

**AN APPLICATION OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR IN
THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH
AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

**A Thesis
Presented to
the Department of English
Sanata Dharma
Teachers' Training Institute**

**In Partial Fulfilment
of the Requirements for the
Sardjana Degree**

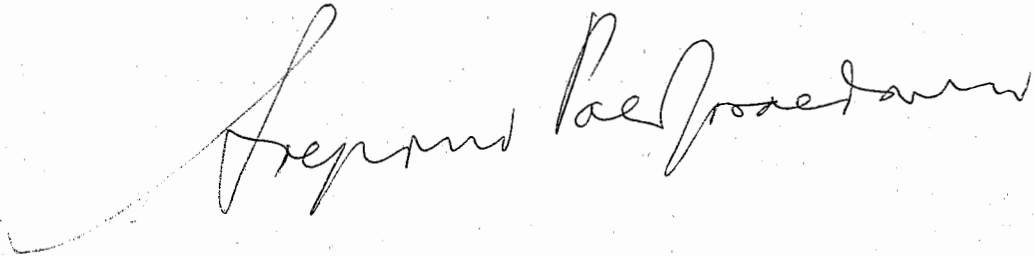


**by
John Damascenus Soenardi**

**August 1971
Jogjakarta.**

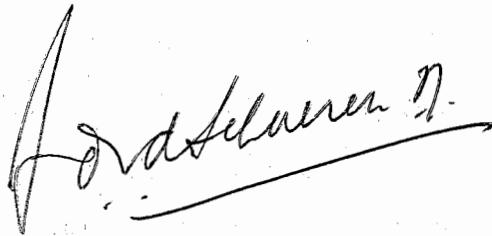
Approved by

I.



(Mr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo Ph.D).

II.



(Rev. d.v.d. Schueren S.J. , M.A.).

Rector of the I.K.I.P.

Sanata Dharma



(Drs. J.I.G.M. Drost S.J.)

Head of the English Dept.

I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma



(Drs. E. Bolsius S.J.)

Contents

	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
Ch. I TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR	3
Ch. II A CONCRETE EXAMPLE OF THE APPLICATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH	17
2.1. A General Survey on Rutherford's Book.	17
2.2. Preliminary Units of Rutherford's Book	24
Ch. III A SPECIFYING DISCUSSION ON RUTHERFORD'S BOOK : ...	33
3.1. Inflections	33
3.1.1. Inflections for number	34
3.1.2. Inflections for tense	34
3.1.3. Posses ive inflections	36
3.1.4. Objective inflections	36
3.1.5. Inflections for comparison	37
3.1.6. Inflections for mood	39
3.2. Word-order	40
3.2.1. Phrase word-order	41
3.2.2. Clause word-order	44
3.2.3. Sentence word-order	47
3.3. Word Classification	52
3.3.1. Verbs	53
3.3.2. Adjectives	57
3.3.3. Adverbs	58
3.3.4. Prearticles	61
3.3.5. Conjunctions	61
3.3.6. Reflexive and emphatic pronouns	65
3.3.7. Prepositions	66
3.3.8. Modals	67
3.3.9. Negatives and adversatives	68
Ch. IV CONCLUSION	70
SELECTED BIBIOGRAPHY	72



PREFACE

For this thesis writing I have gathered materials from a variety of books, magazines, and articles and also from lecture notes especially on linguistics and methods. Above all, beneficial encouragement and stimulation have been favoured by the helpful teachers of the English Department of I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma in order to accomplish this effort.

Considerable gratitude is due to Mr. Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo Ph. D. for his scholarly criticism and practical suggestions and for allowing me to use his library books. To the Reverend F. de van der Schueren S.J., M.A. I am deeply indebted for his great help and valuable corrections.

My sincere indebtedness is also extended to those who have kindly given assistance for the completion of this thesis.

INTRODUCTION

For the last few decades linguistics has progressed rapidly. Two outstanding trends have already appeared. Structuralism or modern linguistics was pioneered by Leonard Bloomfield. The milestone of this trend was established by the publication of Bloomfield's Language in the year 1933.

In the meantime transformational-generative grammar, which was introduced by Noam Chomsky, came into existence. While structuralism is termed as "taxonomic" and "behaviouristic", transformational grammar can be labelled "mentalistic". Chomsky that "any interesting generative grammar will be dealing, for the most part, with mental processes that are far beyond the level of actual or even potential consciousness".¹

Language is "langue" rather than just linguistic form produced by individuals. Transformationalists regard sentences uttered by individuals as merely a "performance" of the real language.² Language is thus "collection of sentences that a fluent person would be able to produce or comprehend, had he the time, energy and motivation".³ A language is never completely produced by an individual. A language covers the total number of sentences produced by all individuals who use language.

Because a language functions as a device for communication, it concerns not only "a system of arbitrary vocal symbols",⁴

1. Noam Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (Massachusetts 1965) p.8.

2. Ibid, p.4.

3. D. Terence Langendoen, The Study of Syntax- The Generative Transformational Approach to the Structure of American English (New York 1969) p.1

4. Benard Bloch and George L. Trager, Outline of Linguistic Analysis (Baltimore 1942) p.5.

but also meaning that is, something conveyed in the communication. Hence in studying a foreign language a student must also take into account something that underlies the actual or spoken sentences.

Structuralism has made some contributions to foreign language teaching. The so-called aural-oral approach is a conspicuous outcome of this trend. This approach puts a heavy stress on habit formation by giving a lot of oral drills in the target language.

The objective of this writing is to find out whether transformationalgenerative grammar can also contribute language teaching, especially foreign language teaching. I will not point out what transformationalists cannot do or the disadvantages of methods suggested by structuralists. I will try to suggest how to apply the findings of transformationalgenerative grammar into the teaching of English to Indonesian students. For this purpose I use very much material taken from a book which was prepared by William E. Rutherford, to whom I express special gratitude.⁵

There have been a few schools of transformational-generative grammar, the one I use here is the transformational-generative grammar as advocated by Noam Chomsky in 1965 in his book entitled Aspects of the Theory of Syntax.

5. B. William Rutherford, Modern English (New York 1968).

Chapter I .

TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR .

Noam Chomsky assumes that there is a sort of creativity in language. This is because of the fact that " a system of recursive processes " is used in producing sentences.⁶ By applying repeatedly a limited number of " means " we can produce an unlimited number of sentences. To describe this phenomenon Chomsky uses the term " generate ". The term " generate " here does not refer to quite a new production of sentences that mirrors the speaker's originality but rather to the production of all possible well-formed sentences in a particular structural pattern. A generative grammar does not create novel sentences of a language— grammatical or ungrammatical— to express ideas or purposes but picks out specific grammatical sentences to replace the general S (SENTENCE) which stands for all well-formed sentences.

Unlike structuralism, a generative grammar distinguishes competence from performance. Competence is " the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language " and performance is defined as " the actual use of the language in concrete situations."⁷ It should be borne in mind that never does performance reflect competence perfectly. Performance is the actual language, that is, what is uttered by an individual while competence is the ideal language which is mastered only by an ideal speaker-hearer. While structuralists postulate that the actual language is " speech ", or " performance " if we borrow a term from transformationalists, we may conclude that transformationalists assert that language involves more than just performance. Language includes competence as well as performance.

" A grammar of a language purports to be a description

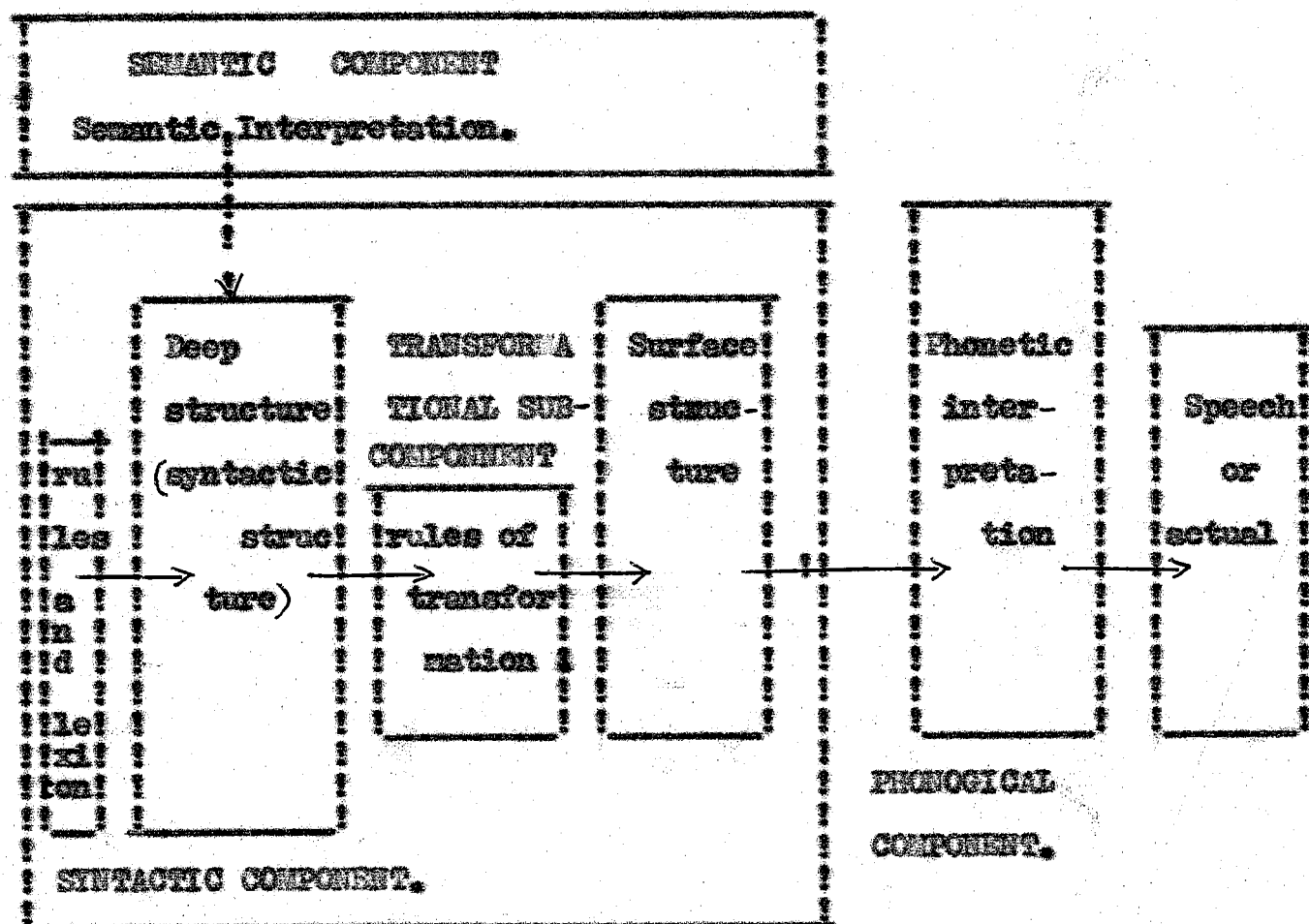
6. Noam Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (Massachusetts 1965) , p.8.

7. Ibid, p.4.

of the ideal speaker-hearer's intrinsic competence.⁸

Chomsky says further that "a grammar can be regarded as a theory of language; it is descriptively adequate to the extent it correctly describes the intrinsic competence of the idealized native speaker".⁹ Hence what transformationalists want to describe in a grammar is competence which underlies actual speech, where as structuralists put forward a grammar which is just the description of speech.

The organization of generative grammar may be described in a nutshell in the following way. A generative grammar is "a system of rules that can iterate to generate an indefinitely large number of structures. This system of rules can be analyzed into three major components of a generative grammar: syntactic, phonological, and semantic components."¹⁰



8. Ibid, p.4

9. Noam Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (Massachusetts 1965) p.24.

10. Ibid, pp 15-16

The syntactic component contains a finite set of rules and a finite lexicon. It generates an infinite set of syntactic structures. Each syntactic structure has lexical items as parts. (Each lexical item has its inherent semantic and phonological properties).

The syntactic component thus embodies the creative power of the grammar. This creative power permits a finite system to generate an endless set.

The semantic component assigns a semantic interpretation to the sentence as Chomsky says: it "relates a structure generated by the syntactic component to a certain semantic representation".¹¹

It assigns a semantic interpretation to the sentence as a whole as well as to each of its constituents. The semantic component operates on each of the syntactic structures specified by the syntactic component. Its semantic interpretation is based on the inherent semantic properties of lexical items, and also on the syntactic organization of the lexical items.

The phonological component assigns a phonetic interpretation to the sentence. It assigns a phonetic interpretation to the sentence as a whole and to each of its constituents. The phonological component analogously operates on each of the syntactic structures specified by the syntactic component and, on the basis of the inherent phonological properties of their lexical items plus the syntactic organization of these. The input of the phonological component is the surface structure.

The syntactic component has actually two parts : base and transformational subcomponents. The BASE subcomponent

11. Ibid, pp.16

consists of the rules and a lexicon which together generate the infinite set of syntactic structures or DEEP STRUCTURES. These are the real inputs to the semantic component of the grammar. A deep structure is made up of set of "base phrase-markers"¹². Any sentence has a sequence of base phrase-markers underlying it and this sequence is called the basis of the sentence.

The TRANSFORMATIONAL subcomponent transforms the DEEP STRUCTURE into the SURFACE STRUCTURE. It consists of rules which give rise to various grammatical transformations. It is these transformations which determine the kind of sentence we want to produce. By applying transformational rules to a set of base phrase-markers we may produce statements, questions, imperatives, conditionals and sentence in various tenses. In short, the transformational subcomponent generates a sentence from the basis; it generate a surface stricture from a deep structure.

The deep structure of a sentence is a representation of the meaning of the sentence. The surface structure of a sentence is the thing that we really speak or write.

The most distinctive feature of this grammar is what we call "grammatical transformations" because the surface structure of a sentence is certainly determined by repeated applications of these transformations. Furthermore by recursive aplication of transformations to kernel sentences—which are usually defined as declarative, affirmative and simple — we derive a large number of sentences of various constructions. We may get requests, commands, negative sentences, interrogative sentences, passive sentences, compound sentences; and comlex sentences. These transformations work upon constituents of a sentences, and thus the term

12. Noam Chomsky, Aspects of the Theory of Syntag(Massa-
chuseetts 1965), p.16.

"transformation" refers to a set of rules that alters or rearranges different constituents if a sentence is changed from one construction into another. That is why the full name of this grammar is transformational-generative grammar.

As illustration two examples are presented below. The first example is ;

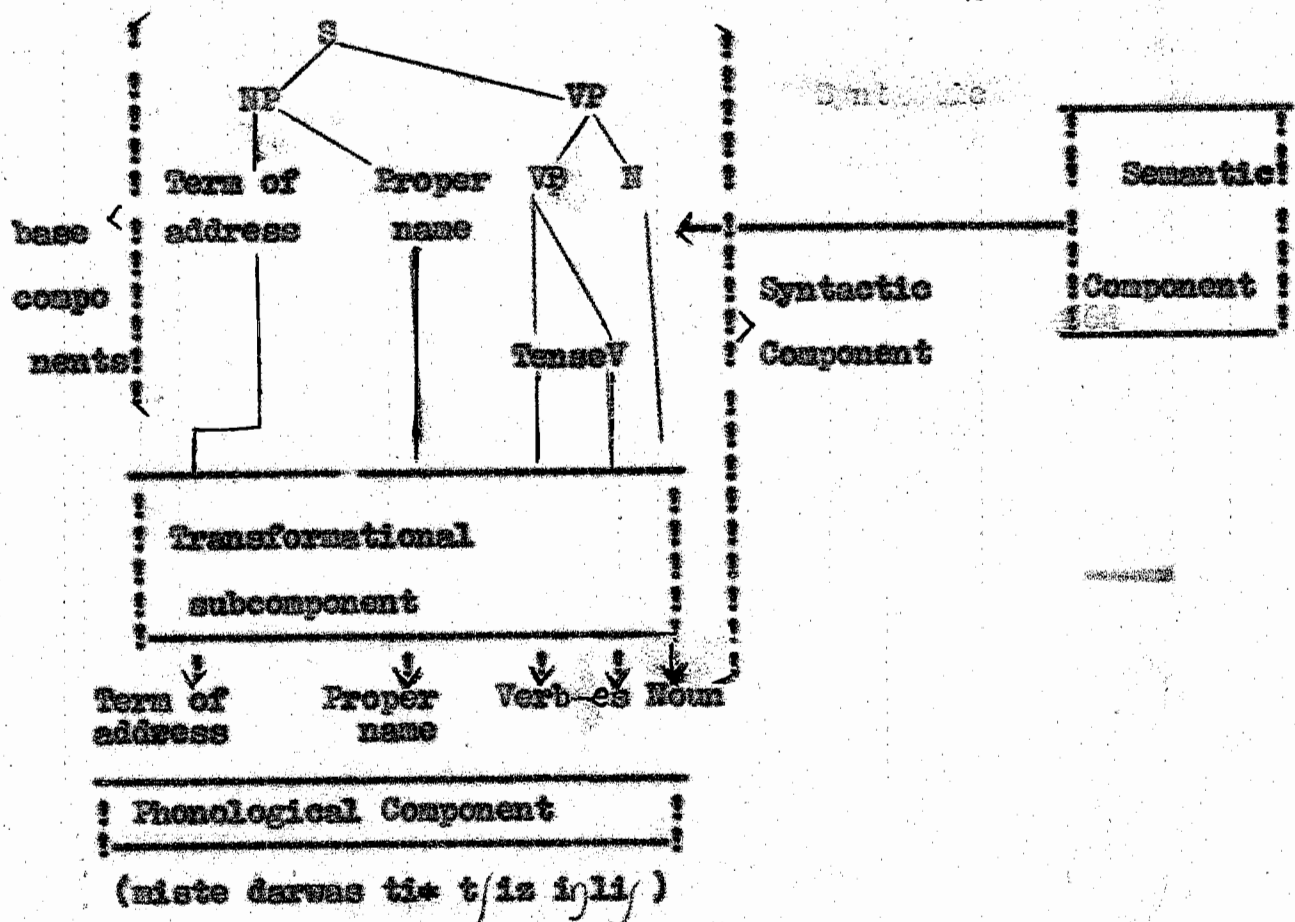
Mr. Darwas teaches English

If we analyze this sentence according to the principles of immediate constituents in the way most structuralists have done, we will find the following:

Mr. Darwas	teaches	English
Mr. Darwas	teaches	English
	teaches	

In the transformational grammar the analysis as follows:

is



Note : S = sentence
 NP = Noun Phrase
 VP = Verb Phrase
 N = Noun

First, we have in mind an S or sentence. This S is made up of a noun phrase (NP) and a verb phrase(VP) . In this example, the verb phrase branches step by step and the development or " derivation" of the sentence may be described as follows:

Sentence

NP - VP

NP - Aux -VP

NP - Aux - V - NP

Hence we now get the basis consisting of this sequence of base phrase- markers:

NP - Aux - V - NP₁

Further each base phrase-marker is composed of the following features. So in this example there are four groups of syntactic features. The four groups in sequence are :

+ N	+ Aux	+ V	+ N
-common	present ,third	-progressive	-common
+animate	person singular	+transitive	-animate
+ human		- abstract	
		subject	
		- animate object	

Up to this point we have a deep structure. Each base phrase marker of the sequence in the basis is transformed into:

Mr. Darwas - es- teach - English

This sequence undergoes a further transformation and the suffix -es is attached to verb teach and finally we get a surface structure, that is, the sentence that we utter or write :

Mr. Darwas teaches English

The phonological component explicates the sentence in terms of phonetics. It should be noted that the suffix to indicate the present tense and third person singular in this example is pronounced as [iz] and not as [z], or [s]. The semantic component provides an interpretation for the sentence regarding its meaning. This interpretation will include among other things that the first noun phrase (Mr. Darwas) does the action stated by the verb teaches towards the second noun phrase (English).

That the meaning of teaches in the above sentence is different from the meaning of teaches in a sentence like

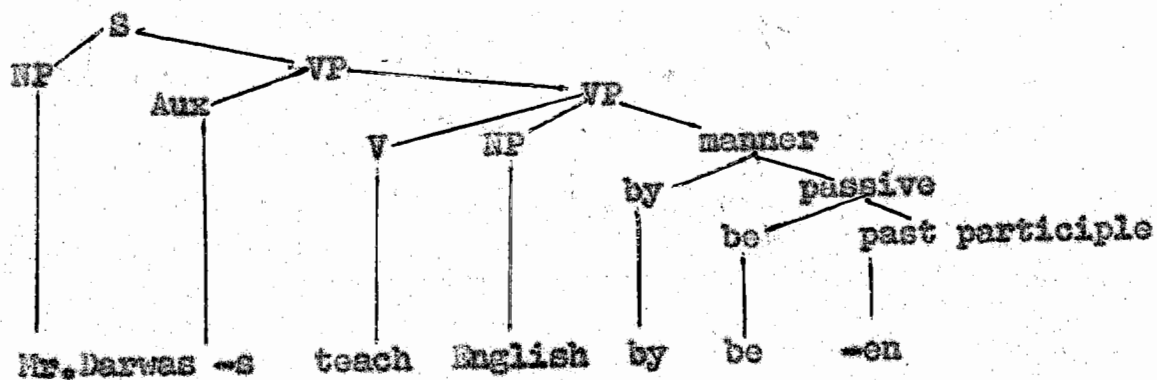
Mr. Darwas teaches the student

is another thing included in the interpretation. This is because of the fact the verb teaches in the former is followed by an inanimate object, while the verb teaches in the latter is immediately followed by an animate object.

Such a representation, which is used to describe what elements belong to the phrase and the verb phrase respectively, is called a tree- diagram.

At a glance a tree- diagram is nearly the same as the representation of immediate constituent analysis. But this is not always the case. Observe the following example :

English	is taught by Mr. Darwas
is taught	by Mr. Darwas
Is taught	by Mr. Darwas
	Mr. Darwas



English be+s teach+en by Mr. Darwas

English is taught by Mr. Darwas

The difference arises because immediate constituent analysis based on the actual utterance or surface structure while a tree-diagram can be built on the basis of deep structure.

The analyses of all examples given above model on examples in Aspects of the Theory of Syntax pages 108, 129 and 130 and thus we may have the following rulest

1. $S \longrightarrow NP + VP$
2. $VP \longrightarrow Aux + VP$
3. $VP \longrightarrow V + NP$
4. $NP \longrightarrow Det + N$

Instead of Predicate-Phrase I use VP.

S = sentence ; NP = noun phrase ; VP = Verb phrase ;

Aux = auxiliary ; ~~V~~ = verb(infinitive) ; Det= determiner;

N = noun.

The notation $S \longrightarrow NP + VP$ should be read ; S must be rewritten as NP + VP and such a rule is called a rewrite rule. The arrow : $\longrightarrow$ stands for the direction in the rule which denotes the notion of rewrite. The symbol $S \longrightarrow NP + VP$ does not mean that a sentence always consists of a noun phrase and a verb phrase. Rather it must be interpreted that any sentence may be described in terms a noun phrase and a verb phrase. The plus symbol : + refers to the notion of concatenation. In brief, $S \longrightarrow NP + VP$ means that a sentence may be stated in terms of an NP and

a VP in the sense that a noun phrase may be concatenated or strung together with a verb phrase but not always be done so.

From the above discussion we may draw the following inferences. Transformational-generative grammar particularly focuses on syntax, the study which specializes itself on the sentence-level since it is in the form of a sentence that a deep structure is manifested into its surface structure.

The deep structure of a sentence, which is abstract and in the speaker-hearer's mind, is made real in the surface structure by means of a set of rules. The operation of these rules may lead to different results. Among other things are "deletion, replacement, expansion, reduction, addition, and permutation."¹³ To clarify these operations Bach uses the following formulation:

Deletion	: $A + B \rightarrow B$	Addition	: $A \rightarrow A+B$
Replacement	: $A \rightarrow B$	Permutation	: $A + B \rightarrow B+A$
Reduction	: $A + B \rightarrow C$	Expansion	: $A \rightarrow B+C$

A structure consisting of constituent A and constituent B may be transformed in such a way that it consists of constituent B only. In this transformation constituent A is deleted from its original structure. For example:

He can swim $\rightarrow$ He can

In case a constituent is substituted by an item which has almost the same construction as the original constituent, we have a simple replacement, for instance;

He can swim fast $\rightarrow$ He can walk fast

In a reduction transformation a large constituent is altered into a smaller one but each constituent is built up of different

¹³, Emmon Bach, An Introduction to Transformational Grammars (New York 1964), chapter 4.

elements, for instance:

I know that your brother is rich → I know the fact

In a permutation the number of constituents in a structure remains the same but only their order changes. A structure in which constituent A is followed by constituent B may be rearranged into another structure having constituent B as the first element and constituent A as the second, like

Yesterday he went out → He went out yesterday

It is obvious from formulation that deletion is the opposite of addition and expansion is the opposite of reduction. Thus examples of deletion and reduction may also serve as illustrations for addition and expansion.

In reality pure operations as described above are rarely found. Usually a combination of two or more kinds of operations is involved in a transformation.

Speaking about the number of sentences produces in transformations of kernel sentences we say that the result of such transformations is unlimited in number. We can generate an infinite of sentences by means of a finite number of rules.

We may proceed our discussion now to some points which are practical for language teaching. The teaching of syntax has assumed an important role in language instruction. When a teacher teaches a foreign language it is almost always certain that he includes sentences in his teaching. A method of foreign language teaching usually touches matters of how to make students command various sentence structures of a given language. It is no exaggeration to say that the teaching of syntax has been a crucial item in language acquisition by the students. The transformational-generative grammar which emphasizes sentence-level is surely applicable to the teaching of syntax. In other words foreign language

teaching can get some benefit from this grammar.

Further we may infer that rules are important in language learning. The students must get to know and master them; they should internalize these rules.

Without the internalization of rules, they will not be able to generate grammatical sentences. Mrs. Wilga M. Rivers says that "his (the student's) innovative ability will exist only to the degree that underlying competence exists → that the set of rules has been internalized".¹⁴ Perhaps a child in his attempt to learn his mother tongue is able to internalize the syntactic rules by means of an inductive process, that is to say, after he hears a lot of sentences he may make a kind of generalization. By analogy he then applies the generalization that he has drawn to other sentences. This application will prove whether his generalization is valid or not. Often it is not and in such a case he will make a revision. Such an effort takes him a lot of time and in many cases it is a "trial and error". Since the factor of time in classroom teaching is usually very important, therefore it is wise to help the students make the rules internalized in their mind in the shortest possible time.

Different sentences or phrases may come from the same deep structure. Various transformational rules applied to the deep structure have produced different surface structures. A knowledge of such associations help the students to understand the syntactic rules easier and besides all sorts of grammatical exercises can be built based on a certain phrase or sentence. For example the students are asked to alter a sentence like

14. Wilga M. Rivers, "Rules, Patterns, and Creativity in Language Learning", E.T.F. Nov.-Dec 1970, p.9

John went to the shop for books
into a yes/ no question

Did John go to the shop for books?

by putting the form of the auxiliary do at the beginning of the sentence and using the infinitive go to replace the past tense verb went. Of course this exercise is given after a clear explanation as how to do it has been presented to the students by the teacher. The students will gradually understand that such a question is closely connected with the previous statement. The teacher may go on with question word question derived from the above yes-no question. Compared to the yse -no question the following is basically the same:

Where did John go for books?

because the phrase to the market in the previous question is just replaced by the question word where. And further more the word shopping in the first question may be substituted by the question word what..... for and the result is :

What did John go to shop for?

The question word question transformation in this instance involves permutation or arrangements, because each question word should be placed at the beginning of the question.

These syntactic rules are quite important and the students should not have the slightest misunderstanding about them. Therefors, if necessary, in the case of foreign language teaching explanation can be given in the mother tongue. The explanation in the native language is especially needed for difficult grammaytical rules. Other-wise it will be either time -consuming or misleading. Mr. Soepomo says that,

"L¹ (the mother tongue) can be used to advantage for explaining difficult grammatical rules. Sometimes there are grammatical problems that can be explained in a very short and efficient way by using L¹, whereas if L² (the foreign language) were used exclusively a lot of time would be consumed and the students would only be confused"¹⁵

To avoid the possible confusion of facing at the same time the foreign language and the native tongue the teacher of grammar may be somebody other than the recitation teacher. Or at least the grammar hours are separated from the recitation hours. Mr. Soepomo says further that many university students in the United States can achieve a mastery of the Indonesian language satisfactorily in a year in a university which employs a separate grammar teacher → usually an American linguistic professor → who explains rules of Indonesian grammar and Indonesian teachers who give pattern practice and recitation in other class hours.

The application of transformation in language teaching actually dated back to a few centuries ago; even the grammar translation method already made use of this transformation. For a long time we have recognized the transformation from active to passive, from affirmative to negative or interrogative^r and vice versa. The grammar translation method is characterized by parsing, memorizing rules, and translation from the vernacular to the foreign language in order to test whether or not the students have mastered the target language. Actually

¹⁵. Soepomo, "The Role of the Mother Tongue", unpublished;.

such a test does not measure language mastery but rather grammatical rule mastery. Mastery of rules is not identical with mastery of the language using the system of these rules, yet the former is a vital part in the process of learning a language. To arrive at a language mastery adequate practice of using the target language itself by the students is quite pivot.

Chapter II

A CONCRETE EXAMPLE OF THE APPLICATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL GRAMMAR IN THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH

2.1.A General Survey on Rutherford's Book

The following is a short discussion about Rutherford's book entitled Modern English, which provides a great deal of material for this writing. It is based on the transformational approach. It is a textbook of modern English that is specially written for foreign students who have obtained some prior knowledge in the English language. This textbook is intended to help them master spoken as well as spoken English.

There are twenty lesson units in this book and previous to these there are two preliminary units which provide a review. Each unit contains three parts. The first part chiefly deals with a dialogue upon which grammar points discussed in the second part are based and the third part consists of a short reading passage and grammar exercises to develop the writing skill of the students.

We are here particularly interested in the second part because it is in this part that grammar points and syntax are taught and practised. This part is usually made up of three teaching steps :

- a. presentation or exposition
- b. explication
- c. verification

Through presentation the teacher makes the students acquainted with some examples of sentences all of which contain the same grammar point. The examples given in the presentation are usually adequate in number. The presentation of an adequate number of examples is wise indeed;

it is in accordance with the principle that a child certainly needs to a lot of sentences in his mother tongue before he tries to make a generalization of syntactic rules. The examples in the presentation are based upon the dialogue in the first part. Before the teacher explains the grammar point to the students are made to do the replacement drill which is almost the same as a substitution drill in the aural - oral approach. Therefore, the students are active from the very beginning.

The explication provides an explanation about the grammar point introduced in the presentation. The explanation is short, clear and exact. This may be given in the native language of the students.

In the verification the students are given various kinds of exercises.

For illustration section 18 is presented below:

MANNER ADVERBIALS

I. Presentation

They are slow drivers
They drive slowly

They are fast movers
They move fast.

Simple Replacement

They work slowly
 honestly
 fast
 etc.

II. Explication

- A. They rush madly around
In my country we carefully wash and cook by hand
You cannot teach very easily without blackboard
He eats breakfast quickly early in the morning
They talked enthusiastically about their plays
- B. People move very fast in America
You do it pretty well, don't you?
They usually work hard for their wages
They can throw straight only with his left hand
She sings fine, don't you think?

This group illustrates the first of several patterns

for manner adverbials. Divisions A and B contain two types of manner adverb.

+ Type A affixes (ly) (spelled - ly or ally) to descriptive adjectives. The possible positions of the adverb in the sentence are some-what similar to the positions of frequency adverbs.

You cannot easily teach without a blackboard and chalk
 You cannot often teach without a blackboard and chalk
 You cannot teach easily without a blackboard.
 You cannot teach often without a blackboard.

* Type B affixes nothing to the adjectives. The usual position of the adverb is immediately following the verb phrase. The adjective corresponding to well is good. It is important to note that in neither A nor B does the adverb come between verb and direct object. Verb + adverb (both manner and frequency) can often transform to adjective + noun.

answer honestly → honest answer
 arrive frequency → frequent arrivals

III. Verification. Restatement.

- A. 1. She learn slowly. She is a slow learner
 2. She sings badly. She is a bad singer
 3. She works honestly
 4. She drives carefully
 5. She listens patiently
 etc.

- B. 1. He talks fast. He is a fast talker
 2. He paints well. He is a good painter
 3. He shoots straight
 4. He works hard
 5. He sings fine
 etc.

Completion

1. You drove fast → You drove fast but not recklessly
 2. She talks nervously → She talks nervously and not very well.
 3. He reads slowly
 4. They played the game hard
 5. She articulates clearly

Free Reply / Restatement

1. Teacher : What kind of singer are you ?
 Student 1 : I am a bad singer
 Student 2 : Yes, he sings badly
 2. Teacher : What kind of driver are you ?
 Student 1 : I am a fast driver
 Student 2 : Yes, he drives fast
 3. What kind of reader are you ?
 4. What kind of talker are you ?
 5. What kind of thinker are you ?

From the above example we note some important points. In the grammar part we notice that the principle of "transformational" grammar is applied. Observe e.g.

the transformation of sentences in the presentation :

They are slow drivers → They drive slowly

They are fast movers → They move fast

Such a transformation is also practised in the verification:

She sings badly → She is a bad singer

He paints well → He is a good painter

He got away quickly → He made a quick get away

This transformation example is a matter of changing a structure consisting of a verb and an adverb into another structure consisting of an adjective and a noun.

Grammatical rule internalization is to be achieved after some explanation by the teacher. Such explanation should be simple, to the point, and clear so that the students can understand easily. If necessary it can be given in the students' mother tongue. The point here is efficiency and thus much time can be allotted for verification.

It is sometimes necessary to make students aware that the same surface structure may have different deep structures, for instance.

We called on Wendy

We called on Wednesday

The difference between these two statements will be clear if we trace the deep structures. In this case rearrangement may help the students detect their dissimilarity. The second sentence may be changed into :

On Wednesday we called

But we cannot do the same thing upon the first sentence.

The creative aspect is emphasized in transformational grammar.

While practice in the aural-oral approach is greatly dominated by substitution drills, the manipulation of grammar point in the transformational approach may be done in a wide variety of exercises. Mechanical drills are normally dropped

out in the verification because such drills will not encourage the students to be creative in producing sentences. In the example quoted above the students are given three types of exercises → restatement, completion, and free reply → which may encourage the students to be creative.

Thus Rutherford's book provides a lot of exercises that help the students with rule internalization, gives various forms of transformation exercises, and sufficient practice in the target language that aims to develop the students' creativity in the language. In other words, it is a great help for foreign students to obtain a control over the English language. In this connection I would like to underline that this judgement is taken on the basis of grammar only.

However, we have to be careful, especially in the grading of the materials in the book. For although Rutherford has been very careful in grading the exercises, his basis of grading is only from the point of view of English, i.e. from simple construction to complex construction. It is not based on the contrastive analysis with any foreign language. Rutherford wishes the book to be used by any foreign students.

Good textbooks should also be based on the results of contrastive analysis between the target language and the linguistic background of the students. Now the Indonesian language, for instance, is different from the English language. On the level of sentences structure a dissimilarity between the two language may be observed in the following examples:

Did he go swimming?

Pergikah ia berenang?

Pergi berenangkah ia?

Apakah ia pergi berenang?

ia means he, pergi means go, and berenang means swims. Without considering the tense, we may observe how varied the positions of the word ia in the question are. All the differences of position between the pronoun ia and the pronoun he and also between other other words may be a problem in language learning for Indonesian students. Another problem for them is the presence of the additional word apakah in the last Indonesian question. Such a word is absent in English. On phrase level there is also a difference between Indonesian and English.

the boy = anak itu

bus station = stasion bis

Anak means boy, itu means something like " the", stasion means station, and bis means bus. Roughly speaking in Indonesian a modifier comes after the noun modified but in English the other way round. Further there is also a difference in inflection, for instance in tense inflection. In the following English sentences, we use the verb sees for the simple present tense, is going to see for the simple future tense, saw for the simple past tense, and has seen for the simple perfect tense. In Indonesian we use the same verb melihat to denote the four sorts of tenses.

Mr. Purnomo sees a film every Sunday

Tuan Purnomo melihat film tiap hari Minggu

Mr. Purnomo is going to see a film next Friday

Tuan Purnomo akan melihat film Djum'at depan.

Mr. Purnomo saw a film last Saturday

Tuan Purnomo melihat film Sabtu lalu

Mr. Purnomo has seen a film already

Tuan Purnomo telah melihat film.

In short, several different forms of the verb see are used in English, though there is one form only in Indonesian, i.e. melihat. In other words, the Indonesian language has no inflections to show tenses. For further information on the differences between English and Indonesian grammar see Kumanireng, 1965, and Adhisusanto 1971.

Therefore in using the book I suggest to take differences between Indonesian and English syntax in to consideration. Things which are similar should come before those which are different. For this I would give concrete examples in the following section.

2.2. Preliminary Units of Rutherford's Book.

English is a foreign language for Indonesian students and it will remain like that as long as the English language is not spoken in most parts of the country. The teacher, therefore, in using Rutherford's Modern English to teach Indonesian students should be aware of this matter. Furthermore, he should have fairly enough knowledge of both Indonesian and English so that he knows some essential difference between the two languages.

Below is an attempt to point out dissimilarities between English and Indonesian when we look into the materials presented in the preliminary units of the textbook. A fairly practical comparative analysis between English grammar points in the preliminary units and their corresponding Indonesian grammar points will be undertaken here. For this purpose we will follow the sequence of materials as it is made out in this textbook.

Preliminary units A and B provide a review which aims at making the students ready to do exercises in the twenty units following the two preliminary units. Preliminary unit A begins with the presentation of the plural suffix-s. Such an exercise is suitable for Indonesian students to start with because in their native language they do not use any suffixes to denote plurality. Then the noun being discussed → either singular or plural → is put in a simple sentence construction consisting of demonstrative, the verb like word Be and a noun phrase. Afterwards T-neg, T-yes/no, and T-wh are presented.¹⁶

T-neg	:	That	is not a	good	book.
T-yes/no	:		is that a	good	book.
T-wh	:	What	is that ?		

16. T-neg = negative transformation, T-yes/no = yes - no question transformation, and T-wh question word transformation.

The teacher should be aware of some problems that Indonesian students may have ⁱⁿ studying these constructions and should help them to overcome the difficulties. He needs to explain to them that an indefinite article in English is a must before singular countable nouns, but its equivalent in Indonesian is optional.

English : This is a book
Indonesian : Ini (adalah) (sebuah) buku.

Such an option may also occur to the verb like word Be. As for T-yes/no, the teacher has to make the students aware that in Indonesian it is common for us to form a yes no question in the same word order as a statement. On the contrary, in English a yes no question usually has an inversion. In this inversion we put the verb like word Be before the demonstrative.

Indonesian : Ini (adalah) (sebuah) buku ?

English : Is this a book ?

Ini "this", adalah "is", sebuah "a", and buku "book".

Then an other simple sentence structure which consists of a noun phrase, a verb and another noun phrase is presented. This sentence construction may be formulated as

NP - Ver b - NP

The verb in this construction is in the simple present tense. In this case Indonesian students should know that the auxiliary Do or Does is needed to change such statement into its corresponding negative sentence or question, for instance :

		He	needs	a	book
T-neg	:	He	does not need	a	book
T-yes/no	:	Does	he	need	a book
T-wh	:	What	does	he	need ?

The question word in T-wh as presented above is not the subject of the question.



The third sentence structure that is presented in the preliminary unit A is the following:

NP - Be - Adj (Adj = Adjective)

He is Indonesian.

As long as the students have already mastered the first sentence construction, they can easily have a control over this construction.

Further, the review is focused on the construction of a noun phrase. In other words, here we talk about noun modification. Generally speaking noun modification in English is a serious problem for Indonesian students. This is due to fact that the arrangement of English modification is different from that of Indonesian noun modification.

English : the book

Indonesian : buku itu

English : the interesting book

Indonesian : buku yang menarik itu.

From these examples we observe the following. First, the definite article the in English is put at the beginning of a noun modification structure where as Indonesian such an article, i.e. : itu is placed at the end of a noun phrase. Secondly, in English a modifier comes before the noun modified but in Indonesian a modifier comes after the noun modifier. Third, in Indonesian we usually insert the word yang between the noun modified and its modifier. In English there is no such insertion. Note that itu means something like "the" and menarik means interesting. All these important point should be explain the roughly to Indonesians students. There are many other phrases which have a similar construction to that using a definite article The. Among of them are those using that, this, which, what, and whose.

Afterwards, preliminary unit A discusses two English tenses :

the present continuous and the simple present. It is quite sound that the present continuous tense is taught first, because the verb-like Be has already been presented beforehand in this review. Then the simple present tense is given. It also stands to reason that frequency adverbs are presented after the simple present tense is mastered by the students, because it is in the simple present tense that these adverbs are frequently used.

In some aspects frequency adverb are problems for Indonesian students. The following should be explained clearly. First, while the verb-like Be in English is not optional and determines the place of frequency adverbs, its equivalent in Indonesian is optional. In English sentences with the present tense the frequency adverb is usually placed after the verb-like Be or before a verb.

He is seldom early for class

He seldom comes early for class

Secondly, in English T-neg does not apply to the frequency adverbs seldom and rarely, but in Indonesian T-neg can apply to the word djarang, the Indonesian equivalent of seldom or rarely, for instance :

English	:	Fifi <u>rarely</u> works at home
Indonesian	:	Fifi <u>djarang</u> bekerdja dirumah
		T-neg: Fifi tidak <u>djarang</u> bekerdja dirumah.

In this case we may also consult Let's Learn English by Andrey L. Wright cs.

"Never = not ever. Never and seldom are used only in negative statement, but without the word not. They are negative words, and an English sentence has only one negative expression in it" (p.194).

Thirdly, in English the frequency adverbs sometimes, and occasionally only precede the negative element, frequency adverbs often, usually and generally may optionally precede or follow it.

He sometimes does not know the direction

He occasionally does not know the direction

He does not always know the direction

He does not ever know the direction

He does not often know the direction or

He often does not know the direction

He does usually know the direction or

He usually does not know the direction

He does not generally know the direction or

He generally does not know the direction

Preliminary unit A' ends with the discussion about pronouns, possessive adjectives, object pronouns, and possessive pronouns.

Pronoun :

I have ideas.

Saja punya ide-ide

Possessive adjective:

They are my ideas

Itu ide-ide saja

Object pronoun :

The ideas come from me

Ide-ide itu datangdari saja

Possessive pronoun :

They are mine

Itu ide-ide saja.

From Indonesian students the problem here is chiefly about word form. The teacher must explain that while in Indonesian we can use the same word for each pronoun, possessive adjective and object pronoun, in English each has its own form. Besides, we haven't no possessive pronouns in Indonesian. As for its position, a possessive adjective in English is placed before

the noun qualified but in Indonesian after it.

The second part of the review is preliminary unit B. This preliminary unit begins with the presentation of the future tense. Though there are some forms which may be used to express futurity, it is better for us to teach Indonesian students only the form be going to first, because this form is the most common of all and it is based on the verb-like Be that has been taught before. Besides, the concentration of attention on one form can avoid any confusion that may arise.

Then some modals are reviewed. They are can (and could), should, will, and ought to. While the students are taught modals, they are also taught that the modal will may show futurity. It is advisable to explain to Indonesian students that for all persons the auxiliary will may be used. The use of will for all persons is acceptable now and in such a case the students are not confused with the difficulty about the choice between shall and will.

Preliminary unit B then proceeds with requests. As for requests, Indonesian students should know that unlike in Indonesian, in English the sentence structure of requests may very depending upon the degrees of politeness that a speaker wants to imply.

Affirmative requests :

Please sit down .

Please let us sit down.

Will you sit down?

Would you sit down ?

Sit down, will you?

Negative requests:

Don't sit down

Let us not sit down

Please don't sit down

Please let us not sit down.

Indonesian students should know too that the form.

Won't you sit down?

is an affirmative request, though it has a negative form. Another point that should be made clear to the students is that the auxiliary don't may be combined with the verb-like He to express a negative request.

Don't be so silly

Since there are a lot of request constructions, it is good to present just one form at a time.

Two grammar points that follow are what we usually call negative question and question tag. The teacher has to describe clearly that negative questions in English have inversion like affirmative questions. The negative element not may be combined with the auxiliary which is put before the subject or may be placed after the subject the former is much used in conversation and the latter is commonly used in formal writing.

Conversational :

Formal :

Aren't they Spaniards?

Are they not Spaniards?

Don't you know that?

Do you not know that ?

English question tags may become a problem for Indonesian students, because the form of English question tag is different from that of Indonesian question tag.

You need pratice, don't you ?

Kamu perlu latihan, bukan?

Bill did not protest, did he ?

Bill tidak protes ,bukan?

The teacher should explain that in English we use an auxiliary and a pronoun in the question tag while in Indonesian we use the same tag for every sentence, namely bukan. In English the question-tag may vary for every sentence. When a sentence is negative its question-tag affirmative and vice versa.

The rest of preliminary unit B deals with the indo

indefinite article some and any, tenses, and number. The fact that the indefinite article some requires the alternate word any in negative sentences may provide a good exercise for Indonesian students, after the teacher explains clearly such a change.

She gave some → She did not give any aims.

The order of presentation of tenses is presented in the review is as follows :

- First , the present continuous tense.
- Second , the simple present tense
- Third , the future tense.
- Fourth , the simple past tense.
- Fifth , the past continuous tense.

The present continuous tense is presented first because the verb-like Be has already been given. The simple present tense is more difficult than the present continuous tense because it involves the use of the verb suffix- es or -s and the use of the auxiliary Do. The future tense is even more difficult because it has many different forms such as that using will, be going to. Afterwards the teacher presents the simple past tense, which is considered to be even more difficult because a lot of English verbs have irregular forms. The last tense to present in this review is the past continuous tense. As for this tense, its difficulty lies in its use. It is advisable that practice on the past continuous tense in this review should be enlarged to let Indonesian students have a better command.

As for English number, the teacher should explain that the formation of ordinal numbers in English is quite dissimilar to that in Indonesian. The English language uses the suffix -th or -eth in general, while the

Indonesian language uses the prefix ke-

English : four → fourth thirty → thirtieth

Indonesian : empat → keempat tigapuluh → ke
tigapuluh.

Since the difference between how much and how many is not seen in the surface structure of sentence in Indonesian, Indonesian students should be made aware that how much is used for uncountables like sugar, water but how many is used for countables like cups, houses.

How many cups does she need ?

Berapa banyak tjangkir ia perlukan ?

How much sugar does she need ?

Berapa banyak gula ia perlukan ?

The students should also know that the way of telling the date in English is different from that in Indonesian. In English we use an ordinal number for a date, but in Indonesian we use a cardinal number for it.

Now is the fourth of February

Sekarang tanggal empat Februari

To sum up, the materials presented in the review are sufficiently graded for Indonesian students; it therefore provides a smooth and good start for them. It can function well as a springboard to unit one. To my mind it is unwise skipping this review when we teach Indonesian students. Rather the review is a must for the them.

Chapter III

A SPECIFYING DISCUSSION ON RUTHERFORD'S BOOK

Each of the twenty units in Modern English is made up of five sections and so there are one hundred sections altogether. We will not discuss all sections one by one. Nor will we discuss them per unit. Instead, we would like to classify them according to what grammar point each section belongs to.

In English grammar there are a great many grammar points. In this chapter, however, we will pick out only some important ones to deal with and they include inflections, word order and word classification.

The chief aim of this discussion is to point out the transformational principles which back up the presentation of any individual grammar point. Another matter which will be treated here is what should be taken into account in teaching an English grammar point because of differences between English and the students' native language; to be precise we will take the Indonesian language as an example.

3.1. Inflections

By inflection we mean the changing of the form of a word. The most important English inflections are those which are used to show number and tenses. Other inflections which are regarded as less important include those expressing possession, object, comparison, mood, and person.

In sequence we will discuss one by one: inflections for number, inflections for tense, possessive inflections, objective inflections, inflections for comparison and inflections for mood.

3.1.1. Inflections for number.

The plural suffix -s is the regular plural inflection for nouns. This matter is taught in preliminary unit A.

Irregular plural nouns such as children, men, deer etc., are presented in section 5. Being irregular, the latter must be explained clearly to the students and adequate practice is necessary for them, e.g.

There are not any more on the shelf

There are not any more on the shelves

The teacher should also make the students aware that such an exercise sometimes involves other inflections.

A boy is outside →

Some boys are outside

The changing from boy into boys also involves the changing from is into are and from a into some.

The changing of a sentence from singular to plural form is in accordance with the transformational grammar because the two sentences - the original and the result-ed ones - have the same basic phrases, that is to say, a noun phrase (a woman or women) and a verb phrase (is outside or are outside); and each noun in each sentence belongs to the same " base phrase-marker", i.e. the noun phrase.

3.1.2. Inflections for tense.

Nine tenses are taught in this textbook. They are the present continuous tense, the simple present tense, the future tense, the simple past tense, the past continuous tense, the present perfect tense, the present perfect continuous tense, the future continuous tense and the past perfect tense. The first five tenses are taught in the preliminary unit, the present perfect tense in sections 61, 62, 63, and 64, the present perfect continuous tense and the future continuous tense in section 81, whereas the past perfect tense in

section 9.

Each tense should be explained clearly to Indonesian students because their native language has no tense. This explanation will cover the form and the use of each tense. To illustrate this point, the present perfect continuous tense is taken here as an example. This tense is used when we think of an action beginning in the past and is still progressing at the present moment. Anyhow it is also possible to use this tense to stress the fact that an action has been uninterrupted, although the action is not in progress now.

John has been doing his assignment for two hours, but he has not finished yet.

She is very sleepy at school now. She has been sitting up all night.

The form of the present perfect continuous tense is as follows

have (has) + been + V -ing

After the students master the form of the tense, for instance by means of simple replacement or substitution drill, the teacher may give them practice on changing one tense other than this into the present perfect continuous tense. For instance the students are asked to put this sentence into this tense.

The children are playing hide and seek now-->

The children have been playing it for an hour

Such an exercise encourages the students to be careful because they should also consider the change of the adverb of time; in this example now becomes for an hour

The changing of a sentence from one tense into another is based on transformational grammar. Viewed from this grammar this type of exercise is linguistically valid because the sentence produced from this transformation has

the same deep structure - in terms of noun phrase and verb phrase - as the original sentence ; only their surface structures differ.

3.1.3. Possessive inflections.

A possessive inflection shows origin or possession. In English we have possessive forms my, your, his, her, its, our, their, and whose.

The first seven forms are presented in preliminary unit A under the heading possessive adjectives. As for the possessive form whose, it is taught to the students in section 43.

According to Zandvoort¹⁷, the relative whose may refer to things. We know that this relative is commonly used to refer to people. In short, the relative whose can refer to either people or things.

The mother feels unessy. Her baby is sick→

The mother whose baby is sick feels unessy

That is the train. Its whistle is loud→

That is the train whose whistle is loud.

The realtive who refers to people and which refers to things. But= when a notion of origin or possession is added to either who or which, we get the relative whose

who + possessive → whose

which + possessive → whose

3.1.4 Objective inflections

The English language makes use of eight objective forms: me, you, him, her, it, us, them, and whom.

The first seven forms are taught in preliminary unit A, while the form whom is presented in section 42.

17. R.W. Zandvoort, A Handbook of English Grammar (Djakarta 1950), p. 183.

As for relative whom, the teacher must explain that it is only used to refer to people and its function is the object in a relative clause. The function will be clear when we look into the derivation of a complex sentence containing the relative whom.

The man is my boss. You saw him Yesterday →

The man whom you saw yesterday is my boss

In most cases the relative whom can be substituted by the relative that. Besides, either whom or that may be deleted. Thus the following three forms are acceptable.

The man whom you saw yesterday is my boss

The man that you saw yesterday is my boss

The man that you saw yesterday is my boss

The man You saw yesterday is my boss

The transformation as exemplified above goes in this way. First, we detect which of the two original sentences will become the clause of the complex sentence we want to build up. Second, we put the objective form him immediately after the antecedent, i.e. the man. Third, we substitute him with whom. Fourth, we may omit the relative whom.

When the relative whom is preceded by a preposition, the relative must not be replaced by that and must not be deleted, either. As for the use of the relative whom, it is wise for the teacher to teach merely the second use - in which the relative whom is not deleted - and to teach the first use in which the relative whom may be replaced by that. This is necessary to avoid any confusion that the students may get.

3.1.5. Inflections for comparison.

The teacher needs to clarify the form and the use of the degrees of comparison to the students. There are three degrees of comparison: the positive degree, the comparative degree, and the superlative degree.

The positive degree :

Malang is as cool as Bandung

Malang is as beautiful as Bandung.

The comparative degree :

Malang is cooler than Surabaya

Malang is more beautiful than Surabaya.

The superlative degree :

Malang is the coolest of all towns in last Java

Malang is the most beautiful of all towns in East Java.

The positive degree is used when we compare two things or persons and we find out that both are of the same degree of quality. The form of adjective such as cool, beautiful is called the positive degree.

The comparative degree is used to compare things or persons of different degrees of quality. To form the comparative degree we add -er or more to the positive. The superlative degree is used when we compare a person or things with the whole group to which he or it belongs. To form the superlative degree we add -est or most to the positive. For further details about these matters we might as well see Rutherford's Modern English, sections 36, 37, 38, 39 and 40.

We may particularly notice that with the positive degree we can use as as, with the comparative degree we use than, while with the superlative degree we often use of and the .

According to Chomsky,¹⁸ the derivation of the sentence construction of the degree of comparison can be described as follows:

The positive degree :

			4		5		6
1	2	3	4	5	6		

Malang is as as Bandung is Beautiful beautiful

18. Noam Chomsky, The Aspects of the Theory of English (Massachusetts 1965), p. 485.

By means of the deletion of 5 and the rearrangement of 4 we will get :

Malang is as beautiful as Bandung is
1 2 3 4 5 6

Further we can optionally delete the repeated copula is and we obtain the following :

Malang is as beautiful as Bandung

The comparative degree :

The sentence construction of the comparative degree may be explained in the same way as above.

Malang is more than Sala is beautiful beautiful.
1 2 3 4 5 6

Malang is more beautiful than Sala is
1 2 3 4 5 6

Malang is more beautiful than Sala.

The superlative degree :

The derivation of the sentence construction of the superlative degree is as follows:

M is the most of all towns in E.J. are beautiful
1 2 3 4 5 6
beautiful
6

M is the most beautiful of all towns in E.J. are
1 2 3 4 5 6

M is the most beautiful of all towns in E. J.

3.1.6. Inflections for mood .

Mood is the form of a verb that expresses the speaker's attitude towards the action or state expressed, we know that there are three moods: indicative, imperative and subjunctive. When the speaker regards an action as a fact, he then uses the indicative mood. When he regards an action as a command; he uses the imperative mood. These two moods are presented in the preliminary units.

The subjunctive mood, which is used to express a supposition, desire, or possibility, is taught in section 93. The remaining inflections to show the subjunctive mood

mood are the all be form in the present tense and all were form in the past tense. Apart from these, the American English, as presented in section 93, still uses the verb root for all persons to show either affirmative or negative present subjunctive, for instance :

I suggested that he have another glass of wine. We asked Anne that she not discuss the matter

They requested that Bob not be there

The teacher should explain to the students that the above present subjunctive expresses urgency. Another form of subjunctive taught in section 93 is the imperfect subjunctive which makes use of the allwere form and the preterite of full verbs to express a wish or irreality.

I wish that he were as clever as his sister

He acts as if he were a teacher

She would rather she had a five - day week

If I were You I would accept the offer.

3.2. Word-order.

By word- order we mean the arrangement of words in a phrase, clause, or sentence. A phrase is a group of words forming a separate part of a sentence according to its meaning, but not containing a subject and predicate. A clause is a group of words containing a subject and predicate but this whole construction is only a part of a compound or complex sentence. Thus in this treatment for convenience sake we classify word- order into three groups as our groundwork :

1. phrase word - order
2. clause word - order
3. sentence word - order

3.2.1. Phrase word- order.

Under this heading we will discuss noun modification, merged modification, and sentence nominals.

Noun modification

There are two types of noun modification : prenominal and postnominal. In prenominal modification the modifier comes before the noun modified and in postnominal modification the modifier comes after the noun modified. The first type is taught in sections 2, 17, 45, 51, 56, 72 and 99 while the second type in section 44, 83 and 84. In the preceding chapter we talked about noun modification presented in preliminary unit A and we inferred that in Indonesian a modifier usually comes after the noun modified. Thus most constructions of noun modification in Indonesian are of postnominal type. Consequently, prenominal modification will be a problem in the English teaching to Indonesian students. This modification should be explained thoroughly to them.

In section 2, the modification consisting of a noun followed by a prepositional phrase is changed into another type of modification of a noun preceded by another noun.

The people in the office are helpful →

The office people are helpful.

This kind of exercise is then enlarged

The conference is on disarmament →

The conference on disarmament →

the disarmament conference

Here a sentence is transformed into a construction consisting of a noun plus a postnominal modifier and then this construction is changed into a noun plus a prenominal modifier.

The prenominal modification taught in section 17 in combined with noun agent formation.

He collecte stamps → He is a stamp collector

The prenominal modification with - ing form is much emphasized in the textbook. Here are various examples taken from some sections of the book.

Section 45 :

Japan is a country that is developing with speed →

Japan is a country developing with speed

Japan is a developing country

Section 51 :

It is water that runs → It is running water.

Section 56 :

The policy defeats it self →

It is a policy that defeats it self →

It is a policy defeating itself →

It is a self - defeating policy

From the above examples taken from the three sections we may draw some rules that are necessary to explain to the students. A phrase modifier will form postnominal modification while a one- word modifier will form prenominal modification.

Section 83 presents postnominal modification in which an adjective modifies the word like something, somebody etc. Section 84 deals with postnominal modification in which the word else is the modifier. Here are examples of both sections :

Some body important should step in

May be someone else should step in.

The students must be made aware that sections 83 and 84 present grammar points that form two exceptions to the rule about one - word prenominal modifiers.

Merged modification :

Merged modification → which may be defined as the modification that is plunged into or united in a sentence construction → in section 33 is very interesting. The teacher should explain that like sentence nominals, merged modification may involve permutation. The position of the merged modifier for me in the following sentences varies and the meaning of each sentence remains the same as long as the phrase for me is not placed after the verb to make.

For me a comparison was hard to make

For me to make a comparison was hard

To make a comparison was hard for me

The students should also become aware of the difference between A comparison was hard for me to make and A comparison was hard to make for me because in the latter the phrase for me implies a prepositional object. The exercise that follows the modification of this kind is very challenging for the students, especially the integration type, for instance :

Teacher : The statement was stupid. Making it was stupid for politicians.

Student : The statement was stupid for politicians

For politicians the statement was stupid to make

That was a stupid statement for politician to make.

For politicians that was a stupid statement to make.

Sentence nominals :

English sentence nominals discussed in section 32 make use of either the infinitive with to or the -ing form of a verb.

To make beds is her duty

Making beds is her duty

The teacher must make clear to the students that the meaning of to make beds is the same as that of making beds. The underlined construction functions as a noun but looks like a sentence and consists of a verb plus one other word. Since it is possible to say : Making beds is the same as her job, we can interchange the position of the phrase making beds and that of the phrase her job.

Making beds is her job →

Her job is making beds

Such interchange does not apply to a construction like Making beds is easy, because it is not acceptable to say Making beds is the same as easy.

3.2.2. Clause word-order.

In this discussion relative clauses, embedded questions, embedded sentence and what displacement will be treated.

Relative clauses

In this treatment we are going to limit to restrictive relative clause only. Three sections of the textbook give practice on relative clauses.

Section 41 = relatives, subject focus (who, which, that)

Section 42 = relatives, object focus (whom, that)

Section 43 = relatives ; possessive focus (whose)

We have talked about the last two points of grammar and thus only the first grammar point needs to be discussed here. Some complex sentence using who, which and that as the subjects of their restrictive relative clauses are presented below :

She has met the man who wrote the novel

She has met the men that wrote the novel

The thing which disturbs me most is a noise

The thing that disturbs me most is a noise

As for the rule of the use of this type of relatives, the teacher needs to explain that we can use the relative that to refer to a person or a thing. Besides ; a long with the principle of transformation, the students need to have an insight into the transformation of two simple sentences in to a complex one in which the relative that is used.

The girl has a car, She lives next door →

The girl that lives next door has a car.

The boys waited for the bus. It went to Malang →

The boys waited for the bus that went to Malang.

It is advisable that the students are asked to underline the noun to which the relative pronoun that refers.

In this way they will know where to put relative that, i.e. immediately after the noun underlined.

In such an exercise the teacher should tell the students first which original sentence of each pair is to become the main clause. In the above examples the first sentence of each pair become the main clause.

Embedded questions, embedded sentences, and what- displacement.

Sections deal with embedded questions. An embedded question is question that is put into another sentence. The main feature that should be explained thoroughly to Indonesian students is that the embedded question has the construction of a statement.

You can ask him what the time is.

Can you ask him what the time is?

An insight into this construction is very important because in Indonesian there is no difference between the construction

of an embedded question and that of an ordinary question.

What is the time? = Pukul berapa sekarang?

You can ask him what the time is?

Kamu dapat bertanya dia pukul berapa sekarang?

When we compare an example of section 53 and that of section 55 we will find the following pair: who she live with is not important

Who ever she lives with is not important.

According to Mr. Rutherford, the underlined part of the second sentence is an embedded sentence. It seems that the teacher has to explain that who she lives with is derived from the question who does she live with?

On the other hand the construction who ever she lives with is derived from the sentence she lives with any person, and this sentence then undergoes the following transformation,

She lives with any person →

Any person that she lives with →

Who ever she lives with.

The derivation of an embedded question may be described as follows

What did he have to say → what he had to say

The question impressed me.

What he had to say impressed me

Let us consider this sentence ;

What he had to say impressed me

The word what in this sentence is the subject to the predicate impressed me and thus what impressed me is the same as what he had to say. In other words, we may say that:

What impressed me is what he had to say

So we get to the transformation discussed in section 54, that is to say, what - displacement .

What-displacement is the moving-out of the word what from its ordinary position into another position. Here is another example :

What they talked about concerned us →

What they talked about is what concerned us.

3.2.3. Sentence word - order

Several construction will be treated here and these include there - pattern ; affirmation, it -nominalizations, passive constructions, ellipsis and conditionals.

There pattern :

By there- pattern we mean the sentences construction using the preparatory subject there . The most common verb used in this construction is the verb-like Be, though in the written language a few other verbs are sometimes used.

There is a sign over there

Once there lived a king.

Each of these sentences may be derived from a simpler construction.

A sign is over there → There is a sign over there

Once a king lived → Once there lived a king.

Generally speaking, we can change a sentence made up of a noun, the verb-like Be and an adverb of place into a sentence of there- pattern , e.g.

A book was on the shelf →

There was a book on the shelf

Some children were outside →

There were some children outside.

Such an exercise may be given to the students because it is in accordance with the notion of transformational grammar. In case the teacher teaches English to Indonesian

students, he should clarify that the preparatory subject there has no Indonesian equivalent.

There are two pens in the drawer

Ada dua pena didalam laci itu.

Affirmation

Section 26 deals with affirmation. An affirmation like He does have that, has no corresponding construction in Indonesian and therefore Indonesian students need to have an insight into this construction and to have practice on it. The above sentence is derived from He has that. In this case the verb has become does have.

Thus the sentence transformation proceeds in this way.

Structure analysis = X - Verb - Y

Structure change = X - Verb - Y $\longrightarrow$ X - Aux - V - Y -

Verb = the whole verb V = the infinitive of a verb.

X, Y = any constituents; Aux = auxiliary.

The auxiliary in this transformation is always stressed in speech.

It - nominalizations

When a word other than a noun functions as a noun we have a nominalization. It- nominalization is the nominalization by means of the preparatory subject it.

To understand the economy is important $\longrightarrow$

It is important to understand the economy.

In this transformation there is a permutation and an addition with the word it. Because in this structure, the preparatory subject it has no equivalent in Indonesian, Indonesian students need to get an insight into this kind of nominalization. The teacher should explain that the preparatory subject it here is followed by is, was, will be may be etc.

The construction of it - nominalization presented in section 59 is larger than that given in section 35 because the former has a clause introduced by the subordinator that.

That the dog eats from a pan is obvious →

It is obvious (that) the dog eats from a pan.

In it - nominalizations the subordinator that is optional. Besides, the teacher should clarify that by means of it-nominalization we can remove almost every part of a

sentence to the position close after the verb-like Be that accompanies the preparatory subject it. The effect of such transformation is that the part removed gets a special emphasis.

Yesterday Bob was sure (that) he would succeed →

It was yesterday that Bob was sure he would succeed.

It was Bob that was sure he would succeed

It was that he would succeed that Bob was sure of.

Passive construction.

Passive constructions are a problem for Indonesian students. The following should be made clear to them.

You are ordered to take a pen away.

Kamu diperintah untuk membawa pena pergi.

An English passive construction is composed of Be plus past participle while an Indonesian passive construction is formed by placing the prefix di -in front of the base of a verb. The auxiliary Be has various forms depending upon tense, person, and number; am, is, are, was, were, has been, had been, will be, would be. There are a few kinds of English passive constructions, such as the passive construction using get instead of Be, the

passive construction using It is said or He is said to.

The ordinary passive construction using Be must be taught first.

Her mother beat Mary → Mary was beaten by her mother.

Then the passive construction using get is given.

A priest married them → They were married by a priest → They got married.

The following passive construction is then taught by the teacher.

People say (of him) that he is a player →

He is said that he is a player →

He is said to be a player



In this transformation two steps are performed. First, we change the sentence into passive. Second, we reduce the phrase that he is into to be. Afterwards, the following passive sentence type may be taught.

People say that he is a player →

That he is a player is said (by people) →

It is said that he is a player.

This transformation involves two steps, too. First, we have a passive transformation. Second, we have what we call an extraposition. We move the clause that he is a player to the end of the sentence and we put the preparatory it in front of the phrase is said. It is wise that passive constructions are not given until the students reach the later stages as it is done in this book.

Exercises on changing active sentence into passive ones and vice versa are good because in that way the students will gradually understand that an active sentence and its corresponding passive one has the same deep structure in terms of noun phrase and verb phrase.

Ellipsis.

Ellipsis is omission of a words. Section 82 principally emphasizes ellipsis which involves inversion. Ellipsis using so may be described as follows.

Commuting is a chore. The job is a chore. →

Commuting is a chore and the job is too. →

Commuting is a chore and so is the job.

NP - Aux - V-X NPL - Aux + V - X →

NP - Aux : V - X and NPL - Aux - too →

NP - Aux + V - X and so - Aux - NPL

Ellipsis using neither is applied to negative sentences.

Commuting is not a picnic. The job is not a picnic. →

Commuting is not a picnic and the job is not
either →

Commuting is not a picnic and neither is the job.

NP - Aux + not + V - X . NPL - Aux + not+V-X →

NP - Aux+ not+V -X and NPL - Aux+not - either →

NP - Aux + not+ V - X and not + either- Aux - NPL →

NP - Aux + not + V - X and neither - Aux- NPL

The teacher should make the students master thoroughly the inversion involved in this construction and the detection of common elements → which will be deleted → in the two source sentences. It is only the first auxiliary that is reversed in the sense that it is put between the word so or neither and the noun phrase at the end of the sentence.

Conditionals.

There is no particular section in which conditionals are exclusively discussed. Section 95 deals with modals, but at the same time it touches upon conditionals because modals discussed in this section are specially used for

past conditionals. Furthermore, three sorts of conditionals are emphasised in the verification under the headings of intergration, completion and free (guided) reply. Here are examples of the three kinds :

We will speak to him . We may see him →

We will speak to him if we see him

We do not speak to him. We do not see him →

We would speak to him if we saw him

We did not speak to him . We did not see him →

We would have spoken to him if we had seen him

By a conditional we mean a sentence containing an if clause. The last two forms are called respectively the present and the past conditional and both are actually subjectives. The first form in the examples is called the open conditional. By observing the transformation of each type presented above the students will understand what is implied by it. The teacher may explain that an open conditional implies possibility and the other two types imply negation. As for their forms, the present and the past conditionals involve what we call the phenomenon of back shifting : the present tense in source sentences becomes the past tense in transforms and the past tense becomes the past perfect tense.

Source sentences :

We do not see him →

We did not see him →

Transforms :

if we saw him

if we had seen him

It should be noted that negation and the phenomenon of back shifting in tense are not found in the transformation of open conditional.

3.3. Word Classification

We will follow the classification of all English

words into content words and function words as the groundwork of our analysis about Rutherford's book here.

From these content words and function words we will pick out only words much talked about in the textbook.

These words are :

- | | |
|----------------|-------------------------|
| 1. verbs | 5. conjunctions |
| 2. adjectives | 6. pronouns (reflexive |
| 3. adverbs | and emphatic). |
| 4. prearticles | 7. prepositions |
| 8. modals | |

The first three classes of words are content words and the others are function words.

3.3.1. Verbs

Irregular verbs will not be included in this discussion. We will discuss only verbs in particular constructions within sentences.

Section 7 is about : V + to indirect object
To make the students concentrate their attention on this phrase, an imperative form is used.

Describe it → Describe it to us

Ask a question → Ask us a question

Bring the menu → Bring the menu to us

Bring us the menu

There is a new element introduced in this section. In the verifications about direct object deletion ; the students are required to recognise direct objects ; this is virtually a beginning step towards sentence analysis.

Teacher : Ask the man a question

Students : Ask a question

Teacher : Bring the gentlemen the menu

Students : Bring the menu

Section 8 is about : V + for indirect object

This section is basically the same as section 7.

Transitive verbs presented in section 13 and verbs taught in section 14 are problems for the students. Therefore the students should internalize these rules and get adequate practice on the two kinds of verbs. Their rules of construction may be described one by one as follows. A transitive verb consisting of a verb and a particle like:

They looked over the report carefully (Section 13) is different from a transitive verb consisting of a verb and a preposition like :

They looked at the report carefully (Section 14), because the particle over in the first sentence can be removed to another position while the preposition at in the second sentence cannot.

Another rule says that each of these construction is acceptable for a transitive verb consisting of a verb plus a particle ;

I looked over the report carefully

I looked the report over carefully

I looked it over carefully

These rules should be made clear so that the students do not mistake a transitive verb consisting of a verb plus a particle for another kind of transitive verb consisting of a verb plus a preposition.

Section 22 deals with the construction :¹⁹

Verb + NP + (not) to V

Two examples are presented below :

19. Parentheses : () denote an option of element.
(not) to means that the word not may or may not be added to the word to.
V = the infinitive of a verb.

He asked me to speak English

He asked me not to speak English

The teacher must explain to the students that the word not is put in front of the word to

Actually this construction is more complicated than the construction presented in section 23, namely

You are going to do it

I wanted to speak English

Therefore I propose here to teach section 23 before section 22.

Section 23 talks about " purpose expressions with to + VP or for + NP ".

She dressed to go to dinner → She dressed for dinner.

They came in the car to get me →

They came in the car for me

In this transformation the verb phrase (VP) consists of an infinitive and a noun with or without a preposition in between.

Structure analysis : X - Y - to + VP

: X - Y - to + V + (to) + NP

Structure change : X - Y - to + V + (to) + NP →

X + Y - for - NP

In this transformation the word to is replaced by for and the infinitive form of the verb (V) is deleted.

All transitive verbs presented in section 76 can be put into these sentence constructions :

NP - Verb - NPI - to be - NPI or Adj

NP - Verb - NP 1 - as - NPI or Adj

NP - Verb - NPI - NPI or Adj

For the students the problem here is that they should know precisely which verbs belong to each group. Therefore the teacher should explain to them what verbs belong to each

of the three groups . From the list on page 373 of Rutherford's book we find out only the verb imagine belongs to the three classifications.

He imagined me to be a Swiss. He imagined me to be big.

He imagined me as a Swiss. He imagined me as big.

He imagined me a Swiss . He imagined me big.

Section 77 discusses the following sentence construction in which we find a transitive verb plus its complement.

NP - Verb - NP1 - V - NP ²

The following are source sentences and their transformation so that we get the above construction.

I saw a student

The student wrote on the board) →

I saw a student that wrote on the board →

I saw a student write on the board.

Indonesian students should be made aware that the second verb in the last sentence is of infinitive form, i.e. write and not wrote . This is very important because the Indonesian language uses the same word, i.e. menulis for the word write and wrote.

Verbs which can be followed by a complement consisting of an infinitive verb plus - ing fall into three categories.

Verb - NP - V + ing

Verb - (NP) - V + ing

Verb - V + ing.

Unlike verbs discussed in section 76, the three categories do not overlap one another. The teacher should get the students to recognize which verb belong to each category Here are examples of the three kinds:

He caught Mary saying Goodnight

Do you remember (her) using the phone ?

I cannot help laughing at them

The combination of a verb plus a preposition which requires a verb complement is presented in section 79.

He insisted on teaching vocabulary

She dissuaded him from going out

Regarding this sort of verb, there are at least two problems that should be made clear to the students. First, they should know what preposition is usually added to each verb taught in this section. Second, some verbs demand noun phrase between the verbs and their proper prepositions.

The verb keep from demands an optional noun phrase.

She kept the children from waiting

She kept from waiting

Section 98 gives practice on changing a verb plus to or in followed by a noun into another verb.

Verb + to or in + NP $\rightarrow$ N1

Here are two examples :

They were torn into shreds $\rightarrow$ They were shredded

They were arranged in a list $\rightarrow$ They were listed

The teacher is supposed to explain that the base of the noun after the preposition becomes the base of the verb resulted from the transformation.

3.3.2. Adjectives

Sections 71, 72, 73, 74 and 75 talk about adjectives .

Either the past participle or the present participle of a verb may become an adjective. From a sentence in which a verb is placed between a non human subject and a human subject, we may derive a pair of sentences ;

each of which contains an adjective derived from the verb, either the present participle or the past participle.

Her remark to set me $\longleftrightarrow$

Her remark was upsetting $\longrightarrow$

I was upset

It surprised me that he did not pass $\longrightarrow$

It is surprising to me that he did not pass $\longrightarrow$

I am also surprised that he did not pass

A part from the irregularity of past participles used in this construction, a major problem for Indonesian students is about preposition that accompany the adjective.

He is worried about it = Ia tjemas akan hal itu

He is bored with politics = Ia djemu akan politik.

He is sure of his success = Ia jakin akan suksesnja.

We see that the Indonesia preposition akan may be expressed in English in many different words. To solve this problem in teaching Indonesian students, the teacher should tell them that each English adjective of this type has its own preposition and such a combination must be treated as one single phrase. He should keep them from translating an Indonesian adjective plus its preposition into the English language word for word.

3.3.3. Adverbs

Sections 18, 19 and 20 give practice on manner adverbials which are derived from adjectives. Here are two examples of adverbs presented in section 18 :

They are slow drivers $\longrightarrow$ They drive slowly

He is a good painter $\longrightarrow$ He paints well

There are some important points to notice in English teaching. The formation of an adverb from its corresponding adjective is performed by adding the suffix- ly: Adjective

+ ly → Adverb

Of course there are a few exceptions such as fast (remains fast), good (become well) . Another kinds of adverb formation in English is discussed in section 19 and is exemplified by the following :

He made a bus trip → He did it by bus

The teacher should clarify that some manner adverbials begin with the word by and others are preceded by the word with or without and section 20 deals with the latter.

He talked charmingly → He talked with charm

I did it carefully → I did it with care.

In this exercise an adverb is changed into the constr construction of with + noun

Charmingly → with charm

Adv → with + NP

Since the adverb beginning with by discussed in section 19 is almost similar in construction to its equivalent in Indonesian → such as by bus " dengan bis" → this section may be taught first and then section 18 and finally section 20.

Section 34 is about too and enough. An importants matter that should be explained to the students is the position of the word enough in English sentences.

It is important enough to require my signature

He could do it well enough if he tried

As an adverb of degree the word enough always follows an adjective or adverb that it modifies. But as an adjective, this word may come either before of after the noun modified.

He has enough time to give an interview

He has time enough to give an interview

Section 65 deals with adverbs anymore and still.

The following should be clearly explained to students.

The adverb still is placed before the verb -like Be or other auxiliaries in negative sentences.

He still isn't eating.

They still do not have to work

Tom still has not figured out how she does it

But in affirmative sentences the word still comes after the auxiliary Be.

Is he still the boss? - Yes, he is still the boss

It is advisable that the teacher presents the adverb still then the adverb any more is taught through transformation.

He is not teaching → He still isn't teaching →

He isn't teaching anymore

While the adverb still is used in affirmative, negative sentences the phrase any more is used in negative and interrogative sentences.

Is there any more water? - No, there isn't

any more

Section 59 deals with the words far and long.

As for these two words, the teacher should explain to the students that the words a long way and a long time use the alternate words far and long in negative and interrogative sentences.

Tom went a long way

Did Lucy go far? - No, she did not go far

It took me a long time to do it

How long can you stay?

Don't do it too long.

3.3.4. Prearticles

Section 4 presents English prearticles. By prearticles William E Rutherford seems to mean such phrases as some of, a few of, one of, both of, none of, alot of.

I can repay some money

I can repay some of the money

The construction of the two sentences above looks quite simple, but exercises that follow are sufficiently challenging for the students.

Teacher : The audience questioned the speaker
(a few).

Students 1 : A few of the questions were rather
silly.

Student 2 : Yes, afew of them were silly

The students are rather free to give their own responses to a statement given by the teacher. Each student may produce any grammatical sentence using the phrase a few. This kind of exercise encourages the students to be fairly creative.

A ~~conjunction~~ may be defined as a word that joint together words, phrases, clauses or sentences. In the ~~textbook~~ two kinds of conjunctions are discussed :

a. Coordinating conjunctions

b. Subordinating conjunctions (subordinators)

Coordinating conjunctions such as and, but are presented in sections 9, 10 and 27. Subordinating conjunctions such as if, when, because, though are presented in sections 49, 57, 58, 87 and 88.

Section 10 deals with conjunctions combined with adverb : and.... too, and either, but.

a. She wants coffee. I want coffee →

She wants coffee and I do too.

b. He will not want coffee. I will not want coffee →

He will not want coffee and I will not either.

c. He is going to have coffee. I am not going to

have coffee → He is going to have coffee, but,

I am not

d. 1. Bob is a boy (affirmative)

Dick is a boy (affirmative)

Bob is a boy and Dick is too

2. Bob is not a physician (negative)

Dick is not a physician (negative)

Bob is not a physician and Dick is not either

3. Bob is a smart student (affirmative)

Dick is not a smart student (negative)

Bob is a smart student but Dick is not.

In a) we have two affirmative sentences, the second sentence undergoes the following transformation ;

I want coffee → I do too

Structure analysis : X - Verb - NP

X - Aux+V- NP

Structure change X - Aux+V- NP → X - Aux - too

This auxiliary is always do when the verb of the sentence is a full verb of the simple present or the simple past tense.

In b) there are two negative sentences and the second sentence is changed as follows :

I will not want coffee, → I will not either.

Structure analysis : X - Aux - not-V - NP

Structure change : X - Aux - not-V - NP → X-Aux-not-either.

In c) the sentence is affirmative and the second is negative. In this case we use the conjunction but.

The second sentence undergoes the following transformation:

I am not going to have coffee → I am not

Structure analysis: X - Verb - NP

X - Aux+not+V - NP

Structure change : X - Aux+not+V - NP → X - Aux+not

V = the whole verb minus 1st auxiliary.

It is necessary to explain to the students that the negator not in the second original sentence of type c) is not dropped out in the compound sentence.

In these three kinds of intergration there is one common feature that should be explained to the students: The part of the verb after the first auxiliary and the noun phrase after the verb are deleted. In d) the teacher should make clear that when the two original sentences are both affirmative or negative we use the conjunction and. In case one original sentence is affirmative and the other is negative we use the conjunction but.

By subordinators, William E. Rutherford means subordinating conjunctions such as when, while, before, after, until. Speaking about the teaching of subordinators to the students, it is essential to clarify the difference between while and when. Either the subordinator while or when is not necessarily followed by a subordinate clause.

She had an accident while (she was) on the way

He hurt himself while (he was) playing tennis

He went to a doctor when ill

She told us when to eat.

The following is what may be used in teaching to show a difference between the two subordinators when each is used to introduce a clause.

Tom came while Jane studied (while & when)

Tom came while Jane was studying (while=when)

Tom came while Jane was leaving (while=when)

Tom came when Jane left (when=as soon as, can not be replaced by while)

In this case the teacher may explain that the subordinator while should be followed by a clause or a phrase showing an activity that has duration, whereas the subordinator when is not always followed by a clause implying such an activity. It is interesting to talk about the subordinator that in view of whether it can be deleted or not. The subordinator that may be used in the sentence construction introduced by the preparatory it or in the sentence construction without the preparatory it. Thus exercises on this subordinator can be combined with it-nominalization exercises.

That the dog eats from a pan is obvious →

It is obvious (that) the dog eats from a pan

And here is another example of a sentence using the subordinator that.

Do you know (that) he is from China?

From all the examples we see what to explain to the students. This conjunction is often omitted, but it is never omitted at the beginning of a sentence.

Section 58 is about subordinators if and whether. In this matter the teacher should make the students understand that in conditional sentences after the subordinator if we may use either any, anyone, anything etc. or some, someone, something etc.

I would come if I had any time left

I would come if I had some time left

In most cases the subordinator whether can be replaced by if. Anyhow, the teacher should explain that in this sort of sentence the word whether cannot be replaced by the word if.

Whether to go or not is the question

As for section 87, the teacher should explain the difference between so ... that and such that in this way. The first phrase encloses adjectives, adverbs, or nouns with much, little, many or few, but the second phrase encloses only nouns modified by adjectives.

He was so ill that he could not get up

She did it so well that people were surprised

They have so much money that they need not work

It was such a good movie that I saw twice

The subordinators if, unless, since, because, although, whether, and so (that) in one group are different from another group of subordinators such as when, where, while, before, after, until. The first usually introduces adverbial clauses only while the second group may introduce a construction other than an adverbial clause.

It was where Djalan Batu crosses Djalan Mawar

(predicate clause)

I wonder when that was (object clause)

That was before we moved to the country

(predicate clause)

He became poor while his sister became rich

(head clause).

3.3.6. Reflexive and emphatic pronouns.

Section 24 is about reflexive pronouns. A reflexive

pronoun is a pronoun which can be used as an object in a sentence in which the subject and the object refer to the same person or thing. The object may be an indirect object, direct object, or prepositional object. The transformation practised in this section is the following:

NP - Verb - NP - (not) to - V →

NP - Verb - oneself - (not) to - V

Bob told Bob not to chide →

Bob told himself not to chide.

In this example the reflexive pronoun functions as an indirect object. The following examples are respectively of the direct object type and of the prepositional object.

Direct object:

Bob hurt Bob → Bob hurt himself.

Prepositional object:

Betty muttered to Betty → Betty muttered to herself

Section 25 consists of exercises concerning emphatic pronouns. The teacher should make clear the difference among the following sentences:

He can cook by himself (alone)

He should not cook himself (direct object)

Besides you he himself can cook (too)

In this connection the context will help the students understand the dissimilarity.

3.3.7. Prepositions

Some prepositions discussed in sections 46, 47, and 48 are for, during, after, before, until. For the students it is sometimes hard to distinguish for from during. To overcome this difficulty the teacher may explain that the preposition for is used to answer questions starting with How long, while the preposition during is used to answer

question beginning with When, the following reduction is valid.

It happened during the rush hour → It happened then

3.3.8. Modals

Indonesian students may have some problems in studying modals. These things must be explained well by the teacher. First; a modal sometimes expresses various shades of meaning.

He may be absent today (possibility)

He may go home if he wants to (permission)

Second, some modals such as can, will, may have their past tense and some others like should, must have no past tense. Third, the negative adverb in English comes after the modal; while in Indonesian such a negative adverb usually comes before the modal.

Dick may not swim

Dick tidak boleh berenang

Betty could not play pingpong

Betty tidak dapat bermain pingpong

Modals are discussed in preliminary unit A, sections 91, 92 and 95. The transformation from affirmative statements containing these modals into negative and interrogative may be summarised as follows:

		NP - Aux+V	- X →
T-neg	:	NP - Aux+not+V	- X
T-yes/no	:	Aux - NP	-V - X
T-wh	:	Wh - Aux - NP	-X
			*
		He should be	here
T-neg	:	He should not be	here

T-yes/no : Should he be here?

T-wh : Where should he be?

X = any constituent which is proper

Note that in this connection, ^{we} are concerned only with the question word which functions other than as a subject.

3.3.9. Negatives and adversatives

Section 90 deals with adversative verbs, adversative adjectives, sentence negators and sentence restrictives.

Adversative verbs are those that imply opposition or antithesis such as deny, object, refuse, etc.

Adversative adjectives are adjectives implying opposition or antithesis such as reluctant. Sentence negators are words implying negation to the whole sentence, for instance not, no, never. Sentence restrictives are adverbs expressing restriction such as hardly, rarely. The following sentences show how English people use negatives and adversatives.

He denied to ever saying anything

He is reluctant to ever saying anything

He has never bought any other papers

It hardly cost you anything

The teacher should also explain that the English word ever has no equivalent in Indonesian in such a construction.

Apart from that, some sentence negators (not, never, no) and restrictives (only, hardly, scarcely) require inversion when each of them is placed at the beginning of a sentence. Such inversion is a problem for Indonesian students. That is why they should get to know that the inversion is done as follows. The first auxiliary comes after the restrictive

and then in sequence come the subject and the rest of the verb.

Never did he buy such a record

Scarcely did the boss get angry

Chapter IV CONCLUSION.

From the discussion in the preceding chapters we know that transformational-generative grammar may have some significant contributions to the teaching of foreign language. This grammar certainly helps us in the teaching of syntax.

Among other things it is recommended by transformational-generative grammar that grammatical rule internalization is of utmost importance. It is vitally needed for mastery and creativity in using the target language. In helping the students internalise grammatical rules the teacher may, use the target language, provided that the explanation does not produce any misunderstanding on the part of the students. In case the explanation in the target language causes some difficulty for rule internalization, the teacher should just use the students' native language.

There are a lot of grammatical exercises and explanation that can be made on the basis of transformational-generative grammar, i.e. by associating one type of sentence to another. Students may understand quicker this way and internalization of rules is consequently made easier.

To achieve a satisfactory result, we may combine these recommendations from transformational-generative grammar with those from the structural grammar.

From the structural or modern linguistics we know that drill and a lot of exercises is very important to make a certain pattern the habit of the students. With a good presentation of rules to be internalised by the students

as suggested by transformational-generative grammar and
a lot of practice as suggested by the structural grammar
we may achieve a satisfactory result in our language teaching.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Adhisusanto S.J., A.: The implications of an Error Analysis or First Year Students' Essays for the Teaching of Written Composition at the I.K.I.P. Level, March 1971, unpublished thesis, ^{Drs} IKIP Sanata Pharma, Jogjakarta
2. Bach, Ramon: An Introduction to Transformational Grammars. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1964.
3. Bloch, Bernard and George L. Trager: Outline of Linguistic Analysis. Baltimore: The Waverly Press Inc. 1942.
4. Bowen, J. Donald and Terence Moore: "The Reflexive in English and Spanish: A Transformational Approach". English Teaching Forum (E.T.F.); July-August 1969 pp. 2-11.
5. Chomsky, Noam: Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Massachusetts: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology (M.I.T.) Press, 1965.
6. —————: Syntactic Structures. 's-Gravenhage: Mouton and Co., 1957.
7. —————: "The Current Scene in Linguistics: Present Directions". E.T.F. March-May 1967, pp. 3-9.
8. Garner, John E. and Noel W. Schutz: "The Missing Link in our English Instruction". E.T.F. September-October 1970, pp. 2-6.
9. Gleason Jr., H.A.: An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc. 1961.

10. Harsh, Wayne: "Three Approaches: Traditional Grammar, Descriptive Linguistics, Generative Grammar." E.T.F. July-August 1968, pp. 2-9.
11. Kumanireng, Theresia Maria Josephine: English Question Patterns and How to Teach the to Indonesian Students, October 1973, unpublished Dns thesis, IKIP Sanata Dharma, Jogjakarta
12. Lado, Robert: Linguistics Across Culture. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1957.
13. Langendoen, D. Terence: The Study of Syntax. The Generative Transformational Approach to the Structure of American English. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1969.
14. Postal, Paul M.: "Underlying and Superficial Linguistic Structure". Harvard Educational Review, Spring 1964.
15. Prator, Clifford R.: "Development of a Manipulation-Communication Scale". E.T.F. July-August 1970 pp. 3-6.
16. Rivers, Wilga M.: "Rules, Patterns, and Creativity in Language Learning". E. T.F. Nov.-Dec. 1970. pp. 7-10.
17. Rutherford, William E.: Modern English. New York: Hare court, Brace and World, Inc., 1968.
18. Soepomo: "The Role of the Mother Tongue", unpublished.
19. Stryker, Shirley L.: "Applied Linguistics; Principles and Techniques; Part VIII: Syntax Transformational Grammar. E.T.F. Sept.-Oct. 1967 pp. 8-13.

20. Fester, Karl V.: "Grammars and Generative Grammar"
E.T.F. Sept. Oct. 1967 pp.3-7.
21. Wright, Andrey L.: Let's Learn English. New York:
American Book Company 1960.
22. Zandvoort, R.W.: A Handbook of English Grammar.
Djakarta: J.B. Walters 19650.

