are native speakers of Japanese and 6 are non-native speakers. The number of students in the area of Departmental schools is increasing each year. There were 52 in 1969, 110 in 1970, 280 in 1971, 385 in 1972, 498 in 1973, 715 in 1974, and 1,000 students last year. In addition to these, there are some students learning the

language at primary school level: 34 in 1973, 60 in 1974 and 24 in 1975.

To date syllabus and examinations have been provided by the Victorian Universities and Schools Examination Board (V.U.S.E.B.) for the Public Examinations Board (P.E.B.) of South Australia. The first group of students reached matriculation level in 1968. Twelve girls sat for the examination, and all were successful. However, the old V.U.S.E.B. examination was generally held by teachers to be far too traditional. South Australia is now in a position to produce its own matriculation syllabus for 1978. In the meantime the old V.U.S.E.B. syllabus will be used. Commencing from 1976, examinations will be conducted by the University of Adelaide.

One of the problems which teachers in general may face is that of textbooks. Unfortunately, we have not had a wide range of textbooks in the past. In most cases, the Naganuma course has been used. This textbook is well organized and was utilized by English speaking teachers; however, the explanation of grammar is out of date from the viewpoint of linguistics, and the book lacks consistency. Almost all Japanese native speaker teachers are strongly against the use of this textbook in their schools; on the other hand, Australian teachers of Japanese are likely

to prefer it. I personally think that this is because Australian teachers have themselves studied from this textbook and are used to it. Fortunately, there are many textbooks for this stage, published by both native and non-native speakers. One of these is the new Alfonso course, for which high hopes are held in South Australia as a conversation textbook.

A large proportion of South Australia's Departmental school teachers is recruited by the Australia-Japan Business Cooperation Committee (A.J.B.C.C.). Others have Australian qualifications, for example a degree from the A.N.U., or the A.N.U. intensive course plus private study. Problems of native speaking teachers lie first of all in their inadequate competence in English and their lack of knowledge of Australian customs. Secondly, there is the problem of integration with the rest of the staff. Japanese teachers are not treated in the same way as Australian teachers. Some positively-disposed Japanese teachers are ready to take on any duty, and therefore feel real frustration. However, some schools do well in this area. Thirdly, there are problems of discipline. Most of the teachers cannot control classes because of the students' poor attitude and the teachers' inadequate level of speaking ability. Heads of schools are advised to restrict the study of Japanese

to well-motivated children with proven ability, in modern languages. I personally hope this type of special treatment of the course will disappear in the near future with improvement in the quality of teachers. In relation to this, I would like to add that in South Australia modern languages are in the elective area of curriculum, and this means that students may abandon the study rather than confront difficulties. Japanese teachers find the Australian system of education strange. The last point I should like to raise is, as mentioned earlier, that most of the South Australian teachers of Japanese are recruited from Japan through the A.J.B.C.C. and their contract is for two years with a possibility of extension for a further one or two years. However, in most cases the Japanese teachers need approximately one year to become accustomed to Australian circumstances, and only after the first year begin to show their ability. However, at the end of the second year most wish to return to their home country and in this regard I would suggest that the A.J.B.C.C. considers extending their contracts to at least three years.

To help solve the problem of teachers, another source is that of South Australian trained teachers. With the opening of the course at the University of Adelaide last year, we look forward to a flow of graduates from about

1979 to assist the staffing of Japanese classes. However, Australian trained teachers need an adequate induction period under expert guidance. There is a lack of expertise and experience in the system. A consultant would be needed, who would have to be fully fluent in Japanese and experienced in the Australian classroom. In conclusion, I believe that the combination of a native speaker and a non-native speaker in one team would be the best solution for Japanese courses in Australia. This is because these two people would have a different point of view and different approaches to the students and would complement each other in overcoming possible misunderstandings between the teachers and on the part of the students.

As you will recognize, South Australia is one of the most active States in the area of Japanese teaching at secondary level. However, Adelaide is still a small city, and the amount of information and material on Japan and Japanese language is extremely limited. In this respect, there is a very large area for possible improvement. For example, I always dream that we might have a Japanese Consulate in Adelaide. We need more assistance and encouragement from the Japanese Government.

PROBLEMS IN SECONDARY CURRICULA FOR JAPANESE
IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA

H.C. Quackenbush

The Japanese program in the University of Adelaide

Before going into the discussion of the relationship between the University of Adelaide and the high schools in South Australia, I would like to briefly describe our Japanese program at the University of Adelaide.

The Centre for Asian Studies, in which Japanese and Chinese language instruction is currently offered, was established a few years ago. Unlike high school Japanese which has been taught for more than ten years in some schools in South Australia, the Japanese program at the tertiary level was started just last year. The courses offered were Japanese I for post-entrance students and Japanese IA which requires no prior knowledge of the language. This year we are offering essentially two parallel stream courses consisting of Japanese I and II, and IA and IIA.

Like many other tertiary institutions in Australia, we are teaching the beginners course to give a greater number of students the chance to start the study of the Japanese

language at this level. At the same time we are happily committed to providing more advanced training to those who have studied Japanese for several years before they enrolled in the University course. Our task ahead is to bring the beginners to a level comparable with that of the post-matriculation students so that the Japanese program will be one degree program rather than two. In short we are still in the very flexible stage of planning and implementation of Japanese courses at the University.

The matriculation examinations.

One other point which requires an explanation is the matter of matriculation examinations. Until last year the syllabus and the examinations were provided by the Victorian Universities and Schools Examination Board for the Public Examination Board of South Australia. As some of you know, the VUSEB has adopted a new syllabus to take effect from this year. The new syllabus is radically different from the old one. Unfortunately the teachers in South Australia had not been notified about the change until very recently. Therefore, although the teachers agree that the 1975 syllabus needs changing they decided that it would be unwise to attempt a change before the 1978 examination. As a result,

the teachers were given permission by the PEB of SA to retain the 1975 syllabus in matriculation Japanese for the 1976 examination, and to have the University of Adelaide conduct the 1976 and future examinations in Japanese. Furthermore a PEB subject-sub-committee in Japanese was formed to begin work on a new syllabus. In short, this and future year examinations and the syllabus in 1978 and thereafter will be in the hands of the PEB subject-sub-committee in Japanese.

In the light of this background we can characterize our position as that of facing challenging tasks ahead rather than problems in hand.

The relationship between the University and the high schools

Now, on the relationships between the University and the high schools, I would like to make the following comments:

The above mentioned PEB subject-sub-committee which has just been established is chaired by the University academic staff, and the Examiners are acting on behalf of the University. Therefore, as far as the organization and the structure of the committee are concerned, the University appears to control the committee. When you look at the composition of the committee members, however, you will realize the high school teachers are the majority (8 out of 14).

We expect, therefore, that in SA while the University

will be demonstrating leadership, the high school teachers will be the ones who will play a major role in the area of planning their Japanese language policy.

I take the position that the University curricula should not necessarily influence those of high schools. On the contrary we would like to be flexible enough to accommodate the needs of the high schools and make adjustments in our curricula when necessary.

I am confident that the relationship between the University and the high schools will be based on mutual respect and the spirit of cooperation as they are now.

Problems and needs of secondary curricula

Since the University enrolls the product of the high schools we naturally share the concerns and problems that the high schools are facing.

The overall enrolment figure for Japanese instruction at high schools has been on the increase as more schools start Japanese programs. But at the same time we notice a great drop-off rate from several hundred students at earlier years of study to a few dozen matriculation students. No doubt the ultimate blame should be placed on the mono-lingual attitude of Australian society, but the high school Japanese program must find the immediate cause and remedy for the loss

of students. To re, rethinking of the goals of high school Japanese seems urgent.

For instance, couldn't the Japanese instruction be more practical and less academic? E.g. the emphasis should be placed on good pronunciation habits and fluency in basic conversational style sentences rather than measuring the competence primarily in terms of ability in reading and memorizing difficult texts and the large number of Chinese characters the students "know" with little knowledge of their application.

Perhaps Japanese language teaching should no longer be seen only as the instruction of certain skills but, as the greater part of the formation and education of minds. If so, perhaps it is as equally important, as teaching of basic linguistic skills, to help dispel any ethnocentric insular attitude of the students and nurture instead favourable attitudes of curiosity and interest in Japanese culture and society along with some knowledge about Japan in general.

In addition, by adopting activities in background study the teachers can "sell" the subject more effectively. Many teachers in SA voice their opinions that the existing course is too difficult and time-consuming and that they are losing their students to less demanding subjects. Perhaps it is

time for Japanese language courses to change from an elitist subject to a more comprehensive one.

Problems and needs of teachers

The effort to keep a reasonable number of students in Japanese programs has to be balanced with the effort to improve the quality of teaching. Since I strongly believe, as most people do, that the central figure in success in any educational endeavour is the teacher, we must work hard on the solution of the problems of teachers.

The high school representative Mr Nishida spoke about the problems native speakers are faced with, so I will not dwell on them. It is obvious, however, that the native speakers are making a great contribution despite some disadvantages. They should be given guidance and assistance in making an adjustment to Australian society as well as handling Australian students in actual classroom situations.

While recognizing the strengths and advantages of non-native speakers in many areas of teaching we must give them encouragement to improve their competence in Japanese language and their knowledge about Japanese culture and customs. It is good to learn that this year one Australian teacher was sent by the state Education Department to Japan for a year of intensive study. The non-native speakers should be given every opportunity to visit or live in Japan. They

should also be given assistance in attending refresher courses and summer intensive courses.

Both native speakers and non-native speakers alike would benefit by taking courses in theory and methodology of Japanese as a foreign language. This, I believe, is the one main area in which the University could be of service to the high school teachers. Such training courses should be a part of curricula for future teachers of Japanese.

In summary, then, I feel that in S.A, opportunities for interaction between the secondary schools and the University of Adelaide are many. Healthy exchange of information and experience combined with action for the improvement of programs both for the high schools and the University would really be the most effective course of action for Japanese programs to be able to survive and expand.

JAPANESE TEACHING IN TASMANIA

B. Cole

Until 1975, the teaching of Japanese in Tasmania was given very low priority, so much so that the only area where it was taught was in the north of the State, and this was due to the efforts of a largely self-taught person, Mr Jack Gibson. He began teaching Japanese at the Launceston Matriculation College, and this was extended to several high schools in the area. He was helped for several years by a tutor from Japan, Miss Tanikawa, but she has since returned.

In 1975, Japanese was introduced at the University of Tasmania, with the appointment of Mr Miyamoto. At the same time, I introduced it at the Rosny (Matriculation) College in Hobart. 1976 has seen the appointment of Dr Maria Flutsch as Lecturer in Japanese at the University after Mr Miyamoto resigned.

Apart from its introduction into the University, there has been very little encouragement for the expansion of Japanese studies. Both Mr Gibson and I gained degrees in other languages, but decided to branch into Japanese seeing Australia's increasing involvement in the Asian area. In my case, I was obliged to resign from the

Tasmanian Education Department in order to complete a degree course with a Japanese major at the Australian National University. With my new qualifications, I was later greeted with open arms by the Education Department, but there was no mention of reimbursement of expenses for my efforts.

The current situation of dwindling numbers of students opting for languages, with the resultant trend of teachers of the more traditional European languages to protect their own interests, has not helped the rather delicate situation in Tasmania. At the Higher School Certificate level this year, there would be approximately 12 students studying Japanese in both Hobart and Launceston. At the University, there are approximately 25 in first year and 10 in second year.

However, this year we intend to take several initiatives, which we hope will increase the status of Japanese in the State. First of all, we intend to devise our own Higher School Certificate syllabus: until now we have used the Victorian syllabus, which does not suit our particular situation. Secondly, we have planned a State-wide seminar on Japanese later in the year, at which Professor Alfonso will be the guest speaker.

One of Tasmania's main problems has been the lack of

teachers of Japanese. However, this situation can only improve as Japanese becomes established at the University and teachers are fed into the education system. Therefore, we are looking forward with optimism to the expansion of Japanese teaching in Tasmania.

TEACHING OF JAPANESE AT WESTERN AUSTRALIAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

PROBLEMS OF THE CURRICULUM

K. G. Boston

BACKGROUND

1. The Public Examination System in Western Australia:

Until 1975 a dual examination system operated at the fifth and final year level in Western Australian secondary schools. A fifth year high school student normally sat for five or six subjects at Leaving Level. If he had ambitions to go to university, he could also concurrently enrol as a candidate in up to four subjects selected from a smaller range at Matriculation Level. Any subject taken at Matriculation Level had to be taken also at Leaving Level. In fact the syllabuses for the Leaving and Matriculation examinations were exactly the same. The only difference was in the format of the examinations themselves.

In 1975, the Leaving and Matriculation examinations were abolished and a new examination called the Tertiary Admissions Examination instituted in their place. This examination is used by all tertiary institutions in the State as the criterion for determining entry qualifications. At present, the syllabuses and the format of examinations are the same as those formerly used in the Leaving Examination.

2. The Development of Japanese Language at Secondary Level:

Japanese was added to the Western Australian secondary curriculum in 1968. It was made available as a subject for examination in the now defunct Junior Examination (formerly taken in high school year 3) in 1969, and was offered for the first time as a Leaving level subject in 1971. The upgrading of Japanese to Matriculation level status could not occur until the University of Western Australia began offering courses in Japanese language. This happened in 1972.

Much of the early impetus to establish Japanese within the secondary schools curriculum came from one or two private schools which, with some outside support, managed to recruit teachers from Japan. In fact, it was probably the initial shortage of qualified teachers which impeded the more rapid growth of Japanese in the high schools. Even now the development of Japanese language at the secondary level is confined to only about a dozen high schools. In 1975 the total enrolment at all government schools in W.A. was about 630. Unfortunately those private schools which at one time had seemed so enthusiastic about the promotion of Japanese language study, have almost entirely abandoned their programmes.

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH THE TEACHING OF JAPANESE IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS

There are four main issues.

1. Student motivation
2. Timetabling classes
3. The syllabus and text books
4. The length of time spent studying Japanese.

1. Student motivation

Only a small proportion of students who commence Japanese in the junior high school continue with it into the senior high school. This decline is common to other language subjects as well, and apart from natural wastage, appears to be due largely to the reduction of options available to students as they pass from the junior into the senior high school. Languages have acquired the image of being luxury subjects, to be discarded in favour of more academically 'respectable' subjects, such as science and the like, when the range of options is reduced. In fact it is suggested that whatever the student's original motive in studying Japanese may have been, for many the decision to persevere with it into the senior high school is motivated less by a sense of achievement in the language than by a sense of frustration with other more respectable subjects.

Whatever the truth of this, there is a strong impression

that some students, at least, who take Japanese at secondary level have never really given much serious thought to how the study of Japanese will benefit them. They tend to drift along without any clear notion of what it means to be able to communicate with people of a different culture, and the significance of that in their own future professional lives. Lack of any really strong sense of motivation makes the teaching of a subject like Japanese very frustrating for teachers because the successful conduct of each class depends so heavily on the students' active participation.

Probably the burden of maintaining student interest and keeping students aware of the objectives of their study rests most heavily with the teachers. We at the University have also tried to assist by regularly visiting schools and wherever possible each year inviting students to the University for Japanese evenings. Hopefully, there will also be a breakdown in the attitude that looks upon Japanese as an exotic extra rather than a serious subject for study. In this way many of the able students who reluctantly give up Japanese in the belief that it will not look as impressive on their record as, say physics or chemistry, may be more inclined to continue with it at the senior level.

2. Timetabling Classes:

In Western Australian schools, teachers of Japanese have five contact hours a week with their students. Given the various constraints which the school system imposes on students and staff, this is probably about as much as could be expected. What worries many teachers, however, is the fact that it is almost impossible to get a sensible apportionment of these hours through the week. The timetabling of subjects is, of course, entirely a school prerogative; and inevitably it is the subjects with the largest number of students that get first preference when the timetable is worked out. For Japanese, the ideal arrangement would be to have the five periods spread out, one a day, throughout the week. The Japanese teacher, however, is usually outnumbered many times by teachers representing other subjects and is, therefore, able to apply only limited pressure on those who frame the timetable. As a result, he or she must be content with a far less than satisfactory arrangement. At worst this sometimes means accepting multiple periods lumped together at the beginning or end of the week. These are indeed trying conditions under which to expect students to develop linguistic skills.

Any alteration of this situation will require a change of attitude on the part of the schools. This will probably only come about by constantly stressing the point

that long, irregular classroom periods are counter-productive in the teaching of Japanese (and other language subjects for that matter). If a school is prepared to invest in the establishment of a Japanese language programme, it seems appropriate that the school should be prepared to make some effort to provide conditions conducive to the successful working of the programme.

3. The Syllabus and Textbooks:

The present Tertiary Admissions Examination syllabus for Japanese was originally adopted in 1971 as the syllabus for the now abolished Leaving Examination. At the time, the Japanese Studies Unit at the University of Western Australia was still in its infancy and so the task of compiling the syllabus fell almost entirely on the staff of the Western Australian Institute of Technology. It is a fairly detailed document that begins by describing the aims of the Japanese course both in terms of the immediate objective of gaining competence in Japanese, and the wider objective of helping students to understand Japanese culture and encouraging them to pursue further study of the peoples of East Asia. It is doubtful, however, whether all students fully appreciate these objectives. The syllabus goes on to list the structures with which the student should

be familiar, and then prescribes a list of 250 kanji which students are expected to be able to recognize and write. Finally the syllabus concludes with details of the spoken and written examination formats.

This syllabus is presently under review by a Syllabus Committee composed of eleven persons, with representatives from both secondary and tertiary bodies. The majority of representatives are, in fact, from the secondary schools. Three major issues which the Committee must take into account in making its revision are;

- i) The problem of textbooks,
- ii) The problem of vocabulary,
- iii) Kanji

i) Textbooks: When the syllabus was first drawn up, it omitted any reference to textbooks. Accordingly schools were free to experiment with whatever texts they liked. At present half the schools are using the Alfonso Basic Course and half are using a textbook prepared by, and designed for use at the West Australian Institute of Technology. Since last year, one or two schools have also been using the new Asian Studies Coordinating Committee materials on a trial basis.

A syllabus which describes precisely and specifically the structures required to be learnt is not really com-

patible with a situation in which a variety of different texts are being used. Inevitably in some of the textbooks, material which is prescribed by the syllabus is sandwiched between material which is not required to be learnt. Effective use of the textbook itself, however, may require that each lesson be dealt with in strict numerical sequence, so that ultimately the teacher is forced to decide whether to go ahead and introduce the unnecessary material, or rewrite some of the lessons.

Although the W.A. Syllabus committee has the power to prescribe textbooks, it would be reluctant to exercise this power under the present circumstances, when there is no agreement amongst teachers about the suitability of the two traditionally used textbooks, and the third is still in the experimental stages. On the other hand the Committee feels that, unlike other language subjects, it is important that the Japanese syllabus be as specific as possible. So, until a final decision is made on the textbook issue, the present unsatisfactory situation is likely to remain.

ii) Vocabulary: Unlike the Victorian syllabus, the present W.A syllabus does not include a prescribed vocabulary list. It merely states that students should be familiar with the vocabulary required for a range of situations such as sports, shopping, city and country,

seasons, festivals, etc. In practice, however, those responsible for setting the examination paper have avoided including vocabulary which is not found in the various textbooks being used in the schools. This can be a frustrating exercise for the examiners because it means that effectively they are limited to the rather narrow range of vocabulary that is common to all the textbooks.

The Japanese Syllabus Committee is currently addressing itself to this problem and is giving serious consideration to following the Victorian example of specifying vocabulary explicitly in the syllabus. Although this may well place the responsibility on the teacher to introduce vocabulary otherwise not found in the textbook, it will at least remove many of the uncertainties inherent in the present system. It is likely also that the Committee will decide to continue the practice of specifying the range of topics with which students should be conversant, although the topics may not necessarily be exactly the same as those in the present syllabus.

iii) Kanji: It is clear that the secondary teachers of Japanese believe it important for students to have some introduction to the use of kanji. The present syllabus prescribes 250 high frequency characters. This may not

appear to be a particularly burdensome load, but experience of marking examination papers suggests that the average student cannot recognize, let alone reproduce, anything approaching the total number. This is indeed a pity because the time the student expends memorizing those kanji which he later forgets might well be used more fruitfully reinforcing linguistic skills which are of more immediate practical value. The Committee is, therefore, considering a revision of the prescribed kanji. This will probably entail a reduction in the number of kanji as well as exact specification of the readings to be learnt in association with each character.

4. The Length of Time Spent Studying Japanese at High School

Over the past few years there has been a significant move to lower the age at which students may commence language study in West Australian schools. Until 1973 a student could commence studying Japanese only from his second year at high school. In 1974 several schools made it available from the first year. Since 1975 Japanese has also been taught at grade 7 level in some ten primary schools.

The result of this is that in several years' time students who sit for the Tertiary Admissions Examination

will fall into three distinct categories; those who have had four years' study, those who have had five years' study and those who have had six years' study. In passing, it should be mentioned that the Tertiary Admissions Examination does not rank students A, B, C, or D according to the actual marks they receive. Instead, it employs the system of fixed proportions whereby it is the student's mark in comparison with others that determines the grade he receives. Under an examination system of this kind, the student who has studied Japanese for only four years is clearly at a disadvantage when compared with the student who has studied for six years. Although the four year student may have applied himself very diligently to the subject, he would still find it very difficult to obtain higher marks than the student who has had a fifty percent greater exposure to the language. Under the previous examination system where grades were tied to marks, he might still obtain a reasonably good grade, but under the fixed proportion system the chances are that his competitive rating will place him in one of the lower grades.

One solution to this problem would be for the period of study leading up to the examination to be standardized for all schools. This idea is unlikely to appeal to the

schools, however. They would argue that their teaching programmes should not be organized around the needs of a public examination system, especially since statistics show that only a small proportion of students who enter high school actually sit for the Tertiary Admissions Examinations.

An alternative would be to devise some way of taking into account, when allotting marks, the period a student had studied, so as to eliminate some of the bias in favour of those who had studied the longest. This idea, however, would be unlikely to find favour with the Public Examinations Board mainly because of the difficulty in arriving at a formula for determining the relative value of four, five, or six years' study.

A neater solution might, in fact, be to remove Japanese (and other language subjects) from the fixed proportion system and return them to some version of the old system. This would have another advantage in that it would eliminate distortions resulting from the small number of candidates, having native speaker or near-native speaker ability, who take the examination each year.

CONCLUSION

The teaching of Japanese is now firmly established within the Western Australian public school system.

Several problems remain to be solved, however, before a truly satisfactory programme is devised. Perhaps, the single greatest problem is that created by the competing interests of the secondary schools and tertiary institutions. From the tertiary point of view it would be desirable to see a coordinated programme that enabled students to pass smoothly from the primary, through the secondary and on to the tertiary level. The secondary schools feel, however, that while they should continue to seek guidance from the tertiary bodies on the contents of their courses, the way these courses are offered and presented should be largely independent of tertiary considerations.

In spite of these problems, however, we believe it is significant that Japanese has continued to attract an increasing number of students, at least at the junior school level. At a time when language study generally is on the decline in secondary schools, this suggests that at last the community is beginning to show a real awareness of the one country about which Australians probably need to know most.

A STATEMENT ON THE JAPANESE HIGH SCHOOL
TEXTBOOK PROJECT

S. Pulvers

1. Aims of the project and the philosophy behind it

a) The High School Textbook Project aims to give students aged twelve and upwards, appropriate material to work with - material which is designed for them and takes into consideration their interests and daily life.

In preparing this material, an effort has been made to relate the language more closely to the daily conversation of students of that age, so that they are saying things which are meaningful to them, rather than exotic, and can converse about their day-to-day life, e.g. going shopping, swimming, to films, to sports events, and the like.

This can be illustrated by the emphasis, in the "Say What You Want to Say" section of the units, on the telling of true things, things which have actually happened to the students - that is, encouraging them to apply the language to their own lives, not simply to use it to make up stories far removed from their own existence however much easier this may be.

b) Secondly, there is a deliberate attempt to de-emphasize, or rather "cover up" the grammar - to relate grammatical

constructions to *situations*. An example might be the introduction of *-GA*: "When something so occupies your mind that you do not care about other things...When you are hungry or thirsty all you think of is something to eat or drink... In cases like these you have to use the particle *-GA*...Use *-GA* after the things you want or need or which occupy your mind at the moment."

In relating the language to familiar situations and to what students would *want to say* in certain situations, we hope they will not get bogged down in grammatical terminology which they have often not even learned in English and which simply gives an added load. (This is obviously a difficult approach for teachers who have themselves been brought up on grammar.)

The grammar is there, of course, but it is presented unobtrusively and in charts which attempt to highlight the main point of the particular unit but not to discourage students by introducing every possible variant right away. The main criterion used for grammar is naturalness: we try to give them what they *need most to talk*. The book seeks to be *dynamic* (let them say what they are doing, where they are going) and not *static* (the "This is a book"-style).

The layout in the completed text will help to reinforce the main point by the use of different types, illustrative

devices and symbols in the boxes around the new patterns.

With this approach, we hope to get the students to *speak* Japanese and to discover that, at an early stage and with even a limited vocabulary, they can communicate and "Say things they would like to say".

c) In order to achieve these aims, we have found it necessary to concentrate on meaningful language and allow the cultural material that obviously accompanies language, take second place. This does not mean that no attempt will be made to introduce students to Japanese culture, but that it will be done gradually, integrated into the language teaching rather than inserted as "filler". Should teachers prefer to introduce cultural material more often and in larger doses - to take a break from the actual language teaching - it would be left to their discretion and imagination. The teaching of the language is the main concern of this project, and therefore cultural material will be introduced only when this can be done naturally as part of the language learning experience. Also, we are aware of the danger of too much "filler" finding its way into such a book.

There will, however, be supplementary material to accompany the actual text: visuals such as large photographs, possibly games, etc. But the visuals will be there to reinforce the language.

Note: In communicating with the students through the text, Dr Alfonso has a very personal approach: he tries to speak directly to them in a personal way, as he does very successfully in teaching in a face-to-face situation. We have found some objection to this on the part of teachers, who feel that it is up to them to add the personal touch to the teaching and that their autonomy is being infringed. This, of course, has not been the intention. But because of such a reaction, we have found it advisable to streamline the text somewhat, especially the instructions, and to make it more straightforward and more impersonal - not without some regrets, I might add, as this approaches more the typical, sterile textbook one all too often finds and of a kind we wished to avoid. We recognize, however, that it is extremely difficult to put across the personal approach on the printed page, and it easily leads to misunderstanding - feelings on the part of students of being talked down to, or on the part of teachers, of being told what to do.

At the same time, we feel very strongly that the book must be able to stand on its own, with or without the ideal teacher.

A teacher's manual will be ready by the time the first volume is published.

2. Revision

When we revised the original trial material for the first year, the feedback received through teacher evaluation forms was taken very much into consideration. This is a national project, not only an ANU project, in the sense that teachers all over the country are involved in it, even though the material is worked out at ANU.

Heavy units have been broken up, especially in the early stages of the book. The result is thirty units in the first-year volume.

Each unit takes one or two points of grammar at a time, building up competence gradually. We do not want to overload students. Where this still occurs, it is unintentional.

There are likely to be four volumes dealing with development of grammar; based on future experience and feedback there may be a fifth, which would be basically a reader. Volume two and subsequent ones will not be trialled as we have sufficient information from the first year to give us a basic idea of what works and what does not.

3. Reading and writing

Hiragana is not introduced until Unit 21, and then starting as Lesson 1 from the back of the book. The idea is that the students should not have to learn to read anything they do not understand.

Hiragana will be completely introduced by Lesson 20 (Unit 40). After this, *kanji* are introduced. In the early stages we are very conscious of pictorial characters and want to use them as much as possible because of the age level of the students. From Lesson 20 onwards, there will be a closer relationship between units of grammar and lessons in reading and ~~writing~~. Romanization is used simply as a tool because, when reading follows knowledge, it is faster.

Katakana will not be taught in the same way as *hiragana*, but along with *kanji* and introduced always in words as they appear, not in a formal way as with *hiragana* (it would be unnatural for the students to have to read entire texts in

katakana). When foreign loan words are introduced before being learned, they are written in English and in quotation marks. The reason for this approach to *katakana* is to give students a feeling of what *katakana* is all about (as, for instance, italics in English).

4. Tapes

Two types have been considered and tried:

- (i) straight or pedagogical tapes (easy and cheap)
- (ii) radio program style with distractors and sound effects.

Reaction to the latter has varied greatly; some teachers like them very much, and others find them difficult to use. The team prefers the latter type because distractors are useful and this is how students will hear the language. It never appears in a sterile and antiseptic environment; outside sounds bring realism into the language.

5. Level of achievement

This is impossible to fix at the outset. We prefer to take into account the students themselves and how much they can master in a certain time. Therefore, we would not set up *a priori* a given number of characters or vocabulary to be mastered. We would want to consider the amount students can master and the type of students we have, rather than what has previously been set down as criteria for achievement in Japanese at the end of a high school course.

JAPANESE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN JAPAN

F. Koide

International Christian University

Before the Second World War, there were very few institutions in Japan where Japanese was taught as a foreign language. There was one institution for students from abroad, mainly from China, who wished to enter Japanese universities, one for missionaries, and one for diplomats. Learners of Japanese were limited to people needing Japanese as students, scholars, missionaries, diplomats who resided in Japan at least for several years.

During the war, practically no Japanese teaching was done. Just after the end of the war, the U.S. Department of State Foreign Service Japanese Language Institute was reopened in 1946 or 1947. In 1948, the Tokyo School of Japanese Language (Naganuma School) was opened. In 1953, I.C.U. began its intensive Japanese Course, which was given the first university credit in Japan. Since then, the number of institutions teaching Japanese has gradually increased. *Nihongo Kyooiku no Gaiyoo*, "Outline of Teaching Japanese as a Foreign Language", edited by the Bunkachoo (Bureau of Cultural Affairs), 1950,

gives some statistical data, including details of institutions where Japanese is taught, teacher-training programmes and seminars in Japanese, and related organisations. Some facts taken from the summary of this book will be introduced here:

I. Institutions

	1950-59	1960-69	1971	(No. of students)	1973	(No. of students)	1975
State Univ.	5	12	13	(281)	17	(452)	27
Private Univ.	4	9	12	(1028)	14	(1887)	22
For adults in general	5	18	27	(1047)	32	(1715)	47
For missionaries	3	6	6	(130)	8	(327)	8
For technical trainees	1	5	14	(334)	16	(1591)	17
For university applicants	1	1	2	(268)	3	(524)	4
For foreign residents' dependents	8	14	14	(3271)	17	(2525)	20
For Air Force dependents			8	(525)	20	(2131)	18
For diplomats	4	4	3	(535)	4	(252)	4

Notes: 1. The number of technical trainees increased greatly in 1973.
2. The number of foreign residents' dependents and diplomats decreased in 1973.

There are only two M.A. programmes in Japanese, both of which were begun just last year (1975) at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies and Osaka University. There are two B.A. programmes at Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, which was opened in 1968 for non-Japanese students only, and at I.C.U., opened in 1960 for both Japanese and non-Japanese.

There is only one state university offering an elementary course (approximately one-year full-time training), while there are 13 private universities.

Thirteen state and 7 private universities offer Japanese as supplementary work with credits, while 9 state and 2 private universities offer it without credits.

You can now see that, out of quite a few universities, only a handful offer Japanese. However, the number has been increasing, especially in the last several years.

II. Students (as in February 1974)

Asia 3,193 (China 853, Japan 496, Taiwan 438, Vietnam 294, Korea 267)

North America 4,914 (U.S.A. 4770)

Central & South America 98 (Brazil 40)

Europe 1,280 (France 376, England 265, Germany 194)

Oceania 177 (Australia 140, New Zealand 34)

Note: Judging from the increase of students at I.C.U., we can assume that the number of students from Australia has increased greatly since these figures were compiled.

Middle & Near East 75 (Israel 36)

Africa 33 (South Africa 13)

Not classified 1,666

III. Teaching Materials

We have quite a lot of materials for elementary students. Now it is a matter of selection and modification. No single set of material suits everyone. None will be perfect. We

have to select according to the students' aim, age, level, time available, etc. We always have to make some modification.

We need special consideration in presenting vocabulary more efficiently, whereas grammar is pretty well covered.

We have very few materials at the intermediate level, none satisfactory. We have to produce something, carefully selected and graded, for the introduction to reading.

I would not worry too much about the advanced level. We can pick up any materials suiting the students' interests and aims. We can use them with some sort of annotation.

IV. Teaching Methods

There is no single method which suits everyone. We should have varied programmes according to students:

- a) language - we have to contrast it with Japanese and emphasise the difficult points
- b) age - in Japan we have been mainly concerned with adults. Not much has been done for youngsters.
- c) motivation - interest in spoken or written Japanese, simple Japanese or advanced.
- d) time availability - contact hours and private-study hours.

However, regardless of the variation among students, we have to have students well-balanced in hearing, speaking, reading and writing. First, students should be given a good

training in pronunciation, including accent patterns, which makes future study much easier. Basic grammar (sentence patterns) should be covered with well-selected vocabulary and characters. Stylistic differences should not be forgotten, but presented at the same time. Teachers in Japan have more or less reached agreement that it is better not to use *roomaji*, but to take up the Japanese writing system from the beginning. *Hiragana* helps students to grasp the concept of *haku* "mora", which is very important in Japanese. The minimum sound unit for us is *ka, ki, ku, ke, ko*, rather than *k, a, k, i, ...; /ite/* and */itte/, /kone/* and */konna* are hard when we use *roomaji*. On the other hand, the use of *roomaji* sometimes leads to mispronunciation, such as that of (r), and hinders the development of vocabulary in Japanese where *kanji* play a great role. There might be some value in the use of *roomaji* as a sort of symbol to explain the paradigms of verbs, etc. We should remember, however, that *roomaji* is never used by the Japanese as an official writing system:

The use of *roomaji* cannot be learned automatically. It would take some time to learn it. However, once it has been learned, it is difficult to move away from it and switch to Japanese writing.

I would say *hiragana* can be presented with pronunciation drills. After all, *hiragana* is not difficult at all. Characters are a different matter. It is not easy to learn them. Therefore, one must be careful that a reasonable amount be presented. Giving too much at once just results in discouraging students. The best way to learn characters is to be exposed to them as much as possible. There is no sense in postponing teaching them. The sooner they are introduced, the more chance students have of being exposed to them.

Students in Japan are always exposed to Japanese writing, and cannot get along without learning it. As a matter of fact, students enjoy learning and find it a challenge. The situation here could be different.

Characters as well as vocabulary must be given in context, not separated from sentence structures. The selection should be based on students' needs. We should be flexible in this matter. For instance, for I.C.U. students, it is essential to learn the characters for "Mitaka" and "Kokusai Kirisutokyoo Daigaku", but it may not be so for students here in Australia. Even though you use the same textbook, you have to be prepared to change or add characters and vocabulary according to the students' needs.

V. Teachers

As I said before, more materials and more varied methods have been produced. However, even the best material will not be successful without a good teacher.

In Japan, until recently, the teaching of Japanese has not been 'established' as a professional field. (The situation here could be different.) Until about ten years ago, whenever I said I was teaching *Nihongo* (Japanese as a foreign language) I was asked, "*Kokugo* (Japanese as a native language) desu ka." I had to take time to explain the difference between the teaching of *Nihongo* and of *Kokugo*, but I was never sure if I had succeeded in making it clear.

When we started teaching Japanese at I.C.U. in 1953, we had considerable difficulty in finding qualified teachers, so we started our own teacher-training programme at I.C.U. in 1956 to build up our own staff.

At present, there are several institutions offering teacher-training programmes:

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Nature</u>	<u>Started</u>	<u>Number of students</u>
Tokyo University for Foreign Studies	M.A.	1975	7 (3 Jap., 4 non-Jap.)
	B.A.	1968	20-30 (only non-Jap.)
Osaka University	M.A.	1975	2 (non-Japanese)
I.C.U.	B.A.	1960	about 30 (both Jap. & non-Jap.)
"	one-year	1971	10 (special students)

<u>Institutions</u>	<u>Nature</u>	<u>Started</u>	<u>Number of students</u>
Keio International Center	two-year	1972	20
Daito Bunka University	two-year	1971	several
Waseda University	one-year		15-25
Osaka Jonan Women's Junior College	one-year	1971	15-20
Asahi Culture Center	24 hours x 10 courses	1974	40 per course
Aoyama Gakuin University	3 hours x 10 weeks	1975	20
Osaka YWCA	2 hours x 1½ years	1969	50
Takushoku University	4 hours x 24 weeks		
Kobe YWCA	1½ years	1973	50
Waseda University	1 week	1964	100
National Language Research Institute (Kokuritsu Kokugo Kenkyuujo)	1 week	1965	160 each in Tokyo and Osaka per year
Tokyo School of Japanese Language	1 week	1950	80
Nishio Group	twice a week for a year	1973	3-10
Japan Foundation			
1) for Japanese	9 hours x ½ year	1973	50
2) for teachers from abroad	1 month	1973	about 20
3) for merit students from abroad	2 weeks	1973	53

Teachers must be professionally trained. Native and non-native teachers must co-operate. Both must be trained and must continue to be trained.

As I said before, there had been very few professionally trained teachers. However, recently the teaching of Japanese

is attracting a lot of people. I will give an example. The Asahi Cultural Center was opened in 1974, with many courses ranging from lecture courses in literature and philosophy to courses in flower arrangement, dancing, singing, yoga, etc. When I suggested the inclusion of Japanese courses and teacher-training programmes in Japanese, the organisers were rather doubtful whether these courses would attract enough people. When we advertised them, however, all courses in teacher-training were filled in one day, much sooner than any other courses. There were long waiting lists. About 20 have completed the programme already.

Japanese courses have also gradually expanded. Now there are six levels in Intensive Japanese and two levels in Elementary Japanese. The students, totalling more than 90, are earnest. This is rather remarkable.

VI. Related Organisations

Bunkachō - Kokugo-ka (Japanese Section, Bureau of Cultural Affairs) engages in the following activities:

- a) the Committee to improve the teaching of Japanese
- b) survey on teaching Japanese
- c) subsidiary research on teaching Japanese:
 - i. research grants to some institutions (I.C.U., Waseda, and Tokyo School of Japanese Language were given grants in 1975)
 - ii. holding discussion meetings on teaching Japanese

- d) holding coordinating meetings of institutions
- e) giving academic or technical advice.

Kokuritu Kokugo Kenkyukai - Nihongo Kyooiku-bu (Japanese Division, National Language Research Institute).

Japan Foundation helps teachers of Japanese, especially in the following items:

- 1) sending materials abroad
- 2) sending personnel abroad. Useful assistance can take the form of i) specialists in a particular area, ii) teacher-training, iii) young teachers to teach skills themselves and to work with non-Japanese teachers.

Nihongo Kyooiku Gakkai (Society for Teaching Japanese) has approximately 1,000 members, and publishes a periodical 3 times a year with a circulation of 2,000. Each issue has a special feature.

VII. I was very encouraged to meet so many teachers here. We can do a lot together. Native and non-native teachers have to work together. Let's not follow the example of teaching English in Japan, in which we wasted a lot of time and energy by not using native-English teachers wisely and not having good coordination between high schools and universities.

LANGUAGE TEACHING IN THE U.S.A.: THE CORNELL PARADIGM

Eleanor H. Jordan

Cornell University

It is a great pleasure for me to be here today, and to have this opportunity to speak to you. This - my first trip to Australia - is providing me with invaluable new insights and new contacts in the field I am most interested in, and I am very grateful to you for this privilege.

Given my topic - Japanese Language Teaching in America - I must confess some difficulty in knowing where to begin. I do know where I will end, i.e. with a discussion of our Japanese language program at Cornell, since this is one I am able to discuss with confidence, and it does have some special features which may be of interest to you.

But to return to the beginning, let me say that Japanese language training at the university level is very much alive in America today. I know of no major university that does not either itself offer Japanese language instruction, or provide it through specific arrangements with a neighbouring institution. However, this applies to the

undergraduate and post-graduate levels of instruction. The situation is very different at the high school level. While high school Japanese is not unusual in Hawaii or the West Coast, it is still extremely rare in other parts of America.

The university programs reflect tremendous variation - ranging from those of the major Japanese centers which have large, resident professional staffs representing all the major disciplines, vast library holdings, and well-developed curricula up to the Ph.D. level, all the way down to those of institutions which offer just two or three years of Japanese language on a self-study basis. (There are even some high schools included in this latter group.) But the interest is great and the number of students steadily increasing.

Because of the tremendous variation, it is really impossible to make many general statements. Perhaps the safest generalization is that there are really no valid generalizations to be made. But in terms of new trends, I will say that there seems to be an increase in the number and percentage of students taking Japanese in connection with specializations other than literature, and an increase in the number and percentage of students

who include direct Japan experience in their overall training. I won't speculate here on the connection between these two phenomena, although I do think there definitely is one.

I would like to turn now to my own university and describe the Japanese program there in some detail, looking at it as an example of one American program. It is certainly not a typical program - I believe, in fact, that I can call it a unique program - but (admitting my prejudice) I think it is an interesting one.

As our regular program, we offer a four-year sequence of part-time Japanese language instruction. Qualified students can, of course, enter the program at a more advanced level than the first year course. For students who have achieved a proficiency beyond the regular fourth year level and want additional instruction, we offer a special course called "Directed Readings", in which a student works with an instructor on an individualized basis in the area of his particular specialization. Let me mention here that there are no Japanese language majors at Cornell: an undergraduate wishing to specialize in Japanese majors in Asian Studies, which involves a number of courses in specific disciplines with Asian - or



Japanese - emphasis, in addition to language work.

Besides this part-time instruction, Cornell offers the Falcon Program, begun in 1972, which is gaining increasing recognition, both in American and Japan. This is a year-long, full-time intensive course, in which a limited number of students study Japanese to the exclusion of all other courses. They are with us six hours per day, five days per week, and in addition, spend two-to-four hours per day on outside study. This is a course for beginners, although it is sometimes possible for advanced students to join the program part-way through, at the level appropriate to their proficiency.

A bit of history: In 1969, I was invited to attend a meeting of the American group of the Joint U.S. - Japan Committee on Japanese Studies. In the course of that meeting, it was pointed out that while intensive Japanese language programs were offered for American government and military personnel, it was almost impossible for a student in America to receive such training - the kind of training offered during World War II that accounted for the initial involvement in Japanese of so many of America's current senior specialists. At the time of this meeting, I had just moved to Cornell from the Foreign

Service Institute, where I had supervised countless intensive programs for diplomatic personnel, and I immediately began to mull over this problem. There were many intermediate steps between that summer of 1969 and spring of 1972, but at that time at last, I, along with two colleagues at Cornell (Professor John McCoy and Robert B. Jones), began the so-called *Falcon* Program, in Japanese, Chinese and Thai, as a one-year experiment within the Department of Modern Languages and Linguistics.

As a concept, I certainly did not consider an intensive language training program to be experimental. I had supervised too many such programs in both Tokyo and America to have any doubts about the effectiveness of this approach. Specifically we were checking interest and feasibility.

Regarding interest, it was obvious that one single university could not supply all the students - even the limited number we were interested in handling - on a continuing basis. The question, then, was whether students would, or could, come from other institutions just for the duration of *Falcon*. Would their regular supervisory professors at other institutions release them? Would students be able to pay the high tuition fees at Cornell?

Feasibility questions were even more complex. As one aspect of our experiment, we wanted to admit a variety of students - from high school graduates to Ph.D. candidates. There were immediate problems. The high school graduates had to matriculate as undergraduates in the College of Arts and Sciences, going through an extremely competitive admissions procedure. And what category would graduate students come under? We finally settled on 'non-degree candidate in Asian Studies'. But how was the summer portion of *Falcon* to be handled? The summer school at Cornell is administratively entirely separate from the rest of the university - with separate tuition and different administrative procedures. All this became so complicated that we really felt that any student willing and able to cope with the admissions procedures to *Falcon* had automatically proved his motivation and a high degree of intelligence.

There were still more problems: what about requirements for physical education courses? What about the college calendar with its interruption of instruction for reading periods, exam periods, intersession, etc.?

Somehow the problems were solved, and our first *Falcons* began their program in June 1972. One year later, at the

conclusion of their formal training, they spent two months in Japan with support from the Japan Foundation. Of those original fourteen students, twelve are continuing an active involvement with Japan and Japanese studies. Perhaps the most interesting statistic, is that eight of those original students were actually in Japan when I arrived there in January of this year.

Since that first class, there have been a number of changes. Chinese *Faloon* continues to be offered along with Japanese, although the courses are autonomous and actually have rather different curricula, but Thai *Faloon* was discontinued after the first year. However, starting in September of this year, Indonesian *Faloon* will also be offered, as a two-semester (i.e. nine-month) course.

Beginning with our next class, Japanese and Chinese *Faloon* will be incorporated into a new two-year M.A. program in East Asian Studies - i.e. the first year will be *Faloon* and the second, a year of graduate course work in disciplinary courses relating to Japan.

As to general statistics, covering the first four years of Japanese *Faloon*:

The age range of entering students has been 17 - 42. The academic level of entering students has been high school graduate level to post-doctoral. There has also been one lawyer.

The male/female proportion has been 63%/37%.

Our graduates are now graduate students in Japanese linguistics, government, history, economics; translators and editors in Japan; English teachers in Japan; a businessman representing an American company in Japan; - and one *Falcon* is working for the Japanese Embassy in Washington.

I would now like to turn to a discussion of what goes on in the Japanese classrooms at Cornell. Everything that occurs there must, I believe, reflect the goals of the program. It is a matter of serious concern to me that so many language teachers of so many languages around the world have never taken the trouble 1) to define their own goals, and 2) to relate those goals to the design of their courses.

Our aim, in all of our Japanese courses - both part-time and intensive - is communicative competence, a subject stressed by Professor Neustupny in his talk last night. Specifically, in the area of oral production, I expect students to have good pronunciation, in order to improve

generally the quality of the communication. Students must be reminded that whether a foreign accent is judged to be grating, cute, annoying, stupid, or exotic, it is indeed foreign and is serving as a constant reminder of incomplete language competence, thereby reducing the likelihood of free and easy exchange with native speakers.

Of course, structural accuracy is a basic aim of our oral drill, and I also expect fluency within the range that is considered normal from the outset of training. Students are made aware of politeness and formality levels as soon as they begin their program, and subsequent instruction gradually refines their control of these levels.

In the area of oral competence, I expect students to become sophisticated listeners: I want them to listen not only for semantic content but also for features of intonation, voice quality, supportive responses and, of course, levels of speech, - all of which add significantly to the message. I want students to be able to eavesdrop. They must not rely on exaggerated, slow speech, and as eavesdroppers, they certainly cannot ask for repetitions.

Students must read and write with the same kind of awareness they develop in their oral skills, and they must note

the stylistic features that distinguish the spoken from the written language.

At this point, please let me emphasize one point. . You may be thinking that I am concerned only with training that involves thousands of hours; that I am interested only in students who can achieve all of these goals; that I would be one who would oppose widespread high school training. Nothing could be further from the truth. I may be the most avid Japanese-language "pusher" this globe has ever known. If someone has no more than ten minutes to spare, I can think of nothing more challenging than giving him ten minutes of Japanese instruction. My only concern is that what little he learns should be accurate and real, and that he should be made aware of the usefulness and limitations of what he has acquired. For while language is our chief means of communication in the positive sense, we must remember that it is also the principal means by which we argue, insult, tease, and humiliate. Foreign language use can be a very dangerous tool indeed when we don't know the rules used by the other side. It is unfortunately *not* true, as has sometimes been claimed, that in travelling abroad, if you just "talk aloud and keep smiling, you'll be understood".

At Cornell we use two kinds of teachers for our classes: the native Japanese (Japan-born, Japan-raised, and Japan-educated) and the American linguist. They form a cooperative team, each with distinct, non-overlapping responsibilities. The Japanese deals with his students *entirely* in Japanese - both in the classroom and out - from the first day. We are conditioning our students to use Japanese as a means of communication, not simply as a classroom drill dialect. The Japanese is expected to use normal speed and normal intonations at all times. He is thoroughly trained in the particular pedagogical techniques we have developed, and uses these in all his classes. This kind of instruction does not coincide with the direct method, since the material the Japanese uses is carefully structured, and analysed in the lecture classes conducted by the linguist. It is the linguist who talks to the students about the Japanese language. It is the linguist who cites a specific example - who makes sure that if *anata* has been introduced in the lesson, the student knows the limitation on the usage of this word. (I am not suggesting that in Lesson 1, students should be introduced to multiple words for the person addressed but only that they be made aware that there *are* many words, and they have very distinctive uses. If we believe - and I do - that even a limited introduction to a foreign language is a worthwhile

learning experience, how much more meaningful and fascinating it is if we deal with the significant features of the language instead of presenting it as a translation of English. We must never underestimate the ability or the interest of our students in this area.)

The linguist is also responsible for a very difficult feature of the course - the pacing. He works out the details of the curriculum on the basis of direct class observation, consultation with the Japanese instructor, and conferences with students. The linguist is the person who is expected to know how the university, in general, functions, how much work can be expected of students, and how to detect incipient problems in the classroom. Particularly in the intensive course, the role of interpersonal relations cannot be overstressed. The smooth operation of the entire learning and teaching team is a serious challenge for the linguist and it can require a considerable amount of guidance and counseling.

With this kind of two-teacher arrangement, the students are constantly interacting with a Japanese in Japanese, and at the same time observing and analysing what is occurring, in consultation with their linguist.

Even at the beginning levels of training, the instructor/linguist hourly ratio favors the instructor, but as proficiency improves, a still higher percentage of instruction is handled by the Japanese as the students become capable of working exclusively in the target language.

Class time with the Japanese instructor is viewed as extremely valuable for the interaction involved. Students are expected to utilize these hours to the fullest - and to enjoy the rigorous drill. As long as pacing is appropriate - i.e. as long as they are not pushed ahead before they can reasonably be expected to have absorbed the previous material - they enjoy the challenge. We assign routine pattern drills to be done with tapes, but in the classroom do lesson-based conversational drill. Our visual stimuli are extensive and the handling of these requires tremendous skill on the part of the instructor.

We constantly use the conversational unit as the basic unit with which we work. It may be extremely short but the use of isolated sentences without any context is avoided. At no point would we provide a student with a list of unrelated sentences for translation, without any

indication of content - both social and linguistic.

I never meaningfully introduce anything which I will be forced to retract later. I have no objection to telling a student that there are things he is as yet unable to handle, but I would not, for example, permit him to practise addressing high ranking guests with *anata* because that is the only term of address he has learned.

Among the many classroom procedures we have developed are informal interpreting and cultural elicitation. Both of these are particularly valuable for drilling a variety of politeness and formality levels, for developing oral comprehension skills, and for introducing cultural content into the course through the medium of Japanese.

We begin our course with a romanized text, but the romanization is included for reference and as a reminder for the student of how the utterance sounded when he heard it spoken naturally by a native speaker. We never require the student to read romanization aloud in class or to write it - for example, for homework or on tests. When the student has completed ten lessons, we begin the introduction of the writing system, always working, during the elementary stage, with material that is familiar in

both structure and vocabulary.

Reading material is discussed in Japanese with the Japanese instructor, and analysed from the point of view of development of discourse by the linguist, but not ordinarily translated in class. Translations are assigned as one kind of homework and submitted to the linguist. Other written assignments might involve writing answers to questions to provide practice in producing the written symbols. Advanced students are given instruction in the writing of letters and postcards.

While we recognize that most of our students are not linguistics students but rather Japanese language students, we nevertheless want them to learn something about how one observes and analyses a language, and to gain some awareness of what is really involved in acquiring a foreign language. We want them to analyse their own personal goals in studying Japanese, and to devise, with the help of their linguist, a workable plan for achieving those goals.

At the conclusion of the course of study, I like to hear the students remark, "I have never worked so hard, but I have never had such intellectual stimulation - and enjoyment."

Extract from the Queensland Japanese syllabus for secondary schools.

JAPANESE SYLLABUS
FOR 11TH AND 12TH GRADES 1975

Although the current Sub-senior and Senior syllabuses represent realizable goals, they have, in practice, been somewhat abbreviated. The goals set down for 1975 take this curtailment into account, and permit some re-arrangement of material among the four semesters. The syllabus, as now set out, should serve as a guide to the standard expected at the various levels.

The material for reading and listening may be pitched at a higher level than that required in writing and speaking. In particular, a larger vocabulary may be presented in the reading and aural components of the course than is required for reproduction in the oral and written expression components. A much larger number of ideographs may be presented (with furigana if desired) than is required for memorization. The kanji studied should be selected from the list appended to the Japanese Syllabus for Grades 8-10.

The present courses have been divided into the following semester units:

11th Grade

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| 1st semester | Tourist Japanese
(including simple letters and postcards required
in appropriate situations) |
| 2nd semester | What happened in Japanese history |

12th Grade

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------|
| 1st semester | Polite Japanese |
| 2nd semester | Mass-media Japanese |

The attempt is made to state the immediate realizable objectives of each semester course.

SEMESTER I - GRADE ELEVEN

Objectives

- (1) To develop the student's ability to use and comprehend sentence patterns and vocabulary of utility in touring Japan.
- (2) To provide practice in:
 - a) reading simple Japanese signs and simplified written material relating to the topics selected.
 - b) writing simple communications required in appropriate situations.
- (3) To provide practice in aural comprehension of descriptive and dramatic material relevant to these topics.
- (4) To provide practice in writing connected prose.

GRAMMAR

Basic Sentence Patterns

Review of interrogative sentences, including negative questions and answers; simple compound sentences.

Idiomatic Expressions of the kind:

Mita koto ga aru (nai); mitai (= yō-na), (suru) yō-ni, b-hajime, suru tokoro desu, tamaranai, etc.

Verbs

The conversational levels envisaged are:

a) the polite style (-masu terminations)

b) the abrupt or intimate style (-da),

A few formal usages may be included, e.g. the most common honorific verbs and the passive in its honorific connotation.

The da style in conversation and in written Japanese; the conjugation of da; review of the conjugation of verbs; review of simple terminal verbs (e.g. ageru, kudasaru, kureru, morau); the desiderative; the potential in -eru (e.g. in miseru, kikoeru, kaeru = "can buy"); review of -to iiru, -te aru; and the short probable (ikō).

Adjectives

Conjugation of adjectives; review of the predicative and attributive uses of true adjectives, positive and negative, with some reference to adverbial forms and quasi-adjectives; the quasi-form of true adjectives, e.g. ōki-na, chiisa-na; simple suffixes e.g. -nikui, -yasui.

Nouns

Nouns formed from other parts of speech (e.g. miru no, suru no, hayasa, onosa).

Pronouns

Indefinite and emphatic pronouns (dare-ka, hani-ka, dare demo, nan demo).

Numerals

Review of interrogatives (ikura, ikutsu, nan, iku); duration of time; some numerals without -tsu, and the most frequently used counters indicating measure.

Time

Some simple adverbs referring to time, past and future (e.g. senjitsu, myōban); frequently used modifiers indicating vagueness (e.g. koro, kurai); distance.

Honorifics

Very simple honorifics (e.g. irassharu, ossharu, o --- ni naru).

Adverbs

Indefinite and emphatic adverbs (e.g. doko-ka, doko-demo).

SUGGESTED BOOKS

1. Japanese - Grade XI
Department of Japanese, University of Queensland
2. Nihongo Tokuhon: Kokusai Gakuyūkai. Book 1.

Accompanying tapes prepared by the Department of Japanese are available from the Education Department.

Selections from the following suggested chapters:

<u>Book 1</u>		
Ch. 5	p. 14	<u>Basu-no naka</u>
8	24	<u>O-furo</u>
13	47	<u>Futsu-no kippu to terkiken</u>
14	50	<u>Eki-e iku michi</u>
19	65	<u>Tokoya</u>
26	95	<u>Etga-o miyu</u>
27	100	<u>Kaimono</u>
32	125	<u>Denwa</u>
36	145	<u>Okina eki</u>
42	165	<u>Tegami</u>

<u>Book 2</u>		
Ch. 16	114	<u>Ryokan-ni tomaru</u>

<u>Book 3</u>		
Ch. 7	39	<u>Iro-iro-no Shoshiki</u>
3.	Instant Japanese, Masahiro Watanabe and Kei Nagashima.	
4.	Grammar Books: Naganuma's Basic Japanese Course. Grammar and Glossary.	

Book 3 - Lesson 9 The Japanese New Year (Rōmaji).

Book 5 - Unit 11 Life in Tōkyō (Script).

Book 6 - Unit 1 Visit to the Kansai (Script).

5. Reference may also be made to the textbooks approved by the Japanese Education Department: e.g. Shinsen Kokugo no Hon (1959) 4th Year Book 2, chapter 3, Boku no Ryokō ki pages 39-60.

SEMESTER II - GRADE ELEVEN

Objectives

- (1) To develop the student's ability to discuss certain aspects of Japanese culture.
- (2) To provide practice in reading narrative and descriptive material.
- (3) To provide practice in writing connected prose.
- (4) To present an outline of the most important periods of Japanese history.

GRAMMAR

Basic Sentence Patterns

Share compound sentences; drill in simple relative clauses; some practice in noun and adverbial clauses, including nominalizers (e.g. no, koto) and direct speech.

Verbs

Review of the conjugation of verbs; the passive in simple constructions; present conditional; review of frequentative; terminal verbs (e.g. kuru, iku, hajimeru) are considered especially important; the use of omowareru, kanjirareru; review of -te iru, and -te aru forms.

Adjectives

Review of the conjugation of adjectives; true and quasi-adjectives (in -na and -no) in the attributive, predicative, and adverbial forms; some simple adjectival suffixes (-rashii, -sō); simple expressions for the comparative and superlative degree.

Time

Nengo (Shōwa, Taishō, Meiji, etc.). Modifiers indicating vagueness (e.g. ō mukashi, saijin, koro, kurai, yaku).

SUGGESTED BOOKS

1. Japanese - Grade XI
Department of Japanese, University of Queensland
2. Hyōjun Nihongo Tokuhon, Book 6. N. Naganuma
University of California Press, 1943
Ch. 6 pp. 99-103, Heian Jidai no Bunka
8 101-114, Kamakura Jidai no Bunka
17 159-168, Edo Jidai no Bunka
19 175-179, Ishin no Sanketsū
(These will require some simplification)

Accompanying tapes prepared by Department of Japanese are available from the Education Department.

SEMESTER I - GRADE TWELVEObjectives

- (1) To accustom the student to hearing and understanding polite circumlocutions for simple requests and other conversational exchanges.
- (2) To train the student in selecting the correct level of politeness in discourse and drill him in the most common conversational gambits at the various levels.
- (3) To impart an understanding of the semantic content of polite circumlocutions.
- (4) To train the student in the composition of simple written communications in polite language.
- (5) To impart an understanding of the Japanese social structure and philosophy of social intercourse.

GRAMMARVerbs

A systematic presentation of honorifics; a detailed discussion of the social appropriateness of the various honorifics; more complicated honorific forms, and some polite circumlocutions confined to the written style; simple (polite) uses of the causative (for recognition only); the potential in its honorific connotation (e.g. ikaremasu-ka) polite terminal verbs and some compounds; the potential in -reru and -rareru (for recognition only); the present conditional (including nakereba narimasen); negative requests and some double negatives (for recognition only); --- koto ga o-deki ni narimasu.

Nouns

Some uses of special nouns by male and female speakers (e.g. meshi, gohan).

Particles

The honorific particles o and go.

Adjectives

The adjective before gozaru.

SUGGESTED BOOKS

1. Japanese - Grade XII
Department of Japanese, University of Queensland
2. Nihongo Tokuhon: Kokusai gakuyūkai, Book 2
Ch: 3 p. 18; Keigo
4 24, Hōmon

Accompanying tapes prepared by the Department of Japanese are available from the Education Department.

SEMESTER II - GRADE TWELVEObjectives

- (1) To introduce the student to certain aspects of mass-communication Japanese and develop his comprehension of spoken Japanese to the point where he can obtain information and enjoyment from certain sections of the mass-media.
- (2) To give practice in spoken Japanese relating to these topics.
- (3) To provide practice in reading simple newspaper and magazine material (e.g. programmes) related to these topics.
- (4) To train students in writing explanatory and descriptive material.
- (5) To present selected aspects of Japanese culture.

GRAMMARSentences

Further work in short compound sentences.

Verbs

The passive with agent (ni sarenu); the probable in darō; further study of the present conditional; suspensive forms; a systematic study of the conjugation of verbs.

Adjectives

A systematic study of the conjugation of the Japanese adjective (true and quasi); expressions of degree (e.g. hodo, yori); compound and consecutive adjectives.

Particles

The particles shika with the negative; phrases like ni yoru, ni tsuite, etc. some Japanese verbs requiring different particles from their English equivalent.

Adverbs

Some demonstrative, interrogative, indefinite, and emphatic adverbs.

SUGGESTED BOOKS

1. Japanese - Grade XII
Department of Japanese, University of Queensland
2. Nihongo Tokuhon: Kokusai gakuyūkai. Selections from among the following chapters:
Book 1 - Ch. 38 p. 952 Tenki Yohō
44 171 Tsūshin no Shurui
45 174 Rajio no Bangumi

Book 2 - Ch.	18	p.	124	<u>Hōsō kyoku no Kengaku</u>
	19		136	<u>Nijū no Tobira</u>
	29		218	<u>Shimbun no Yakume</u>
	30		232	<u>Nyūsu</u>
Book 3	17		113	<u>Rajio no Nyūsu</u>
	27		176	<u>Shimbun Kiji</u>

3. Reference may also be made to the textbooks approved by the Japanese Education Department, e.g. Shinsen Kokugo no Hon, (1959), 4th year,

Book 1
Chapter 1 pages 4-24, Gakkyū Shimbun

6 Part 6, pages 103-113, Hōsōkyoku no Kengaku

Accompanying tapes prepared by the Department of Japanese are available from the Education Department.

Higher School Certificate Examination 1977.
Prescribed Texts, Topics, Projects and Works, etc.
 Sydney: The New South Wales Department of
 Education. (p. 21).

JAPANESE

ORAL (ALL COURSES)

Recommended course: Alfonso, A., and Niimi, K., *Japanese. A Basic Course*, Sophia University, Tokyo, Japan, 4th revised ed., 1970, with the accompanying tapes.

As may be seen in the specimen papers there is no formal restriction upon syntactic structures and vocabulary, therefore any course book of similar grammatical scope may be used as an alternative at the teacher's discretion.

READING

Prescribed reader: Hibbett, H., and Itasaka, Gen, *Modern Japanese: A Basic Reader*, 2 vols, Harvard University Press, 1965.

2 Unit A Course: Lessons XI (pp. 75-79), XII (pp. 80-84), XIII Part 1 (pp. 85-88).

2 Unit Course: As for the 2 Unit A Course, and in addition, Lessons XVI Part 1 (pp. 105-107), XVII (pp. 110-117), XVIII Part 1 (pp. 118-121), XIX (pp. 125-130), XXI (pp. 137-142).

3 Unit Course: As for the 2 Unit Course, and in addition Lessons XXIII Part 2 (pp. 154-155), XXIX (pp. 176-178), LIX (pp. 293-296).

Lesson LIX* will not be examined.

The prescribed reader will be examined by romanization and comprehension questions.

WRITING

A list of basic *kanji* was circulated in Circular Memorandum to Principals No. 57 of 1975. Credit will be given for knowledge beyond the basic list.

Japanese Syllabus, Form V and Form VI. 3 Unit Course, 2 Unit Course and 2 Unit A Course. Sydney: The New South Wales Department of Education for the Board of Senior School Studies. (Approved 1973).

The Board recognises that the aims and objectives of the syllabus may be achieved in a variety of ways and by the application of many different techniques. Success in the achievement of these aims and objectives is the concern of the Board which does not, however, either stipulate or evaluate specific teaching methods.

PREAMBLE

Japan possesses a unique culture which presents strongly-marked contrasts with that of Australia, and at the same time has become a leader in world science, technology and commerce. While the trade links between Japan and Australia have grown to a remarkable degree and will clearly grow stronger in the future, and great interest has been aroused in the culture of Japan, only a knowledge of the Japanese language will turn this interest into an effective understanding.

The practical need in commercial relations for Australians who speak Japanese has long been obvious but there are now other even faster growing needs in, for example, the great development of Australian tourism in Japan and Japanese tourism in Australia. For too long Australians have relied on the Japanese to learn English. The need to redress the consequent imbalance is urgent.

The study of any foreign language enhances the understanding of one's own language as a means of communication. Japanese has especial merit in this regard, since its structure and idiom differ so widely from those of other languages generally studied in Australia.

COURSES

There will be a 3 Unit Course, 2 Unit Course and 2 Unit A Course.

The 3 Unit Course and 2 Unit Course are intended primarily for those pupils who have completed the Advanced Level in Japanese in Form IV; the 2 Unit A Course may be followed by pupils who have completed the Ordinary Level in Form IV. It would be possible for pupils to begin the study of Japanese in Form V, but it would be necessary for them first to study privately the language material in the syllabus for Forms II - IV.

AIMS

This syllabus is intended to provide a basic knowledge of spoken and written Japanese and to foster a desire in students for a further study and understanding of the Japanese language and people.

Teachers should regard the syllabus as a minimum requirement and not as being in any way restrictive.

SYLLABUS COURSES

A. Oral (All Courses)

Prescribed course: Alfonso, A. and Niimi, K., Japanese, A Basic Course, Sophia University, Tokyo, Japan, 4th revised ed., 1970, with the accompanying tapes.

This course should serve to consolidate and extend the ability which the pupil has gained in understanding and speaking Japanese in Forms II - IV. In part it covers the ground of the pupil's oral work in Forms II - IV and the degree of revision of already known material must remain within the judgement of the teacher.

There will be an oral examination including comprehension tests, reading of passages from the prescribed reader and dictation.

B. Reading:

Prescribed reader: Ribbett, H. and Itasaka, Gen., Modern Japanese, A Basic Reader, 2 vols, Harvard University Press, 1965.

It is recommended that the teacher at his own discretion should select passages from Lessons I - X of this reader or from some other appropriate source as bridging material to carry the pupil from the reading knowledge achieved at the end of Form IV to the level of the first lessons prescribed in this syllabus.

Some study of the material provided by Naganuma, N. & Mori, K. Practical Japanese, Tokyo, 1962 may also be made at the teacher's discretion in preparation for the use of the reader.

The following are the reading requirements for the respective courses. (All texts are for both translation and romanization.)

- 2 Unit A Course: Lessons XI (pp. 75-79), XII (pp. 80-84), XIII Part 1 (pp. 85-88).
- 2 Unit Course: As for 2 Unit A Course, and in addition Lessons XVI Part 1 (pp. 105-107), XVII (pp. 110-117), XVIII Part 1 (pp. 118-121), XIX (pp. 125-130), XXI (pp. 137-142).
- 3 Unit Course: As for 2 Unit Course, and in addition Lessons XXIII Part 2 (pp. 154-155), XXIX (pp. 176-178), LIX (pp. 293-296).

C. Writing:

Students should be able to write hiragana and katakana, and in addition the following kanji vocabulary:

- 2 Unit A Course: All vocabulary prescribed for reading and writing at Advanced Level, Forms II-IV, (175 kanji).
- 2 Unit Course: As for 2 Unit A Course, and in addition all vocabulary occurring in Alfonso, A. and Niimi, K., Japanese, A Basic Course, Lessons 6-10, excluding Japanese proper names with the following exceptions: Sato, Taro, Jiro, Saburo, Kobayashi, Fuji-san, Ginza (an additional 125 kanji).
- 3 Unit Course: As for 2 Unit Course, and in addition the vocabulary in Alfonso, A. and Niimi K., Japanese, A Basic Course, Lesson 11 (an additional 40 kanji).

Translation from English into Japanese will be based upon the above vocabulary and upon the grammar and structures contained in Alfonso, A. and Niimi, K., Japanese, A Basic Course, Lessons 1-20.

Japanese Recommended Reading and Reference Material.
 Sydney: The New South Wales Department of Education
 for the Board of Senior Studies. (Approved 1974)

The following lists of recommended reading and reference material are considered to be useful in the teaching of this syllabus. The lists are, however, not intended to be either definitive or prescriptive in any way.

LANGUAGE

- Kajizuka, S. et al (eds.), Kadokawa Kanwachujiten, Kadokawa, Tokyo, 1964.
- Kenkyusha's New Japanese-English Dictionary, Kenkyusha, Tokyo, 1954.
- Kenkyusha's New English-Japanese Dictionary, Kenkyusha, Tokyo, 1966.
- Koop, A.J. & Inada, H., Japanese Names and How to Read Them, Routledge & Kegan Paul, London, 1960.
- Nelson, A.N., The Modern Reader's Japanese-English Character Dictionary, Revised Edition, Tuttle, Rutland, Vermont, Tokyo, 1966.
- Shimura, I. (Ed.), Kojien, 2nd Edition, Iwanami, Tokyo, 1970.
- Dunn, C.J. and Yanada, S., Teach Yourself Japanese, English Universities Press, 1958.
- Henderson, H.G., Handbook of Japanese Grammar, Revised Edition, Houghton Mifflin Co., Cambridge, U.S.A., 1948.
- Martin, S.E., Essential Japanese, 3rd Revised Edition, Tuttle, Tokyo, 1962.
- Sakade, F. (Ed.), A Guide to Reading and Writing Japanese, Revised Edition, Tuttle, Tokyo, 1961.

GENERAL BACKGROUND READING

- Borton, Bushy, Japan's Modern Century, 2nd Edition, Ronald Press, N.Y., 1970.
- Bornas, G. and Thwaite, A., The Penguin Book of Japanese Verse, Penguin Books, 1964.
- Keene, Donald (Ed.), Anthology of Japanese Literature, Penguin Books, 1966.
- Keene, Donald (ed.), Modern Japanese Literature, Thames & Hudson, London, 1956.
- Morris, Ivan (ed.), Modern Japanese Stories, Eyre & Spottiswoode, London, 1961.
- Reischauer, Edwin O. & Fairbank, J.K. & Craig, Albert M., The Modern Transformation, Allen & Unwin, London, 1965.
- Reischauer, Edwin O. & Fairbank, J.K., East Asia: The Great Tradition, Allen & Unwin, London, 1960.
- Sagara, T., Japanese Pinks, Tourist Library, Japan Travel Bureau, Tokyo, 1958.
- Sanso, G.B., Japan, A Short Cultural History, Revised Edition, Cresset Press, London, 1952.
- Teunoda, R. & de Bary, W.T., Sources of Japanese Tradition, Columbia University Press, New York, 1958.

Handbook of Directions and
Prescriptions for 1976, Higher
School Certificate Examination,
Melbourne: The Victorian Universities
and Schools Examination Board,
Pp. 274-283.

JAPANESE

Examination: One 1-hour paper and an oral examination

Aim of the course

The aim of the course is to achieve basic competence in Standard Japanese. Grammatical rules and vocabulary used mainly in literary or highly formal language will not be studied at this stage. The range of vocabulary and grammar studied in the course should enable the student to converse in Japanese on everyday topics and to develop the ability to speak the language in at least one field of his own interest. In addition to achieving basic competence in the spoken language the students will learn to read and write in Japanese to the extent specified below, but it is not expected that on completing the course the students will be able to read Japanese beyond the prescribed range.

Throughout the course emphasis should be on the use of the language in actual speech situations appropriate to students at this level.

Grammar

Appendix A indicates the range of grammatical rules to be taught during the course. The student will be expected to be able to use all listed items in their basic usage but no knowledge of the grammatical terminology will be required.

Vocabulary

The minimum lexicon includes approximately 1,500 basic words given in Appendix B.

Reading and writing

Hiragana and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their reading is indicated by furigana.

Appendix A

Grammar

1. Pronunciation

Sounds; accentuation (consistent pronunciation of the accent will however not be required); reduction ("devoicing") of vowels (ski des, shi ni arimasu, etc.)

2. Verbs

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu, daroo), Exhortative (yomoo), Desiderative (yomtai, yomitagaru), Imperative (yomi).

Gerund (yonde, yominagara), Alternative (yondari), Conditional (yomeba, yondara, yomu nara, yomu to), Concessional (yonde mo)

Passive (yomareu), Causative (yomaseru), Passive-Causative (yomaserareu), Potential (yomeru)

Auxiliary Verbs: iru, aru, shirau, iku, kuru, otu, miru, kureru, kugeraru, yaru/ageru, morau/itadaku

Relative Clauses (yomu hito, Tanaka san ga/no yonda hon)

Other expressions: yomu kamo shirenai, yomu no de, yomoo to mo yonde mo ii, yomanakute mo ii, yomeba (yonde wa) ikenai/naranai, yomanakereba (yomanakute wa) ikenai/naranai

3. Adjectives

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (akai daroo), Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari),

Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to), Concessional (akakute mo)

Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon)

Nouns formed from adjectives (aka, okuda)

Pronouns (ookina, etc., aru, tashita, etc., konu, kodna, etc.)

4. Copula

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo)

Gerund (de), Alternative (dattari), Conditional (dattara, nara, to), Concessional (de mo)

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Examination Board.

Grammar

Appendix A indicates the range of grammatical rules to be taught during the course. The student will be expected to be able to use all listed items in their basic usage, but knowledge of the grammatical terminology will be required.

Vocabulary

The minimum lexicon includes approximately 1,500 basic words given in Appendix B.

Reading and writing

Hiragana and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their reading is indicated by furigana.

Appendix A

Grammar

1. Pronunciation

Sounds; accentuation (consistent pronunciation of the accent will however not be required); reduction ("devoicing") of vowels (ski des, shita ni arimasu, etc.)

2. Verbs

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu daroo), Exhortative (yomoo), Desiderative (yomitali; yomilagaru), Stem (yomi).

Gerund (yonde, yominagara), Alternative (yobahari),

Conditional (yomeba, yondara, yomu nara, yomu to),

Concessional (yonde mo).

Passive (yomasaru), Causative (yomaseru), Passive-Causative (yomaserareru).

Potential (yomeru)

Auxiliary Verbs: iku, aru, shimau, iku, kuru, oku, miru, kureru/kudasaru, yaru/ageru, morau/itadaku

Relative Clauses (yomu hito, Tanaka san ga/no yonda hon)

Other expressions: yomu kamu shirenai, yomu ho da, yomoo to suru yonde mo ii, yomanakute mo ii, yomeba (yonde wa)

ikenai/naranai, yomanakereba (yomanakite wa)

ikenai/naranai

3. Adjectives

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (akai daroo)

Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari),

Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to),

Concessional (akakute mo)

Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon)

Nouns formed from adjectives (aka, ookina)

Pronouns (ookina, etc.; aru, taishita, etc., konu, kodana, etc.)

4. Copula

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo)

Gerund (de), Alternative (dattari), Conditional (dattara, nara, da

to), Concessional (de mo)

JAPANESE

hour paper and an oral examination

course is to achieve basic competence in grammatical rules and vocabulary used mainly in natural language will not be studied at this level. Vocabulary and grammar studied in the course will enable students to converse in Japanese on everyday topics and to speak the language in at least one situation in addition to achieving basic competence. Students will learn to read and write in Japanese as indicated below, but it is not expected that all students will be able to read Japanese

The emphasis should be on the use of Japanese in situations appropriate to students at

5. Nouns

Common Nouns

Adverbial Nouns (kyou, ashita, gogo, etc.)

Adjectival Nouns (quasi-adjectives: kirei, yuunisi, etc.)

Verbal Nouns (benkyou suru, etc.)

Auxiliary Nouns: place (mae, uba, etc.), time (toki, etc.), possessor (no, koto, incl. koto ga aru, koto ni suru, koto ga desu), other (hou, you, jokyo, tumori, hazu, tamu, waku, bakari, etc.)

6. Pronouns and Deictics

Personal Pronouns (wata(ku)shi, boku, anata, kimi, konobito, sanohito, anohito, kare, kanojo; plural forms)

Demonstratives (kore, koko, kocchi, kochira, koo; the same for ote, ara)

Interrogatives (nani, dare, donata, dore, doko, dochira, dou, itaga, itau, itausu, itaru, naze, dooshite)

Indefinites (nani demo, dare ka, etc.)

7. Numerals

Basic numerals, fractions

Counting of time (centuries, years, months, weeks, days, hours, minutes), distance (kilometres, metres, centimetres, millimetres), weight (tonnes, kilograms, grams), money (Japanese and Australian)

Counting with the following suffixes: bai (... times), ban (ordinary numerals), ban (nights), dai (cars), do (... time), hai (cups), hiki (animals), hon (sticks, etc.), ka (lessons), kai (... times), kai (floors), kasho (plates), ken (houses), ko (cups, etc.), mai (flat things), peiji (pages), rinjin (people), sai (age), satsu (books)

Names for months (ichigatsu; etc.), years of study (ichinensei, etc.)

8. Adverbs

9. Particles and Suffixes

Case particles (ga, o, ni, e, de, to, yori, kara, made, no, zero)

Connective particles (to, ya, ka)

Other particles (wa, mu, koso, sae, demo, shika, dake, bakari, nado)

Suffixes: sou da (yomison da, akasou da), soo da (yomu soo da, kaka soo da), rashii (yomirashii, kodomorashii), yasui/nikui (yomiyasui)

Final particles (ka, yo, ne)

10. Connectives

Response words (hai, ee, un, iie, ie, uun, saa; maa)

Conjunctions (soshite, sorekara, soosuruto, suruto; shikashi, keredomo, soredemo, demo; dakara, desukara, sorede; soredewa, dewa; itaeba, tumari, mochiron, naruhodo, sorewa, jitsuwa)

Connecting particles (kara, node, noni, to, ketedomo, ga, ka)

11. Honorifics

Honorific styles: da-style, desu-style, de gozaimasu-style (de gozaimasu-style - passive knowledge only)

Reference to superiors:

Verbs: o-yomi ni naru and irregular forms (irasharu, etc.) requests and commands (yonde kudasai, o-yomi kudasai)

Nouns: the prefix o/gi, kata (for hito), donata (for dare)

Reference to other than superiors:

Verbs: neutral forms (yomu, yominimasu), "humble" (go/minimasu, mitshimasu, etc. - passive knowledge only)

Appendix B

Vocabulary

aa, aayuu, abunai, achira, *ageru, ageru (to give, to raise), aida, aisatsu(suru), *aiukurimu, ai, Aja, akachan, akaru, akera, aki, aku (to open), ama, amari, ame, Ameri, *Amerikan, anata, ane, ani, anki(suru), aini, ano, anshin(suru), anzen, au, *apato, arashi, arau, are, ariga, aru (to be here, a certain), *arubai, aruku, asa, asagohan, asai, asatte, *ashi, ashita, asobu, ashi, atama, *atarashi, ataru, atatakai, atamamaru, atutameru, atchi, atsu (hot, thick), atsumaru, atsumeru, au ('to meet, to meet), azukaru, amakere

ban, o-banan, -bai (... times), *baitori, bakari, *baka, (-)ban (night), -ban (ichiban, etc.), *banana, (-)banchi, bangoo, bangumi, *barebooru, basho, *basu, *basuketto, bataa, *bodo, bengoshi, benkyou(suru), beiri, o-bentoo, *bell, *beruto (belt), betsu, *biiru, bijutsu, bijutsukan, biki (suru), binboo, *biiru, biisen, *byu, *biuketto, biyoin, bo, boeki, *boofurendo, booru, *boopon, o-booran, booshi, *boian, budoo, bukyoo, bun (part), buabonguya, *bungaku, bun, bunkateki, bunpoo, *burauu, buri, bushi (samurai), buta, butai, butsuri, byoo, byooki (suru)

o-cha, chairo, -chan (after names), chawan, chi, chichi, chig, chikoo, *chijuu, *chisai, *chisana, *chizu, chikai, chika, chikatetsu, chiri, chishiki, chittomo, chizu, *chukotetsu, chook, chookoku, chookokusa, *chooku, -choome, chotto, *chui (whistle), *chuugakkoo, *chuugakusei, *Chuugoku, *Chuugokusei, chuui (sur), chuumon (suru), chuusha (suru)

dai- [ordinal numerals], -dai (car, etc.), daibu, daidoko, *daigaku, *daigakusei, daigishi, daihyoo(suru), daihyooteiki, daijin, daijoubu, *daikiri, *daikiri, daikai, daijoryoo, dakara, dai, danboo, dandan, dansai, *danu (daru), dare, (-)daru, *daru, *dakara, *dakira, *dakirudake, demo, denki, denkiok, denpoo, *densha, dantoo [tradition], deniooteiki, *denwa (sur), *denwabangoo, denwachoo, *depaato, *dezu, desukara, dewa, *dewa, do (... times), *do, dochira, doko, donata, dondon, dono, donokurai, doo, doobutsu, doobutsuen, doogu, *doshimashite, doo ka shimashite ka, doomo, dooro, dooshite, dooshitema, dooyuu, doozo, doozo yoroshiku, *dorabuu, doroboo, doryoku(suru), dotchi, *doyoo (bi)

e, eda, Edo, Edojidai, ee (yes), eibungaku, eiga, eigan, eigahayuu, eigaoyuu, eigo, eikyoo(suru), eiwajiten, *eki, en (yes), engeki, *enjia, enpitsu, enryo (suru), erabu, *erebetta

*foku, fuba, fueru, Fujisan, fakai, fuku (to blow, to wipe), fukubuu(suru), fukuzatsu, fuma, -fun [minute], fune, furoba, furobiki, furu (to fall), *furu, futon, futuro, *futuu, futsuu, *futtooboru, futoo, fuyuu, fuyu, fuyuyasumi

**Handbook of Directions and
Prescriptions for 1976, Higher
School Certificate Examination
Melbourne: The Victorian Universities
and Schools Examination Board.
Pp. 274-283.**

JAPANESE

Examination: One 3-hour paper and an oral examination

Aims of the course

The aim of the course is to achieve basic competence in Standard Japanese. Grammatical rules and vocabulary used mainly in literary or highly formal language will not be studied at this stage. The range of vocabulary and grammar studied in the course should enable the student to converse in Japanese on everyday topics and to develop the ability to speak the language in at least one field of his own interest. In addition to achieving basic competence in the spoken language the students will learn to read and write in Japanese to the extent specified below, but it is not expected that on completing the course the students will be able to read Japanese beyond the prescribed range.

Throughout the course emphasis should be on the use of the language in actual speech situations appropriate to students at this level.

Grammar

Appendix A indicates the range of grammatical rules to be taught during the course. The student will be expected to be able to use all listed items in their basic usage but no knowledge of grammatical terminology will be required.

Vocabulary

The minimum lexicon included approximately 7,500 basic words given in Appendix B.

Reading and writing

Kanji and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their count is indicated by furigana.

Appendix A

Grammar

1. Pronunciation

Stress, accentuation (consistent pronunciation of the accent however not be required); reduction ("dropping") of vowels (shi desu, shita ni arimasu, etc.)

2. Verbs

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu desu, Exhortative (yoinou), Desiderative (yomital, yomitagaru), (yumi), Gerund (yonde, yominagara), Alternative (youdari), Conditional (yomeba, yondaja, yomu nara, yomu to), Concessive (yonde mo)

Passive (yomareru), Causative (yomaweru), Passive-Causative (yomaserageru), Potential (yomeru)

Auxiliary Verbs: iku, aru, shimau, iku, kuru, oku, miru, kuu, kudasaru, yaru/ageru, morau/itadaku

Relative Clauses (yomu hito, Tanaka san ga/no yonda hon)

Other expressions: yomu kamu shirushi, yomu no da, yomoo to yonde mo ii, yomanakute mo ii, yomeba (yonde wa) itenai/haragai, yomanakereba (yomanakute wa) itenai/haragai

3. Adjectives

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (akai da Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari),

Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to), Concessive (akakute mo)

Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon)

Nouns formed from adjectives (akai, o-ki)

Pronouns (ookina, etc.; aru, taishita, etc.; kono, konna, etc.)

4. Copula

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo)

Gerund (de), Alternative (dettari), Conditional (dettara, nara to), Concessive (de mo)

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Examination Board.

Grammar

Appendix A indicates the range of grammatical rules to be taught during the course. The student will be expected to be able to use all listed items in their basic usage but no knowledge of the grammatical terminology will be required.

Vocabulary

The minimums list includes approximately 1,500 basic words given in Appendix B.

Reading and writing

Hiragana and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their reading is indicated by furigana.

Appendix A

Grammar

1. Pronunciation

Sounds, accentuation (emphasis), pronunciation of the accent will however not be required. Reduction ("devoicing") of vowels (shi desu, shi ni yimasu, etc.).

2. Verbs

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu daroo), Exhortative (yoinob), Desiderative (yomihai, yomihagaru), Stem (yomi).

Gerund (yonde, yomihagasa), Alternative (yoodari).

Conditional (yomereba, yomidara, yomu nara, yomu to).

Concessional (yonde mo).

Passive (yomareru), Causative (yomaseru), Passive-Causative (yomaserareru).

Potential (yomeru).

Auxiliary Verbs: iru, aru, shimau, iku, kuru, oku, miru, kureru/kudasaru, yaru/ageru, morau/itadaku.

Relative Clauses (yoran hito, Tanaka san ga/no yonda hito).

(Other expressions: yomu koto shiranai, yomu no de, yomoo to suru.

yonde mo ii, yomazakute mo ii, yomaba (yonde wa).

iknai/naranai, yomanakereba (yomanakute wa).

shenai/naranai).

3. Adjectives

Affirmative, Negative: Present, Past, Presumptive (akai daroo).

Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari).

Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to).

Concessional (akakute mo).

Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon).

Nouns formed from adjectives (akai, akakita).

Pronouns (ochino, etc.; aru, taishita, etc.; kono, konna, etc.).

4. Copula

Affirmative, Negative: Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo).

Gerund (de), Alternative (dattari), Conditional (dattara, nara, da.

to), Concessional (de mo).

JAPANESE

hour paper and an oral examination

course is to achieve basic competence in grammatical rules and vocabulary used mainly in the Japanese language will not be studied at this level. The vocabulary and grammar studied in the course will be confined to Japanese on everyday topics. The emphasis is to speak the language in at least one situation. In addition to achieving basic competence in speaking, students will learn to read and write in Japanese. It is not expected that most students will be able to read Japanese.

The emphasis should be on the use of Japanese in situations appropriate to students at this level.

5. Nouns

Common Nouns

Adverbial Nouns (kyoo, ashita, gogo, etc.)

Adjectival Nouns (quasi-adjectives: kiroi, yumei, etc.)

Verbal Nouns (benkyoo-suru, etc.)

Auxiliary Nouns: place (inne, soba, etc.), time (toki, etc.), nominalizers (no, koto, incl. koto ga aru, koto ni suru, koto ga dekiru), other (hoo, yoo, tokoro, tsumori, hazu, tame, wake, bakari, etc.)

6. Pronouns and Deictics

Personal Pronouns (wata(ku)shi, boku, anata, kimi, konohito, sonohito, anohito, kare, kanojo; plural forms)

Demonstratives (kore, koko, kochi, kochira, koo; the same for sore, are)

Interrogatives (nani, dare, donata, dore, doko, dotehi, dochira, doo/ikaga, itsu, itsu, ikura, naze, dooshite)

Indefinites (nan demo, dare ka, etc.)

7. Numerals

Basic numerals, fractions

Counting of time (centuries, years, months, weeks, days, hours, minutes), distance (kilometres, metres, centimetres, millimetres), weight (tonnes, kilograms, gram), money (Japanese and Australian)

Counting with the following suffixes: bai (. . . times), ban (ordinary numerals), ban (nights), dai (ears), do (. . . time), hai (cups), hiki (animals), hon (sticks, etc.), ka (lessons), kai (. . . times), kai (floors), kasho (places), ken (houses), ko (eggs, etc.), mai (flat things), peiji (pages), ri/nin (people), sai (age), saifu (books)

Names for months (ichigatsu, etc.), years of study (ichinensei, etc.)

8. Adverbs

9. Particles and Suffixes

Case particles (ga, o, ni, e, de, to, yori, kara, made, no, zero)

Connective particles (to, ya, ka)

Other particles (wa, mo, koso, sae, demo, shika, dake, bakari, nado)

Suffixes: soo da (yomisoo da, akasoo da), soo da (yomu soo da, akai soo da), rashii (yomurashii, kodomorashii), yasu/niku (yomiyasu)

Final particles (ka, yo, ne)

10. Connectives

Response words (hai, ee, un, ue, ite, uun, saa, maa)

Conjunctions (soshite, sorekara, soosuruto, suruto; shikashi, keredomo, soredemo, demo; dakara, desukara, soreda; soredewa, dewa; tatoeba, tsumari, mochiron, naruhodo, sorewa, jitsuwa)

Connecting particles (kara, node, noni, to, keredomo, ga, ka)

11. Honorifics

Honorific styles: da-style, desu-style, de gozaimasu-style (de gozaimasu-style -- passive knowledge only)

Reference to superiors:

Verbs: o-yomi ni naru and irregular forms (irassharu, etc. requests and commands (yonde kudasai, o-yomi kudasai))

Nouns: the prefix o/go, kata (for hito), donata (for dare)

Reference to other than superiors:

Verbs: neutral forms (yomu, yomimasu), "humble" form (gozaimasu, mooshimasu, etc. -- passive knowledge only)

Appendix B

Vocabulary

aa, aryu, abuna, achira, *agaru, *ageru [to give, to raise], aida, aisatsu (suru), *aisukurumu, aji, *Ajia, *akachan, *akaru, *akeru, aki, aku [to open], ama, amari, ame, *Amerika, *Amerikan, anata, anc, ani, anki (suru), arina, aho, *anohito, anshin (suru), anzen, *ao, *apaato, arashi, arau, arc, arigato, gozaimasu (or gozaimashita), aru [to be here, a certain], *arubaru, aruku, asa, asagohan, asai, asatte, *ashi, ashira, asobu, asoku, atama, *atarashi, ataru, atatakai, atamaru, atameru, achi, ato, atsui [hot, thick], atsumaru, atsumeru, au [to meet, to suit], azukaru, azukeru

baal, o-baasan, bai [. . . times], *baiorin, -bakari, *baketa (-)ban (night), -ban [ichiban, etc.], *banana, (-)banchi, bangohan, bangoo, bangumi, *bafeebooru, basho, *basu, *basuketobooeru, *bataa, *beddo, bengoshi, benkyoo (suru), beni, o-bentoo, *beru [bell], *beruto [belt], betsu, *biiru, bijutsu, bijutsukan, bikuri (suru), binboo, *biniru, binsen, *binu, *bisuketo, biyooin, boku, boceki, *boofurendo, *booru, *boorupen, o-boosan, booshi, *booto, *bolan, budoo, bukkyoo, bun [part], bunbooguya, *bungaku, bunka, bunkateki, bunpoo, *burausu, buri, bushi [samurai], bula, butaniku, butsuri, byooin, byooki (suru)

o-cha, chairo, -chan [after names], shawan, cha, chichi, chigau, chihoo, *chiimu, *chiizu, *chisana, *chizu, chikai, chikara, chikaetsu, chiri, chishiki, chittomo, chizu, *chokoreeto, choodo, chookoku, chookokaka, *chooku, -choome, chotto, -chuu [while], *chuugakkoo, *chuugakusei, *Chuugoku, *Chuugokujin, chuui (suru), chuumon (suru), chuusha (suru)

dai [ordinal numerals], -dai [car, etc.], daibu, daidokoro, *daigaku, *daigakusei, daigahi, daihyoo (suru), daihyooteki, daijin, daijyu, daijyobu, *daikiri, *daizuki, daitai, daijyoo, dakara, dame, danboo, dandan, dansei, *daru (suru), dare, (-)daru, *deguchi, *dekakeru, *dekiru, *dekirudake, demo, denki, denkiroojiki, denpoo, *densha, demoo [tradition], deptsoteki, *denwa (suru), *denwabangoo, denwachoo, *depaato, *deru, desukara, dewa, dewa, mata, do [. . . times], *do, dochira, doko, donata, dondon, donna, dono, donokura, doo, doobutsu, doobutsuen, doogu, doo itashimashite, doo ka shimashite ka, doomo, dooro, dooshite, dooshitemo, dooyuu, doozo, doozo yoroshiku, *dorabu, dore, doraboo, doryoku (suru), dotchi, *doyoo (bi)

e, eda, Edo, Edojidai, ee [yes], eibungaku, eiga, eigan, eigaiaiyuu, eigaioyuu, eigo, eikyo (suru), eiwaitei, *eki, *en [yen], engeki, *enjia, enjisu, enryo (suru), erabu, *erebetta

*foku, fuben, fureru, Fujian, fukai, fuku [to blow, to wipe], fukuhuu (suru), fukuzatsu, fumu, -fun [minute], fune, furo, furoba, furohiki, furu [to fall], *furo, futon, futoru, *futsuka, futsuu, *futoobooru, futoo, fuyasu, fuyuu, fuyuyasumi



o-go, etc.)
Kirei, yumei, etc.)
soba, etc.), time (toki, etc.), nomi-
koto ga aru, koto ni suru, koto ga
tokoro, tumori, hazu, tame, wake,

ni, boku, anata, kimi, konohito,
ojo; plural forms)
ditch, kochira, koo; the same for
dore, doko, dochi, dochira, doo/
dooshite)
etc.)

years, months, weeks, days, hours,
metres, centimetres, millimetres),
grams), money (Japanese and

times: bai (. . . times), ban (ordinary
cars), do (. . . time), hai (cups),
etc.), ka (lessons), kai (. . . times),
ken (houses), ko (eggs, etc.),
pages), ri/nin (people), sai (age),

etc.); years of study (ichimensei, etc.)

ori, kara, made, no, zero)

o, sae, deno, shika, dake, bakari,
akasoo da), 100 da (yomu 100 da,
nurashi, kodomorashi), yasui/nikui

ic, uun, saa, maa)

soosuruto, suruto; shikashi, kere-
akara, desukara, sorede, soredewa,
ochiron, naruhodo, sorewa, jitsuwa)
noni, to, keredomo, ga, ka)

su-style, de gozaimasu-style (de
knowledge only)

Reference to superiors:

Verbs: o-yomi ni naru and irregular forms (irassharu, etc.),
requests and commands (yonde kudasai, o-yomi kudasai)
Nouns: the prefix o-go, kata (for/hito), donata (for/dare)

Reference to other than superiors:

Verbs: neutral forms (yomu, yojimasu), "humble" forms
(gozaimasu, moushimasu, etc. - passive knowledge only)

Appendix B

Vocabulary

aa, aayuu, abunai, achira, *agaru, *ageru [to give, to raise],
aida, aisatsu(suru), aisukuriimu, aji, *Aja, *akaban, *akai,
akarui, akeru, aki, aku [to open], amai, amari, *ame, *Amerika,
*Amerikajin, anata, she, ani, anki(suru), anda, ago, *anohito,
anshin(suru), anzen, *aoi, *apaato, arashi, arau, are, arigatoo
gozaimasu (or gozaimashita), aru [to be here, a certain], *arubaito,
aruku, asa, asagohan, asai, asatte, *ashu, ashita, asobu, asoko,
atama, *atarashi, ataru, atatakai, atamafu, atameru, atchi, ato,
atsui [hot, thick], atsumaru, atsumeru, aw [to meet, to suit],
azakaru, azukeru

baai, o-baasan, bai (. . . times), *bafon, bakari, *bakeisu,
(-)ban (night), ban [ichiban, etc.], *banana, (-)banchi, bangohan,
bangoo, bangumi, *bareebooru, basho, *basu, *basukelobooru,
*bataa, *beddo, bengoshi, benkyoo(suru), beni, o-bentoo, *beru
[bell], *beruto [belt], betsu, *biiru, bijutsu, bijutukan, bikkuri
(suru), binboo, *biiru, binsen, *biru, *bisuketto, biyoin, boku,
booeeki, *boofurendo, *booru, *boorupen, o-boosan, boshi, *booto,
*botan, budoo, bukkyoo, bun [part], bunbooguya, *bungaku, bunka,
bunkateki, bunpoo, *burausu, buru, bushi [samurai], buta, butaniku,
butsuri, byooin, byooki(suru)

o-cha, chairu, chan [after names], chawan, chi, chichi, chigau,
chihoo, *chiimu, *chiso, *chisana, *chiizu, chikai, chikara,
chikatetsu, chiri, chubiki, chittomo, chizu, *chokoreeto, choodo,
chookoku, chookokuka, *chooku, -choome, chotto, chuu [while],
*chuugakkoo, *chuugakusei, *Chuugoku, *Chuugokujin, chuui(suru),
chumon(suru), chuusha(suru)

dai- [ordinal numerals], -dai [car, etc.], daibu, daidokoro,
*daigaku, *daigakusei, daigishi, daihyoo(suru), daihyooteki, daiji,
daijin, daijoubu, *daikiri, *daiki, daitai, daihooryoo, dakara, dame,
danboo, dandan, danse, *dansu(suru), dare, (-)dazu, *deguchi,
*dekakeru, *dekiru, *dekirudake, demo, denki, denkinoojiki,
denpoo, *densha, densoo [tradition], dentooteki, *denwa(suru),
*denwabangoo, denwachoo, *depaato, *deru, desukara, dewa, dewa
mata, do (. . . times), *doa, dochira, doko, donata, dondon, donna,
dono, donokurai, doo, doobutsu, doobutsuen, doogu, doo
hashimashite, doo ka shimashita ka, doomo, dooro, dooshite,
dooshitemo, dooyuu, doozo, doozo yoroshiku, *doraidu, dore,
doroboo, doryoku(suru), dotchi, *doyoo(bi)

e, eda, Edo, Edojida, ee [yes], eibungaku, eiga, eigan,
eigaiyuu, eigajoyuu, eigo, eikyoo(suru), eiwajiten, *eki, *en [yen],
engeki, *enjina, enpitsu, enryo(suru), erabu, *erebettaa

*foku, fuben, fueru, Fujian, fukai, fuku [to blow, to wipe],
fukushuu(suru), fukuzatsu, fumu, -fun [minute], fune, furo,
furoba, furoshiki, furu [to fall], *faru, futon, futoru, *futsuka,
futsuu, *futtoooru, fuutoo, fuyasu, fuyu, fuyuyasumi

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*ganufurendo, *gaido, *gajin, *gaikoku, *gaikokugo,
 *gaikokujin, *gaikoo, *gaikookan, *gaimushoo, *gairigo, *gaka,
 *gakkari(suru), *gakkii, *gakkoo, *gakusei, *gakusha, *ganbaru, *garasu,
 *gareiji, *gasorin, *gasu, *gawa, *geijutsu, *geijutuka, *geki, *gekijou,
 *genin, *genkan, *genki, *o-genki desu ka, *genzai, *genzoku(suru),
 *geta, *getsuyou(bi), *gijutsu, *gimu, *ginkoo, *ginkooin, *Ginza, *gita,
 *go [language], *gochisoo(suru), *goshisoosama, *deshite, *ogata,
 *gogo, *gohan, *gomen kudasai, *gomen nasai, *gomi, *pombako, *gomu,
 *gonensei, *Gonshuu, *goro, *gorufu, *goto, *gozan, *gozenchuu, *gun
 [district], *gunjin, *gurai, *guraundo, *gutateki, *gyaku, *gyuuniku,
 *gyuunyuu

ha [tooth, leaf], *haburashi, *hachigatsu, *hae, *hagaki, *haha,
 *hai [yes], *hai [cup], *haiku, *hairu, *haisha, *haizara, *hajimaru,
 *hajimemashite, *hajimeru, (-)hajimeru, *hajimete, *hako, *hakobu,
 *hakubutsukan, *hakken(suru), *hakkiri(suru), *haku [to put on (shoes)],
 *to sweep], *hamigaki, *han [half past], *hana [nose, flower], *hanareru,
 *hanashi, *hanasu [to speak, to detach], *hanban, *handobakku,
 *hankachi, *hantai(suru), *hantoshi, *hantsuki, *harau, *hareru, *haru,
 *hasame, *hashi [bridge, chopsticks], *hashiru, *hatake, *hataraku,
 *hatsuka, *hatsumeri(suru), *hatsuo(suru), *hattatsu(suru), *hatten
 (suru), *hayai, *ohayai, *gezaimasu, *hazu, *hazakashi, *hazureru,
 *hazusu, *hewa, *heji(suru), *herasu, *heta, *heya, *hi [sun, day,
 fire], *hiwari, *hijoi, *higashi, *hige, *hitata, *hifoont, *hikaku(suru),
 *hiki [dog, etc], *hikidashi, *hikkoo, *hikkoojoo, *hikooki, *hiku, *hiku,
 *hima, *higao, *hiragana, *hiroba, *horigaru, *hirogeru, *hiroi, *o-hiru,
 *o-hiru, *hira, *hirama, *hisashiburi, *hito, *hitotsuki, *hitsuji, *hitsuyou,
 *hokoo, *hoka, *Hokkaido, *hokori, *honeru, *hon, *hon [pencil, etc],
 *honbaku, *honic, *Honsuu, *honoo, *hon ya, *hoo [direction], *hoogen,
 *hoohoo, *hooki [broom], *hookoo, *hoomon(suru), *hoorisu, *hoorisuka,
 *hoosoo(suru), *hoosookyoku, *hoshi, *hoshii, *hoteru, *hyoojongo

*higaisu, *ichigo, *iminensei, ie [house, no], (-)igai [except],
 *igiruu, *igirisuin, (-)igo [after], *ii, *ie [no], (-)ijoo [above],
 (-)ika [below], *ikaga, *ikaga desu ka, *ikeri, *ikebana, *iken [opinion],
 *ikenai, *ihiru, *iki [going to], *iku, *ikura, *ikutsu, *ima [now],
 *imari(suru), *imooto(san), (-)inai [within], *inaka, *inky, *inori, *inu,
 *ippai, *iregi, *iriguchi, *iroro, *iru [to be here, to need], *isha, *isho,
 *isho, *isho(=)kenime, *isogashi, *isogu, *isu, *itadakimasu, *itadaki,
 *itai, *ito, *itoko, *itsu, *itsuka [some time, fifth day], *itsumo, *su, *iwa,
 (-)izen [before]

*jaanarisuto, *o-jama(suru), *jettoku, *ji, *jibiki, *jibun, *jidoosha,
 *o-jisan, *jikan, *jikanhyoo, *jiken, *jikoshookai(suru), *jimu, *jimuin,
 *jimusho, *jinja, *jinkoo, *jishu [earthquake], *jisho, *jitenpa, *jitsuni,
 *jitsuwa [in fact], *jitto(suru), *jiyuu, *jiyushugi, *joubu, *joou, *o-joosan,
 *joozu, *josei, *jugyoo(suru), *junbi(suru), *juben, *juudoo, *juugatsu,
 *juuichigatsu, *juunigatsu, *juusho, *juusu, *juutaku, *juutan, *juyoo

ka, *ka [lesson], *o-kaasan, *kaaten, *kaban, *kabe, *kabin, *kabuki,
 *kaburu, *kado, *kaeru [to change, to return], *kacu, *kagaku [science,
 chemistry], *kagakuteki, *kagami, *o-kagasama de, *kagi, *kai [floor],
 *kai [times], *kaidan, *kaigan, *kaigi, *kaimono, *kaisha, *kaishain,
 *kaiwa(suru), *kaji [fire], *kakarui, *kakarui [to hang, to take time],
 *kakeru [to run, to hang], *kakikata, *kakitome, *kakitoni, *kaku,
 *kamau, *kamera, *kami(sama), *kami [hair, paper], *kaminari,
 *kamoku, *kan [during], *kana, *kanai, *kanarazu, *kanari, *kanashii,
 *kanbatsu, *o-kane, *kanemochi, *kangaeru, *kangaroo, *kangofu, *kanja,
 *kanji [Chinese character, feeling], *kajiru, *kankei, *kanojo, *Kansai,
 *kansha(suru), *kantan, *kantoku, *Kantoo, *kanzen, *kaou, *karaaterebi,
 *karada, *karai, *kare, *kariru, *karui, *kasa, *kasen [synthetic fibre],
 *kasetto, *o-kashi, *o-kashiya, *kasho [place], *kashu, *kasu, *kata

[shoulder], *katschi, *katkana, *katzukeru, *katei, *katsu, *kau [to
 to rear], *kawa [river, skin], *kawaii, *kawakasu, *kawaku, *kawa
 *kayoo(bi), *kayou, *kazaru, *kazo [wind, cold], *kazoku, *ka, *koo,
 *koga(suru), *keikaku(suru), *keikan, *keiken(suru), *keisaku, *kei
 *keza, *kekkon(suru), *kekkonshiki, *kekkoo, *kekkoo desu, (-)ke
 [prefecture], *ken [house], *kenbutuu(suru), *kengaku(suru), *kenkei,
 *kenkyuu(suru), *kenri, *keredomo, *kesa, *keshigomu, *kesubi, *ke
 *ki (tree), *kibishii, *kiboo(suru), *kibun, *kieru, *kibotaki, *kiri
 [cloth, article], *kikai [opportunity, machine], *kikoeru, *kiki
 [climate], *kiku [to ask, to hear, chrysanthemum], *kimaru, *kime
 *kimi, *kimochi, *kimono, *kinodoku, *kino, *kumbi(suru), *kiri
 *kin'yoo(bi), *kiotsukeru, *o-kiotsukete kudasai, *kippu, *kippanri,
 *kiri, *kireu, *kirei, *kiriutokuyoo, *kiri [to wear, to cut], *kiseru, *ki
 [train], *kiseki, *kissaten, *kita, *kitai(suru), *kitana, *kitta, *ki
 *kizu, *ko [egg, etc], *koara (bean), *kochira, *kodomo, *koe, *koki
 *koko, *kokoaka, *kokoro, *kokuban, *kokugo, *kokusai, *komaki,
 *komaru, *kome, *komu, *konban, *konbanwa, *kondo, *konpa,
 *konkuriito, *konkuuru, *konna, *konnichwa, *kono, *konori,
 *konogoro, *konohito, *konshuu, *kon'ya, *koo, *kooban, *koochi, *koo
 [park], *kooen(suru) [lecture], *koogi [suburb, pollution], *koogi
 [manufacturing industry], *koojii, *koojoo, *koojoo, *koojoo,
 *kookuubin, *koomuin, *kopi, *koosaten, *koohaudawa, *koo
 *kootogakkoo, *kootau, *kootanjiko, *kooyuu, *koozu, *koppo, *koppo,
 *korede, *korekara, *korosu, *o-kosan, *kosuru, *kotae, *kotaeru, *koi
 *koto [string instrument, thing], *kotoba, *kotoshi, *kowi, *kowi,
 *kowsu, *kozutsumi, (-)ku [ward], *kubaru, *kubi, *kuchi, *kudamo,
 *kudasaru, *kugatsu, *kuma, *kumi, *kumo [cloud], *kumoru, *ku
 [after names], *kumi, *kuraberu, *kurabukattudo, *kurai, *kuri
 *kureru, *kurimingu, *kurimingu, *kurimingu, *kuryu, *ku
 (suru), *kuru, *kuruma, *kurushi, *kusa, *kusuri, *kusuriya, *ku
 *kutsushita, *kutsuya, *kuuki, *kuwashii, *o-tyaku, *kyoku [composition],
 *kyonen, *kyoo, *kyoodai [sibling], *kyoooku(suru), *kyooban,
 *kyookai, *kyookasho, *kyoomi, *kyooryoku(suru), *kyoosaku,
 *kyooshitsu, *kyoosoo(suru), *Kyooto, *kyuukoo, *Kyuushuu

*mae, *machi, *machigaeru, *machigau, *mada, *madamada, *ma
 *mae, *magaru, *mageru, *mago, *mai [sheet, etc], *maisa, *mai
 *mainichi, *maishuu, *maisho, *maitoshi, *maituki, *makeru, *makuri, *mano
 *mangku, *maniau, *man'in, *mannenhitu, *marude, *masu
 *masuaburu, *mata, *mata, *shita, *o-matase, *shimashita, *mai
 *malomaru, *matomeru, *matsu [to wait, pine tree], *o-matari, *maw
 *mawaru, *mawasu, *mazaru, *mazeru, *mazu, *mazu, *me, *meda,
 *o-medetoo, *gozaimasu, *megana, *mei [niece], *Meiji, *memo(mo)
 *menbaa, *mendoo, *mezurashi, *michi, *miera, *migaku, *mi
 *mijikai, *mikan, *mikka, *mimi, *minami, *mia(n)s, *minatari,
 *miru, *miruku, *mirukubaa, *mise, *misery, *mitsukaru, *mitsub
 *o-miyage, *mizu, *mizuumi, *mochiroo, *modoru, *modoru, *mo
 *mokuteki, *mokyoo(bi), *mokuzoo, *momen, *momo [peach],
 *monbushoo, *mondai, *mono, *mo, *moofu, *moethido, *morau, *mo
 *moshimoshi, *motuu, *motteiku, *mottekeru, *mottekuru, *motto, *mo
 *muika, *mukashi, *mukoo [opposite], *mura, *muri, *mu
 *mushi [insect], *mushiatsui, *mugubu, *mubuko(san), *muraie
 *muzukashi

*nabe, *nagai, *nageru, *nagara, *nagareru, *nigaru, *nig
 *naka, *o-naka, *nakaku, *naku, *nakunaru, *nama, *namae, *namaki,
 *nami, *nani, *nanoko, *nasoru, *naosu, *Nara, *naraberu, *narabu, *na
 *nareru, *naru [to become, to ring], *naruhodo, *nashi, *na
 *natsuyasumi, *naze, *ne, *nedan, *o-neesan, *o-nagai(suru), *n
 *nekutsai, *nemui, *nemuru, *neru, *netsu, *nezumi, *Nichi
 *nichiyoo(bi), *nigai, *nigatsu, *nigeru, *nigiyaka, *Nihon, *Nibo

gairoku, gairoku (go),
 gairushoo, gairago, gaka,
 nsei, gakuha, ganbaru, garasu,
 gaisu, geijutsuka, geki, gekijoo,
 genka, genzai, geshuku (suru),
 ginkoo, ginkoojin, Ginja, gitaa,
 gishosama deshiya, gogatsu,
 nasai, gomi, gomibako, gomu,
 gogoto, gosen, gozengchau, gum,
 gutaiteki, gyaku, gyuuniku,
 bachigatsu, hac, hagaki, haha,
 hairu, haisha, haizata, hajimaru,
 eru, hajimeite, hako, hakobu,
 (suru), haku [to put on (shoes)],
 hana [nose, flower], hanareru,
 detach], hanbun, handobakku,
 hantsuki, harau, hareru, haru,
 hashiru, hatake, hatafaku,
 (suru), hattatsu (suru), hatten,
 hazu, hazukashii, hazureru,
 heru, heta, heya, hi [sun, day,
 hitaa, hiyooni, hikaku (suru),
 hikoojoo, hikooki, hiku, hiku,
 hiragaru, hirageru, hiroi, o-hiru,
 hito, hitotsuki, hitsuji, hitsuyoo,
 imeru, hon, hon [pencil, etc.],
 hon'ya, hoo [direction], hoogen,
 mon (suru), hooritsu, hooritsuka,
 hoshii, hoteru, hyoojungo
 [house no], (-)igai [except],
 ii, iie [no], (-)ijoo [above],
 ike, ikebana, iken [opinion],
 ikura, ikutsu, ima [now],
 inihin, inaka, inku, inoru, inu,
 to be here, to need], isha, ishi,
 isu, itadakimasu, itadaku,
 ite, itsumo, iu, iya,
 itteki, jii, jibiki, jibun, jidoosha,
 koshookai (suru), juno, jumin,
 square], jisho, jitensha, jitsuni,
 jyuushuu, jooju, jo'oo, o-joojan,
 (suru), jubun, juudoo, juugatsu,
 juusu, jutaku, jutuan, juuyoo
 kaben, kaban, kabe, kabin, kabuki,
 return], kaesu, kagaku [science,
 kagesama de, kagi, kai [floor],
 kagi, kaibon, kaisha, kaishain,
 kakaru [to hang, to take time],
 kaku, kakibome, kakitori, kaku,
 kami [hair, paper], kaminari,
 kan, kanerazu, kanari, kanashi,
 neru, kangaruu, kangofu, kanja,
 kanjira, kankei, kanojo, Kansai,
 antoo, kanzen, kao, karaaterebi,
 kasa, kasen [synthetic fibre],
 kata [place], kashu, kasu, kata

[shoulder], katachi, katakana, katazakeru, katei, katsu, kau [to buy,
 to rear], kawa [river, skin], kawari, kawakasu, kawaku, kawaru,
 kayoo (bi), kayou, kazaru, kaze [wind, cold], kazoku, ka, kechi,
 keza (suru), keikaku (suru), keibun, keiken (suru), keisatu, keito,
 keizai, kekkon (suru), kekkonshiki, kekkoo, fakkoo desu, (-)ken
 [prefecture], -ken [house], kenbutsu (suru), kengaku (suru), kenkoo,
 kenkyuu (suru), kenri, keredamo, kesa, keshigomu, keishi, kesu,
 ki [tree], kibishii, kiboo (suru), kibun, kieru, kibomaki, kirol, kiji
 [cloth, article], kikai [opportunity, machine], kikoeru, kikoo
 [climate], kiku [to ask, to hear, chrysanthemum], kimaru, kimeru,
 kimi, kimochi, kimoo, kinodoku, kinoo, kinshi (suru), kinu,
 kin'you (bi), kiotsukeru, o-kiotukete kudatai, kippu, kippuutiba,
 kirai, kireru, kirai, kiriyotokyo, kiru [to wear, to cut], kiseru, kisha
 [train], kisho, kishaten, kisa, kital (suru), kitanai, kitta, kito,
 kizu, ko [egg, etc.], koara (beast), koehira, kodomo, koo, kokai,
 koko, kokonoka, kokoro, kokuban, kokugo, kokutai, komaki,
 komaru, kome, komu, koshan, konban, konbanwa, kondo, kongetsu,
 konkurito, konkuuru, konna, konnichiwa, kono, konoada,
 konogoro, konohito, kinshuu, kon'ya, koo, kooban, koocha, kooen
 [park], kooen (suru) [lecture], koogai [suburb, pollution], koogyoo
 [manufacturing industry], kookai, koojoo, kookoo, kookooai,
 kookuuhin, koomuin, koori, kooaten, kooamudenwa, kooto,
 koojougakkoo, kootuu, kootsuujoo, kooyuu, koozui, koppu, kore,
 koride, korekara, korosu, o-kosan, kosuru, kotas, kotaseru, kotchi,
 koto [string instrument, thing], kotoba, kotohi, kowai, kowareru,
 kowasu, kozutsumi, (-)ku [ward], kubaru, kubi, kuchi, kudamono,
 kudataru, kugatsu, kuma, kumi, kumo [cloud], kumoro, kun
 [after names], kuni, kuraberu, kurabukaidoo, kurai, kurasu,
 kureru, kuriningu, kurimangya, kurumasa, kuroi, kuroo
 (suru), kuru, kuruma, kurushi, kusa, kusuri, kusuriya, kusu,
 kutsushita, kutsuya, kuuki, kuwashi, o-kyaku, kyoku [composition],
 kyonen, kyoo, kyoodai [sibling], kyooku (suru), kyookuseido,
 kyookai, kyookaibo, kyoomu, kyootyoku (suru), kyooaashuu,
 kyooohitsu, kyooosoo (suru), Kyoto, kyutokoo, Kyuushuu
 maa, machi, machigaeru, machigau, mada, madamada, mado,
 mae, magari, mageru, mago, mai [sheet, etc.], maizaa, maiban,
 mainichi, maishuu, maisho, maitsuki, makaru, makasa, mamoru,
 maneku, maneru, man'in, manonihitsu, marude, masaru,
 masutaibaa, mata, mata ashita, o-mataa shiitashiki, matchi,
 maibamaru, matomeru, matau [to wait, pine tree], o-matari, mawari,
 mawaru, mawasu, mazaru, mazeru mazu, mazu, me, medatsu,
 medetoo gozaimasu, meguro, mei [piece], Meiji, memo (suru),
 menbaa, mendoo, mezurashi, michi, mieru, migaku, migi,
 mijikai, mikan, mikka, miishi, minami, min(n)a, minamiguni,
 miru, miruku, mirukubaa, mise, miseru, misukaru, misukaru,
 o-miyage, mizu, mizuumi, mochiro, modoru, modong, motu,
 mokuteki, mokuyoo (bi), mokuzoo, moeten, momo [peach],
 monbushoo, mondai, mono, moo, moofu, moochido, morau, mochi,
 moshimoshi, motsu, motteiku, mottekeru, mottekuru, motte, mudo,
 mugi, muka, mukashi, mukoo [opposite], mune, mura, muri,
 mushi [insect], mushiatari, musubu, musuko (son), musume (daughter),
 muzukashii
 nabe, nagai, nagameru, nagara, nagareru, nagasu, naifu,
 naka, o-naka, nakanaka, naku, nakunaru, nama, names, namakeru,
 nami, nani, nanoka, naoru, naosu, Nara, naraberu, narabu, narau,
 nareru, naru [to become, to ring], naruhodo, nashi, natsu,
 natsuyasumi, naze, ne, nedan, o-necchan, o-negai (suru), neko,
 nekutai, nemui, nemuru, neru, netsu, nezumi, Nichigoo,
 nichiyoo (bi), nigai, nigatsu, nigeru, nigiyaka, Nihon, Nihongo,

*Nihonjin, nibonshoku, o-nisan, niku, niku, mikuya, nimou, nin [man], ninensei, ningen, ningyoo, ninki, nioi, niru, nihi, niwa, niwatori, nobasu, nobiru, noboru, nodo, nokoru, nokosu, nomimono, nomu, neo [Not plays], noogyoo, noojoo, nooka, nooto, nori [glue], norikaeru, noru, niseru, nugu, nureru, nurui, nusumu, nyuugaku (suru), nyuugakushien, nyuuin (suru), nyuuusu

obā (san), obi, oboeru, oboreru, ochiru, odoroku, odoru, oi [nephew], oishii, oji (san), okahii, oki [one, every...], Okinawa, okiru, okoru [to happen, to be angry], okosu [to cause, to wake up], oku, okureru, okuru, okusan, omoi, omoidasu, omona, omom, omoshiroi, omou, onaji, ongaku, ongakuka, ongakukai, onnanhito, onnanoko, oobaa, ogoe, ooi, ookesutora, ookii, ookina, Osaka, oosetsuma, Oosutorariya, Oosutorariyajin, ootobai, ozei, opera, orenji, oreru, otiru, orosu, oru [to break], oshieru, osoi, oseroshii, osu, ota, otokonohito, otokonoko, otora, otanashi, otodofsan, otasu, ototoi, ototoshi, (-)owaru, oya, oyogu

*paatii, pan, pan'ya, pasu (suru), peei [page], pen, piano, pinbu, pinpon, posuto, purezento (suru), puuru

raigetsu, rainen, raishuu, raijo, raku, rashii, recnkoto, rei [zero], o-rei, reiboo, reizooko, rekishi, rekoodo, rekoodo-pureyaa, remon, remoneedo, renga, renraku (suru), renshuu (suru), repooto, resutoran, retsu, rika, rikai (suru), ringo, rippa, risoo, risooteki, rokugatsu, rokunensei, roodoo, roodookumai, rooka, roomau, ryokan, ryokoo (suru), ryokoosha, ryokucha, ryoochoo, ryoori (suru), ryoshin, ryuugaku (suru), ryuugakusei, Ryuukyuu

saa, sabaku, sabishii, saiban, sabankan, saibansho, saifu, sagaru, saigaku, saigaru, saigaru [year years old], saigo, saikin, saisho, sakana, sakana, sakaya, o-sake, saki, sakka, sakkaa, sakki, saku [to blow], sakura, sama, samui, san [after names], sandaru, sagaku, sangyoo, sannensei, sanpo (suru), sansei (suru), o-sara, sarainen, saru, o-sashimi, sasow, sasu, o-satoo, satsu [volume], say (o)onara, se, sebiro, seteta, seichoo (suru), seido, seifu, seiji, seijika, seikaku [exact], seikatsu (suru), seiki [century], seisaki, seito, seiyoo, sekai, seki [cough, sea], sekitan, sekken, semar, senaka, sengetsu, senjitsu wa doomo, senkyo (suru), senmenki, (-)sensei, senshu, senshuu, sensoo (suru), sentaku (suru) [laundry], sentakuki, sentakumono, setsumei (suru), o-sewa (suru), shachoo, shain, shakai, shakaishugi, shashin, shatsu, shi [poem], (-)shi [city], shiai (suru), shibai, shibaraku, shichigatsu, shiden, shigatsu, shigoto (suru), shiitsu, shikaru, shikashi, shikataganai, shiken (suru), shikkari (suru), Shikoku, shima, shimaru, shimau [to put away], shimeru, shimbun, shimbunkisha, shingoo, shinjiru, shinkansen, shinnen, shinpai (suru), shinpo (suru), shinpoteki, shinseki, shinsetsu, shinshitsu, shintoo, shinu, o-shi, shiraberu, shiraseru, shirot, shiru, shiryoo, shita, shitagi, shitaku (suru), shitsumon (suru), shitsurei (suru), shitsurei shimashta, shiyakusho, shizen, shizuka, shizumu, shokubutsu, shokubutsuen, shokudoo, shokugyoo, shokuji (suru), shokuryoohin, shoogakkoo, shoogakukin, o-shoogatsu, shoogun, shoogyoo, shookai (suru), shoora, shobetsu, shoosha, Shoowa, o-shooyu, shufu, shujin, shujitsu, shukudai, shumi, shunkan, shugui, shushoo, shusseki (suru), shuu, shukan [custom, week], shuukyoo, shuumatsu, shuushoku (suru), soba, o-soba, sochira, soko, sokode, sokutatsu, sonna, sono, sonohito, sonoue, soo, soo [I am told that], soo [it seems that], soodan (suru), sooji (suru), sooryoohi, sooryoohikan, o-sooshiki, soosuruto, soofuu, soozoo (suru) [to imagine], sorā, sore, soreda, soredemo, soredewa, sorekara, soreni, sorewa, soshite, soichi, soto, sotsugyoo (suru), sotto, ubarashii, sugi, (-)suguru, sugu, suidoo, suiçi, suika, sutchi, suiyoo (bi), sukaiio;

suki, sukii, sukuyaki, sukkari, sukoshi, sukoshizutsu, suku [to empty], sukunai, sumie, sumimasen, sumoo, sumu [to live, end], suna, supootsu, suppai, suppuun, sunippa, suru [to do], suruto, o-sushi, susumu, suteeki, suteru, sutoraki, su [to suck], suugaku, suupu, suwaru, suzushir

tabako, tabakoya, tabemono, taberu, tapi, tabun, tachi [plural], tagaru, tai [desiderative], taifuu, taiben, taikai, taipurait, taisetsu, taishi, taishikan, taishita, taishite [-ni taishite], Taishu, taisoo [gymnastics], taitei, takai, take, o-taku [honoric for house], takusan, takushii, tamago, tamagotame, tana, tanbo, tango, tanjoo, tanomu, tanoshi, tanoshimu, tansu, taoreru, taoru, taosu, tarai, tashika, tatami, tatemong, taseru, tateba, tatsu [to stand up, to break, to leave], o-tazene suru, te, o-tearai, tebukuro, techo, teeburukurosu, teepu, teepurekoodaa, tegami, teinei, teiryuu, tekiito, ten [point, mark], tenjoo, tenjoo, tenkeiteki, tenki, ten, tenpura, tenrankai, o-tera, terebi, tesuto (suru), tessu, o-tetudai, teiyudau, to [door], tobu, tochi, tochuu, todana, todan, todou, todoku, toiretto, toirettopeepaa, tokai, tokei, toki, toku, tokkyuu, tokonoma, tokoru, tokoya, tokubetsu, tokui, tomaru [to stay], tomeru, tomodachi, tonari, too [party], Tooboku, tootooka, Toookyoo, Toookyooto, toori, tooru, o-tosan, toosuto, torakku, toranpu, toreru, tori, toriniku, toru, toru [year], toshokan, totemo, tsuchi, tsugi, tsutachi, tsuite [-ni tsuite], tsukamaeru, tsukamaru, tsukareru, tsukau, tsukeru, tsuki [moon], tsuki [to arrive, to stick], tsukue, tsukuru, tumaru, tsumari, tsumetai, tsumori, tsurai, tsureteiku, tsuretekeru, tsu [angling], o-tsuri, tsuraeru, tsuomeru, tsutsuru, tsuppai, tsuyi, tsuzukeru, tsuzuku

uchi, ue, ugokasu, ugoku, uisshii, ukagau, ukeru, uketori, uma, umai, umareru, umie, umi, un [yes], undoo (suru), undoojo, undookai, unten (suru), untenshu, urayamashii, ureshii, urikiren, uru, urusai, usagi, ushi, ushiro, uta, utau, utsukushii, utsuritsusu, uun [no], uuru, uwagi

wajipien, wafuku, waishatsu, wakai, wakareru, wakarui, wakasake, wake, wakeru, wanpissu, wanwan, warau, wareru, wariai, waru, warui, wasuremono, wasureru, wata (ku)shi, wataru, watasu

yahari, yakamashii, yaku [about, to bake], yakunitata, yakusoku (suru), yakyuu, yama, yameru, yamu, yaoya, yaru, yasayashii, yaseru, (-)yasui, o-yasumi, o-yasumi nasai, yasumi, yatto, yobu, yogoreru, yokka, yoko, yoka, o-yomesan, yomikata, yomu, yonaka, yonensei, yoo [things for], -yoo [like], yoochie, yooofuku, yooofukuya, yooji, yooki, Yooroppa, Yooroppai, yoooshoku, yorokobu, yoroshii, yoroshii desu ka, yoroshiku, o-yuta, kudasai, yoru, yoru [-ni yoru], yotei (suru), yowai, o-yu, yubi, yubiwa, yukata, yuki, yukkuri (suru), yume, yunyu (suru), yureru, yurusu, yushutsu (suru), yuube, yuubinbangoo, yuubinkyoku, yuugata, yuukari, yuukoo [valid], yuumei, yuushoku

zabudou, zannen, zasshi, zebi, zenbu, zentai, zenzen, zero, zoo, zookin, zoori, zuban, zuibun, zutsu, zutsuu, zutto

Notes:
(1) Words to be written in characters are marked with *, and word for which katakana will be used are marked with **. The part of such a word should be written in hiragana, the appropriate syllables are in italic.

aku, akui, nikuya, nimotu,
oyoo, ninki, nioi, niru, *nihi,
boru, nodo, nokoru, nakosu,
nogyoo, noojoo, nooka, *nooto,
nugu, nureru, nurui, nusubu,
nyuu(suru), *nyuuu

echiru, odoroku, odoru, oi
[one, every...], Okinawa,
[ry], okosu [to cause, to wake
up], omoi, omoidasu, omona,
ogaku, ogakuka, ogakukai,
ogoe, ooi, *ookerutu, *ookii,
ondorariya, *Oosutarariyajin,
o, oiru, orosu, oru [to break],
okoronjito, oiokaneko, *otona,
ototoshi, (-)owaru, oya, oyogu,
(suru), *peiji [page], *pea,
prezento(suru), *puuru

aku, raku, rashii, *reenkoto,
rekishi, *rekoodo, *rekoodo,
renraku(suru), renshuu(suru),
rikai(suru), ringo, rippa, risoo,
roodoo, roodookumai, rooka,
ryokoocha, ryokucha, ryoochoo,
ryuugakusei, Ryuukyuu

bankan, tabansha, saifu, *taguru,
saigo, sahin, saisho, sakana,
saka, *sakaa, sakki, saku [to
lean (after names)], *sandra,
sopo(suru), sansei(suru), o-sara,
sasu, o-satoo, -saisu [volume],
schoo(suru), seido, seifu, seiji,
suru), seiki [century], seiseki,
sekitan, sekken, semai, senaka,
senkyo(suru), senmaki,
suru), sentaku(suru) [laundry],
suru), o-sewa(suru), *shachoo,
*shatsu, shi [poem], (-)shi
saraku, *shichigatsu, *shiden,
shikaru, shikashi, shikataganai,
shiku, shima, shimaru, shimau [to
shimbunkisha, shingoo, shinjiru,
shinpo(suru), shinpoteiki, shinseki,
sho, o-shio, shiraberu, shiraseru,
shitaku(suru), shitsumoo(suru),
shiyakusho, shizen, shizuka,
shokudoo, shokugyoo, shokujii,
shoo, shoogakukin, o-shoogatsu,
shoorai, shoosetsu, shoosha,
shutsu, shukudai, shumi, shunkan,
shuu, shukan [custom, week],
soba, o-soba, sochira, soko,
sohito, *sonoue, soo, -soo [I am
lan(suru), sooji(suru), sooryooji,
sooyuu, soozoo(suru) [to
soredeba, sorekara, soreni,
soo(suru), sotto, subarashi, sugi,
suiyoo(bi), *sukaato,

suki, *sukii, sukuyaki, sukkari, sukoshi, sukoshigutsu, suku [to be
empty], sukunai, sumie, sumimaseu, sumios, sumu [to live, to
end], suna, *supootsu, suppai, *suppuu, *surippa, suru [to do],
suruto, o-sushi, susumu, *suteeki, suteru, *sutoraki, sū [to suck],
suugaku, *suupu, suwaru, suzushii

tabako, tabakoya, tabemondo, *taberu, -tabi, tabun, -tachi [plural],
-tagaru, -tai [desiderative], taifuu, taiben, *taikai, *taipuraita,
taisetsu, taishi, taishikan, *taichuu, taishite [-ni taishite], *taishoo,
taiso [gymnastics], taitei, *takeake, o-taku [honorific for home],
takusan, *takushii, tamago, tamani, tame, tana, tabo, tango, tanjoo,
tanomu, tanoshii, tanoshimu, tansu, taoreru, *taoru, taosu, tariru,
tashika, tammi, tatemono, tateru, tatoba, tatsu [to stand up, to be
built, to leave], o-tazune suru, *te, o-tearu, tabakuro, techoo,
*teeburukurosu, *teepu, *teepurekoocha, teyami, teiai, teiryuu,
tekitoo, -ten [point, mark], tenisu, tenjoo, tenkeneki, tenki, tenoo,
tenpura, tenrankai, o-tera, *terebi, *teuto(suru), tetsu, o-tetsudai(san),
tetsudai, to [door], tobu, tochi, tochau, todana, *toden, todokeru,
todoku, *toiretto, *toirettopepaa, *tokai, tokeri, *toki, *tokidoki,
tokkyuu, tokonoma, tokoro, tokoya, tokubetsu, tokui, tomaru [to stop,
to stay], tomeru, tomodachi, tonari, -too [party], *Tooboku, too,
*tooku, *Tookyo, *Tookyooto, toori, tooru, o-toosan, toosu,
*toosuto, *torakku, *toranpu, toreru, tori, toriika, toru, *toshi
[year], toshokan, totemo, *tsuchi, tsugi, *tsutachi, tsuite [-ni tsuite],
tsukamaesu, tsukamaru, tsukareru, tsukau, tsukeru, *tuki [moon,
month], tsuku [to arrive, to stick], tsukue, tsukuru, tsumarana,
tsujari, kumenu, tsumori, tsurai, tsureteku, tsuretekuu, tsuri
[angling], o-tsuri, tsutaeru, tsutomeru, tsutsumu, *tsuyoi,
tsuyokeru, tsuzuku

uchi, ue, ugokasu, ugoku, *utsukii, ukagau, ukeru, uketoru,
uma, umai, *umareru, umie, *umi, un [yes], undoo(suru), undoojoo,
undookai, unten(suru), unteashu, urayamashi, ureshii, urikaru,
uru, urusai, usagi, ushi, ushiro, uta, utau, utsukushii, utsuru,
utsuru, uun [no], *uuru, uwagi

wacijiten, wafuku, *waishatsu, wakai, wakareru, wakaru, waku,
-wake, wakeru, *wanpitsu, wanwan, warau, wareru, wariai, waru,
warui, wasuremono, wasureru, wata(ku)shi, wataru, watashi

yahari, yakamashi, yaku [about, to bake], yakunitatsu,
yakusoku(suru), yakyuu, *yama, yameru, yamu, yaoya, yaru, yasai,
yasashii, yaseru, (-)yasai, *o-yasumi, *o-yasumi nazai, *yasumi,
yatto, yobu, yogoreru, *yokka, yoko, yoku, o-yomesan, yomikata,
yomu, yonaka, yonestei, yoo [things for], -yoo [like], yoochien,
yoofuku, yoofukuya, yooji, *yooku, *Yooroppa, *Yooroppajin,
yooshoku, yorokobu, yoroshii, yoroshii desu ka, yoroshiku o-tsutae
kudasai, yoru, yoru [-ni yoru], yotei(suru), yowai, o-yu, yubi,
yubiwa, yukata, yuki, yukkuri(suru), yume, yunyu(suru), yureru,
yurusu, yushutsu(suru), yuube, yuubinbangoo, yuubinkyoku, yuugata,
*yuukag, yuukoo [valid], yuumei, yuushoku

zabuton, zansen, zasshi, zehi, zenbu, zeniai, *zen, *zero,
zoo, zooku, zoori, zubon, zuibun, -zutsu, zutsuu, zutto

Notes:

(1) Words to be written in characters are marked with *, and words
for which katakana will be used are marked with *. When
part of such word should be written in hiragana, the
appropriate syllables are in italic

(2) The use of brackets:

- (a) *Aizuru* (auru) indicates that both the word *aizuru* and the word *aizurusuru* should be learnt.
- (b) Where homonyms exist, square brackets identify the word(s) to be learnt.

(3) The honorific prefix *o-*

This prefix has been systematically disregarded for the purpose of alphabetical ordering. E.g. *o-cha* is entered under *c*, *o-temari* under *t*, etc.

- (4) Basic numerals (*hitotsu* . . . , *ichi* . . .) and personal names have not been included in the list. Note that many personal names (*Tamura*, *Hanako*, etc.) can be written in the proscribed characters.

Appendix C

日本 桑州 国 京 都 市 区 町
 村 道 橋 駅 山 川 田 木 林 森
 島 港 火 水 土 石 金 雨 花 泉
 西 南 北 右 左 中 上 下 前 外
 年 月 時 何 今 大 小 長 高 古
 新 春 青 白 黒 出 入 林 食 園
 見 書 路 行 人 男 女 子 口 目
 耳 手 足 名 先 生 社 会 学 校
 文 字 語 電 車 円 一 二 三
 四 五 六 七 八 九 十 百 千 万

Written Examination (3 hours)

1. Comprehension of written texts. Understanding of the texts will be checked by a set of multiple choice questions in Japanese. (20%)
2. Controlled composition. A choice of four (4) topics will be offered to be developed in Japanese. A brief Japanese outline will be offered for each topic, but candidates are not restricted to the outlines provided. (15%)
3. Grammar test. The grammatical operations to be performed will include filling in a particle or word, and transformation exercises. (10%)
4. (a) Translation of a continuous passage of Japanese into English.
 (b) Translation of short English sentences into Japanese.
 (c) Transliteration of *kanji* in context into *kana*. (15%)

Total: 60%

Oral Examination

1. Listening comprehension and aural discrimination. (16%)
2. Conversation about everyday life (home, school, sports, hobbies, holidays). (12%)
3. Conversation on a special topic. The candidate should prove his ability to converse freely on a topic of his own selection and interest (e.g. cars, stamps, films, politics). (8%)
4. Pronunciation test by reading aloud a brief passage in either *kana* or Romanisation. (4%)

Total: 40%

lines both the word aisatsu and the
to be learnt.

square brackets identify the word(s)

locally disregarded for the purpose
(o-cha is entered under c, o-toosan

(chi . . .) and personal names
be list. Note that many personal
) can be written in the prescribed

Index C

京 都 市 区 町

川 田 木 林 森

石 金 雨 花 東

中 上 下 前 外

大 小 長 高 古

出 入 林 森 園

男 女 子 口 目

生 社 会 学 校

車 円 一 二 三

九 十 百 千 万

Written Examination (1 hour)

1. Comprehension of written texts: Understanding of the texts will be checked by a set of multiple choice questions in Japanese. (20%)
2. Controlled composition. A choice of four (4) topics will be offered to be developed in Japanese. A brief Japanese outline will be offered for each topic, but candidates are not restricted to the outlines provided. (15%)
3. Grammar test. The grammatical operations to be performed will include filling in a particle or word, and transformation exercises. (10%)
4. (a) Translation of a continuous passage of Japanese into English;
(b) Translation of short English sentences into Japanese;
(c) Transliteration of *kanji* in context into *kana*. (15%)

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4. Pronunciation test by reading aloud a brief passage in either *kana* or Romanisation. (4%)

Total: 40%

135

Syllabuses for 1976. Year Eleven
Advisory Syllabuses and Matriculation Examination Syllabuses
Adelaide: The Public Examinations Board of South Australia, 1976.
 Pp. 188-190.

JAPANESE.

The examination in this subject is conducted in South Australia by courtesy of the Victorian Universities and Schools Examination Board.

Examination.

One 3-hour paper and an oral examination.

Aim of the course.

The aim of the course is to achieve basic competence in Standard Japanese. Grammatical rules and vocabulary used mainly in literary or highly formal language will not be studied at this stage. The range of vocabulary and grammar studied in the course should enable the student to converse in Japanese on everyday topics and to develop the ability to speak the language in at least one field of his own interest. In addition to achieving basic competence in the spoken language the students will learn to read and write in Japanese to the extent specified below, but it is not expected that on completing the course the students will be able to read Japanese beyond the prescribed range.

Throughout the course emphasis should be on the use of the language in actual speech situations appropriate to students at this level.

Grammar.

Appendix A indicates the range of grammatical rules to be taught during the course. The student will be expected to be able to use all listed items in their basic usage but no knowledge of the grammatical terminology will be required.

Vocabulary.

The minimum lexicon includes approximately 1,200 basic words. Appendix B (Available from the Public Examinations Board on application).

Reading and writing.

Hiragana and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C (available from the Public Examinations Board on application) gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their reading is indicated by furigana.

Appendix A: Grammar.

1. Pronunciation.

Sounds, accentuation (consistent pronunciation of the accent is never not be required), reduction ("dropping") of vowels (ski desu, arimasu, etc.).

2. Verbs.

Affirmative Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu daroo), Imperative (yomu), Desiderative (yomutai, yomitagaru), Stem (yomu), Conditional (yomeba), Alternative (yomubari), Concessive (yomu nara, yomu to), Concessive (yomide, imasu), Passive (yomareru), Causative (yomaseru), Passive-Causative (yomasereru), Potential (yomeru).
 Auxiliary Verbs: iru, aru, shinau, iku, kuru, oku, miru, kureru, kuyaru, ageru, morau, itadaku.
 Relative Clauses (yomu hito, Tanaka san ga/ni yomu hon).
 Other expressions: yomu koso shirenai, yomu mo da, yomoo yonde mo ii, yomanakute mo ii, yomeba (yonde wa), ikenai/yomanakereba (yomanakute wa), iketnai/naranai.

3. Adjectives.

Affirmative Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (akai daroo), Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari), Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to), Concessive (akakute mo), Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon), Nouns formed from adjectives (aka ookisa), Pronouns (okina, etc., aru, tachita, etc., kono, konna, etc.).

4. Copula.

Affirmative Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo), Gerund (de), Alternative (dattari), Conditional (dattara, nara), Concessive (de mo).

5. Nouns.

Common Nouns, Adverbial Nouns (kyoo, sabita, goyo, etc.), Adjectival Nouns (quasi-adjectives: kirei, yuuwaku, etc.), Verbal Nouns (denkyoo suru, etc.), Auxiliary Nouns: place (mae, soba, etc.), time (toki, etc.), nominal (no, koto, incl. koto ga, aru, koto ni suru, koto ga desuru), other (yuu, tokoro, sumori, hazu, tame, wake, bakari, etc.).

6. Pronouns and Deictics.

Personal Pronouns (watai/ku/shi, boku, anata, kimi, konohito, ano hito, kare, kanojo; plural forms), Demonstratives (kore, koko, kochira, koo; the same for kore, kochira, doko), Interrogatives (nani, dare/donata, dore, doko, dotechi, dochira, doko ito, ikutsu, ikura, naze, tooshite), Indefinites (nani, dare, doko, etc.).

**1976 Year Eleven
Languages and Matricu-
lation Syllabuses,
Public Examinations
Australia 1976.**

Exam is conducted in South Australia by
States and Schools Examination Board.

Examination.

Students should achieve basic competence in Standard Japanese vocabulary used mainly in literary or formal Japanese. The range of Japanese to be studied at this stage. The range of Japanese in the course should enable the student to read and understand Japanese on a wide range of everyday topics and to develop the ability to speak in the field of his own interest. In addition to the spoken language the students will learn to read the written language to the extent specified below, but it is not necessary that the students will be able to read Japanese in all the range.

Students should be on the use of the language appropriate to students at this level.

Students should be expected to be able to use all listed items of Japanese. Knowledge of the grammatical terminology will

Vocabulary

The minimum list on its level approximately 1,000 basic words given in Appendix B. (Available from the Public Examinations Board on application.)

Reading and writing

Hiragana and katakana will be mastered for both reading and writing. Appendix C. (Available from the Public Examinations Board on application) gives 100 basic characters which will be studied for use both in reading and writing. Students should be able to read texts with a larger number of characters if their reading is indicated by hiragana.

Appendix A Grammar

1. Pronunciation

Sounds, accentuation (consistent pronunciation of the accent will however not be required), reduction ("deshinin") of vowels (aki, des, shite ni arimasu, etc.).

2. Verbs

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (yomu, dakari, Esaku tate, osomori), Desiderative (yomille, shobitagaru), Shin (yomu), Gerund (yomu yomimagara), Alternative (yomari), Conditional (yomeba, yomazara, yomu nara, yomu to), Concessive (yonde mo),

Passive (yomarete), Causative (yomaseru), Passive-Causative (yomasereru), Potential (yomareru).

Auxiliary Verbs: iku, aru, shinou, iku, kuru, oku, miru, kuzuru/kudasaru, yami/ageru, merau/itadaku.

Relative Clauses (yomu hito, Tanaka san ga, mo yonde hon).

Other expressions: yomu hito shiranai yomu hito da, yomoo to suru, yonde mo ii, yomakute mo ii, yomeba (yonde wa), ikemai/naranai, yomanaikeru ba (yomakute wa), ikemai/naranai.

3. Adjectives

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (akai, dango).

Adverbial (akaku, akakute), Alternative (akakattari), Conditional (akakereba, akakattara, akai nara, akai to), Concessive (akakute mo).

Adjectives as modifiers (akai hon), Nouns formed from adjectives (aka, ookisa), Propositions (ookina, etc.: aru, tashita, etc.: komi, kanba, etc.).

4. Copula

Affirmative, Negative, Present, Past, Presumptive (daroo), Gerund (de), Alternative (dattari), Conditional (dattara, nara, da to), Concessive (de mo).

5. Nouns

Common Nouns (kyoo, ashita, goyo, etc.), Adverbial Nouns (kyoo, ashita, goyo, etc.), Adjectival Nouns (quasi-adjectives: kirei, yamurai, etc.), Verbal Nouns (shimayoo suru, etc.), Auxiliary Nouns (mae, uba, etc.), time (toki, etc.), nominalizers (no, koto, incl. koto ga aru, koto ni suru, koto ga dekiru), other (hoo, yoo, tokoro, ezumori, hazu, tame, wake, bakari, etc.).

6. Pronouns and Deictics

Personal Pronouns (wata(ku)shi, boku, anata, kimi, konohito, sonohito, ano hito, kare, kanojo; plural forms), Demonstratives (kore, kono, kochi, kochira, koo; the same for sore, are), Interrogatives (nani, dare/donatu, dori, doko, duchi, dochira, doko/daga, itsu, ikutsu, ikura, naze, dooshite), Indefinites (nan demo, dare ka, etc.).

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7. Numerals.

Basic numerals, fractions.

Counting of time (centuries, years, months, weeks, days, hours, minutes), distance (kilometres, metres, centimetres, millimetres), weight (tonnes, kilograms, grams), money (Japanese and Australian).

Counting with the following suffixes: bai (... times), ban (ordinary numerals), ban (nights), dai (cars), dai (... time), hai (cups), hiki (animals), hon (sticks, etc.), kōza (lessons), kai (... times), kai (floors), kashū (places), ken (houses), ko (eggs, etc.), mai (flat things), peiji (pages), ri/nin (people), sai (age), satsu (books).

Names for months (ichigatsu, etc.), years of study (ichinensetsu, etc.).

8. Adverbs.

9. Particles and Suffixes.

Case particles (ga, o, ni, e, de, to, yori, kara, made, no, zero).

Connective particles (to, ya, ka).

Other particles (wa, mo, koso, sugi, demo, shika, dake, bakari, nado).

Suffixes: soo da (yomisoo da, akasoo da), soo da (yomu soo da, akai soo da), rashii (yomurashii, kodomorashii), yasui/nikut (yomiyasui).

Final particles (ka, yo, ne).

10. Connectives.

Response words (hai, ee, un, iie, ie, uun, saa, maa).

Conjunctions (soshite, sorekara, soosurito, surito, shikashi, keredomo, soredemo, deno, dakara, desukara, soredede, soredewa, dewa, tatoeba, tsunari, nagehiron, naruhodo, sorewa jitsuwa).

Connecting particles (kara, node, noni, to, keredomo, ga, ka).

11. Honorifics.

Honorific styles: da-style, desu-style, de gozaimasu-style* (de gozaimasu-style—passive knowledge only).

Reference to superiors: Verbs: o-yoni ni naru and irregular forms (irasharu, etc.), requests and commands (yonde kudasai, o-yoni kudasai). Nouns: the prefix o-yu-kata (for hito), donata (for dare).

Reference to other than superiors: Verbs: neutral forms (yomu, yomimasu), "humble" forms (gozaimasu, mooshimasu, etc.—passive knowledge only).

AIMS

1. To develop the student's ability to comprehend and use Japanese within a limited range of structures and situations.
2. To develop within the student an understanding of the physical setting of Japanese life and the underlying thought patterns of the culture.
3. To encourage the student to pursue further study of the peoples of East Asia.

SYLLABUS

Students should be able to use vocabulary normally required for the following situations:

Sports, Shopping, City and Country, Transport, Food, School Life, Entertainment, Family, Animals, Seasons and Festivals.

The range of structures should be limited to the following:

1. Basic Structures

(a) Equational sentences

KORE WA HON DESU.

(KORE WA HON JA ARIMASEN.

(KORE WA HON DE WA ARIMASEN.

Students should be familiar with both forms of negative.

(b) Sentences indicating location and existence

(i) KOKO NI HON GA ARIMASU.

UCHI NI KODOMO GA IMASU.

(ii) HON WA KOKO NI ARIMASU.

KODOMO WA HEYA NI IMASU.

(c) Sentences involving transitive verbs.

NIPPONJIN WA EIGO O HANASHIMASU.

Western Australian Tertiary
Admissions Examinations Manual
for the Year 1976. Part Two,
Syllabuses. Nedlands: Tertiary
Institutions Service Centre.
Pp. 177-185.

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(ii) HON WA KOKO NI ARIMASU.

KODOMO WA HEYA NI IMASU.

(c) Sentences involving transitive verbs

NIPPONJIN WA FIGO O HANASHIMASU.

(d) Sentences involving verbs of motion.

(i) Indicating direction or destination.

KODOMO WA GAKKŌ E/NI IKIMASU

(ii) Indicating purpose.

KODOMO WA SAMPO NI IKIMASU.

KODOMO WA HON O KAI NI IKIMASU.

(e) Sentences involving SUKI/KIRAI, HOSHII, JŌZU, HETA.

TOMODACHI WA O-CHA GA SUKI DESU.

(f) Sentences involving DEKIRU, WAKARU and MIERU.

ASOKO NI YAMA GA MIEMASU.

(g) Sentences with TO IIMASU.

ONAMAE WA NAN TO IIMASU KA

BURAJUN TO IIMASU.

(h) Comparisons

DOCHIRA NO HŌ GA ŌKII DESU KA.

(i) Reported speech

TO IIMASU, etc.

(DA) SO DESU.

(j) Indirect questions

SOKO NI SUNDE IRU KA SHIRIMASEN.

ŌSAKA NI SUNDE IRU KA DŌ KA SHIRIMASEN.

(k) Indirect requests

SUKOSHI MATSU YŌ NI ITTE KUDASAI.

(l) "So that"

KAZE GA HAIRU YŌ NI MADO O AKETE KUDASAI.

(m) Purpose with verbs of motion.

Extension of 1 (d) (ii) above to include use of TAME NI.

2. Verb Forms

(a) Present and past tenses, polite forms (-MASEN, -MASHITA/-MASENDESHITA)

(b) Probable future tense, -MASHŌ form only.
FIGA E IKIMASHŌ KA. HAI, IKIMASHŌ.

(c) -TE form with all types of verbs.

(d) -TE IIMASU; -TE IMASHITA.

(i) To indicate progressive action.
GOHAN O TABETE IIMASU. (He is eating rice.)

(ii) To indicate a state resulting from an action.
Verbs such as IKU; KURU, HAIRU (return), TATSU, KOSHIKAKERU).
NIPPON E TETE IIMASU. (He has returned from Japan.)

(iii) Special use with verbs such as SHIRU, OMOU, SUMU, TSUTOMERU, MOTSU, URU.

(e) Conjunctive use of the -TE form.

(i) -TE IKIMASU; -TE KIMASU, -TE KAERIMASU.

(ii) To join sentences.

(f) Imperative mood: -TE KUDASAI.

(g) Desiderative forms: -TAI DESU/-TAKU MASEN.

(h) SURU-type verbs.

(i) NARU and SURU.

ŌKIKU NARIMASU/SHIMASU
KIREI NI NARIMASU/SHIMASU
KŌSOKU DŌRO NI NARIMASU/SHIMASU

(j) Transitive verbs of Motion.

MICHI WO TŌRIMASU.
KAIDAN WO AGARU etc.

2 Verb Forms

(a) Present and past tenses, polite forms (-MASU, -MASEN, -MASHITA/-MASENDESHITA).

(b) Probable future tense, -MASHŌ form only, as in

FIGA E IKIMASHŌ KA, IIAI, IKIMASHŌ

(c) -TE form with all types of verbs.

(d) -TE IMASU, -TE IMASHITA.

(i) To indicate progressive action.

GOHAN O TABETE IMASU (He is eating rice.)

(ii) To indicate a state resulting from an action (with verbs such as IKU, KURU, HAIRU, KAERU (return), TATSU, KOSHIKAKERU).

NIPPON E ITTE IMASU (He has gone to Japan.)

(iii) Special use with verbs such as SHIRU, OBERU, SUMU, TSUTOMERU, MOTSU, URU.

(e) Conjunctive use of the -TE form.

(i) -TE IKIMASU, -TE KIMASU, -TE KAERIMASU.

(ii) To join sentences.

(f) Imperative mood: -TE KUDASAI.

(g) Desiderative forms: -TAI DESU/-TAKU ARIMASEN.

(h) SURU-type verbs.

(i) NARU and SURU.

ŌKIKU NARIMASU/SHIMASU

KIREI NI NARIMASU/SHIMASU

KŌSOKU DŌRO NI NARIMASU/SHIMASU

(j) Transitive verbs of Motion.

MICHI WO TŌRIMASU.

KAIDAN WO AGARU etc.

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(k) Negative imperative.

SŌ SHINAI DE KUDASAI

(l) Permission and refusal.

HAIITE MO II DESU

HAIITE WA IKEMASEN

(m) Obligation.

NAKEREBA NARIMASEN/IKEMASEN

NAKUTE MO II DESU

(n) Possibility.

KA MO SHIREMASEN

(o) Intention and expectation.

TSUMORI DESU

HAZU DESU

(p) Comparison.

KISHA DE IKU HŌ GA YASUI DESU

(q) Giving and receiving.

MORAU/ITADAKU

YARU/AGERU

KURERU/KUDASARU

(r) Paired verbs.

- TE MIRU/KURU/OKU/SHIMAU

(s) Probable future tense.

(t) - TARA Form.

(u) - TARI Form.

(v) Verbal suffixes.

- SUGIMASU

- NIKUI/YASUI DESU

- RASHII DESU

3. Particles

(a) Postpositions with nouns.

(i) WA as a topic indicator.

(ii) NI as a location and destination indicator, and including the following uses:

POSUTO NI TEGAMI O DASHIMASHITA

TANAKA SAN NI AIMASHITA

TOMODACHI NI MISEMASHITA

TANAKA SAN NI OSHIEMASHITA/
NARAIMASHITA

TANAKA SAN NI KASHIMASHITA/
KARIMASHITA

TANAKA SAN NI KOTAEMASHITA

(iii) O as a direct object indicator, including with verbs such as ARUKU.

MICHI O ARUKIMASU. (He walks ak street.)

(iv) DE as a location-of-action indicator.

DOKO DE KAIMASHITA KA

and as an instrument indicator.

O-HASHI DE TABEMASU NIHONGO

NIHONGO DE KOTAEMASU

KI DE UCHI O TSUKURIMASU

NIHONGO DE KIKIMASHITA

MICHI WA HITO DE IPPAI DESU

FUNE WA TAIFU DE DEMASEN DESU

HITORI DE IKIMASU

KORE DE II DESU

(v) GA, E, KARA, MADE, MO, MO
NO (indicating its use in such phrases
WATAKUSHI NO DESU.)

(vi) TO
TOMODACHI TO SAMPO NI IKIMASU
TO ISSHO NI

(b) Conjunctions.

TO, YA, SOSHITE, GA, KIEREDOMO, HI
(SHIMASU) KARA.

(c) -DE KARA

(d) Subordinating conjunctions.

(i) TOKU, UCHI, AIDA, WAIE, AITO

(ii) AWE GA FURU TO

(iii) NO NI

(iv) NO DE

TANAKA SAN NI OSHIEMASHITA
NARAIMASHITA
TANAKA SAN NI KASHIMASHITA
KARIMASHITA
TANAKA SAN NI KOTAEMASHITA

(iii) O as a direct object indicator, including its use with verbs such as ARUKU.
MICHIO ARUKIMASU. (He walks along the street.)

(iv) DE as a location-of-action indicator
DOKO DE KAIMASHITA KA
and as an instrument indicator.

OHASHI DE TABEMASU. NIHONGO DE
NIHONGO DE KOTAEMASU.
KI DE UCHI O TSUKURIMASU.
NIHONGO DE KIKIMASHITA.
MCHI WA HITO DE IPPAI DESU.
FUNE WA TAIJU DE DEMASEN DESHITA.
HITORI DE IKIMASU.
KORE DE II DESU.

(v) GA E KARA MADE, MO, NO, NO
NO (indicating its use in such phrases as
WATAKUSHI NO DESU.)

(vi) TO
TOMODACHI TO SAMPO NI IKIMASHITA
TO ISSHO NI

(b) Conjunctions.

TO, YA, SOBHITE, GA, KIRIYEDOMU, SHI,
(SHINASU) KARA

(c) TE KARA

(d) Subordinating conjunctions.

(i) TOKI, UCHI, AIDA, WANE, AITO
(ii) ANTE GA FURU TO
(iii) NO NI
(iv) NO DE

4. Nouns

Common and proper nouns.

The plural suffix -TACHI, including its use with proper nouns, e.g. TANAKA SAN-TACHI

Use of KOTO and NO to convert verbs/sentences into nouns.

KOTO GA ARIMASU
KOTO GA DEKIMASU.

5. Pronouns

(a) Personal: WATAKUSHI, ANATA, WATAKUSHI-TACHI, ANATA-TACHI.

(b) Demonstrative: KORE, SORE, ARE.

(c) Interrogative: NANJI, DARE/DONATA, DOKO, ITSU, NAZE.

(d) DOCHIRA, DORE.

(e) Indefinite pronouns.
DARE WA, DARE MO etc.
DARE DE MO, etc.

6. Adjectives

(a) Demonstrative: KONO, SONO, ANO

(b) Interrogative: DONNA, NAN NO.

(c) True and NA-type adjectives used as follows:

AKAI HON DESU.

AKAI DESU.

AKAKU (WA) ARIMASEN

AKAI DESHITA.

KIREI NA HON DESU.

KIREI DESU.

KIREI JA/DE WA ARIMASEN.

KIREI DESHITA.

(d) Past tense

OKIKATTA, etc.

(e) -TE-form

OKIKUTE, etc.

(f) Superlative with ICHIBAN

(g) DONO, DOCHIRA, NO.

7. Adverbs

(a) -KU form of true adjectives and the use of NI with NA-type adjectives.

(b) MO, MADA

MO KAIMASHITA KA
MADA KIMASEN

(c) MO with quantitative words

MO ICHIDO, etc.

(d) TOTEMO, ZENZEN, etc.

(e) ZUISU

(f) SHIKA, DAKE

Numerals

(a) Both series: HIJUTSU, FUJUTSU, ... TO
ICHI, NI, ... ICHIMAN

(b) Quantity

(i) Classifiers. See vocabulary list.

(ii) TAKUSAN, SUKOSHI, ZEMBU, MINNA

(c) The date

(i) Year (Western style), months, days of the month, days of the week.

(ii) Some understanding of the Japanese year system (SHUNWA, TAISHO, MEIJI)

(iii) The use of NI.

(d) Time of day

(i) GOZEN and GOGO

(ii) Hours and minutes. The use of GORO.

(iii) The use of NI.

(e) Duration of time

(i) ICHUIKAN, IKKAGETSU, etc. The use of GURAI.

(ii) The use of DONOGURAI.

The following 250 characters are prescribed. The numbers quoted are those in E. Sakade (ed.) A Guide to Reading and Writing Japanese Tuttle & Co.

Adverbs

- (a) -KU form of true adjectives and the use of NI with NA-type adjectives.
- (b) MŌ, MADA
MŌ KAIMASHITA KA
MADA KIMASEN
- (c) MŌ with quantitative words.
MŌ ICHIDO, etc.
- (d) TOTEMO, ZENZEN, etc.
- (e) ZUTSU
- (f) SHIKA, DAKE

Numerals

- (a) -Itoth series HIOTSU, FUTATSU, . . . TŌ
ICHI, NI . . . ICHIMAN
- (b) Quantity.
 - (i) Classifiers. See vocabulary list.
 - (ii) TAKUSAN, SUKOSHI, ZEMBU, MINNA.
- (c) The date.
 - (i) Year (Western style), months, days of the month, days of the week.
 - (ii) Some understanding of the Japanese year system.
(SHŌWA, TAISHŌ, MEIJI).
 - (iii) The use of NI.
- (d) Time of day.
 - (i) GOZEN and GOGO
 - (ii) Hours and minutes. The use of GORO.
 - (iii) The use of NI.
- (e) Duration of time.
 - (i) ICHIKAN, IKKAGETSU, etc. The use of GURAL
 - (ii) The use of DONOGURAL

The following 250 characters are prescribed. The numbers quoted are those in F. Sakade (ed.) A Guide to Reading and Writing Japanese Tuttle & Co.

1-140 excepting 49, 64, 71, 72, 74, 77, 83, 99, 103, 128, 148, then including:

151, 152, 153, 154, 156	247, 249, 251, 252, 253
158, 160, 161, 163, 164	256, 260, 261, 263, 265
166, 170, 173, 175, 179	266, 269, 270, 271, 273
181, 182, 184, 186, 190	275, 276, 279, 281, 282
192, 193, 194, 195, 198	284, 286, 287, 288, 292
199, 203, 205, 207, 208	294, 296, 297, 300, 301
209, 210, 211, 214, 218	306, 313, 314, 318, 319
220, 221, 222, 223, 224	320, 322, 326, 329, 331
225, 226, 227, 229, 230	335, 338, 351, 373, 392
231, 232, 234, 235, 238	394, 397, 404, 413, 422
239, 241, 242, 244, 246	424, 488, 760, 797

EXAMINATION DETAILS

The examination will consist of an Oral Examination and One 3-hour written paper.

The examinations of spoken and written language are to receive equal weighting.

Spoken Language Examination

1. Aural Comprehension.
A series of passages ranging from short dialogues to longer passages. To be tested by multiple choice questions or short answer questions. 25%
2. Reading.
Candidates to read aloud a short passage which includes both kana and kanji. 5%
3. Conversation.
A conversation with the examiner within the range of topics outlined at the beginning of the syllabus. 10%
4. Composition.
Candidates to describe orally a story based on a series of pictures. 10%

Written Language Examination

- A three hour paper consisting of:
1. Comprehension.
A series of passages with questions of a short answer or multiple choice type. 15%

2. Composition

(a) An essay of about 200 words on a topic within the list specified.

(b) A short composition based on a series of pictures. 15%

3. Kanji

Test of the use of the specified kanji in context. 10%

4. Grammar

Questions on the specified grammar. 10%

The Schools Board of Tasmania
Higher School Certificate
Manual for 1976. Sandy Bay:
Schools Board of Tasmania 1976
p. 163.

JAPANESE

LEVEL III Division 1

This subject will be assessed internally.
The syllabus will be determined by the schools.

LEVEL III

The Schools Board of Tasmania will arrange for candidates to be examined on the Higher School Certificate Japanese Syllabus by the Victorian Universities and Schools Examination Board.

74, 77, 83, 99, 103, 128.
 247, 249, 251, 252, 253
 256, 260, 261, 263, 265
 266, 269, 270, 271, 273
 275, 276, 279, 281, 282
 284, 286, 287, 288, 292
 294, 296, 297, 300, 301
 306, 313, 314, 318, 319
 320, 322, 326, 329, 331
 335, 338, 351, 373, 392
 394, 397, 404, 413, 422
 424, 488, 760, 797

2. Composition
 - (a) An essay of about 200 words on a topic within the list specified.
 - (b) A short composition based on a series of pictures. 15%
3. Kanji

Test of the use of the specified kanji in context. 10%
4. Grammar

Questions on the specified grammar 10%

in Oral Examination and
 written language are to

from short dialogues to
 by multiple choice questions
 25%

passage which includes
 5%

er within the range of
 the syllabus. 10%

story based on a series
 10%

of a short answer or
 15%

The Schools Board of Tasmania
 Higher School Certificate
 Manual for 1976, Sandy Bay:
 Schools Board of Tasmania 1975,
 p. 165

JAPANESE

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