

DRILLS AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

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by

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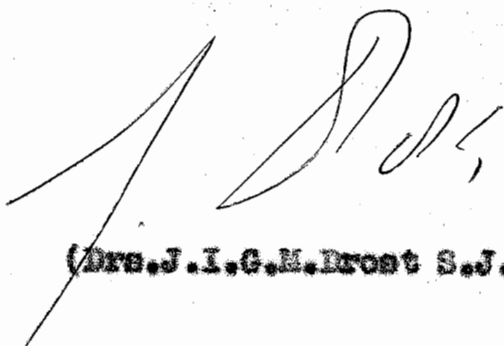


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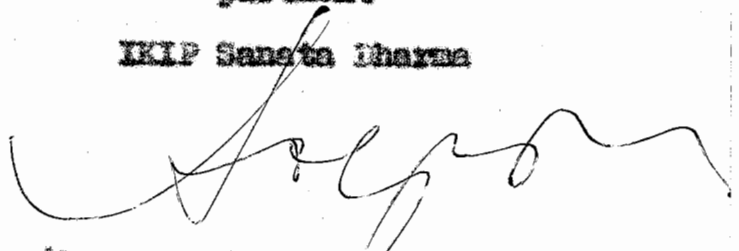
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INTRODUCTION

Language learning and teaching have been discussed extensively by so many people. Many linguists have made assiduous studies on the nature of language, its production and usage. Some experts take language acquisition achieved by native children as an object of analytical observation. The problem is even more interesting in this field when language activity concerns the acquisition of foreign language by foreign speakers. The fact that no two languages are exactly identical seems to be the inexhausted source of discussion, because in case of foreign language acquisition it means that two different linguistic nature must go side by side. The theories based only on the existing similarities and differences of the foreign language and the native tongue seem to be debatable. But all lead to the identical starting point: to gain the maximum of efficiency with the less efforts possible.

Language drills¹, if considered as a medium, are a device to transgress the gap between the two languages. The prevailing theory is that the wider the differences between the target language and the mother tongue, the more important the role of the drills will be. A child who first learns his mother tongue does not need such language drills, no interferences being possible. The difficulty that may be found is the organization of the language items, in which he is not at

¹For the definition of the word "drills", see p.4.

ease to see the correlation between the items. The term interference is then to be applied in its broader sense because the difficulty that the child comes across in the above case is also interferences between the language items within the same language. By means of constant contact with the environment speaking that language the child finally comes to master the language gradually. By continual exposure and practice with his own language the child is a potential device himself to diminish the interferences and to overcome them later due to his faculty and infantile ability.

If the role of practice and direct contact is undeniable in the process of language acquisition, a student learning a foreign language needs such practice too. In this case practice of that language - which is organized in various ways to suit the aim - is performed by means of language drills. The intensity of practice is paralleled to what one wants to achieve or expect from the foreign language. If understanding the written language is the aim, a lot of practice containing exercises of interlingual translation and silent reading may be the means. On the other hand, if the aim of foreign language learning is active mastery, intensive language drills are imperative. It is from this point of view that I discuss the contributions of language drills to the learning of a foreign language, putting the major stress in English. Some Indonesian and French examples are presented to give a fuller illustration.

Since natural constant exposure to the target language is not possible in most of our classes, lan-

gauge drills must be provided to make the practice possible. A complaint has been brought forward that such drills in language learning and teaching are purely artificial. It most probably happens since the environment of learning is somewhat the opposite to that of the foreign language. Besides the linguistic gap, cultural and social different background may make the argument more obvious. The main role of the teacher, therefore, is to make a transfer from a classroom - atmosphere which is mostly artificial to natural atmosphere by all facilities that are available. A textbook, however excellent it is, is incapable to provide the necessary situations as best as possible, being unable to predict the actual situations in class.

In Chapter I I attempt to describe the nature of drills. Chapter II is mainly devoted to how drills operate in the process of language learning. And in relation with the role of the drills themselves, short descriptions of language is deliberately proposed to clarify the link between drills and language learning in general.

I believe it is useful to know the many types of drills. A certain language item requires a certain type of drill. An illustration of these formal types is given in Chapter III. A lot of models have been chosen to describe these types.

Though learning a language does not mean deciphering the language components it is necessary that language is viewed from several features so that the learning becomes easier and more efficient. The drill approaches the language by attacking these special

features, as described in Chapter IV.

Since learning and teaching a certain language is inseparable from using certain methods, Chapter V deals with the operation of the drill in connection with methods being used in class. I do not give a complete discussion of the mutual link between drill and all methods. I have decided to choose four methods, namely Audio-Lingual, Audio-Visual, Translation and Direct Methods for a discussion because they are relevant to the different uses of the drills.

CHAPTER I

WHAT IS A DRILL ?

In term of foreign language teaching and learning, the word : 'drill' gets various descriptions, as shown by the following definitions :

- 'thorough training by repetition'.¹
- 'any exercise, physical or mental, regularly and repeatedly practiced'.²
- 'method of teaching by having the learners do a thing over and over again'.³
- 'to teach and improve by repeated exercises or practice'.⁴
- 'to train by giving much practice'.⁵
- 'training, exercise'.⁶
- 'thorough training by frequent repetition'.⁷

¹ A.S. Hornby, E.V. Gatenby, H. Wakefield, The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, London: Oxford University Press, 1958.

² Webster and Merriam, Webster's New Practical Dictionary, G & S Merriam Co. Publishers Springfield, Mass, USA, 1953.

³ The Thorndike Barnhart Handy Dictionary, Doubleday & Company Inc. N.Y., 1955.

⁴ Scholastic Dictionary of American English, Scholastic Book Services, N.Y. 1962.

⁵ Michael West, The New Method English Dictionary Longmans, 1960.

⁶ Webster & Merriam, Webster's Tenth Century Dictionary, The World Publishing Company, Cleveland and New York, 1956.

⁷ The Winston Dictionary for Schools, Winston.

From the above various definitions, the wordings vary. However one feature is certain, viz. that drill includes a lot of exercises or practice that should be done over and over again. This practice may be performed in various manners. Each is best suited for a certain situation or for a certain subject. For instance, with a big class the teacher may use chorus drills for a certain period of time. But facing a small class or group he may apply a more personal approach, for example by making question - and - answer drills as efficiently as possible. In a conversation class the teacher would perhaps choose dialogue drills in which mutual contact between the teacher and the students themselves is equally performed. He may not manage the class by employing sentence pattern drills where new grammatical points are to be established.

The target of language learning also decides the choice of the types of drills. If comprehension is the ultimate goal the teacher will not perhaps fill the time by using vocabulary drill which is intended to enrich the vocabulary stock of the students.

Moreover, the age of the students is one of the decisive factors. The teacher, for example, is able to benefit the strong memory of his young students. Vocabulary building is in some way more easily and efficiently established for them. The cultural and linguistic background takes also an important role in handling the class and in using the most suitable drills for them.

In brief, there are various types of drills, as will be shown in Chapter IV.

Oral and written drill

In the definitions of the term 'drill' that we have just seen it is not conventionally designated whether drill is oral or written. Undoubtedly in pronunciation drill, oral drill is the approach of establishing the foreign sounds. R. Lado and C.C. Fries say in their book "English Sentence Patterns"¹ that they do not expect the users of the book will deal with the exercises as a written material for homework. In the preface of the book C.C. Fries says that :

'Knowing' this grammar for practical uses means being able to produce and to respond to these signals of structural meaning. To develop such habits efficiently, demands practice and more practice, especially oral practice.²

In one of their books, which deals with language drills for the students of English, B. Mendelsohn and J.W. Palmer say that :

... the teacher should request them to read the questions first, and then, after all books have been turned over, ask and answer them orally, a pair of pupils at a time.³

Thus in the process of language learning, people always thinks of drills of being something oral. This is true because nowadays many students do a lot of oral practice in the preliminary level, before they come to the real mastery of the language. The term

¹Robert Lado & Charles C. Fries, English Sentence Patterns, Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press : 1969.

²Ibid., p. v.

³B. Mendelsohn and J.W. Palmer, Correct Your English, Longmans Green, 1967, p. vii.

'drill', however, is not always necessarily interpreted as oral practice. Written exercises may be included in drill too as for example a spelling drill. Hayden, Pilgrim and Hoggard say for their book that :

About half of the book consists of exercises designed for aural, oral, and written drill to aid the students in mastering the structures described in the text.¹

Further they say :

We want to stress that the exercises may be used in various ways. Although we have not always specially said so in the directions, almost every exercise can be used for aural, oral and written practice . . . We also mention that most of the exercises for articles and prepositions can be used for aural work (The instructor reads and the student fills in or checks what he hears), for oral work (the student reads and gives the forms as directed), and written work (the student writes as directed).²

Thus even though drill is very popular as oral practice, it may also be written exercises. What is important is that drill involves a lot of repetitions and regularity.

¹R.E. Hayden, D.W. Pilgrim, A.Q. Hoggard, Mastering American English, Prentice Hall, Inc., New York, p. v.

²Ibid., p. vi.

CHAPTER II

DRILLS AND LANGUAGE LEARNING IN GENERAL

Various concepts of language

Drills, having a significant role as indicated in various textbooks, should have provided some valuable contribution to the process of language learning. The writers of these textbooks should have had a certain conception of language acquisition or at least the theory of what a language is so that they consider the presence of drills important as a means to achieve the target of language learning. I will just try to give a simple illustration of how language in general operates and of how this operation takes place in connection with drills, so that the relation between drills and language learning is made more evident. Neither will I bring forward controversial views of linguists concerning of what language really is.

Drills and language as a system

Language according to C.C. Fries is :

... a system of structural units having meanings that are signalled by formal matters, and these formal matters can be described in terms of the contrastive arrangements and forms.¹

¹C.C. Fries, Linguistics and Reading,
Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1963, p. 70-1.

Holt,

The main attention is concentrated on language as a system. The same view is put forward by G.L.Trager, who defined language as :

a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of the society interact in terms of their total culture.¹

When a student uses a language, he deals at the same time with the system of the language. The system naturally should always be at his disposal so that any time he wants to use it, it is continually within his grasp. What the system may consist of he must be familiar with it and this enables him to use the language without any difficulty. And how will he be able to be familiar with the system if not through regular practice ? Language is not an occasional coincidence that he faces as a single phenomenon but it happens and goes along in his life time.

Content, expression and drills

If G.C. Fries uses the terms "meanings" and "formal matters" as two elements that embody the language, H.A. Gleason names them as "content" and "expression" :

The three major components of language, as far as language lies within the scope of linguistics, are the structure of expression, the structure of content, and vocabulary. The latter comprises all the specific relations between expression and content - in the familiar terminology, word and

¹Wilga M. Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, Chicago & London, The University of Chicago Press, 1964, p. 24.

their meanings.¹

Before a student is able to use the language, he must be aware of the close relation between "meanings" and "formal matters", between "content" and "expression" and gain their acquisition. He is supposed to recognize how the thing that he is about to express is to be signalled by formal codes, and how they are organized.

Drills as a means of practice

Language mastery is not theoretical analysis, because the student is not expected to master the language theoretically, but to use it. Explanations only do not help him much. The only way-out is that he should practice it repeatedly and regularly. So Dr. Starch says :

Knowledge of grammar has very little effect upon correct usage. The large increases in grammatical knowledge are accompanied by only small increases in correct usage Apparently imitation and repetition of correct expression are far more efficacious in forming correct habits than grammatical knowledge.²

Any language drills give enough practice where imitation and repetition play a prominent role and are of crucial significance in maintaining any new language items. If drills and practice and not merely theoretical study do contribute something for perfect language

¹H.A.Gleason, An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, Holt, Rinehart & Winston, New York, 1961, p.6.

²D Starch: Some Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages, School Review, vol. XXIII, 1915, as quoted by B. Mendelsohn and J.W. Palmer in Correct Your English, p. v.)

mastery it is then not without reason that
Shefter says :

Harry

Well, take the matter of driving the car. You didn't learn by attending lectures several times a week. Your actual training started behind the wheel. Your instructor set you to work at once starting the motor, getting the feel of the accelerator, stepping on the brakes, and using directional signals. You gained driving experience by DOING, not by talking about it.¹

So is learning a language. One is not expected to spend the whole time study in deciphering the simplest language particle. What he really needs is to get acquainted with the language by using it. Therefore Shefter adds :

A student of English, too, needs to get the feel of the tools of language, and it won't necessarily make any difference whether he knows their names or not. He needs something quick and easy, something that will help him break his bad habits, but something he can apply on the spot, almost automatically ... He just wants to talk it and write it as effectively as those he envies.²

The terminology and theory of language help him to the extent that they are considered as 'creative efforts' and 'guiding principles' out of which he may make more progress. These language tools are an inspiring guide for him in handling the language at ease and assuredly. Like the driver in the comparison, which is previously mentioned :

The car owner who carries a tool kit and can use it is less likely to get helplessly on some

¹Harry Shefter, Short Cuts to Effective English, Pocket Book, Inc. N.Y. pp. 2-3.

²Ibid., p. 3.

lonely country road with a stalled vehicle that glares at him defiantly.¹

Some may argue that this knowledge of language is only superficial. However, he is not expected to be a mechanic, or in this case, a language expert.

Drills and language habits

Some other linguists regard a language not as a system, but as habits : "A language is a set of habits"² Or another linguist, Robert Lado, a pioneer in the use of pattern practice says : "The fact that language operates largely on the basis of habit should be obvious to every one".³ Some other scholar, Robert Politzer for instance, considers language from the point of way of acting, and thus defines it : "Language is behaviour"⁴ If there are elements of habits and behaviour in language, then one who wants to acquire language mastery is likely to achieve it by a lot of practice. No one can attain a certain habit or behaviour unless he faces them again and again and lives in them. A single introduction is never sufficient to establish habit or behaviour. A person who once came in a foreign country can prove himself that daily contact with the language

¹Ibid., p. 4.

²C. Mohrman, A Sommerfelt, J. Whatnough: Trends in European and American Linguistics, Utrecht, Spectrum Publishers, 1963, pp. 86 - 9.

³Robert Lado, Language Teaching, Mc Graw Hill Inc., New York, 1964, p. 105.

⁴H. Rivers, op.cit., p. 20.

used by the society of his milieu gradually forms the new habits of language. As a result learning a foreign language is assumed to establish a new set of habits. Since constant contacts with the native speakers cannot be provided by our schools, language drills in class are important factors in establishing the new set of habits. Drills, therefore, are indispensable :

If the mechanism of a language constitutes a set of habits, the learning of a new language consists of learning these habits, and the learning of habits is best accomplished, the linguists reasoned, by constant imitation, repetition, practice, and drill.¹

Language, being a mass consisting of habits, the approach to attain it is also by habit establishment, which takes place in the process of language learning, as said by R. Lado :

It is only through habit that the thousand-and-one rules of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary are used by every fluent speaker at normal speed.²

This concept of approach is one of the theories of language acquisition. Herschel J. Prey, associate professor of foreign languages at New York State University College, in one of his articles calls it "habit formation" of which he says further :

The audio-lingual theory implies the acquisition of oral language skills through practice based on repetition and analogy function.³

¹C. Mohrman, A. Sommerfelt, J. Whatnough, op. cit., p. 87.

²Robert Lado, Language Teaching, op. cit., p. 105.

³H. J. Prey, Audio-lingual Teaching and the Pattern Drill, English Teaching Forum, vol. IX, July - August, no. 4, p. 11.

Though in the above quotation he puts major stress on the acquisition of spoken language the contribution of drills in general to language learning is considerable as he continues in the next explanation : "The purpose of overt practice via pattern and other drills is to make speech production automatic".¹

Language patterns

As I said in the previous chapter the aim of language learning decides formal drills to be exercised. Since in term of language learning it is assumed that language has the connotation of 'living language' ('la langue vivante'), the target of language acquisition is referred to its primary function : to communicate, meaning to send a message to other persons that the message can be understood by them. This sending a message is not a simple process like what a student may do in chemical laboratories. It is not a matter of arranging the necessary ingredients and by means of a catalisator, expected reactions or resulted substances are about to appear, in an automatic way.

A language is a body consisting of patterns. A student studying chemistry can easily understand that water consists of two elements : hydrogen and oxygen. The composition of these elements has its own fixed formula. Water in this case has also its unique formula. The H and O are composed in such a way that the only substance resulted, having undergone a certain pre-

¹Ibid., p. 11.

scribed formula, is named 'water', and not any other materials. The student may reproach then that the process is not so simple as it seems to be. He will say that water consists of atomic particles which go through a complex procedure. But he will admit ultimately that however complex they may be, water can only be obtained in such and such formula and not the other one. Thus from an infinite mass of atoms we can single out a certain sort of combination or interaction that is called : 'water'.

A language also consists of various atoms or patterns. A linguist is able to draw a contour of language patterns. Out of these items or patterns innumerable utterances and expressions can be made. Every linguistic situation requires its own linguistic expression. Since it is impossible to limit and put the situations into a fixed range, the number of expression can never be limited either.

Drills and understanding the language patterns

A student who is learning a foreign language should not think that he has to learn the language in the way the parrot does. The process of stimulus - response in the parrot takes place in a very automatic but dead manner; though it can produce a variety of utterances that are taught by its master of that it hears frequently, these utterances cannot be called language because they are linguistically meaningless for the parrot. The stimulus-response process is so fixed and done with no consideration to meaning. On the other hand, the utterances that may be produced by a

student learning a foreign language are quite unlimited. He can always change his responses to suit the innumerable situations. Within the grasp of his language knowledge he may create new utterances that he never said before. Out of the limited patterns he can produce unlimited utterances; whereas in case of the parrot the 'patterns' are not productive since no further utterances may be elicited.

The prominent difference between the student and the parrot in question is that the first understands what he is to say and what he is going to say, or what he is actually saying. Therefore the aim of teaching and learning a language is first of all to establish the understanding of the necessary patterns and make them always at the student's disposal. This understanding permits him to utter new expressions, as said by F. Riquédet : "... to make the student understand and use the necessary mechanisms for the expression".¹ This understanding is completely different from that demanded from a student of History Department who is supposed to understand the cause of World War II for example . Language, being a body consisting of patterns to be practiced, requires constant acquaintance before one comes to the understanding and then to use it. And drills enable this operation to occur more smoothly because drills provide the necessary practice.

¹Francis Riquédet, Les Exercices Structuraux ,
Libraries Hachette et Larousse, Paris, 1966, p. 10.

Drills and language as a means of communication

Language as a means of communication is pointed out as follows : "Language is primarily a means of communication between human beings or social groups".¹ Or, as C.C. Fries says similarly in relation with the importance of constant practice :

... nor that I deny that the chief business of language is to communicate meanings of various kinds, and that the linguistic student must constantly deal with meanings.²

As it has been previously mentioned, to communicate means to exchange messages in a certain language, and therefore to practice the language itself. In this case, drills seem to be a tool of great usefulness in regard to the practice needed.

To teach a foreign language means to teach how to communicate in that language. Consequently, the chief object of language teaching is not theoretical explanations without any simple exercises, but continuous practice in which drills are unnegligible factors : "... exercising the students to the practice of language".³

Drills and situational language learning

Understanding of the patterns or structure and then the ability to express new utterances are main points to which language learning is directed. It fol-

¹ Credif. Voix et Images de France, Didier, Paris, 1962, p. viii.

² Charles C. Fries, The Structure of English Longmans, 1963, p. 8.

³ Le Français dans le Monde, Juillet/août, no. 34, 1965, p. 44.

lows that the learner is expected to react properly to certain situations requiring certain responses or expressions. Language learning has much to do with the fact of how the learner reacts when facing a language situation. From this point of view the goal of language learning will be, as demonstrated by Carol J. Kriedler :

... to be able to manipulate the structural patterns of English in real situations - to attain the ability to understand, to reply, to take part in communication, in short, to react properly in an English language situation.¹

The student can only manipulate the structural patterns naturally if he is constantly trained to produce proper language reactions in language situations, to which drills are of considerable help :

... exercises are provided to help the students manipulate the new language and to establish language habits. This is done through providing listening and speaking drills that are rigidly controlled by the teacher.²

¹C.J. Kriedler, Visual Aids, English Teaching
Division, Information Center Service, US Information
Agency, Washington DC, 1968, p. 27.

²Ibid., p. 41.

CHAPTER III

VARIOUS TYPES OF DRILLS

It has been mentioned that drills are of various kinds. They include : Substitution drill, Transformation drill, Transformation-substitution drill, Simple repetition drill, Combination drill, Fill-in - the - blank -drill, Insertion/Expansion drill, Multiple substitution drill, Matching drill, Putting the words in correct forms, Underlining the correct forms/True - False Exercises. And drills may have several forms, depending on the approach being made to learn a language. The above mentioned types that I am about to discuss are meant by the formal types by which a way of approaching a language is done. It is the outward forms of drill used by a teacher in handling his class. Though most of the examples are mainly specialized for sentence pattern drills, the kinds of exercises being used may give a description of drills in general.

1. Substitution drill

Substitution drill can be obtained by replacing one segment or more in the model with another complement having the same nature but of a different form. The segment to be substituted can be the various elements of the sentence, for example nouns in subject or predicate positions, verbs, adjuncts of place and time. The segment in question is given as cases and the stu-

dents are asked to substitute the intended items with those cues. This type of drill is more popularly used as oral drills since it is a helping tool to train the students' agility in handling the new language, and thus their fluency is considerably improved. The cues may be provided already by the textbook writers or they can be elicited by the teacher. With the books close the teacher may also read the cues to drill the students. Substitution drill may consist of a list of words that can be substituted at one item every time.

E.g. : in subject position:

Model: John's tired.

Mary Mary's tired
 She She's tired
 The students The students' are tired
 They They're tired
 Etc.¹

Another example of the use of the substitution drill is for instance in teaching noun plural :

E.g. : Model : Here are some books
 Response : Here are some books
 Model; Cue : Here are some books ... Bag
 Response : Here are some bags
 Model; Cue : Here are some bags...Brush
 Response : Here are some brushes.Etc.²

In the above examples the students are trained in the various formations of noun plural.

¹ Examples taken from: R.Lado & C.C.Pries, English Sentence Patterns, The University of Michigan, 1969, Lesson I, p. 5.

² Examples chosen from Shirley Stryker's article, English Teaching FORUM, Vol. VIII, Sept. - Oct., 1969, no. 5, p. 20.

2. Transformation drill

By the word transformation it is meant that the item in a sentence is changed and transformed according to the given cue. This type drill is rather used as oral training as to exact quick intended responses from the student. The cues being used are already given in the exercise-books or simply invented by the teacher. The student is supposed to 'remake' the sentence the cue being given to him. A large number of sentence patterns can be established by using transformations drills. They can be equally employed :

- a. to establish the pattern after the verb "wish", changing the Simple Present into the Simple Past.

E.g. :

Cue : I don't think Dr. Jones is in the office.

Intended response : I wish he was in the office now.

Cue : I don't believe Paul can drive a car.

Intended response : I wish he could drive a car.

Cue : I know Juan doesn't speak English.

Intended response : I wish he spoke English.
Etc.¹

- b. to establish 'there' transformations as an introductory word beginning a sentence.

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
A pencil is on the desk	There is a pencil on the desk.
A man is at the door	There is a man at the door.
Some sandwiches are in the refrigerator	There are some sandwiches in the refrigerator. Etc. ²

¹R. Lado & C. C. Fries, English Sentence Patterns op.cit., p. 209.

²Stryker's article, op.cit., p. 34.

c. question transformations

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
You are busy	Are you busy ?
They went home	Did they go home ?
He reads fast	Does he read fast ?
I saw John at the store	Where did you see John?
	Etc. ¹

d. imperative transformation

E.g.:

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
You study hard	Study hard !

e. passive transformation

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
John ate the candy	The candy was eaten by John.
Joan is mixing the cake	The cake is being mixed by Joan.
X built a bridge	The bridge was built. Etc.

f. stylistic transformation

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
He goes away	Away he goes.

g. transformations used in transformed sentences

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
The house is blue } the blue house } The house is pretty }	The blue house is pretty
The boys were playing } the boys playing } I saw the boys	I saw the boys playing
The man bought a car } who bought a car } I know the man	I know the man who bought a car.
I was late } because I was late } I missed the bus	I missed the bus because I was late

¹Stryker's article, op.cit., p. 34.

He came	}	I met him when he came
when he came		
I met him		

The girl is in the room	}	The girl in the room
The girl is Joan		is Joan.

Thus in this type of drill two or more sentences are changed into a single one.

- h. to practice the difference between a real and and an unreal expectations using "if" clauses

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>		<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
If I am not too busy,	}	If I weren't too busy,
I'll meet you on supper		I'd meet you on supper.

- i. to practice a pattern containing an object complement

E.G.:

<u>MODEL</u>		<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
They like cold coffee		They like their coffee cold.

He wants someone to paint)	}	He wants the house
his house white		painted white.

- j. to practice "it-pattern" and "-ing phrase pattern"

E.g. :

<u>MODEL</u>		<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
Eating healthy foods is necessary		It is necessary to eat healthy foods.
Sitting here under the tree is pleasant		It is pleasant to sit here under the tree.
Etc. ¹		

3. Transformation-substitution drill

This type of drill is a combined operation between transformation and substitution process. An item is either transformed or substituted every time.

¹Stryker's article, op.cit., pp. 34-5-6.

E.g. :

MODEL / CUE

INTENDED RESPONSE

Peter is watching the play.

He

He is watching the
play.

Last week

He watched the play
last week.

Every day

He watches the play
every day.

We

We watch the play
every day.

In the above examples the student is trained in the use of various elements of the sentence with their corresponding changes.

4. Simple repetition drill



The exercise is performed only by repeating the given cue or model. The teacher says the model and the students are to repeat it either individually or in chorus. The example may be found in practicing foreign language sounds, and in order that the characteristics of the sound to be mastered are made evident, they are put in minimal pairs :

E.g. : sit	-	seat
pill	-	goal
fit	-	feet
will	-	wheel

For the Japanese students for whom the sounds /l/ and /r/ are difficult to distinguish the following example of simple repetition drill put in minimal pairs may be

of some use :

E.g. : late	-	rate
light	-	right
liver	-	river
leading	-	reading

The sounds to be drilled may also be put in a sentence, and the student is asked to repeat the sentence again and again :

E.g. : Sue saw her shoes on the sea-shore

5. Combination drill

Such drills demand the student to combine the information in two sentences according to the cue already given.

E.g. :

- in prepositional phrase

Cues : The girl is a famous singer.

The girl has black hair.

Response : The girl with black hair is a famous singer.

Cues : We are going to the theatre

The theatre is on State Street

Response : We are going to the theatre on State Street.

- in verbal phrase where it is used as a subject or an object

Cues : People study in the library

It is convenient

Response : Studying in the library is convenient.

Cues : People eat rice

They like it

Response : They like to eat rice.

- two sentences may be combined together to include a clause that modifies a noun.

Cues : He read the book

The book describes modern architecture.

Response : He read the book that describes modern architecture.

There may be a slight difference between transformation and combination drills. Both deal with some change from the cue to the response. They are formally intertwined each other and work together frequently in the language practice. Anyhow in transformation drills the expected response is a transformed version of the cue, whereas in combination drills the response will be stressed on the fact that the cues are combined or 'changed' into one 'unit'. In combination drills transformations can also be found, but it is not in this matter that combination drills are intended to.

6. Fill-in-the-blank drills

In this practice the student completes a sentence of which one item or more is missing. The words to be filled in the blanks should be furnished by the student himself or they are already given as cues. In the latter case the words are arranged at a random set so that the student has to make the right choice. Practice on definite and indefinite articles may be given in

this type of drill :

E.g. : Write the story using : a, an, some, any or the.

My uncle and his family live in ... village near Jogjakarta. ... streets there are not noisy. There are not many cars in ... village; there are only ... few.¹

7. Insertion drills or expansion drills

Unlike the fill-in-the-blank exercise, the insertion drills use model sentences which are right in their own right. The position of the cues to be inserted is not indicated so that it is good for the student to learn how word-order is organized in the correct way. For example :

- For the position of the prepositional phrase after the noun it modifies.

E.g.: They met a man/ from New York/ ... They met a man from New York.

The woman is my sister ... The woman by /by the window/ the window is my sister.

- For the position of frequency words - after the verb 'be' and before other verbs

E.g.: I am at home. /usually/ ... I am usually at home.

He is late. /often/ He is often late.

¹ Taken from English for the SLTA; Proyek Bahasa Inggris Direktorat Jenderal Pendidikan Dasar Departemen Pendidikan & Kebudayaan, p. 55.

They drive fast /never/ ... They never drive fast.¹

8. Multiple choice drill

By using this drill, the student is asked to suit the response to the given cues, of which only one is likely to be the correct and the most suitable meaning. This type of drill is often used to train the student in learning the proper meaning of a word.

E.g.: In these following examples the student is to write the letter of the word or phrase that is nearest in meaning to the underlined word. (The underlining is added by the writer of this thesis).

- ... 1. Marriage with a common forced the princesses to renounce her claim to the throne.
(A) declare; (B) give up; (C) retain; (D) announce.
- ... 2. Being a human, we may be fallible in our judgements.
(A) correct; (B) supernatural; (C) likely to err; (D) fair.
- ... 3. Those used to urban ways, may be somewhat lonely in the country.
(A) gentle; (B) city; (C) cheerful; (D) quiet.
- ... 4. Since they already own their two television sets, the set they won was superfluous.
(A) welcome; (B) more than needed; (C) superior; (D) especially needed.²

For comprehension test after reading a passage multiple choice drills may provide some advantage. The exercises

¹See Stryker's article, p. 31.

²Chosen from Grow in Word Power, Reader's Digest Services, Educational Division, Pleasantville, N.Y., pp. 25-6-7-30.

may be arranged in a similar way like completion by which a student is asked to complete a sentence by choosing one of the given answers, or in a question - answer form, which requires a definite choice among the available answers.

E.g. :

1. It was Badi's big day because :
 - a. it was his birthday
 - b. it was his first day in high school
 - c. he had a new bike.
2. For breakfast he had
 - a. bread and tea
 - b. nothing
 - c. bread only.¹
1. Why did the students want to earn some money ?
 - a. Their parents never give them any
 - b. To help their parents,
 - c. To get something to do.
2. What should they do with their money ?
 - a. Give it to their parents,
 - b. Give it to their school,
 - c. Buy books and other things for school.²

In the above examples the context might not be clear since the story is unknown. However their presentation may describe distinctly other possible forms of multiple-choice drills.

9. Matching drill

By a matching drill it is meant by an exercise in which two lists of words or sentences are put side by side and the items of the first column are to be suited with the second's items by matching them. To avoid trial

¹ Chosen from English for the SLTA, op.cit., p.73.

² Chosen from English for the SLTA, op.cit., p.92.

and error efforts or occasional answers there are more items in the second column. Such drills are often used to exact precise definitions of the words in question;

E.g.:

Write letter of correct definition before number of word to be defined.

<u>Words</u>	<u>Definitions</u>
... 1. anecdote	A. trickster or cheat
... 2. assistance	B. rebellion against authority
... 3. mutiny	C. mischievous youngster
... 4. novelty	D. anger
... 5. rookie	E. remedy for any evil
... 6. urchin	F. something new; innovation
... 7. wrath	G. ghost; apparition
	H. tale; brief story
	I. help; aid
	J. beginner; novice ¹

10. Putting the words in correct forms

This type of drill is generally not considered as a separate type of drill which deserves a special name because it is operated similarly in the other types, for instance transformation. But since this form of drill is outwardly organized in its own way, a special category may be made up.

E.g.: Put the word in the story in the correct tenses; Past, Present Progressive, Present or Going to Future Tense.

Mr. and Mrs. Blake (have) three children. They (b) Pamela, Philip and Albert. The family (arrive) in Indonesia a few weeks ago. Al (stay) in Indonesia while their parents are here. The twins (go) back to America. Etc.²

¹ Chosen from Grow in Word Power, op.cit., p. 5.

² Chosen from English for the SLTA, op.cit., p.29.

11. Underlining the correct forms or True-False exercises

Though they are getting less and less popular except in traditional textbooks, they can be also included as separate types of drills, since they are performed in their own characteristics. They are particularly found in either written exercises or in comprehension practice.

Eg. : Comprehension questions

I. Modified True - False

1. Asia was one part of the only continent in the world millions of years ago.
2. Australia was a part of Asia at that time.
3. People do not live on all of the Indonesia's 13.667 islands. Etc.¹

Other scholars divide the types of drills into far more simplified categories. They just give the main formal types, considering that the other kinds of drills are derived in the same way from the main formal types. Herschel J. Frey, for example, in his article "Audio-lingual Teaching and the Pattern Drill" (See English Teaching FORUM vol. ix, july-august 1971 no. 4 pp. 12-3) proposes four general types currently used:

1. The repetition drill

Special attention should be paid to numerous repetition drills that are not pattern drill. In case the student is to repeat either the whole sentences or segments of sentences from a dialogue, repetition drill is not pattern drill since no pattern has been es-

¹ Taken from English for the SLTA, op.cit., p. 67.

established. The use of the term 'pattern drill' is not particularly referred to 'sentence pattern drill' but it is rather related to 'practice drill'. It is because the label pattern drill has been largely applied to various practice drills, not all of them consisting patterns. Whereas the traditional notion of the pattern drill as generally used by most of language teachers and learners is "those drills that in their execution focus the learner's attention on one change at a time, when this change occurs consistently within the same phonological or grammatical frame" (See H.J. Frey's article p. 13). If, as it is already mentioned in the beginning of this paragraph, complete or partial repetition from the dialogue is not likely to be called pattern drill, since no pattern has been established, I think that it can be called pattern drill implicitly. Dialogues which contain peculiar sounds that are somewhat unfamiliar to the student can be well trained as pattern-drill, in its popular meaning, to establish the patterns of the sounds, though the goal of the dialogues as such is fluency. The argument, then, is that a pattern has been established.

2. The item-substitution drill

This second type calls for "the replacement of a form in one slot by a given cued item in the same slot, thereby establishing the pattern. (See Frey's article p. 12). It can be managed through several changes, in addition to the replacement so that more than one substitution are operated within the drill, as,

for example the concordance between noun and determiner or between subject and object :

E.g. : Model : This orange tastes good.
 /apple/ This apple tastes good.
 /apples/ These apples taste (s) good.

The concordance between a noun as subject and possessive pronoun provides another example :

E.g. : Model : I read my book.
 /Peter/ Peter reads his book.
 /Joan/ Joan reads her book.
 /Joan+
 Peter/ Joan and Peter read their book.

I have a strong tendency to call this type of operation 'multiple substitution drill', in which the item of substitution is more than one.

In the above examples the substitutions always involve in the same sentence position, namely the subject and the possessive pronoun modifying the object. It can be varied richly. An example may be brought forward as a point of reference :

E.g. :

<u>C U E</u>	<u>R E S P O N S E</u>
She wants a pen now	She wants a pen now
a book	She wants a book now
I	I want a book now
need	I need a book now
yesterday	I needed a book yesterday. Etc.

3. The transformation (or construction) drill

Transformational drills focus a change in syntax, often one involving permutation that results in some similar version of the original, even a kind of translation.¹

Accordingly if there is no syntactical change within a sentence a transformation does not likely occur. Question exercises, Passive voice drill, Imperative Practices are typical example of transformations. Some student may think that verbal change from the Present to the Simple Past, especially those irregular verbs is included in the transformation, like :

e.g. : I kick the ball I kicked the ball
yesterday.

I go to school I went to school
yesterday.

Etc.

It seems that some internal change is involved within the verbs, at least verbal formal changes. But since the syntax remains the same (S + V), this process cannot be called transformation. S.L. Stryker in her article on English morphology² says that substitution drill is widely used in teaching the automatic use of inflectional suffixes. Since these inflectional suffixes include the Past Tense suffixes (in contrast to the derivational suffixes that change the part of speech of a word and can have other suffixes added after it), the verbal change from kick to kicked is not a

¹Frey's article, ibid., p. 13.

²FORUM, vol.VII, no.4, 1969, op.cit., p.19.

transformation, the sentence remaining the same syntactically. But, if in one of her other example :

He studies every day ... He studied yesterday¹
 Stryker calls it as transformation, she will be contradicting herself by saying that the verbal formal change from need to needed is not a transformation. (She calls it a substitution on p. 24). Concerning the transformational drills Stryker says that "the cue is a sentence and the response is a transformed version of the cue sentence".² Though the cue in the example above is just a single word ('yesterday'), the resulted response is the same, as from need to needed since there is a transformational change. It is then not a matter how the cue is given, either a complete sentence or a word, because the response would be the same. It is only a technique of presenting the one and the same thing.

Obviously scholars do not unanimously hold the same view of how transformation drill is described accurately. Change in suffixes is not probably a reliable criterion to make an accurate distinction between a substitution and a transformation. To clarify the ambiguity it may be of some use to put the main problem into a more simplified principle; if in the response the given cue is substituted or replaced, then it is a substitution drill. Hence a transformation is resulted when the cue is item is changed into another

¹Ibid., p. 36.

²Ibid., p. 36.

form. In the former example, for instance He studies every day, it is transformed into He studied yesterday in a transformation drill. The same model becomes He eats every day in a substitution drill where the item is totally replaced by eats. Since transformation drills are specially used in the sentence pattern drill it would be easier to notice that a transformation happens when there occurs a change in a structure, being more complex or the other way round. The model I enjoy the TV program is not said to be replaced by I am enjoying the TV program, but rather the structure of the sentence is transformed into another form.

4. Translation drill

In this type of drill, the one must be translated into the mother tongue or vice versa, either in the written or oral way. In studying Latin for example translation drills prove to be a very efficacious way of approach, which can be easily understood because handling a language - a dead language such as Latin - by means of oral exercises in Direct Method seems unreal for the language learning target itself.

These are the main types of drills, from which according to Frey as many as a dozen or more specific types may be posited.

A more detailed list of the types of drills is proposed by François Réquénat¹. He classifies drills as follows :

1. Repetition

¹François Réquénat, op.cit., p. 21.

2. Substitution
3. Transformation
4. Question.

1. Repetition Exercises

This repetition can be utilized for small or more expanded groups.

a. Simple repetition

This type of exercise is exactly the same as Simple repetition drill that has been previously discussed on page 25.

b. Regressive repetition

The last segment of the sentence to be drilled is repeated first. Then it is followed by a segment just in front of it and combined with the last segment and so on, until the students repeat the complete sentence. This drill is for example used in maintaining intonation pattern. If the repetition is exercised in the normal way from the first segment, then the following, the student will have a strong tendency to produce falling down intonation for each segment, whereas the context requires a rising intonation ;

E.g. :

	<u>first</u>	<u>visit</u>
	<u>your first</u>	<u>visit</u>
<u>Was it your first</u>	<u>visit</u>	

I think that this system has no such superiority in efficiency compared to the normal procedure. The student, specially when he is still young, has such an unpredictable inclination to imitate, even blindly,

their teacher. And if the item is modelled in the correct way the normal system is also of valuable advantage. Moreover this regressive procedure may somewhat confuses the student to come to the meaning and against the nature of logic.

c. Repetition with addition

This type is operated in the opposite way to the regressive repetition. This drill may be used to train the student to alter the intonation of the model, being added every time with a new segment :

E.g. : It is going to rain

It is going to rain tonight.

2. Substitution Exercises

Substitution drill can be obtained by replacing one (or more) segment in the model with another complement having the same nature, but of a different form.

a. Substitution without concordance ('substitution sans accord')

It would be suffice that a new segment is added to the model without producing any change :

E.g. :	<u>Model</u> : He came yesterday
/last week/	He came last week
/two years ago/	He came two years ago

a.1. Simple substitution

E.g. :	<u>Model</u> : Ray likes to travel
/to eat/	Ray likes to eat
/to sleep/	Ray likes to sleep
/to stay at home/	Ray likes to stay at home.

a.2. Double Substitution ('Substitution à double entrée')

E.g. :	<u>Model</u> :	It is you that he wants to see
/that I need/		It is you that I need
/It is her/		It is her that I need
/that I like/		It is her that I like
/It is you/		It is you that I like.

Thus instead one item to be substituted there are two elements having different positions, that are replaced successively.

a.3. Triple Substitution ('Substitution à triple entrée')

There are three segments of different sentence positions to be substituted in succession.

E.g. :	<u>Model</u> :	He learns Russian
/John/		John learns Russian
/speaks/		John speaks Russian
/Javanese/		John speaks Javanese
/Mary/		Mary speaks Javanese
/Spanish/		Mary speaks Spanish
		Etc.

b. Substitution with concordance ('substitution avec concordance')

It is not only a matter of changing sentence position, but the inserted one causes some modifications in the

concerning elements.

b.1. Simple Substitution

E.g.

Model : Paul forgets the umbrella

/We/

We forgets the umbrella

/You/

You forget the umbrella

/Susie/

Susie forgets the umbrella

/Mary and Joan/

Mary and Joan forget the umbrella.

b.2. Double Substitution

Like in the substitution without concordance in this double substitution two points to be substituted are involved. The concordance between the noun subject and the verb may be shown in the following example :

E.g. :

Model: Peter reads a book

/You/

You read a book

/Some/

You read some books

/a/

You read a book

/many/

You read many books

/I/

I read many books

Etc.

3. Transformation Exercises ('Les Exercices de Transformation')

In the Substitution Drill there are no changes in structure of the response. They are always the same structurally ;

S

PV

DO

<u>S</u>	<u>PV</u>	<u>DO</u>
John	bought	/a book/
John	bought	/a car/

In transformation Drills however a structure may be transferred into a more complicated structure :

<u>S</u>	<u>PV</u>	<u>SC</u>
I	am	a giant

into :

<u>S</u>	<u>PV</u>	<u>S₂</u>	<u>PV₂</u>	<u>SC</u>
I	wish	I	were	a giant

If a given structure is called A, by means of a substitutive procedure there will be obtained A₁, A₂ and so on. Though the formal sentence is altered, it remains structurally the same. Such a scheme may be drawn : A₁ = A₂ = A₃. In transformation drill, by means of a given cue X the structure A becomes B, of which the process may be described as follows :

$A + X = B; A_2 + X = B_2; A_3 + X = B_3.$

Three main types of transformation drills are :

a. Transformation by addition ('la transformation par addition')

By an element given as a cue, the model undergoes a modification as :

E.g. : Model : He had a cold yesterday

CUE

INTENDED RESPONSE

he said He said he had had a cold the
day before

In which direct and indirect practice are trained. In answering a question given as the cue item (for example the additional word "No, ...") the student practices

structural transformation from the question to the answer as found in the response :

E.g. :

<u>CUES</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
Does Robert work?	No, Robert doesn't work
Does he close the door?	No, he doesn't close the door.
Does he drink the milk on the table?	No, he doesn't drink the milk on the table.

The structure therefore can be developed into more and more complex form.

b. Transformation by reduction ('la transformation par réduction')

This type of drill is widely used in French. Some elements of the sentence are dropped off and replaced by a more simplified segment that occupies a specific position in the sentence pattern. In the following examples, several words denoting the adjunct of place are replaced only by one single word without changing the whole meaning of the corresponding sentence.

E.g. :

<u>CUES</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
Je vais <u>à la gare</u>	J'y vais
(I go <u>to the station</u>)	(I go <u>there</u>)
Je vais au <u>jardin</u>	J'y vais
(I go <u>to the garden</u>)	(I go <u>there</u>)
Il vient <u>de l'école</u>	Il <u>en</u> vient
(He comes <u>from school</u>)	(He comes from <u>there</u>)

The model sentence that is constructed in a complex

manner can be 'shortened' in a more simplified form.
Two words or more that denote the object may be re-
placed by a single item having the same function :

E.g.:

<u>QUES</u>	<u>INTENDED RESPONSE</u>
Il croit que ton ami viendra (He believes <u>that his</u> <u>friend will come</u>)	Il <u>le</u> croit (He believes in <u>it</u>)
Il croit au Père Noël (He believes in Père Noël)	Il <u>y</u> croit (He believes in <u>him</u>)
Il boit de l'eau (He drinks <u>water</u>)	Il <u>en</u> boit (He drinks <u>it</u>)
Etc. ¹	

This process of reducing can also be applied to several sentences that must be changed into a more simplified construction or sentence, using the given cue :

E.g.:

- John didn't study for his chemistry test. He failed it.

Cue : should

Response : He should have studied

- Mary didn't answer the phone when I called her up last night.

Cue : night

Response : She might have been in the library.

In the two examples the student does not merely prac-

¹François Réquidat : op.cit., p. 31.

tice the correct transformation (in this case the use of should have/night have + Past Participle), but they are also invited to make personal responses by building up their own sentences.

c. Transposition

The transformation occurs according to the item as indicated in the model and it is put in the initial position.

E.g.:

CUE

INTENDED RESPONSE

Mary sees me

But I don't see her.

Peter sees me

But I don't see him.

Mary and Peter see me But I don't see them.

4. Question

Questions and answers can also be taught through drills. The way of posing questions may be varied very richly according to the level of the class.

a. Questions requiring the student to repeat several segments in the response

E.g.:

CUE

RESPONSE

Does Bob go to school every day ?

Yes, Bob goes to school every day.

Are you a language teacher ?

Yes, I am a language teacher.

Does Catherine work in the factory on Sunday?

No, Catherine doesn't work in the factory on Sunday.

b. Constructed Response ('les réponses construites')

The element in the response may be taken from a dialogue or from a text already learned. Two principal types are posited :

b.1. Who, What, Where, When, How many, How much

To respond such questions, a short subject or complement would suffice.

E.g.: - Who goes to school every day ?

+ Bob goes to school every day, or

It is Bob who goes to school every day.

- Where is Peter ?

+ Peter is not at home.

b.2. Why, How

By these interrogative words the student is forced to spend more efforts in finding out the proper answer which may be taken either from the eventual text or from the student's common sense. Then the student is introduced to conversation activity.

E.g.: - Why doesn't Mr. Smith work ?

+ Because he is a very lazy man.

- Why does your father work ?

+ Because he must earn money.

The first may be derived from a context, while the second is its application in the real life situation.

b.3. Grouped Response (Réponses groupées)

It is obtained by combining the type b.1. and the type b.2. A piece of information is read over and over to the student till he understands it. Then various questions are posed to him. The simple or complex questions may be chosen.

E.g.: Peter does not go to school on Thursday and on Sunday because he has no class those

days.

Questions :

- Does Peter go to school on Thursday and on Sunday ?
- Why doesn't Peter go to school on Thursday and on Sunday ?
- What does Peter do on Thursday and on Sunday ? Why?

The last question requires some imagination from the part of the student.

c. Open Question ('les réponses ouvertes')

This type of question enables the student to be trained in expressing himself freely disregarding a given material or text. "Yes-or-No Question" would exact from the student a well thought choice because they must take the responsibility in selecting the response. The answers are justified and somehow defended.

E.g.: - Did you go to the movies last night ?

+ No, I didn't go to the movies last night because I had some work to finish, (or) I had a cold (or) I did not like the film.

+ Yes, I went to the movies last night because I was free, (or) I like the film very much (or) I just wanted to kill the time.

A question taken from the common knowledge of the student or daily life activity can be put forward as examples :

E.g.: - What is the use of a chair ?

- What do you do every Sunday morning?

- Why should people come in time in the railway station ?

Such challenging questions may give considerable help in introducing the student to the written composition, by forcing them to find out what to say or write.

Another useful point of the open question is that it can be utilized as well to establish some grammatical points. The following examples may be used when it is time to teach the relative pronouns :

E.g. : - Is your sister pretty ?

+ Yes, it is my sister who is pretty.

- Do you prefer the green tie ?

- No, it is the red that I prefer.

- What sports do you play most ?

+ It is boxing that I play most.

In the above question-answer drill either transposition or transformation are involved to proceed the practice. To conclude this Chapter it must be taken into account that several types of drills may be combined together to serve the most suitable item to be established.

In the exercise like :

- It is raining. But he goes out.

+ He goes out in spite of the rain,

both transformation and combination are involved in the response.

Though these types of drills as proposed by François Réquidat are particularly meant for sentence pattern drills, it is useful to bring them forth as to

complete the categorisation.

Finally it is worth noticing that certain types of drills can be conducted either orally or in the written way, either closed or open textbooks being used in class. The cues may be simply said by the teacher or as written forms that the student has at his disposal in the exercisebooks. Combination drill, for instance, can be given as oral material, instead of as written homework for more advanced students. They are considered capable to do such training without any help of the written forms of the exercises.



CHAPTER IV

DRILLS AND VARIOUS FACETS OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Chapter II describes especially the contribution of the drill to language learning in general and what role the drill may have in establishing the elements of language to be learned. This Chapter provides a more detailed study on of what Chapter II has given a short description. I would try to divide language into several elements, by putting a special stress on each of its frame currently used in approaching a language. Drills usually attack the language problems element by element, such as vocabulary, structure, intonation, pronunciation, as recommended by applied linguistics. Facing one particular linguistic problem at a time, enables us to tackle the learning process in a more simplified way. Therefore drills function in a more real and concrete way.

It is true that language is not morphology, nor phonology alone. Language must be considered as a whole with all its various components that are organized in a very rich complexity. A morpheme standing by itself is not language, neither is a phoneme. However the student is caught in desperate efforts if he must face the complexity of language together. It is the role of the drill then to decipher the language problems. Drills are not meant just as a partial approach of language. By putting a prominent stress on a particular component and regarding at the same time the component in ques-

ion as an integral unit of the language, efficient language learning may result.

1. Vocabulary drill

Drill and contextually organized vocabulary

Some may think that learning a language means learning vocabulary. The more words that one has in the stock of his vocabulary, the better will he master the language. And from this view point of learning a language the learning will consist of the efficient study, concentrating on the achievement of the new words. But it has been said in the previous Chapter that language is not vocabulary alone, and does not merely consist of a very long list of words. One who masters thousands of words may not have an ability to understand the language. A passage written in a certain language is not completely grasped only by knowing the words in the passage. There may be special structures here and there that are crucial to the understanding of the passage as a whole. And disregarding these structures means that the passage is a mass of known words but not understood.

A word may signify and can tell more when used in a context, rather than when it stands by itself. It is possible, moreover, that the word stands for something else when it is connected with the surrounding words. The function of the vocabulary drill then is not just to give the meaning of a word and what the word stands for. The student would learn the incomplete meaning of the word, because perhaps he would not be

able to use it, or use it in the wrong way. Consequently the vocabulary drill must also provide a simple but clear description of how the word is used or when it is put in the sentence.

The following example of the vocabulary drill is chosen to propose some illustration :

CLIMATE, WEATHER

Look at the following sentences :

- A. 1. The climate of Egypt is delightful.
2. I like the climate of Switzerland.

- B. 1. The weather yesterday was cold.
2. We had rainy weather all last week.

Note :

We use climate when we speak generally.

We use weather when we speak of particular time or period.

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- A. Ask and answer the following questions :

1. Is the climate of Egypt sunny ?
 2. Do you like hot or cold climates ?
 3. Which country is believed to have the best climate in the world ?
- Etc.

- B. Ask and answer the following questions :

1. Was the weather cold yesterday ?
 2. Was the weather rainy last week ?
 3. Is the weather cold or hot in winter ?
- Etc.¹

First the words to be learned are put in the sentences as examples, (sentence A1 and A2) and (B1 and B2), which enable the student to make his own inductive search of the difference between climate and weather. Then the note gives a simple but not less clear information about the two words. By this note the student may assure himself if his induction is correct or wrong. The student,

¹B. Mendelsohn and J.V. Palmer, Correct Your English, Longmans, Green and Co., London, 1967, p. 157.

in the above case is trained to learn a word or words, not as a separate element of language, namely words as such, but in a certain context or when they are put in sentences.

The problem will become even more serious when idiomatic expressions are introduced to the class. Some student may get fully satisfied when he knows the meaning of the word to run. He will probably make a successful guess in the sentence like The police agent runs after the pickpocket since the relation between the verb run and the preposition after at least gives a fairly distinct illustration of the resulted meaning. But when he comes across another sentence like Mr. Black runs the shop himself now, he faces an unsurmountable difficulty because just relying on the original meaning of the verb to run - as he has done when learning the word - does not solve the problem at all.

Drill and word connotation

The context also helps to show the connotation of a word and this is also necessary in getting a complete understanding of a certain word.

Let us take an example of the words house and home. Both belong to the same part of speech and more or less refer to the same thing. It would not be too complicated to explain the differences between mansion, hotel, motel, residence, palace, apartment, cottage and pavilion, since the characteristics of each of those nouns are clear enough. The student will know automatically, after a fair explanation, that A King

does not live in a cottage, or he will not say that The beggar stays in a residence. But the student may get puzzled when he encounters proverbs like Men make houses, women make homes, or No home is complete without children. In this case both the words have special connotations, as demanded by the context or situation. B. Mendelssohn and J.W. Palmer in drilling the difference between house and home define those words as :

A house is a building, usually one in which people live. A home is the place in which a person or a family usually sleeps and lives. It is usually a house or a flat, but it may be a castle, a palace, a cave, a hut, a tent, or any other place. Do not say : 'I shall be at my house'; say : 'I shall be at home'. Above all never say 'I forget it at my house', when you simply mean 'I forget it' ; that is quite wrong; say 'I left it at home' (or 'I have left it at home').¹

The last two examples may be understood reasonably by the student. But I think the difference between house and home is not brought up clearly. The average student may not differentiate in which a person lives from in which people live since person nor people does not say anything about the distinction, at least for an Indonesian student. Secondly, the student becomes more confused, noting that a house is usually . . . a house. Further explanation is still needed such as home is used more personally, even emotionally and evoking some affection. Then this explanation should be followed by a lot of exercises where these two words occur.

The above point suggests that a clear explana-

¹B. Mendelssohn and J.W. Palmer, op.cit., p.147.

tion, furnished with the necessary examples and drills is of great importance. Practice, as it has been mentioned in the previous Chapter, is indispensable, and cannot be neglected to attain successful language learning. However, the vocabulary drill if it concern the different usage of words, will not likely work if the student only makes a blind guessing and has nothing to rely on.

Drill in connection with lexical and structural meanings

Vocabulary drill should not only deal with lexical meaning, - that is what the word signifies when it stands alone, but also its contextual usage, namely what the word may function when put in a sentence. The latter provides the complete meaning being put in a certain structure and it is called structural meaning. This structural meaning therefore makes the meaning of the word complete, and not just in case of lexical meaning, that is, only a partial notion of the word. Concerning these two meanings, C.C. Fries says :

The total linguistic meaning of any utterance consists of the lexical meanings of the separate words plus such structural meanings. No utterance is intelligible without both lexical meanings and structural meanings.¹

The pronouns I, me, my, mine can be traced back, lexically, to the first person singular, for instance. But the different forms of 'I' function differently, according to their position in a certain structure. Thus structurally they have their own meanings.

¹C.C. Fries, The Structure of English, op. cit. p. 56.

Obviously lexical meanings cannot be neglected because a word will never be identified without any lexical reference. On the other hand, since the student is expected to grasp the 'total meaning' of any utterance, structural meanings are of crucial importance.

Drill and vocabulary building

In order to establish a new word more firmly, one of the useful practice is to put the word in question - answer form. In the previous example of the exercises on climate and weather the chief point is to avoid the misleading use of those two words. It is not necessarily striking if the drills are also meant for the students to whom the words are completely new. More explanations are still needed in this case, on respecting at the same time the preliminary knowledge of the students. The teacher, for example, let the students guess the meaning of weather in rainy weather or cold weather in winter. The most important point is that the word should be put in practice, and the vocabulary drill does not end in ambiguous explanations, because it still does not help the students. It is even worse if the teacher thinks that the word is somewhat familiar to the student but not yet mastered safely, asks the student to give its definition. The lexicographer's art is unquestionably beyond the capacity of the average student. He will feel baffled because of the difficulty and will be discouraged to make further progress. On the contrary, practicing the new word being learned will make the vocabulary stock efficiently enriched and the student gets satisfied because the

learning brings about immediate payoff value.

In the earlier stage of language learning the vocabulary drill has two purposes :

1. to introduce the words that will be used in patterns presented in the grammar section of the class,
2. to expand the number of words the students can use in the grammar patterns already learned.¹

This necessity is especially felt for the beginners who need basic words to deal with the new language. Without any words available, it is evident that language learning unlikely occurs.

In the later stage, however, the vocabulary work is mainly supposed to expand the stock of useful words, since most of the grammar patterns have been presented and drilled.

It is not advisable to present to the beginners an exercise in which two listed rows of words are to be matched, to suit their suitable definitions or meanings like :

exceed	A. surpass; go beyond the limit of
ford	B. cross by way of shallow water
haunt	C. search for eagerly
loom	D. advance; encourage an interest in
prevail	E. have enough to pay expenses
promote	F. appear in exaggerated form
	G. be the stronger; predominate
	H. recur persistently in the mind. ²

Advanced students may deal with such an exercise to enrich their vocabulary. But this matching is not intended as vocabulary drills meant for the students of earlier stages. Besides the fact that such words are

¹C.J. Kriedler, op.cit., p. 21.

²Chosen from : Grow in Word Power, p. 5.

hardly necessary for practical uses, according to the stage of language learning the way of this approach itself does not provide any descriptive example of how these words should be applied in a sentence.

Drill techniques and vocabulary building

Another way of establishing vocabulary is as found in the "New Method Reader" (Longmans). A Passage with some new words is presented to the class. The teacher then gives a sound explanation about the new words. Anyhow these words are not completely mastered yet since the student has just a superficial introduction to the words. Thus in the next step of the lesson-unit exercises dealing with each of the new words to be practiced are given to them. By the end of the lesson, the student's vocabulary is fairly increased.

A more challenging way of practicing vocabulary is by asking the student to choose the right answer in brackets that is related to the previous information. This kind of practice needs some analogy and experience of the previous knowledge, but it is not meant for the beginners. An example taken from Grow in Word Power 9 (p. 51) is intentionally presented to furnish an illustration.

Underline the word in parenthesis that is related to the third word in the same way as the second word is related to the first.

Examples: Fuselage is to airplane as chassis is to (couch)(ship)(house)(automobile)

1. Day is to morning as year is to (season), (month) (dawn) (spring).

2. Sap is to tree as blood is to (heart) (life) (plasma) (body) (bone).

3. Brush is to paint¹ as chosen is to
(wood) (artist) (stone) (sculpture)
(carpenter).¹

Such a drill does not only demand a clever choice, but the general knowledge as well and both contribute to the enrichment of vocabulary.

In the exercise about the use of 'climate' and 'weather', as previously demonstrated, the student is trained to make a proper choice of two words with the same nature in meaning approximately. There still exists another exercise. It deals with the sounds or words that are not similar in meaning, but in their graphic forms.

E.g.:

Make these sentences correct with one of the word in brackets.

1. Last Saturday SMA V played football (again - against) SMA VI.
2. (At first - First) Pamela did not have friends. After a week she had some. Asih was Pamela's (at first - first) friend.
3. Al has a lot of (friendly - friends), because he is a (friendly - friends) boy.²

The student, then, is trained to use the correct class-word, and this learning becomes easier when the choice is referred to practical use within a sentence. Again, it proves that learning words separately, out of the context, will probably be misleading, while practical usage in sentences helps the establishment considerably.

¹Ibid., p. 51.

²English for the SLTA, op.cit., p. 51.

Drill and learning antonyms

Some textbook writer wants to establish two opposite words at the same time within the same vocabulary drill, on the ground that the new words, having the opposite characteristics, will be known more easily and thus be established more quickly. The following example that is originally used for practice of the use of adjectives as nouns can serve an illustrative suggestion.

E.g.: Example

Question : Would you rather help the sick or the healthy ?

Answer : I would rather help the sick.

Drills

1. Would you rather help the strong or the weak?
2. Would you rather help the clever or the stupid?
3. Would you rather help the kind or the unkind?¹

The writer of this thesis thinks, contrarily, that the result will be somewhat disappointing. Two words that are presented together and furthermore have the opposite meanings are really too much for the student. Instead of easy and speedy establishment, nothing will likely be obtained. The student may be caught into desperate confusion, not knowing which is which. Besides, they may have a wrong psychological attitude that the world is divided into two parts : the positive and the negative.

The following example, linguistically speaking is better. Both words are unknown, but the student can

¹B. Mendelssohn, Correct your English, op.cit., p. 169.

use the previous knowledge of his general stock of vocabulary :

- E.g.: - Would you rather help the homeless or those who live in big houses ?
- Would you rather help the unemployed or those who have works ?
- Would you rather help the blind or those who can see ?

The second elements of the adjectives contrasted are familiar to the student and it will not exact much effort to find out the meaning of the first elements. He does not make a blind guessing in this case.

Didactic and linguistic approach

If the presentation of the opposite adjectives, as stated before, calls for psychological problems the selection of vocabulary being used in the drill involves linguistic and didactic problems. The linguistic approach puts a stronger emphasis on the language to be learned and the didactic approach carefully pays attention to various factors of the learner. If the textbook writer keeps the linguistic standpoint, the teaching will be concentrated on linguistic problems. The selection of items used in the vocabulary drill depends considerably on the necessity of presenting other words that linguistically have a close relation with the item being presented. Therefore the teaching of the adjective good should be followed immediately by its other concomitants : better, best and its opposite bad and also its adverbial uses : well and better and also special cases where bad or good is

employed instead of badly or goodly.

The didactic approach on the other hand deals chiefly with the learner. It seriously takes into account the linguistic background of the learner, his language experience, his cultural setting and the possibility of interferences with the mother tongue if it is a matter of learning a foreign language. Consequently the linguistic approach is opposite to the didactic approach. The didactic approach strongly disavows the lesson presentation where both opposite adjectives are presented together. The learner can hardly master the two different words, though of the same classification, and he will not be able to grasp them both discriminately. Thus the presentation of bad is to be introduced only when the concept of good has been well established, or conversely.

The same process is also valid when organising vocabulary drills in which a word and its members are presented at the same time, for example bread and butter, saucer and cup. There is a special link between those words that facilitates the memory bond. This enables to recall them easily. But again, it is indispensable to introduce those words separately to avoid mutual misconception.

Thus the presentation must not be teacher oriented, namely what the teacher considers to be the best presentation because it offers a complete illustration. Successful learning may result if the teaching is student oriented, namely that the practical problems of the student are also taken into consideration. Teacher

oriented presentation is perhaps an excellent preparation in itself, but if it is not suited to the learner the good teaching will probably result poor learning.

Receptive and productive vocabulary

There is still another point to be put into consideration in selecting words in the vocabulary drill namely the vocabulary needs in regard with the purpose of language learning. Two main viewpoints may be pointed out, that is productive and receptive purposes, the difference of which is stated by I. Morris :

Synonymous terms are purely redundant to productive vocabulary, but are not so to a receptive vocabulary comprising words of common usage ... The productive standpoint calls for the strictest verbal economy, following the principle of one notion - one word, while the purely receptive approach ignores semantic considerations.¹

Productive vocabulary then principally deals with the richness that words may convey according to the notions available, a thesaurus in which various meanings are expressed by the possible words. On the other hand the receptive puts interest in the common usage, that is how words are confined to certain circumstances. Language uses various tools as to suit the level of communication. A situation requires its own style of expression and precision and therefore more richly organized words are necessary to suit the thing meant. Productive vocabulary provides, to all this complexity, the necessary words and the exact choice is made possible.

¹I. Morris, The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, op.cit., p. 33.

sible within the very large stock of vocabulary. Productive vocabulary, being furnished with a vast number of synonymous terms can well express one's emotion, attitude, prejudiced statement and so on. But all these things are undoubtedly dealt with at higher levels of language courses. It will be troublesome to load the student's mind with an innumerable amount of synonyms, when he is just in the beginning step in the language learning, in which subtle precision in expression, for example for speech and written composition, is not likely to be introduced. What he needs is to notice how a word is used in practical sentences for communication purposes. It follows that receptive vocabulary is more needed. It only deals only with common words as generally used for practical purposes and puts aside other semantic elements that may be allied in a given word.

Vocabulary building in Translation and Direct Methods

It has been mentioned before that the task of a teacher is not just to introduce new words, but also by his explanation and way of approaching the vocabulary drill help the student to recall the new words for further uses, either in active or passive concern. And this will inevitably involve the grounds of methods. In regard with the vocabulary drill, and related to the contribution to vocabulary building, there are two broad methods of vocabulary treatment : Translation and Direct Methods.

Direct Method puts a heavy reliance on the bond between the thing and the word. It approaches the word

directly, without any intermediary language such as the mother tongue. Thus a teacher, pointing at the door, says "This is a door", instead of translating it into the vernacular. The lesson presentation becomes livelier because the vocabulary drill is carried out as really as possible by making a direct contact with the form and meaning of the word. Even some adjectives as long as they can be easily put in sketches or by means of visual aids can be drilled in this method. But what about the abstract nouns that are impossible to visualize? A teacher may show to his class a chart describing a fresh rose in bloom and says; "The rose is beautiful" and then pointing at another chart, describing a withered rose he says: "The rose is not beautiful". The word rose can be established passively because there is no difficulty in relating the visualized word and the meaning in reality or similarly speaking between the thing and the word. Clever students may make as well a correct guess of the word beautiful if in both charts there are no misleading factors such as the size of the flower, the colour, that cause the student to say: "The rose is big", for example. But when at a certain level of language learning the teacher must introduce the word beauty there begins the difficulty. It will be ridiculous if the teacher says: "I like the beauty of this rose" by handling the chart with utmost care or showing sympathetic attitude towards it. Even the student having a perfect grasp of the word beautiful may come to a false interpretation. They may think for example, that the teacher likes the rose, or the chart, or the

beautiful painting shown by the illustrator and so on.

In drilling verbs the teacher may draw a simple picture on the board, of a person who performs the action. He may act it himself in front of the class. Walking through the door or in front of the class the teacher may say : "I am passing through the door" or "I am passing to and fro", respectively. Up to this stage the bond between the thing (the action) and the word is still digestable for the student. He may become a little bit confused when a sentence following the same action is introduced like : "She is passing the purse to her friend". The confusion, however, can be eliminated soon when the first concept of the word to pass has been adequately established. They can detect easily two different actions standing for two different meanings of the verb to pass. But relying simply on Direct Method brings about difficulty when the verb is used in abstracted or figurative meanings, or employed in idiomatic expressions, like :

- The life of St. Anne passed in prayer.
- The night passed quietly.
- Fleurting passes the time.
- Playing chess passes the time.
- Hobbies pass the time.
- Inflation is passing.
- The state of affairs will soon pass.

Even the teaching of concrete nouns sometimes offers the same problem. A table, for instance can be readily touched or handled, or put easily in simple drawings. Therefore establishing the word table in the

vocabulary drill by using Direct Method is out of question. But other concrete nouns composed from table like the time table, table of logarithm, have completely another value than the word from which they originate. They can be visualized without the necessary problem, but the original concept of table that is already planted in the mind of the student is totally altered. The student, of course, is not expected to make analogical trace-back by applying the meaning of the word table in the new words because such an analogy demands much effort of imaginary semantic transformation. The teacher may try another solution but still keeping Direct Method approach, to clarify the difficulty by means of a sort of paraphrase. But he finds that it is not always successful. He may fall into catastrophic fact that the unknown word is explained by other unknown words, thus other confusion results instead of solving it.

To avoid breaking into the native language speech, a well organized explanation in Direct Method may suffice. It seems, anyhow, that it is only the case for cleverer students. Their other class-mates will get the 'meaning meant' but a more round about way. Since for the latter students an explanation in foreign language does not precisely hit the desired meaning they will search for the help in the use of their mother tongue. Then while the teacher is busy explaining or even dramatizing the item in question they will work hard in their mind to identify the thing meant by using their own language. This process that is called 'mental translation' by I. Morris¹ makes language learning

¹I. Morris, The art of teaching English as a living language, op.cit., p. 53.

even more complicated. The students pay too much effort before they come to identify the item that is unfortunately implanted in their mind by laborious energy to achieve the equivalent in the native language.

Then the ultimate result of this round about process of language learning (in this case vocabulary learning) is not always satisfactory. The students feel that they do not master the new words safely and completely. It is even worse if much practice in the use of the new words is not sufficiently given. The knowledge remains superficial because it is not tested directly to avoid misuse of the word.

We come finally to the obvious conclusion that translation is preferable in process of identifying the words since unnecessary confusion can be hindered considerably. Difficult concepts of certain words, such as abstract nouns, idiomatic expressions, can be well grasped by the whole class by means of translation or explanation in the native language. The legendary saying that 'translation is evil' is not always applicable and remains obscure.

Recalling vocabulary in Translation and Direct Methods

This is what concerns the primary task of the language teacher in the vocabulary drill, namely to identify the concept of the new language correctly or similarly saying, to make an introduction of new words to the student. The second task then is to get the student to recall or 'recognize' the words just learned for practical uses, either active or passive uses. Thus the vocabulary learning has two purposes :

- 1) inward process : where the new word is introduced,
- 2) outward process: in which the word that has been implanted in the mind should be brought up again in practice. This second phase is only possible if the student is able to recall the new word.

In uttering the words, it is expected that the student produces it in the automatic way. The item to be expressed in the foreign language must immediately find the necessary and suitable words that make the utterance possible. It is the language fluency that makes the outward process run smoothly. If in remembering a word the student keeps the tight bond between the concept in the native language and that in foreign language, though both are referred to the same word, naturally he should pass via translation first before he finds the needed expression. Instead of recalling the word directly in the foreign language in his store of vocabulary he associates the meaning expressed in native language with the meaning expressed in the foreign language. The meaning of the word is handled separately and there happens a gap in language mastery.

If translation is used as a stepping stone before the student comes to the desired meaning he will be tempted very strongly to break into mother tongue speech to convey what he wants to express. There will be a danger that he class-time will more largely on discussing the mother tongue usage rather than the foreign language itself. Besides, if the student relies heavily on the translation in recalling the word in

foreign language expression it follows that he is inclined to consider language from the viewpoint of translation. Since the nature and the characteristics of a foreign language are not identical with those of the mother tongue word-for-word translation which is resulted from the translation habit in recalling the words, destroys the language to be learned.

The final conclusion therefore is that translation, while it is a favourable method to identify the meaning of the new words is to be avoided in practice of recalling them.

Drill and word formation

The vocabulary drill can contribute much help to the word formation. For example the change from the verb to noun may suggest the needed choice for various purposes. Both uses, however, must be put in a clear sentence that the student knows how the word is used in a context. This contextual method of showing the meaning and usage of a certain word, is considered even more demanding in the case where the word is used differently in the mother tongue either lexically or structurally. The change from adjective to noun in the following examples, may serve as an illustration where such attention must be paid to.

The noun derived from the adjective red is redness, black is blackness. But they have completely different meanings in Indonesian. The English redness has no equivalent kemerahan in Indonesian. (It is to be noted here that the suffix -ness is made parallel with the Indonesian prefix ke- and suffix -an because

both serve to make nouns from adjectives). But the Indonesian kemerahan does not mean redness in English, but somewhat red or reddish. The above example of course has not always absolute validity because red can similarly be treated as a noun. But it is clear enough that only by efficient vocabulary drills such a misleading analogy can be avoided.

This analogical skill is of some helpful factor to deal with the vocabulary more easily. On the other hand, just relying on it proves to be unsufficient, or even lead to false word-formation. If the student from his language experience can deduce that the suffix-ment is to form nouns from verbs, like adjust - adjustment, develop - development or hinder - hinderment that do not exist in English. A well organized vocabulary drill is needed to avoid such mistakes, especially for the students in lower stages. It does not mean that such drills are no longer necessary for more advanced students. These students, whose analogical ability gets richer and richer in the process of language learning process a wider range of choice and the can plausibly fall in the same mistakes. In this case they are as backward as their class-mates who are poorer but more reserved, just taking words as such and thus keeping themselves from making mistakes.

Drill and special vocabulary usage

Because of the different patterns between English and the mother-tongue (say Indonesian), special attention should be given in cases where these patterns do not coincide. Particular drills must be provided for

some plural forms, for example; and also some English nouns that have no plural forms at all. Some uncountable nouns like water, coffee, chalk, wood can be given and established more easily. But sometimes the student thinks that some other words, either abstract or concrete, are likely to be put into plural according to the contextual relation while those words have no plural forms. This is even more true in case where the mother tongue of the student uses plural equivalents.

E.g. : - I give him some good advice.

- We give them some good advice (not advices)

In Indonesian the plural form of advice is available. (cf. nasehat-nasehat).

- I wear warm clothing in winter.
- We wear warm clothing in winter (not clothings)

In Indonesian the students have pakaian pakaian.

- Will he get the information I want ?
- Will they get the information I want ? (not informations)

The Indonesians employ the plural form of information quite frequently. (cf : keterangan - keterangan).

In relation with the context some other words are thought to be put in the plural forms, since the logic and meaning seem to exact plurality. But this is not really so :

E.g.: He plays well in spite of his blindness.

They play well in spite of their blindness.

He has made progress during the last six months.

They have made progress during the last six months.

The student will probably say blindnesses or progresses because these words are the subsequent products of the pluralizers, logically. He may say these forms unconsciously, while they do not actually exist in English. The following vocabulary drill in which some special words have no plural forms may serve as examples :

E.g. : The words should be put into plural where possible :

1. The boy would not give me his attention.
 2. She was sitting in the shade, beneath the tree
 3. It was not necessary for him to do all the damage.
 5. My teacher won't give me permission to go out.
 9. He showed me the most important machinery in the place.
 14. He hasn't much furniture in his house.
 16. That is lovely scenery.
- Etc.¹

The above exercises will be made even more challenging if the noun determiner that signals that a noun cannot be put into plural is omitted (For example, sentence number 14, may be changed into my furniture is very expensive, instead of much furniture).

Vocabulary selection in the drill

In selecting the words in the vocabulary drill

¹J.B. Mendelssohn, op.cit., p. 70-1-2

the teacher may face a large number of synonyms. It will be a wasting effort to establish all those words together because, besides the student is undoubtedly confused in their uses, sometimes those words belong to purely productive purposes that advanced students can benefit to enrich their vocabulary stock. The choice of words used in the drill is based on the basic vocabulary that the student needs in learning the foreign language. More complicated and stranger words are trained later when simpler words, needed for daily life practice have been taught. This is quite understandable because unfrequent words are more rarely used in practice. The word frequency list may call for special attention in judging this selection.

Secondly, in presenting which word to choose first the teacher should consider the linguistic and cultural background of his student. One word may be quite familiar for a group of students in a certain milieu, while it is really strange for another. So the teacher should take a consideration first for a number of words like : shoes, boots, slippers, sandals, clogs, brogues, pumps, moccasins, galoshes, pumps, moccasins, galoshes, jack-boots, wellingtons, and sabots. Shoes are considered the most common word. But a class with a certain geographical background comes across moccasins more frequently, in the daily life activity, and it follows that moccasins must be taught or dealt with first in the vocabulary drill.



2. Conversation/Dialogue Drill

The following section is devoted to the conversation and dialogue drill. Both will be treated as a unity being referred to the same speech skills.

If the recent methods of language learning and teaching put the oral approach to a language, speech consequently plays a more important role in the course of language acquisition. Apart from the scholastic movement, in which oral approach is still open to serious discussions, the English language as a means of international communication gets more and more popular. It follows that there are more 'lay' people who want to study English, for example as an efficient 'tool' to get acquainted with modern science development or merely for commercial purposes. It is admitted that not all of them have the same aim in mastering the foreign language. Many want to learn English simply as a passive knowledge and the others put the target of language learning for active purposes. Therefore speech as an active or oral language mastery becomes more popular.

Those who happen to teach English for private courses often come across an awkward and ridiculous experience where some of their students want to speak as soon as possible within several months. For the sake of dignity of the establishment where the teachers work, besides other commercial reasons they accept enthusiastically the demand of the students and start planning special courses. But by the end of the first or the second month the students become less and less in number because they feel frustrated and the ultimate goal is likely never attained. Nobody is to blame, the

time available is too short!

Speech, as the other language skills, needs much intensive practice to become the real property of the learner. A native child should hear over and over and experience his mother tongue in unlimited times before he is able to express his infantile language. In this way his language knowledge is increasing. His experience of the previous language knowledge will help him in maintaining the new utterances and thus solving the language problems. Conversely, the new linguistic experience that he has actually provides considerable contribution to his previous quality of language acquisition. This mutual establishment is possible owing to recurrent practice found in the daily life. Conversation drills then are afforded to provide the necessary situations in which the establishment is made possible.

Dialogue drill and communication

The importance of the conversation drill is more strongly felt when language is referred back to its nature where speech is the basic consideration. As it has been stated above a child learns his native language by hearing speech, since no written symbols are possible in this stage. By continuous aural experience the sounds are stored in his mind. But he does not keep them as dead possession. At the same time he wants to communicate, and thus he makes his best to produce the sounds. The experience in hearing is then put into oral language. It follows that speech is the first product of language and is what he needs as a means of

communication to other social groups. It is, again, because no graphic symbols are available.

If the target of foreign language learning is active language mastery, the criterion to appreciate speech in foreign language as the basic medium of communication will be identical to that of the vernacular because constant use of the mother tongue in class will put aside instead of attaining the learning target.

An argument can still be proposed for those who just want to study language as a material to read or write in which spoken utterance as active language product is not badly needed. But as a point of consideration it may be said that it seems impossible to learn a type of language skills in a purely exclusive and separate way. Speech is still found in the above language purposes though it may be curtailed into simple spoken form.

Dialogue drill and impartial training

If hearing is considered as a matter of great prominence before one is able to make any utterance, it is imperative that a good model presented by the teacher orally must come first before the actual drills are begun. Conversation or dialogue is a mutual activity, in which more than one person are involved actively. Consequently the parts spoken by the persons in the drills must be trained equally. Special attention of course, should be paid to particular parts of the section due to eventual difficulties in pronunciation, stress and rhythm. But it will give mischievous results if the teacher deals unsufficiently

with several parts which the teacher thinks to be impertinent to the concern of the student. For example in a conversation drill using question-and-answer form, the teacher does not pay enough attention to certain parts, thinking that they are so ordinary sentences. Or they are may be the parts that are repeated in every performance, or do not constitute the very conversation pattern to be established.

E.g. : Model :

A : Will Dick go to the pictures tonight, do you think?

B. : I don't think so.

A : Why not ?

B : Because he hasn't finished his work yet.

Practice :

A : Will X ...1 tonight, do you think ?

B : I don't think so.

A : Why not ?

B : Because he/she ...3 yet.¹

The pattern to be established is the use of the Present Perfect in conversational context, as it should be filled in the blank 3. Various activities can be trained also in the blank 1, like : go to the theatre, come to evening school, play bridge etc. Obviously the second and the third utterances are never changed. The teacher then, may pay attention to the changed utterances to be drilled, and put the second and the third in a less degree of importance. As a result, due to only partial treatment of the piece of conversation the student considers those utterances trivial. It is quite logical that the student will follow his teacher

¹ Chosen from : H.F.Jerrom & L.L.Sakutnik: Conversation in Every Day English, Book I, Longmans, 1966, p.113.

apart from their own initiative. The fact that sentences like I don't think so or why not seem to be so simple and natural is not a pretext not to train them adequately. Neither is it a guarantee that the students have mastered the correct forms already. If such eventual mistakes are not corrected and practiced, they will be carried over in later courses. Bad linguistic habits may unconsciously established. Normal conversation is not supposed to be a remedial training to get rid of these faulty habits, since in this stage where normal conversation is dealt with the students are expected to achieve good habits already through the drills. Evidently training the students to use the correct forms in the early stages is an absolute requirement. And this can be attained only if the students have enough practice in the conversation drills, for even the most seemingly simple utterances that perhaps call for particular attention.

It is by continually making mistakes that we form the habits of making mistakes, and we encourage the student to use normal conversation before he has been drilled into good habits, we cause him to be a fluent speaker of 'pidgin'.¹

The ultimate conclusion of this paragraph is that aural impression constitute the main step in introducing the student to the conversation drill. Lack of time unfortunately may cause insufficient practice that is done inside the class. The teacher can provide

¹Palmer, The Oral Method of Teaching Language, as quoted by I. Morris in The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, p.84. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., London, 1964.

another way-out by giving written sets of dialogues that can be exercised at home. A weak student who does the training at home with relatively a more brilliant student may take some profit from it, due to the necessary correction from that stronger student. The student must have had the teacher's good model first, otherwise he will establish bad linguistic habits without knowing himself. Moreover, reading a set of conversation and then trying to perform it is likely less efficient than hearing and repeating it either helped by the written material or not. Aural training presumably gives deeper and more successful impression in the preliminary stages of the conversation drill, rather than any visual means.

Various aspects of dialogues

Some may think that the conversation or dialogue drill is introduced mainly to establish new vocabulary or new grammatical points. This may be true in the use of question-and-answer drill in which the teacher puts the major stress on the teaching of new words and any other sentence structures. But dialogues do not merely consist of word patterns and sentence patterns. Dialogues, being an integral part of speech skills, include other important elements of language, such as intonation, stress, rhythm, manner of expressing ideas, articulation and spontaneity in applying knowledge. Since all these factors constitute and support the nature of the dialogues, establishing a certain item of language is not to neglect the other items. Therefore, as said by S.L. Stryker :

In practicing dialogues at increasing levels of difficulty the student learns not only expressions that he can use outside the class, but also the fundamental grammatical and stress and intonation patterns of the sentence, the basic unit of communication in English.¹

An intensive learning concentrated only on grammatical points or pronunciation produces a learner who can say a sentence correctly but does not speak real English, his intonation being that of the mother tongue. The native speakers who happen to hear such English consider it as funny English.

Dialogue drill and mutual activity

A dialogue, being a mutual activity in which more than one person are engaged needs a situation so that communication becomes necessary. The teacher can give suggestions of this communication by giving hints or prompted sentences; for example in an exercise where question-and-answer form is to be drilled. The first sentence is a prompt and thus demands the necessary reaction or answer. And this constitute another prompt that must be followed by another answer and so on. And so the process proceed in a mutual relation and fills each other, and thus a dialogue is performed. Such textbooks are largely available.

The drill begins by setting a model in which a certain item or items is to be established. Then it is followed by a number of practice in which the concerning items are trained further by means of substitution drills.

¹S. L. Stryker, op.cit., p. 7.

E.g. : Model

A : How do you generally spend your holidays?

B : I go to the seaside.

A : And how about Arthur ?

B : Oh, he generally stays at home.

Practice :

A : How do you usually/generally spend your holidays?

B : I ...¹

A : And how about X ?

B : Oh, he/she usually/generally ... I + (e)s

I

go to Italy
France
the country
a farm in Sussex
visit relatives
go sailing
climbing

I + (e)s

goes to Scotland
sailing
climbing
visits relatives
etc.¹

The phrases to be filled are given below. In the above examples the students are trained to use the verb to go followed by place modifiers or by -ing forms.

The teacher after giving good examples begins practicing the dialogues with his students by dividing the dialogues (in this case A and B). Then he may continue it by pointing off the students according to the row of their seats. He lets the students in the row repeat after him and afterwards the rows may practice the model among themselves. Intensive practice may be obtained when the dialogue is trained between the individual students by means of substitution drills below.

Dialogue and free expression

As a matter of principle, the ready made answers

¹ H.F. Jerron & L.L. Skutnrik, Conversation Exercises in Everyday English, ibid., p. 55.

are only used as a guide to manage the practice. The teacher must give much freedom to his students to choose or to employ their own sentences as long as they are correct and applicable in the set dialogue. The class situation may become livelier because of the ill-assorted meanings that may arise. But the practice must not be carried over too long to avoid monotony. Individual turn that is pointed out at random may help the teacher to keep his class always alert and attentive.

Dialogue drill and meaningful expression

In this form of exercises above the student is trained to face a context requiring a certain reaction. Thus the prompt that contains a meaningful stimulus challenges the student to give a meaningful expression, which is the first feature of speech skills. Since the sentences occur recurrently in each set of practice the student may feel that the training is somewhat mechanical. It happens that he produces utterances without being aware of the meaning itself so he just responds because it is his turn actually. As a result the meaningful expression as a feature of speech skills is destroyed instead of establishing it. In this case the student gets an impression that the dialogue is a 'class-room dialogue' and cannot be applied in every day life business. To avoid such a problem the teacher himself must inaugurate the student to real usage in a normal conversation. It can be used as well inside the class-room by asking the student about his actual and personal activity. The teacher may modify

the sentence where necessary to suit the situation, so that it gives an impression to his student that the set dialogue is not a restrictive rule that makes speech dead and invariable, but rather an inspiring guide for practice. For instance, the teacher may ask Tony concerning the last Easter Holiday and says : "Tony, how did you spend your last Easter Holiday?" It is a challenge then for Tony to use the right Tense I went instead of I go, as repeatedly practiced in the above example.

By offering such practical questions the drills are no longer a mechanical and exhausting activity but of real advantage because they can be applied concretely in real situations. The teacher, especially the new ones, must prepare such practical applications of the pattern if he will not waste the student. In this way the faulty impression about the communication drill is somehow eliminated.

Conversation drill and real life setting

Another form of a conversation drill is a scene in which some persons are engaged in a conversation. Unlike in the preceding form¹, in which the same utterances are repeatedly exercised in every set of practice, this piece of conversation is freer in its form and arrangement of sentences.

E.g.:

Mr. Barrows : Oh, there you are! You have come early; it's only a quarter past seven!

¹See p. 81.

Mr. Allen : Well, I prefer to be early rather than late.
 Mr. B. : Have you had your breakfast?
 Mr. A. : Yes, certainly, half an hour ago. I didn't sleep well last night and so I got up very early and sent my trunk to the station. Has yours gone too?
 Mr. B. : No, it's still here. Etc.¹

The situation in the conversation is more vivid being taken from a scene in every day life directly. The interest of the student is likely to be captured more easily because the scene resembles a little play where several happenings take place. The grammatical patterns are varied richly and not only restricted to some forms within four or six lines in a set of dialogues. In the latter case the same patterns are repeated endlessly and risk inevitable boredom. The variation of the second form of the conversation drill² is due to the fact that it is what people really speak when they come across various situations in everyday life. It does not mean that the first form of the dialogue drill³ is not real utterances produced by the native speakers or they are not at least of common usage. In spite of its correct and normal linguistic forms the exercises are limited to the same situations since the prompts call for limited responses. The repetitive practice of the same patterns are considered more artificial than the piece of conversation taken from real life's scene. The student is of course engaged more in the second form in which far more situations are more

¹ Chosen from : Berlitz : Method for Teaching Modern Language, English Part, First Book, Berlitz Edition, London, p. 108).

² See p. 84.

³ See p. 81.

interesting and challenging.

If the second form of the conversation drill is appreciated from the viewpoint of meaningful expression, admittedly it has more value because of its concreteness. Speech as active achievement of language skills has fuller forms in the stage where expression is used to convey meaning, in the normal social intercourses.

Conversation drill and remedial drill

Such an example as shown in the example above is of course intended for the student who has already a sound mastery of language patterns. The first form of the conversation drill is particularly devoted to set up correct language habits. The second form which is relatively composed of more complex elements gives no enough room for the establishment of basic language habits. It follows that remedial practice should start with the first form when the items are treated in more limited circumstances, thus the establishment is made easier. If bad linguistic habits have not been eradicated in the early stages, the problem becomes even more serious if the teacher hopes that normal conversation can be used as drills to set up good language habits. "As a means of correcting bad linguistic habits," says Palmer, "it (normal conversation) is worse than useless, for it would merely fix or deepen the vicious tendencies of the students".¹ The case might not be true for the learners who stay in the country where the language is spoken. Constant contact with the

¹Palmer : The Oral Method of Teaching Language, as quoted by I. Morris : The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, p. 54.

native speakers may help him considerably to get the good habits even the basic ones. Most of the language learners, however, do not meet such faculty.

Conversation drill, cultural setting and its grading

A special remark must be made here that the atmosphere of the piece of conversation should be somewhat familiar to the student. Some additional words may be explained first, and the new expressions as well. (For example the expression There you are on page 84, if the student has not got acquainted with it yet). But if the situation of the conversation as a whole is quite strange for the student the drill will be confusing rather than inspiring. The setting of the scene with completely different cultural background from that of the student gives an impression that conversation class is a time for unreality and artificiality.

To learn speaking correctly means to learn what a native speaker might say in the same language situation, thus to be natural. It is quite understandable that the teacher provides utterances that are really spoken by the native speakers. But the situations are not always identical due to different cultural settings. Conversation during meal time, for instance, is common to most people, though special terms for food may call for special names. It may happen that up to a certain extent the students feels baffled because of the strange atmosphere in which a totally different scene is introduced in the conversation. As practical illustration the beginners who learn French are not

likely with dialogue drills where hundreds of sorts of the French cheese are used. The pretext that the conversation is very natural cannot be justified. Advanced students may know them but just as passive knowledge since these words do not directly involve their concern. For the foreign students learning French terms like the subway ('métro') can be taught even in the earlier stages. But, again, it can only be used as a general introduction, for example in a sentence like Is there any métro here? The conversation exercises, entitled "In the subway", for example may interest advanced students who take it as a new experience. But for the beginners in earlier stages this conversation in many difficult technical terms for the systems of the tickets, changing the stations and so on is not to be taught first. The student will face twofold problems at the same time: first the dialogue itself and secondly the strange atmosphere. It is natural that the language used in the conversation is normal in itself but it is not ideal to attain the language target. If dialogues are the medium of communication due to certain circumstances, why to teach the forms of dialogues derived from impertinent situations for the student? Therefore the teacher must pay special attention in selecting situation or scenes used in conversation drill. Teaching a foreign language is, in some way inseparable from introducing the culture of its speakers. But if it is not sufficiently graded, the motivation will be gone forever.

Situational language teaching

If meaningful expression as basic speech skills in the above conversation drills is considered from the viewpoint of language situations, it is clearly understood that teaching conversation is very closely related to the situational language teaching. Teaching or learning a language as such without being accompanied by the necessary drilled situations especially in the conversation will not bring any success. Natural situations as shown before are indispensable but they should be graded in term of difficulty and familiarity to suit the receptive capacity of the student. Four main graded situations with the learner at the centre, are described as follows :¹

1. what the student can see, touch, hear directly

This sort of things is confined to what is around the students or even within the four walls of the class. In brief they are the things that exist within the direct grasp of the student.

E.g.: - The walls are white, the ceiling are grey
 - What is the colour of the board ?
 - And what is the colour of your script ,
 Harry ?

The advantage of such a situation is that it gives direct and real experience to the students. Thus the conversation drill can be carried over in the most

¹F.L. Billows, The Techniques of Language Teaching, Longmans, 1964, pp. 9 - 12.

realistic way.

2. common experience of daily life, but not at hand at the moment

E.g. : Look at this door!

It is made of wood.

John, are the doors of your home made of wood too?

John then must recall to his memory the colour of the doors at home that he sees every day but not in the actual occasion. The teacher can either make a swift from the first situation, or he directly steps in the second phase.

3. what the student have not experienced directly, but can be easily called to mind by means of imagination, or visual aids such as simple drawings and sketches

A conversation overheard in the London subway can be employed as a material in the conversation drill, provided the teacher gives a fairly clear explanation about what is on. Young students generally possess a very rich imagination. But a strange atmosphere will not make the conversation drill valuable if the students do not exactly know the setting of the scene. The teacher's duty, then, is to provide the illustration with the available aids.

4. what is called to mind through words only

Obviously only advanced students can enter this phase of situation language learning. Discussion on literary works for example is performed in this phase.

Grammatical grading and conversation drill

Besides the conversation must be situationally graded, another important point is to be taken into consideration, namely grammatical grading. In the first phase for instance, the answer to the question What's the colour of the board? is It's black. The use of it's here is more normal than it is. But the student who does not have copula in his mother tongue may not be aware of the importance of is in it's. and thinks that is only a meaningless additional suffix. The same is the case with they're. I'm. you're and we're. Other similar cases of no less importance are I've for I have. I'll for I will or I shall. or more seducing abbreviations of I'd. either for I had or I would. of which serious mistakes will probably occur. These contracted forms are very frequently used in the normal conversation, and they are very practical devices to introduce items in the conversation drills since the first phase of situational teaching. But it is most certain that the student will use those forms in the wrong way if the long forms are not thoroughly practiced before.

Another grammatical problem is the answer It's a key to the question What is this or What is that in which this and that are contrasted to it. This change should be equally drilled otherwise they will answer This is a key that is, in spite of its grammatical correctness, not generally used in normal conversations.

On the other hand the material for the conversation drill which should be grammatically graded is not parallel to the material that should be situa-

tionally graded. The only solution is to establish habit correctly from the point of view of grammatical accuracy before they can be used as items in the conversation drill. Furthermore the teacher must be aware that a grammatically correct sentence is unlikely to be used in the normal conversation sometimes. It is then advisable to provide sufficient practice before the students are able to feel the nuances in language usage.

Conversation drill and manner of utterance

The second major feature in the conversation drill is the manner of utterance. If meaningful expression is particularly the natural speech in the corresponding situations and puts the main concern on what the people say manner of utterance is more interested in how the practice is produced or how the speech is uttered. The distinction between the two above skills seems to be a little bit rigorous since both elements are very closely connected. But this distinction can serve as a starting point of clear division that facilitates the discussion.

Since manner of utterance puts more prominence on how speech is produced, the conversation drill should also train factors that make speech be uttered better. Thus the drills do not merely deal with situations that make conversation necessary but they must also pay attention to stress, rhythm, intonation and fluency without neglecting grammatical correctness.

In the written piece of conversation given in a textbook, special signs such as for intonation and

stress are not marked generally. They belong to the suprasegmentals that are not coded in normal written symbols. It is the teacher's task then to train these subtle elements so that the student produces the right language. The correct model and intensive practice are indispensable that enable the student to get the desired pattern by means of their aural faculty. And for younger students, specially, whose aural reception and memory span are relatively stronger, the teacher can take very much profit for the learning.

Speech flow as a unity and as meaning pointer

Speech cannot be presented separately according to the viewpoints of stress, rhythm and intonation, all these three elements being one unity. (They are called 'Speech Flow' by W. Stannard Allen in Living English Speech, Longmans, 1959, p. xiii). There is no conversation drill devoted merely for one of these three. The teacher, even from the very beginning of language teaching must take special consideration to the pattern of these elements.

Stress in English is phonemic, and therefore without neglecting the other two elements it influences a great deal the final meaning of any utterance. The degree of intelligibility of any speech that is either heard or uttered depends considerably on how the intertwined elements colour the speech. It follows that making the sounds components is less important than mastering the elements correctly. Intensive teaching of correct pronunciation is admittedly not to be discarded. On the other hand the right use of these

elements may clearly convey the meaning though some words are perhaps mispronounced. Native speakers themselves put more emphasis on speech flow. It is a device of tremendous utility in colouring a language. The shade of meaning, emotions, personal attitude, nuances are adequately expressed by speech flow. A foreign speaker may not understand what a native speaker is saying because the latter speaks in mumbled sounds or even swallows certain syllables. But he keeps his accents, stress and melody. This is probably a proof that speech does not only consist of how the words are pronounced but most of all how the sentence is uttered.

Visualized suprasegmental signals

Some textbook writers, considering that adding extra marks for stress and intonation in the conversation drill offers a great help in maintaining the right rhythmic pattern, put additional symbols above the written utterances. Since these symbols are purely arbitrarily arranged, there exist several visualized suprasegmental signals. They give a clear illustration how the conversation must be carried on, so that the student may take as much profit as possible from the conversation drill. An example may be useful to bring forward a description :

A phone call on Sunday

Mr. Baxter : Home sweet home! Isn't it lovely to
get up late on Sunday !

Mrs. Baxter : Here are the Sunday papers, your
pipe, and your favorite cushion. Just
look at the mess! I really must tidy
up this room

Mr. Baxter : I can't find my matches ... I wonder
where they are! Etc.¹

The number of squares and lines denote the number of syllables of the utterance. They are put in vertically different positions to signal the pitch. The lines mean the stressed syllables and the unstressed are represented by the squares. Falling or rising tone is signalled by the falling or rising positions of the lines. A wave is marked by two cut lines that are joint together. Some other textbook writers use lines only to describe the signals.

Conversation drill and a playlet

The above drill is presented to the class in the same way as the dialogue form. The dramatization of this drill will make the class livelier. In this case the students are to learn by heart the exercised conversation and it is performed in front of the class the next conversation class. They are supposed to act it and not, while standing or sitting passively, say what has been learned by heart. Memorizing dialogues gives deeper impression than when they are just pre-

¹J.P. Bougere, Passport to English II, Didier, Paris, 1965, p. 12.

sented in the written and then trained orally. Another advantage of this method of learning is that the students gain fluency, one of the features of speech skills. Acting the dialogues as a playlet gives its own 'meaning' to the drill. If the students perform it in the 'dead' way apart from the scene where acting, mimics and so on are needed lifeless dialogues may result. It destroys the aim of putting the conversation in a setting because the students are only parroting.

Drill expansion

To avoid textbook-oriented impression, the teacher is supposed to expand the drill himself. For instance the teacher may take a certain expression or grammatical pattern and apply them to other situations and afterwards the students are asked to make such situations themselves, by using some suitable examples. By putting some expressions repeatedly in the appropriate situation the students would likely feel the difference between the expression 'here are' and 'these are' for example. Grammatical points like Mr. Baxter smokes a pipe, doesn't he? in which a tag is introduced and then practiced in a number of sentences, is another way to expand the drill. The teacher should keep in mind that the students repeat the exercises on and on, using the right intonation.

Another aspect of changing or expanding the drill is by changing the situations while still keeping the same subject matter. Sunday activities in the students' homes are an interesting point to be discussed. In brief there are so many solutions that the teacher can make the conversation drill more vivid and

realistic.

Conversation drill and spontaneous language

Conversation is quite different from written language. It uses its own styles. Moreover, since conversation demands more alertness and spontaneity it follows that there are certain linguistic forms that peculiarly belong to spoken language. Normal speech, where no formality is needed and in which people have no enough time to mould his thought seems to establish its own grammar. "Spontaneous language is therefore in definite contrast to grammatical language".¹ It does not mean, however, that the student is to be taught 'la langue dans la rue', a language crowded with slang. It is not the aim of foreign language learning. But the transition from This is a book to the contracted form It's a book in answering the question What is this? is an example that shows that speech should be tackled in a special way.

3. Pronunciation Drill

Pronunciation drill and different sound patterns between languages

Though in some way teaching pronunciation cannot be done in a separate way, apart from the problems of stress and intonation, concentrating on special features of sound production will surely give advantages to the

¹Vendryns, Language, p. 148, as quoted by I. Morris The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, op. cit., p. 75.

student's pronunciation.

Pronunciation drill is felt necessary owing to the fact that there are differences of sound patterns between those of the foreign language and those of the mother tongue. For some Indonesian students English diphthongs seem to be one of the problematic features. For the sounds /ei/, /ou/, /ɛə/, /uə/, they tend to pronounce only the first sounds. Thus they will say /ʔe/ (they), /go/ (go), /ʔɛ/ (there), /tu/ (tour), instead of /ʔei/, /goʊ/, /ʔɛə/, /tuə/, respectively. Contrarily the students may also pronounce merely the second sound, like /hʔə/ for (here), instead of /hiə/. They may also substitute the foreign sounds completely with the native sounds, for example : 'how' is pronounced /ho/ instead of /haw/, because the students associate the written symbols with what is usually pronounced for those graphic signs in the mother tongue.

Some of the English consonants like /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /dʒ/, /θ/, and /ð/ may be difficult for the Indonesian student to articulate. The seemingly solution for them is just to produce the Indonesian substitutes, like /s/, /dʒ/, /t/ or /d/ respectively.

Also words beginning with double consonants, or triple consonants like :

/pr/ in 'pray'	/tw/ in 'twelve'
/gr/ in 'grand'	/ɛtr/ in 'strike'
/sk/ in 'score'	/spl/ in 'splash'
/kl/ in 'close'	/skw/ in 'square'

Usually they insert the sound /ə/ after the first

consonant, that is very common in their own native language, thus for example the students pronounce /sək>:/ for 'score', /kəbuz/ for 'close', /təwelf/ or /təweləf/ for 'twelve', /səkweə/ for 'square'.

Double or triple consonants in the final positions are one of the difficult problems too, like :

/lend/ in 'lend'	/wɔ:mz/ in 'wars'
/self/ in 'self'	/kə:vz/ in 'curves'
/fifθ/ in 'fifth'	/milk/ in 'milk'
/tempt/ in 'tempt'	/tenθs/ in 'tenths'
/tekst/ in 'text'	/wɔ:spz/ in 'wasps'
/sɪŋks/ in 'sinks'	/rʌbd/ in 'rubbed'
/wɔ:mθ/ in 'warmth'	/begd/ in 'begged'
/houldz/ in 'holds'	/ɑ:skt/ in 'asked'.

The problem will be even more complicated due to the fact that there be found so many dialects in Indonesia and therefore the students will pronounce their own substitutes for the correct English sounds. Only efficient drills in the form of patient repetitions will the correct sounds be successfully established.

Pronunciation drill and minimal pairs

The most popular way to correct bad habits in pronunciation is by means of minimal pair drills. If the peculiar sounds are only trained separately as such the contrast with the sounds that they usually substitute is not made evident. By comparing the English peculiar sounds with the common sounds that are familiar in the mother tongue the students will likely grasp the problem more easily.

The pronunciation drill in this case may be



run as follows. The teacher makes two lists each of which contain the sounds to be trained. For the first introduction the teacher may read the whole words in list I by himself and then asks the students to repeat after him word by word. The procedure is done in the similar way for the words in list II. Then the teacher begins to deal with a word in list I, followed in contrast by a word in list II. The teacher may read the words in this way by himself first, or directly followed by the students if the teacher thinks that the first repetition is sufficient already to make the students aware of the contrasted sounds.

The next stage of the pronunciation is that the teacher actually utters a word and the students must say whether the word belongs to list I or list II. Then the teacher may use a pair, consisting of mixed words, and the students must decide whether the two words said by the teacher are of the same list or not.

The teacher of course at the first phase of the drill should use meaningful words only. He may explain the meanings of the words being used in the drill if he wants to, but in a very general way, the drill being not meant for vocabulary building. Some students learn more the sounds when they also know the meanings being contrasted. But this is only a special case. Therefore if possible the teaching in this stage uses words already familiar to the students. Afterwards the students may be trained with meaningless words for the sake of the sound establishment if the teacher considers that further drills are still necessary. Thus good production is resulted, the identification of sounds being

made.

Other forms of pronunciation drill

In further practice the contrasted sounds may be put in sentences. For instance for the contrast of the sound /dʒ/ and /tʃ/ such sentences may be proposed:

- Do you like jests ?
- Do you like chests?

Again, such drills are only used when the students already mastered the basic contrasted sounds. They are not naturally meant for introductory exercises.

If in the above examples the sounds are applied in two different sentences contrasted sounds may also be put in a single sentence. A sentence like "She sells sea shells on the sea shore" is good enough to establish the difference of the sound /s/ with the sound /ʃ/, and the students are asked to repeat the sentence over and over again.

Pronunciation drill and speech flow

In carrying over the drills rhythm and intonation should be kept as normally as possible because the students may put emphasis in an exaggerated way for the sounds being drilled. As a result it produces strange utterances that will be kept in normal conversations.

Pronunciation drill and graphic signs/writing system

Since in the sequence of natural language written language relatively comes after the spoken, for intensive pronunciation drills the written symbols are

not to be introduced very early in the process of language learning. If written forms are introduced in the early phase the student's attention may be concentrated more on the words and on how they are written rather than to the sounds to be mastered. Moreover it probably happens that the written symbols give misleading impression of how the word should be pronounced instead of helping the student.

On the contrary if written symbols are introduced to the class very late the students face a lot of difficulty in writing correctly, thus misspelt words may result. Dictation or a kind of spelling drill which is not very popular in English but very widely used in French is a way that can be taken to remedy these faulty results. It is advisable that the written language is introduced when the basic oral skills have been mastered in fairly perfect language acquisition.

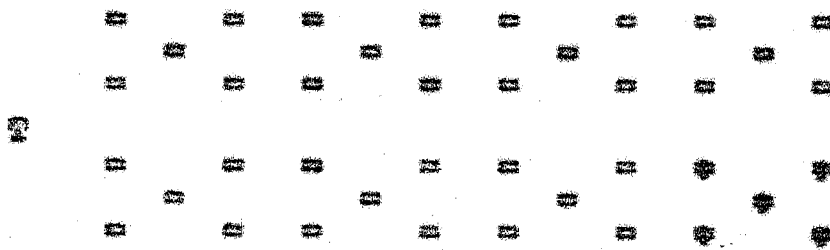
Pronunciation drill and sound introduction

Introducing phonetic transcriptions early for the student learning English for the first time gives a lot of troubles. On the other hand the student often fails to reproduce the correct sound only by imitation. In this case the teacher may give a description - in a simple way, not necessarily in detail, of how the English sounds are produced. The teacher who knows more deeply the background of the sound production in the mother tongue can easily solve the student's difficulty by comparing the sound production in English with that of the native language.

Pronunciation drill and problem of large classes

Another problem of performing the pronunciation drill - and for the other drills as well - is the size of the class. Individual drill is necessary to get the utmost control but it would exceed the time afforded in a class with a large number of students. On the contrary general chorus drills for pronunciation sometimes do not help much because the teacher is not able to detect mispronounced sounds of the individuals. The best solution therefore is by dividing the students into some groups. A class consisting of forty students can be divided into eight groups, each group consisting of five students. By dealing with a group with only five students the teacher will get much control of the students instead of the whole together. Russel H. Campbell in his article The Oral Approach with Large Classes proposes that the weaker students should be grouped together in the same group.¹ For if the weaker students are spread out in other groups, the teacher will pay special attention every time to the concerning group consisting of the weak students. The teacher then has to tackle the same problem and explain it every time again and again. The diagram of the above arrangement can be described as follows :

¹Language Learning, vol. x, no. 1+2, 1960.



T : teacher

= : normal student

* : weaker student

By this arrangement the teacher can help the weaker students with relatively the same problem, at the same time. Many efforts therefore, and also time, are greatly economized.

Contrarily I think that such an arrangement is not favourable at all. By putting the slower students in the same group together, they will feel more embarrassed and inferior than the other normal students. Valuable as this arrangement is it is not psychologically acceptable, and thus progress is not guaranteed. An intermediary solution will be obtained by spreading the five weaker students into one other or two other groups. The efforts of the teacher are not considerably wasted and the weaker students do not likely feel unjustly discriminated.

4. Sentence Pattern Drill

Grammatical drill and practice

Talking about grammar of a certain language so many controversial opinions may arise, depending on the concept of what grammar is. Most of the students who

learn a foreign language are not expected to make a theoretical study on language. They are supposed to practice it. Therefore the teaching of grammar does not consist of explanations and syntactical analysis, but what seems to be more important is to practice those grammatical rules in practical sentences. The student who starts learning a foreign language gets puzzled and is much discouraged if he is flooded with a large number of technical terms, while sufficient trainings on how to apply those terms are not given. The first point to attack is not grammar itself, but its application, because, as said by P. Gurrey :

The chief point to remember is that it is not the grammar of English which is difficult : it is English usage.¹

For this the student needs a lot of practical exercises. A general explanation is of course needed as a guide to avoid parroting. But the teaching and learning of grammar are not satisfactorily fulfilled simply when a lot of explanations and definitions are given. The grammatical points are successfully established only when the student is coming to the stage where he is able to put those rules in concrete sentences. It follows that :

... any descriptions that are really necessary can usually be expressed in plain, every day language, without making use of technical terms of difficult words.²

¹ P. Gurrey, Teaching English as a Foreign Language, Longmans 1964, p. 78.

² P. Gurrey, ibid., p. 78.

Since grammatical features can only function when they are put in "meaningful" expressions, sentence pattern drills are the best way to convey the applications of those grammatical items. Thus instead of labouring theoretical explanations, the students are adequately trained in practical sentences containing the grammatical patterns to be maintained.

To provide an illustration of the form of the sentence pattern drills an example from "English Sentence Pattern"¹ is chosen here. In the following drills the student is trained with the use of concession. He is expected to combine the concessive clauses with the main sentence by means of a prepositional phrase "in spite of".

Example : We went on a picnic although the weather was cool.

We went on a picnic in spite of the cool water.

Exercises :

1. Betty went too although her mother didn't want her to.
2. George went too although he had a class.
3. We didn't wear coats although the weather was cool.
4. We went in George's car although the engine was in bad condition.

Etc.

Therefore as shown in the example most of the class time is not spent with explaining or naming the parts

¹R. Lado & C. G. Fries, English Sentence Patterns, op.cit., p. 228.

of the sentence. Even the term "propositional phrase" is not employed in the book, though it is the principal item being drilled. Moreover the student is not told about the origin of the term and the reason why it is called so. The main procedure is examples in which the student is likely able to see the pattern as a guiding principle and then the lesson is followed by a lot of practice. The given examples perhaps do not provide enlightening explanations in a definite way. Anyhow there need no reasons of discouraging the student. He is supposed to see the pattern himself more accurately in the practice. The sentences trained immediately after the models are used to clarify grammatical ambiguity that may still arrive.

Systematical presentation and progression

The teacher cannot simply rely on his student that the new item will be strongly established when the teacher has finished his explanations of the model sentences. The case may be even worse when, for instance, other new synonyms of the concessive expression is not mastered yet. It would be hard for the student if the above model sentences are presented in this way :

E.g.: - We went to a picnic although the weather was cool

- The weather was cool. He went to picnic although

- The weather was cool. But he went to a picnic

- Cool as the weather was, he went to a

- How swift does time fly!
- + (It should be : How swiftly)
- Not one of the applicants has received their rating.
- + (It should be : his rating).
- Phyllis can tie the sailor's knot quicker than I.
- (It should be: more quickly...).
- A comparison of their economy and our's shows wide differences.
- + (It should be: in doubt).
- Etc.¹

Only critical students who got efficient and well graded training can detect the mistakes in the seemingly correct sentences.

To attain this skill the drills must be arranged according to the degree of difficulty. The progress moves on slowly and thus the students will not face a completely new pattern that is insoluble for him.

There is another point of consideration, namely that the presentation must be arranged according to the usefulness of the items, that is the items which are most frequently used must be presented first. I think this is only valid if the degree of difficulty is also taken into account. How useful certain pattern will be, they cannot be successfully established if the difficulty of those patterns or items seem unsurmountable for the students. Thus a combination of both the degree of difficulty and that of usefulness is an important factor in arranging the drills.

¹Harry Shefter, Short Cuts to Effective English, op.cit., pp. 260, 261, 262, 266, 274.

Simplicity

Good sentence pattern drills do not use long winded and complex sentences. They are just simple. It is quite logic that the student is to be given simple phrases and sentences that he may master them easily. Long and difficult sentences discourage the student and slow down the progress of learning. Even when the student is invited to step farther in the written language the importance of this simplicity is still obvious, because the student is not expected to write long and beautiful sentences, but simple and correct ones.

Variety

The exercises that are repeated again and again bore the students. Once the students' attention is distracted they are no longer motivated and the effort after meaning is destroyed. Sentence pattern drills have the facility of hindering this danger, because of the variety that characterizes the drills. Each exercise varies from the previous ones and every time it offers the new challenge to the students. Thus they are kept alert and the attention is always there. The variety enables the students not as dead elements as in the case of a parrot but the automation is obtained in the conscious way because the patterns are established through challenging process.

Linguistic contrast is made evident

Sentence pattern drills offer ample occasion for the establishment of grammatical elements. Let us take an example of the use of 's' for the third person

singular in the Simple Present. In this case the contrast of verb-forms using 's' and those that are not found in the 's' forms is clear enough for the class. It is not simply a matter of changing a certain word within the given pattern but the students must decide when to take the 's' form. In such circumstances the grammatical points can be well established.

Sentence pattern drill and interferences

Successful learning does not only depend on how clearly the material is set up in a unit, but also on how the pattern is considered as a partial unit in connection with the other lessons. In other words the pattern to be presented must carefully graded. Two main points should be taken into account in inserting a certain item in the syllabus, namely the interference that may occur either with the later or previous items, and secondly the interference with the patterns in the native language.

For the first case, for example presenting the possessive form my in This is my book immediately before This book is mine may result an interference like This is mine book. Though the pattern of This is my book has been relatively established, the students get somehow puzzled of the presence of the similar expression in This book is mine. Mixing up the two expressions may probably take place. As it has been stated before, in case of teaching the opposite adjectives where the pair should be taught in a separate way to get stronger establishment, there should be enough span between the two similar forms to avoid

possible interferences.

The second type of interference is caused by different structural patterns between the foreign language and the mother tongue. The more similar in structure they may be, the less interferences are likely to occur. For the Indonesian student studying English, presenting I am going now consecutively after I go results in interferences like I going or I am go. It is quite understandable since the -ing form is unknown in Indonesian. It is unwise therefore to place the two items in the neighbouring positions in the syllabus.

5. Reading Drill

Though some consider that reading is an art rather than a skill, language activity will be largely spent on reading in further uses of language acquisition, so that language skills embrace equally the reading skills. It needs, consequently, a lot of practice. Reading is an art because, in case of reading aloud, it includes the ability to express oneself correctly in accordance with the mood and content of the printed forms. Yet it is a skill, because, also in case of reading aloud, one is required to articulate the printed forms correctly and precisely. And this can only be attained if the reader has achieved a sound skill in pronunciation. In case of silent reading, reading skill will include the ability to get the right information as intended by the writer, and also to collect as much information as possible within the minimum of time available. Dividing the sentences into

the correct junctures is incorporated in the reading skill too, as well as using the right intonation as it is obvious in reading aloud. For reading skill, elementary students, for instance, can be drilled with "Reading Skill Builder".¹

Reading aloud and speech skills

It was of common belief that reading is identical to reading aloud as practiced in class. In courses where oral practice predominantly governs the methods the importance of reading aloud is more strongly realized. The skill of reading may signal the correct enunciation and the right intonation that belong to the speech ability of the student. Reading therefore is not to be introduced until the speech foundation has been adequately mastered. In Indonesian SMP and SMA where English is given 3 - 5 times per week, it is preferable to provide one special period for reading. The reading material may be taken from a passage or extract of a book. After giving several performances as examples the teacher asks the students to repeat after him. However, this is hardly sufficient, though efficient, to establish fluency and speech flow. Individual reading then is imperative to correct eventual mistakes by asking the student to read a portion out of the text.

It is assumed that the student by means of reading aloud is trained to connect the printed forms or signs into sounds. This practice implies the ability of uttering speech, prompted by the written signs, so

¹Reader's Digest Services, Inc. Pleasantville N.Y

that the student's speech flow is adequately improved.

Reading drill and material selection

The material should of course be selected and graded to suit the student's language ability, especially in the beginning stage. As stories and local legends are always interesting particularly for the younger students they can be used as reading material. The story must be written within the stock of vocabulary of the student. This is also true for the grammatical items used in the text. Reading material containing complex sentences are to be avoided because they make the student stop then though only mentally to decipher the difficulty. This is to be put aside first, the progress of reading being affected whereas the reading drill is to promote the student's fluency in this stage of language learning.

Reading aloud and comprehension

There is an evident inconvenience when the practice of reading aloud is not rightly administered namely the problem of parroting. The major aim of oral drills in the reading aloud must not neglect understanding. It is probable that a student may produce oral reading satisfactorily while he does not understand what he is saying, his attention being concentrated on the graphic symbols. In this case the reading is purely mechanical. Oral test, as used in the conversation drill may be used to test the student's comprehension.

The first stage of reading

This stage of reading in which the student gets acquainted with the sound patterns represented by graphic system, is not likely to be introduced before the student has a sound knowledge of the intimate relation between the graphic pattern and the sound pattern. The student is not expected to begin the reading drill when he sees for the first time how the writing system operates in the foreign language. Reading drill in this stage is admittedly to provide favourable contribution to speech fluency, but not to inaugurate fluency itself or speech itself.

The second stage of reading

In the second stage of reading the student's attention is no longer fixed to the link between visual and auditory signs, but to more complicated features of these signs : structure, vocabulary and meanings. Visual patterns have become automatically established skills. The student is supposed to perceive the content and abstraction through those visual patterns, like a person "who through the printed page to the message beyond, much as a person gazes through a window to the view outside without consciousness of the glass"¹. The reading material for the drill then consists of passages or extracts with an insistence on the student's development in language knowledge in its broader sense. It offers more complicated but richer items. The

¹Horrisen: The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School, University Press of Chicago, 1927, as quoted by I. Morris, The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, p. 104.

passage may contain a special sentence pattern and in further drills the problems are practiced in separate exercises. Special expressions and vocabulary that convey meaning in a unique way be found and the student is expected to make their own sentences containing those expressions in similar language situations. The teacher may also ask the student to find the corresponding synonymous words and train them in other sentences to let the student see if those expressions are applicable in other situations or not. In short the passage is not presented as a source of information as such, but to enrich the student's language skills. Such skills are obviously useful to improve the writing ability in further uses.

Silent reading

There is a favourable room here to introduce silent reading where the student 'mentally' reads for himself, the oral production being suppressed. The graphic symbols being internalized and becoming the automatic ability of the student's habit, silent reading takes less time than reading aloud in the first stage. The case is even more convincing owing to the suppressed articulated sounds that make reading slower. Silent reading provides richer advantages, it enables the students "to enlarge their knowledge, to find recreation and enjoyment, and to improve their technical achievements in many different uses".¹

If silent reading gives so much profit, it is

¹P. Gurrey, Teaching English as a foreign language, op.cit., p. 10.

of invaluable use to train the student to gain rapid silent reading. The silent reading drill can be done for example by asking the student to read silently a certain passage in a limited period of time. The teacher then checks, the book closed, by posing either written or oral questions. Making a summary may also be proposed for more advanced students, so is retelling the content in brief.

Though reading aloud that is efficiently carried over will contribute considerably to rapid silent reading, this art of reading silently must be trained constantly since one who just makes rare reading activity will likely be faced with unfavourable obstacle in his silent reading.

The third stage of reading embraces the highest achievement and puts interests on imaginative faculty and subtle ideas of the writer. Since in this stage reading drills as a part of general language drills seem unnecessary, the writer of this thesis concerns merely the previous stages.

CHAPTER V

FOR AND AGAINST THE DRILL METHOD

Some people do not like practice as done in the drills, but some still see the use of them. Those who do not like the drills think that they are monotonous and seem to be artificial training. Furthermore, drills encourage parroting only and therefore do not stimulate intellect. And also in cases of big classes, which most frequently happen here in Indonesia, it is hard to control the students from the view point of the drill's efficiency. On the contrary, people who are for the drill method, consider that drills are quite important, because they include repetitions which are imperative for language establishment. Moreover, the different patterns between the foreign language and the mother tongue (phonological, morphological, syntactic and vocabulary systems) offer special problems in achieving the foreign language mastery so that the presence of drills is considered important to overcome these problems. Also in most Indonesian classes where time provided by the curriculum is short, and there is no reinforcement from outside class, the drills are considered necessary to help the students to attain the threshold of establishment. We will see all these things, however, in this Chapter.

When speaking about drills, it is better to connect them with the methods in which those drills are largely used so that we obtain a clearer view on the

role of the drills in the process of language learning and teaching. I view the drills from the point of view of four main methods widely known in the current language teaching and learning. They are the Audio - lingual Method, Audio-visual Method, Translation Method, Direct Method. In the light of these methods evaluation on drills is likely more distinctly and objectively done.

1. Audio-lingual Method/Audio-oral Method

Sentence Pattern drill and monotony

It has been said before that in order to avoid monotony during the class of pattern drill the stimuli should be affective so that they really concern the actual experience of the students. Thus the response should be made as natural as possible. But such stimuli are rare. Most of them are artificial since the natural stimuli which are perfectly apt for the actual situations are somehow limited. The materials available are restricted within the four walls of the class. It will not help either if the materials are repeated again and again for various kinds of sentence patterns because they will lose their freshness. The result will be completely the same : monotony.

Finally the exercises will solve the problems by setting forth an artificial stock of sentences. These items may vary in many ways. But it depends then on how much the variation is significant to the students. A rich variation may not create the atmosphere wanted if it is felt too unnatural. (For instance the teacher uses the same object of reference for various imagined

things to make the class more lively or to describe things clearly. For example, when describing certain scenes the teacher holds a book to describe a boat, a plane, a car and so on in more or less the same situation. The students will feel that the lesson is unnatural and too artificial). Once the attitude of the students is destroyed monotony is one of the negative effects that may be produced thence.

Sentence Pattern drill and artificial training

If sentence pattern drills are given by "providing facility in using the pattern in rightly controlled situations through a variety of drill techniques",¹ the actual problem faced by the student is the habituation of the patterns and its application into the real life application/communication. For, the final goal of language learning is communication. It follows that practice that is exercised to gain language mastery must be directed to communication as well. Obviously, the student in giving the response during the practice sometimes (or very often, if not always), does not respond to the real language needs. He responds because the teacher hopes him to do so, or because the setting of the patterns requires him to give such and such responses. Thus the responses are just mechanical, as said by I. Morris : "... mechanical drill of pointless statements".²

¹ Cosgrave, ibid., Forum IX, Nov.-Dec., no. 6, p. 7.

² I. Morris, The art of teaching English as a living language, op.cit., p. 85.

The general atmosphere of the class within the four walls inevitably gives the impression of artificiality. The cues and the stimuli that prompt the responses are deliberately arranged to make the practice work and thus the language habits are firmly set in the mind of the student. The teacher or the text book writer must provide certain language situations that make the stimulus response possible and incorporated in the practice. The situations are however impossibly made parallel to the actual language needs of the student when he is doing the drill practice. The language need of the student varies from time to time, while in dealing with sentence patterns the material of the practice is limited within a certain unit of pattern. Thus, again, the student has to accept artificial language situations he wants to express. It is admitted that in the early days of language learning the student is not able yet to make all utterances to convey various concepts of his actual experience as a response to the stimuli being drilled. But the student is mentally forced, so to speak, to the pattern oriented situations. He feels somehow to be put in the unreal situations.

Sentence pattern practice and communication practice

The student who may have practiced the sentence pattern drills inside the class perhaps has a lot of trouble in applying them in real life situations. It is urgent, then, to organize not only sentence pattern practice, but also communication practice, as said by Adrian Palmer.¹

¹Adrian Palmer, Forum, Vol.IX, July-August 1971, No. 4, p. 15.

The first process of language learning is principally devoted to self-automatisation of the patterns to be acquired, most of which are done in artificial ways. The second process, that is communication practice, introduces the student to the application of the pattern being drilled. The difficulty of the student to use the pattern in real situations is likely to be eliminated by making a transfer from artificial to real uses of the patterns.

Evidently the teacher must make a sort of deviation from the prescribed practical exercises as found in the textbook; he must be aware, moreover, that it is only him who can prepare exercises in communication practice as writing such a complete book is impossible. It is only the teacher who knows the student more personally and his background as well, to search for the real situations. Here lies his superiority than the textbook writer that obviously does not know most suitable exercises to be trained further when he wrote his book.

The teacher may feel, on the other hand that the amount of exercises that can be covered in a period of class is considerably curtailed because the rest of the time is spent for communication practice. But if language acquisition is to be appreciated from successful establishment rather than the amount to be covered in gaining a number of patterns, as large as possible, the teacher will not likely neglect the importance of the second process.

As it has been previously shown, successful result in teaching and learning a natural language depends

largely on how the language patterns are presented in suitable language situations. The first phase of situation, namely the things that the student can experience directly in class are very restricted. The teacher may expect good result when teaching those items, he uses those things as a medium to create situations. But constant use of the same things over and over again (like walls, tables, desks, etc), how richly he may vary the sentence patterns, makes the student devoid of interest. So is situational language teaching required by communication practice. To avoid negative effects that may occur the teacher can swiftly move to second phase namely the things that are common in real life experience, but not at hand at the actual moment. The following example in which question - tags are to be taught is used as an illustration :

E.g.: Model : 1. He is early this morning, isn't he?

2. We must stay here, mustn't we?

3. Paul can sing well, can't he ?

After a fair number of repetition and explanations, the teacher can then ask the students personally :

Teacher : Tony, you are late, aren't you?

Tony : No, sir.

Teacher : (addressing question to Nora) Is that right?

Nora : Yes, sir. He isn't late.

Teacher : Then ask Tony about it!

Nora : You aren't late, are you, Tony?

Tony : No, I'm not.

By varying the question while concentrating still on

the main item, the practice is not done in the stiff way. The students are brought up to the normal conversation as used outside the class.

In the above examples Tony just responds in brief sentences. It is a little awkward to demand a complete answer such as : No, sir, I'm not late. To train the student to express himself or herself adequately, such short responses are to be avoided in some cases. The formula of questioning may be changed as follows :

Teacher : We must stay here, mustn't we, John?

John : Yes, we must, because we have a class now.

Teacher : (to Susy) We shall have a class too this afternoon, shan't we?

Susy : No, we shan't. We shall be at home.

By asking the reason of the response the student is forced to go further. And choosing the sentence as a reason, makes the student creative in expression and not just sticking regurously to the same pattern. Such a training, indeed renders the student agile in the daily conversation.

In the above example the teacher avoids the so called 'take-it-easy' attitude by simply giving short responses, namely by exacting the student the reason. But since communication is a mutual contact between people and thus not only between the teacher and the student, the teacher must take an inisiative to provide communication practice between the students themselves.

E.g.:

Teacher : Paul can sing well, can't he?



Tony : No, he can't. But you can, can't you?

Teacher : No, I can't. What about Phyllis, Joan?

Joan : (to Phyllis) You can sing well, can't you?

Phyllis : Yes, I can. And I think (to Dick) you can sing well too, can't you, Dick?

Dick : No, I can't. But I can swim well.

Teacher : Is it true, Paul?

Paul : Dick can't swim, can he? I wonder.

By inviting the student to see how the patterns really 'work' in normal uses, the exercises are not given just in lifeless situations and therefore the transfer from class-drill to real communication has been started when the drills are being dealt with. Repetitions that are accompanied by situational language teaching, thus directed to real life communication, will not plunge the student into the state of parroting. It is what is called mechanism in which the students are regarded as lifeless things that must react as machines do, and into which the so called sentence patterns must be inserted. By means of a slight change in the drills the student is made more conscious of what is being learned and then mechanical practice can be somehow eliminated since the cues are more challenging and real. On the other hand the variation must not blur the item to be taught.

Some arguments as put forward by I. Morris¹ against drill methods are :

¹I. Morris, The Art of Teaching English as a Living Language, op.cit., p. 84 - 5.

1. ... the success of the child in learning his mother tongue is due primarily to his application of language to real situation.
2. Mechanical drill of pointless statement is completely devoid of interest and is comparatively useless, for it bears no direct relation to normal speech situation.
3. A pupil trained in drill methods is completely dependent of prompting for his speech activity and is liable to be set in this habit that he may even be handicapped for free conversation.
4. Although there are stereotyped constructions and formulas, natural speech is not the production of a set group of words, for no two people would use identical words in discussing the simplest topic.

What I. Morris has argued is the inconvenience of the sentence pattern drills that are not able to get through the linguistic gap between the class-situation and real life communication. This gap, however can be annihilated by the presentation of the communication practice. The problem now is the absolute need of an experienced teacher who can manage the pattern drills to communication drills. He should be the primary source of suggesting inspiration in making a transfer from the classroom artificial atmosphere to the real life situation. Practical sentences, dealing with the necessary patterns that hit directly the personal interest of the student should always be at his disposal. Such skills naturally need practice as well as experience and well prepared lessons are indispensable. In communication practice the role of the teacher cannot be substituted by mechanical devices, for example a tape-recorder. The response of the student should be human and reflexive and such utterances can only come from a living teacher, and not a lifeless prompter.

It is true that, as said by Morris in his last

argument, utterances made by different people are hardly identical, even when talking about the same thing. The use of communication practice tries to direct the student's attention from the merely lifeless responses due to the mechanical drills.

In the above examples the student must be encouraged to normal conversational phrases, like 'well!', 'oh yes', 'you see', etc.. The student, then, is trained adequately to be natural and creative in producing his utterances. Thus the term 'control' in the pattern drill does not denote the limitation of the student's initiative, but rather a guide so that the student keeps himself in the right communication.

In earlier stages of language learning communication practice needs a lot of efforts from the part of the teacher since there are not so many patterns already mastered. But due to the ample opportunity as found in the daily life, the teacher is expected to find real but simple sentences. Communication practice is too valuable a means to be dispensed with, and it cannot be rejected simply because of paucity of the patterns that have been acquired in the early stages.

The passage to the written language

In sentence pattern drill the student is accustomed to oral language. Suppose he has mastered perfectly the patterns and has already got a good pronunciation. On the contrary it is still a big question if the student will learn the written form as easily as the oral language. Those who have been gone abroad

may have an experience that they are able to utter words and speak a perfect language that they get from the continuous contact with the native speakers. But it is sometimes hard for them to perform the written symbols of these words in the correct way. It is not wise either to begin the teaching with the written approach. But the student must come to the written language one day. The student can see the printed forms every time the drills are given. But he is not apt to write them. It is awkward to give the drills every time as written assignments. But it is against the nature of learning a current language.

Non redundancy in oral practice

As it has been mentioned in the previous section the student is more accustomed to oral rather than to written language. It results that the student utters sentences orally in the correct way but he finds a great difficulty in transforming the spoken message into the written. Or the student makes serious mistakes in the writing systems without knowing them. Such examples can be easily found in French :

- E.g.:
- Il marche (He walks)
 - Ils marchent (They walk)
 - Marie sort (Marie goes out)
 - Je sors (I go out),

where the verbs have exactly the same pronunciation for both subjects, yet they are written in the different way.

Such mistakes may also occur in more complicated constructions, like :

E.g.: - C'est le sac que j'ai vu

(It is the bag that I saw)

- Ce sont les sacs que j'ai vus

(It is the bags that I saw)

- C'est la valise que j'ai vue

(It is the suitcase that I saw)

- Ce sont les valises que j'ai vues

(It is the suitcase that I saw)

In the above examples the French past participle /vy/ (= seen) has various forms : vu, vus, vue, vues according to the antecedents, whether they are masculine or feminine, singular or plural. Indeed they have the same pronunciation : /vy/.

Therefore it will be better to introduce verb-contrasts that are really apparent when pronounced, like:

E.g.: - Il entre /il ɛ̃tr/

(He comes in)

- Ils entrent /ilsɛ̃tr/

(They come in),

in which the contrast between 'he' and 'they' ('il' and 'ils', respectively), is made evident because of the inserted sound 's' /z/, which should be pronounced because the next word (in this case the verb 'entrent') begins with a vowel. Such a solution is proposed by François Réquidat in his "Les Exercices Structuraux"¹. But limiting the drills within such verbs means, a priori, limiting the progress of learning, since the given materials are also very restricted. It is wise

¹François Réquidat, Les exercices structuraux, Hachette/Larousse, 1966, p. 43.

then to introduce the written forms too so that the student may perceive the difference.

Sentence pattern drill and large classes

A large class seem to be a serious shortcoming in the practice of the pattern drill. The communication practice requires personal prompting to expect personal response on the other part. Such a response cannot be practiced in the chorus drill for example, if the latter is the way to face a large class like in the pronunciation drill. Pattern practice then may be done in groups and the teacher gives the necessary cues. Such an approach may result fluency in speech and 'some' establishment of the patterns. But the danger of parroting is even greater especially for the slower students who unconsciously just imitate their classmates in the same group even if the response is completely wrong. The effect of mechanical drills cannot be abolished either.

The solution that the teacher may take is for example by showing to the student by means of examples or explanations of how the patterns are to be operated in real life situations. But the student does not learn a language simply by hearing examples or seeing applied sentences derived from the model sentences. The teacher must produce it himself, according to his personal need and not his teacher's.

Since chorus drill does not give any solution whatever, the only way out is by dividing the class into smaller one if efficiency is the aim of language learning. But this is exactly one of the serious prob-

lems faced in so many countries. Also, lack of competent teachers is strongly felt and the schools are flooded by relatively far larger number of students, because the number of schools available is out of all proportion to that of the students. If even pattern practice is not realised, how can communication practice be carried over in class ?

Sentence pattern drill and curriculum

The curriculum provided by the school program is one of the decisive factor. Pattern practice needs constant practice because, as a matter of principle, repetition is imperative to get the threshold of establishment. If the teaching of a foreign language is only given three times per week for example (as it is mostly common in Indonesian SMP or SMA for the English lessons), it will be hard enough for the teacher to teach. Perhaps he has to start from zero whenever he enters the class, no pattern being really established previously.

In Indonesia, for instance, teachers are sometimes given special days of the teaching-time - table because he himself is busy in the other days in other schools or because he has to come from far away places. The time table afforded for him is therefore 'condensed' merely in those days available for him. It follows that the time devoted for language learning that is already far from the average degree of efficiency and sufficiency is arranged in such a way that two periods are eventually fitted consecutively. The success of language learning does not depend on the length of

time spent but on the frequency of the lesson presentation and practice.

Sentence pattern drill and social environment

Some textbook writers enthusiastically insist that their books provide promising result of language mastery in several months. They forget on the other hand the social circumstances where the learners live. A student learning a foreign language in the milieu in which the language is spoken is able to master the language faster rather than that who learns the same foreign language but facing the community where his native language is the main medium for communicating. Also the background of the mother tongue may present important considerations in arranging the sequence of the items in the syllabus. For instance, when G. Mauger and M. Brusaïère introduce the 'partitif article' (article partitif) in lesson 8 of their "le français accéléré"¹, it seems too early for the Indonesian students, since Indonesian language has no such articles. It is better to introduce definite and indefinite articles first, since they are more practical in this stage of learning and will help the students to understand the partitif article 'du' /dy/ later.

The above cases show that the method as proposed by audio-lingual drills is not always suitable for some reasons. As useful and systematical the drills are, the learning facilities provided by the social circumstances

¹G. Mauger & M. Brusaïère, Le Français Accéléré, Hachette, Paris, 1964.

are of great importance in deciding whether the method is likely bringing success or complete failure. It is not the pattern drills that are to be blamed, but their application seems not to stand on the real and fertile ground for their development.

Structural problem and meaning in the sentence pattern drill

A serious disadvantage of the sentence pattern drill is that sometimes the drills are incapable to solve or to clarify the problems in natural language.

Sentence pattern drills rely on the patterning in syntax. The structural items in a given sentence are to be trained intensively so that once they have been mastered the student is able to make other utterances by means of lexical substitutions. But after the lexical substitution has been performed, the structure being the same, sometimes does not say anything about the difference in meaning that may occur after the transformation.

E.g.: - The cook broke the dish

- The dish broke.

Though the patternings of the subject and the predicate are the same in the above sentences, there is a tremendous difference in meaning between the two sentences. The second has an implicitly passive meaning, whereas the verb retains its original form of 'broke'. This is as what also said by F. Grant Brown in one of his articles.¹

¹FORUM, Vol. IX, July-August, 1971, No.4, p. 23.

In French for instance, such a problem may be shown in sentences like

- Ils se regardent (They look at each other)
- Ils se réveillent (They wake up)

The first sentence has the meaning of reciprocal action, while the second has a reflexive meaning : they wake up 'themselves'. The sentence will even be more complicated in a structure where the two meanings can exist together.

- E.g. : - Ils se lavent (They take a bath)
- Ils se lavent (They bathe each other)

Of course the singular form can never have the reciprocal meaning ('he bathes each other'), and the context can somehow throw much light on the required meaning. But the sentence pattern drills cannot provide a satisfactory solution in clarifying the ambiguity. Therefore sticking to what is taught in the sentence pattern-drills will be sometimes misleading, the meaning being blurred.

If such structural items are not taught in a fair space, such sentences may be produced later :

- E.g. : - He enters the room
- The room enters,

in which the structural pattern remains untouched. Mother-tongue translation may clarify the meanings but not the structural problems faced by the student in relation with meaning.

Until now, the discussion lingers on the inconvenience of the sentence pattern drill. Conversely some real advantages may be brought forward.

Attentiveness

Only a good communication between the teaching item and the student can produce a successful learning. This atmosphere is only available when the student is able to concentrate his mind. The teaching item should be something that to a certain extent makes the student always awake. It must capture his attention.

Pattern drills also provide an easy way to it. Every student should give a reaction to the sentence patterns given as a unit. Each student will have a turn just shortly after the other and not after a period of ten minutes as in reading class. Each will have a sense of responsibility when the turn arrives. The situation will make the student always busy, even reluctant and lazy students are pushed to this attitude. It is naturally advised that the turn must be given at random.

Sentence pattern drills demands, not only suggest, a good cooperation between the teaching point and the student. As long as the cooperation is still in the class the teacher can at least expect that the teaching items will be established more successfully.

Introducing a current language

The language to be taught in schools is of course the current language that is used by people nowadays either in its spoken or written forms. Advanced students who want to make a more specified field of a language, literature for example, may make further studies. They should transgress the general 'standard'. But the beginners are not to learn archaic words that

have nothing to do with the real language. Otherwise they feel just nowhere in the process of language learning.

Sentence pattern drills can solve this problem by offering patterns that are really needed by a student. It is really an interesting motivation that the student begins to realize that he can practice what he is learning in simple dialogues in his daily life.

An efficient method to learn a language

The drills provide many repetitions in the practice of language learning. It needs a lot of repetitions for a student before he can 'know' the language. Thus the repeated exercises are meant to establish the new language's patterns more easily and efficiently, as said by C.C. Pries that :

'Knowing' this grammar for practical use means being able to produce and to respond to these signals of structural meaning. To develop such habits efficiently demands practice and more practice ...¹

Pronunciation drill

The form of the pattern sometimes permits the opportunity to insert the pronunciation drill. Short sentences, each with a certain change of form every time, enable the teacher to use words, the pronunciation of which is to be drilled to the student. (The words should naturally suit the context of the pattern) It is impossible to introduce minimal pairs in every pattern drill. But the teacher can at least drill the

¹R. Lado & C.C. Pries, English Sentence Patterns, Ann Arbor, The University of Michigan Press, 1969, p.v.

student with the sound that is considered peculiar. In this kind of form the student will not get bored because of the monotony of the presentation as we find in pure pronunciation drills. Perhaps the student does not feel that at the same time the teacher wants to improve his (the student's) pronunciation.

New vocabulary

A good model does not only provide the opportunity to the student that he may learn the new word within a proper context but he can learn also how he must deal with the word for further uses. He is invited to reproduce words being learned in their analogical functions, and they become his possession. The learning process of vocabulary can be found in pattern drill and the student can take much profit from it.

A student, however clever he is cannot learn a large stock of vocabulary in one time. They must be established gradually. As in the learning of the other subjects, gradual progression is the only way to come to significant learning. In the learning of vocabulary it is not only a question of progression (seen from the amount of words to be taught), but also the choice of words. A rare word must not be taught to a beginner for example. Common vocabulary must be taught first before more specified things. Thus the word branch or leaf must come after the word tree, as proposed by Marie Anne Hameau in her article "L'enseignement du vocabulaire"¹. The transmission from the complex to

¹"Le Français dans Le Monde", Juni 1969, no. 63, p. 48.

the simple is the basic process, not just for learning but for logic in general.

The establishment of vocabulary moves along with the patterns in fixed steps. It is not meant that difficult exercises should use difficult words also. But unfamiliar words make the student difficult to master the new patterns. The degree of difficulty of the drills gets along with complexity of words of the exercises. The student is not only equipped with a fuller grasp of sentence structures, but the content of his vocabulary is enriched also.

2. Visual aids and drills

There is a large variety of visual aids currently developed for the purpose of language learning and teaching. Visual devices, like flanel boards, slot-boards, picture and charts, film, filmstrips and slides or even three dimensional models are very widely used in certain countries. The writer would not speak about all these aids in details but merely choose several of them that are popularly used because of their availability, especially here in Indonesia in relation with the drills.

Visual aids and situational teaching

As it has been repeatedly shown in previous sections situations are necessary to accompany the teaching of language items. Since natural situations that offer natural language needs are very limited, artificial situations must be introduced in the class.

Such artificiality demands imaginative effort from the part of the student because the natural situation that is actually on in the class is seldom available at the moment. The teacher can search for help by the use of visual-aids that can favourably support the 'creation' and 'existence' of the necessary situations. If in usual language classes the drills are the medium between the student and the teaching point to be established, visual aids make the medium - in this case the drills - operate more easily. It often happens that the student is put in an abstract atmosphere so that he finds a lot of trouble in achieving the language items, since there is still a gap between the student and the item. The chief role of the visual aids then is to neutralize this abstraction by providing a real situation that can be visually grasped with ease. The gap between the student and the teaching item is considerably annihilated.

Dialogue drills and visual aids

It seems that dialogue drill demands most intensively the language situation without which dialogues or communication in general will unlikely take place. A real life experience may be used as a topic in a conversation class. The cues for the dialogues in this case should be imagined by the student. The teacher must give the necessary suggestion when the class is caught in a dead silence, but he must not take the main initiative, unless it comes to the teacher's own monologue.

A picture, large enough for the whole class to

see, that represents a scene from daily life business may be used as lively source for dialogues. A picture, describing the interior part of a shop, for example, will invite the students to make an intense conversation. The students are expected to take active part in the conversation. A student may take the role of the saleslady, while some others the customers, and the dialogues may be run as follows.

Saleslady : Good morning!

Customer : Good morning!

Saleslady : What can I do for you sir?

Customer : I'd like to buy a shirt.

Saleslady : Here you are, sir.

These ones are made of pure cotton.

Customer : No, I want a white shirt made of nylon.

Saleslady : Here it is.

Customer : Well, I think it's too big.

Saleslady : What size do you usually wear ?

Customer : Sixteen!

Saleslady : We have only a red and a yellow one of that size.

Customer : What a pity! But this yellow one seems very nice. I'll take this one.

A piece of conversation or a playlet that have been learned by heart at home may cause the students a little bit shy or awkward when they must perform it in front of the class. Thus fluency that will be achieved in this practice remains unrealized. Moreover the students are required to have a strong imagination so that the drills can be performed smoothly and as

naturally as possible.

A picture scene, on the other hand, demands less imagination since the student is considerably helped by the visualized scene. The response will be more spontaneous the student being more aware of what to say. Furthermore the conversation may be more natural. The student is not dictated by sentences already learned by heart. He can be more creative because he must contribute his own sentences to the scene. Consequently the conversation drill is performed in a more natural way.

The cues are not sentences that must be learned by heart, but they are all in the picture. The student gives the response when he encounters an 'item' in the picture, thus his response is not prompted by sentences. This process is a natural one, that exists in real life communication, since the practice originates from the student, not from a textbook or the teacher.

A series of pictures that describes events taking place consecutively may be also employed as a means of conversation drills. The practice is carried over in the same way as in the first example.

Pronunciation drills and visual aids

In ordinary pronunciation class when teaching minimal pairs, the teacher only writes the pairs on the blackboard. A series of pictures containing the words to be paired can be used as a device to facilitate the pronunciation drill. It is admitted that teaching pronunciation cannot be emphasized together with the teaching of vocabulary. But the pictures contribute spe-

cial help in making an association between the word and the sound to be established. Therefore the student, while identifying the thing in the picture by using the correct pronunciation, learns the minimal pairs without being aware of it. It is tiresome to exercise minimal pairs over and over again, and monotony may result. By presenting pictures containing minimal pairs, like 'razor-racer', 'pin-pen', 'ship-sheep', the drills are performed in a more incentive and challenging way and are made more interesting at the same time.

It is unfortunate that such pairs cannot always be drawn easily. It will be complicated to draw a series of pictures containing 'big' and 'beak'. The second word is likely easy to be described, but 'big' being an adjective will cause a problem if not contrasted with relatively smaller things. The use and possibility of pictured minimal pairs are anyhow limited. If the pictures are noisy and using many details, the result will be the contrary because the student will become even more confused. Visual aids can only be significant if they are simple and easy to grasp. Noisy pictures, owing to the complexity of the things to be described will make language learning even more difficult instead of aiding it.

Vocabulary drill and visual aids

Visual aids provide efficient devices to the vocabulary. By means of pictures a lot of vocabulary can be drilled more easily than by merely presenting the words as such. Verbal explanation can be avoided only by presenting a picture describing the word. In

this way many efforts can be economized and it can be expected that the vocabulary drill can be carried over more efficiently. Moreover a visual presentation gives a deeper impression in the student's mind and thus the vocabulary will be established more firmly. Less effort will be spent during the drills to get the vocabulary into his possession.

Even for a strange cultural setting a picture is much more useful than a large number of explanations that perhaps do not clarify the problem. A picture can easily denote what is meant by a certain word. It follows that situational language teaching is supported considerably by the picture, the situation being visualized. The drill is performed not in the pointless atmosphere but in an approximately situation, because the student's imagination is more concretely directed.

The difficulty arises when the vocabulary deals with abstract nouns. A picture describing a state of things cannot convey the sense of abstractness. The student is not supposed to say 'beauty' when he sees a beautiful panorama. It remains unexplained.

The same case is with the description of verbs. It is not so complicated to visualise continuous actions being performed. 'Planting a tree', 'opening the window' 'singing a song', 'eating a banana' can be easily put in drawings, when the student is trained with the practice of continuous tenses. Negation can be expressed by making a slight cross on the picture. Completed actions can be described as well. For example : 'The boy has broken the window pane' can be pictured in a chart in which the boy is standing with his ball in

front of the broken window-pane. The completed action is clearly described, and the student does not likely say 'The boy is breaking the window-pane' because of the produced result. However, visual aids in this case deal more with the lexical meanings. The 'ing form' or the state of an action can be easily described due to the eventual similarity the lexical meaning and the state of an action. But visual aids are incapable to give further illustration of other nuances that may result later, for example the difference of the state and the process of an action, attenuated forms and modality.

In such inconvenient circumstances where visual aids cannot do much, translation is the best solution if paraphrasing and explanation in the foreign language are impossible. Keeping the difficulty unexplained while the vocabulary drills proceed may cause the student caught in despair.

Sentence pattern drill and visual aids

If in ordinary practice of sentence pattern drills the cues are words or phrases, in courses where visual aids are used the cues may be put in simple signs, symbols or pictures.

An underlining on a certain pattern on the board may be useful to make a contrast with the patterns previously achieved.

E.g. : He eats a banana
 I eat a banana
 You eat a banana
 We eat a banana
 They eat a banana

By the underlined 's', the student's attention is directed to the additional 's' for the third person singular of the Simple Present, rather than when 'he eats' is left unmarked.

Simple codes like : +, -, ?, !, can be used as cues to teach some grammatical points.

E.g.:

MODEL

RESPONSE

I take some oranges

I don't take any oranges

I take some soap

I don't take any soap

I take some butter

I don't take any butter.

In the above examples the sign '-' denotes not only negation, but also the change of some to any in negative sentences, either for countable or uncountable nouns.

Both signs '+' and '-' can be utilized in more complex sentences or constructions, where the student is asked to make a combination of two sentences.

E.g.:

+

=

John

Dick

Mary

Betty

Two names are listed under each signs of '+' and '-'. It means that John and Mary do affirmative actions, where Dick and Betty negative. The model sentence may be as follows :

John works and Mary does, too.

Then by pointing the names, the student is expected to make the correct combinations.

<u>CUES</u>	<u>RESPONSES</u>
Dick and Betty	Dick doesn't work and Betty doesn't either.
John and Dick	John works but Dick doesn't.
Mary and Dick	Mary works but Dick doesn't.
Dick and John	Dick doesn't work but John does. ¹

The signals can be used in combination with "?" to signal interrogative sentences and "!" for imperative.

E.g. :

<u>CUES</u>	<u>RESPONSES</u>
?	Does John take any apples?
-	John doesn't take any apples.
!	John, take some apples!
+	John takes some apples.

The teacher points out the signs that are already written on the board. By using this way of approach the attention can be more easily controlled by the teacher.

But the artificial situation is not solved at all, and even the mechanism of the drill method is made more prominent. Using written cues like : +, -, ?, !, gives the impression that the student is treated as dead machines, from whom the response must be resulted. Such a training will makes the student completely dependent of the prompted cues. The negative result will be that he is unable to react in the natural way in real life communication because real language situation is not enough for him to respond unless ready made prompting is offered to him.

Another means of visual aids is a calendar. This

¹C.J. Kriedler; Visual Aids, op.cit., p. 28.

device is very useful in dealing with the tenses. By pointing the actual date, the teacher can train the Present tense. The dates of the previous weeks and those of the later weeks can be employed to establish Past and Future tenses, respectively. The student is asked to refer back to what he has done and what he will do by making a simple imagination. This type of drill then can be done in a normal way in which normal conversations occur.

A picture describing a scene taken from real life situation, as used in the conversation drill, can be used to teach many grammatical items. The situation for instance, is that of a family life at home. The teacher's comment may be as follows :

This is the Johnsons' home. It is Saturday morning. Mrs Johnson is washing the breakfast dishes. Mr. Johnson was reading. He is watching TV now. Betty was skating. She is playing with her doll now. Jim and Bob are playing baseball.¹

The words 'skating' and 'baseball' are rare words for some students. By making a simple explanation (since the things have been adequately pictured), the teacher can proceed the drills without any difficulty.

From the passage above the student is made aware of the use of two different tenses : the Present and the Past Continuous forms. The student is expected to notice the difference of those uses by means of the chart. Mr. Johnson, for instance, "was reading" and not "is reading" because he does not read anymore, but "he is watching the TV now".

¹Ibid., p. 31.

The following questions may be posed :

- What is Betty doing ?
- What is Mrs. Johnson doing ?
- Who is washing the dishes ?

A choice is to be made by the student when such questions are asked :

- Is Mr. Johnson playing baseball ?
- Is Mrs. Johnson watching TV ?

Responses called for from common sense may be expected from the following questions :

- Was Mrs. Johnson playing with a doll when she was still a little girl ?
- Was Mr. Johnson playing baseball ?
(The student is challenged to give both tenses)
- Were Bob and Jim skating ?

From the above questions communication practice can be introduced :

- Is Bob watching TV now ?
- Do you like TV ?
- What is your favourite program ?
- How much does a TV set cost ? Etc.

In order to make the student more creative, thus not only the teacher that takes the main role in the conversation, the teacher may propose such questions :

Teacher : John, ask something about the TV!

John : Where is the TV ?

Teacher : Whom do you ask ?

John : I ask Peter.

Teacher : Ask him once again !

John : Peter, where is the TV set ?

Peter : The TV set is standing near the window.

(Peter is an exceptional student. He keeps the pattern being drilled in the class. The role that the teacher takes in this case is to control whether the pattern is properly applied or not).

In the passage, chosen as an example above, the student will not find a lot of trouble in seeing the difference between the Present and Past Continuous forms, since the ambiguity is clarified by the distinct setting in the picture. A person reading a newspaper may be used for practice of the Simple Present and Present Continuous forms. But it will be ridiculous to apply the same picture for Past Tenses, for example He read the newspaper yesterday. The action presented by the picture is actual, not past. Consequently, insisting the student the past for the same picture will make the student's responses completely artificial, being connected to what is not really in the picture. Such responses are not relevant. In this case a person with a closed book may be used for the practice of the Past-Tense : He closed the book, or the Present Perfect Tense : He has closed the book. Imagination is necessary for successful establishment, but if it is not based on the real fact, visual aids are as useless as the dead simple verbal cues.

Finally the teacher must remember that he himself is a visual aid. He is the endless source of explanation. By means of his gestures, his movements, his mimics, he can provide the necessary descriptions of the items to be established. In vocabulary drill for example, he can demonstrate the parts of the body and



also the stresses. By his hand he can easily show intonation or pitch, the rythm in a sentence, all of which are imperative in manipulating the pronunciation drill. And also, by means of his hands he can control and direct the total timing of the drills, either in individual or in chorus drills.

3. Aural aids and drills

The use of tape-recorders is getting more and more increasing nowadays in the language teaching and learning. The tape-recorder, as a 'speaking device', is sometimes used as a 'standard or reference' from which successful language learning result. Tape-recorders that enable the student to hear directly how the language is originally spoken by native speakers, suggest the student more concretely how he has to produce his own speech.

For speech flow, tape-recorders contribute the correct establishment of the right phonemic distinction in minimal pairs, and the right stress patterns, especially when the stresses are phonemic (like in 'present-present'). And finally the right intonation can be taught to the student by means of imitation. By listening to the correct model over and over again, and imitating it, the student is expected to be able to reproduce himself the correct features of speech skills.

A conversation may be recorded and then played to the student. By asking him to repeat a spaced section of the conversation, he will gain fluency and

learn indirectly particular expression relating to the scene. Most of all, he learns them in the appropriate context so that he grasps the structural meaning instead of simply the lexical meaning. By rewinding and playing it again, the student may practice several times more complicated constructions and this makes the learning easier.

Since once the patterns are recorded, they will be kept then, and the student can benefit particular practice by playing the recorder in extra-drills.

It is useful to record the student's speech after the original model in the same reel. By comparing his own production and that of the model, the learning is more efficiently acquired by contrast than by simple imitation in which the student may not be aware of his own production. Similar procedure may also be applied for other features of language skills. One may be aware of his own pronunciation when he hears it in the recorded tape. Even, when tape-recorders are not available the student is made more aware of his own utterance when reading it aloud, rather than when reading silently. Aural faculty then, in this case, is subtler than the visual, and eventual mistakes can be detected and avoided.

As useful tape-recorders are, they must be properly used in class. The tape-recorders can provide the original language production, and every time the teacher, as well as the student can refer back to it by playing it again. Anyhow its use in class must keep the lesson being carried over in a natural way. Tape-recorders are not meant as restricting masters that

make the student feel uneasy in following the lesson, being haunted all the time by the automatic cues uttered from the recorder. Tape-recorders just do the student a disservice if they make him totally dependant from those dead machines, and thus make him miss his own initiative needed for natural communication. Here is the negative effect of the use of tape recorders and the superiority of a living teacher, who can suit the progress of language learning in a much more flexible way.

4. Translation Method and Drills

The organization of items in Translation Method

In this method the rules of grammar must be dealt with first, and then a list of words with their equivalents in the native language. The exercises contain of translation drills to illustrate the grammatical rules. In the early days of language learning special sentences for these translation drills are deliberately prepared. Later, the student may be trained in translating an article, or an extract of books into the mother tongue. The language learning then goes through lexical equivalents (lists of words) and the grammatical rules that are translated into the mother tongue, all of which can be put in semantic equivalents.¹

Meaning and form in Translation Method

The meaning in this method is made more promi-

¹See an article of Henri Besse, "Problèmes de sens dans l'enseignement d'une langue étrangère", Langue Française, Dec.-Nov.no.8.1970, Larousse p. 62).

nent rather than the form. It is quite true that in Translation drills the student is trained to treat the intimate relation between meaning and form. But the drills direct the student's attention more on how form must be transformed in the corresponding meaning, thus the final aim is meaning. The success of the organization of translation drills is when they are able to train the student to put the desired meaning from the sentences being drilled. Therefore the translation - drills are used as a means to hit the language target, but indirectly by means of the mother tongue. The student cannot plunge into the language material itself because from the beginning his attention is already divided, mentally, by the interlingual process.

If the forms are not equally practiced, and mother tongue's translation must accompany, it is natural that the student cannot keep himself continually in the forms of the foreign language; similarly speaking he is incapable to speak. It does not mean on the other hand that foreign language learning process occurs without taking reference to meaning; otherwise there never exists a communication. What is the most important is that the student is able to grasp both form and meaning without any help or support from the mother tongue. This sort of mental translation that is difficult to avoid in the early stages of language learning makes the student's productive skills slower in making utterances in the foreign language.

Translation Method and practice

Translation drills enable the student to make

a keener observation on grammatical rules, since they are adequately discussed in the mother tongue. But a well established knowledge of grammar does mean that he has completely mastered the language if he does not know how and when to apply the rules in communication process. To study the formation of English tenses, for instance, is much simpler than to learn their usage.

Translation Method and language learning target

The problem now is the aim of language learning itself. If it is understanding and reading ability, then translation drills make the student a successful learner. But if active mastery of the foreign language is to be the final aim, it proves that Translation Method removes, instead of approaching the goal, because foreign language practice is made impossible without any help of the native language.

The drills are principally used in training the student the skills of conveying the transmission of meanings between the foreign and native languages. It follows that the goal of language learning is not to speak, but rather to understand the written message. The student may have a very efficient reading skill, and is able to reexpress what he has read in his native language, but he is not able to speak at all.

Drill and current language

As it has been previously said, the translation material may be taken from any extracts of books. The language as used in books is quite different from the common usage as found in every day life communication,

especially if the translation material is taken from literary works. On the other hand the student is continuously practicing these sentences in the drill. He unconsciously establishes these forms in his mind and he most probably uses the expressions for his own purposes. Then, when expressing himself, he calls for the archaic forms from the text book. It is even worse, that, when trying to produce his speech, he uses bookish styles since he thinks that those forms are really natural. So instead of establishing the normal language, translation drills are proved to be misleading.

Translation drill and incongruous language patterns

In translation drills, where the student is asked to translate his native language into the foreign language, it may happen that the model sentences in the mother tongue is deliberately simplified so that the student is able to carry over the drill more easily. The structures of the native and the foreign language are very often not identical. It follows that the mother tongue's construction is made parallel as likely as possible so that the transfer from the native to the foreign language does not render the exercises too complicated.

E.g.: Model

- Kuda itu yang saya melihat disana adalah
- + The horse that I see there is
- coklat.
- + brown.

In Indonesian the relative clause is generally put in the passive voice. Therefore the clause yang saya meli-

that is provided by simply to suit the English clause that I see. If the clause is put in the normal Indonesian yang saja lihat, the English version will be that is seen by me that is unnatural in English. The use of itu after kada is intentionally written so that the student does not forget the use of the, to avoid him from saying Horse that I see that is incorrect in English. The same is the use of adalah in the Indonesian model. It is to remind the student of the important presence of the copula, while the use itself is not common in normal Indonesian sentences which have no copula.

The above examples show some disadvantages of the translation drill. In the case of the relative clause, the Indonesian sentence has to be violated to suit the normal English. If the Indonesian model must be put in its original and normal form, then it is the English version that will be harmed. The teacher, then, is trapped in a dilemma. Also the use of adalah is rather artificial since it is rarely used in Indonesian (Cf. : Saja guru, and Saja adalah guru which both have the identical meaning).

The translation itu into the English the is not entirely correct, because the is not identical to that, which both stand for the same Indonesian itu. The presence of itu is only necessary to avoid English grammatical errors, but itu as such is not recommended in normal Indonesian.

Therefore, if the equivalents remain lexically unclarified, how can structural problems that are more complex be identical? The teacher surely does not

expect his student to violate his own mother tongue just for the sake of a foreign language. But this is what does happen in the translation practice, if the teacher does not want to spoil his student by offering too complicated translation.

More serious problems are still to be encountered when the teacher teaches the English tenses. For example when the Future Perfect Tense is to be introduced in class, the teacher may propose a model like I shall have done this homework by SEVEN O'CLOCK tonight. He may explain further that he has not done the work, but at seven o'clock tonight, that is, at a time in the future, the "doing" of the homework will be past. Using various examples, especially that describe two actions, taking place consecutively in the future, the teacher does not find troublesome explanations. To emphasize the 'state' of the tense, in the translation drill the student may say : Saja akan telah mengerjakan pekerjaan rumah ini (nanti) menjelang jam tujuh sore. The use of akan telah makes the Indonesian sound really awkward, but it is necessary to make a contrast with Saja akan mengerjakan, which is a Simple Future Tense. Again, the Indonesian version must be made bizarre for the sake of clearness.

The examples above proposed are of course what the teacher faces in the early days of language learning. Advanced students are expected to tackle the translation drills without doing any harm to either the foreign language or the mother tongue. Owing to large range of patterns already mastered and experience in handling the foreign language, they can swiftly make a

transfer in the translation drills while keeping both language natural. But they need a lot of practice as well as experience in the usage of the foreign language. For, if the student puts a heavy reliance on the use of translation drills, even from the beginning of foreign language learning, it follows that he is accustomed to word-for-word translation. And in cases where the two language characteristics are not identical - which nearly always happen - he will make unnatural utterances since his translation skills contribute nothing.

In Translation Method, the unit of the lesson is partly devoted to a list of foreign words with their mother tongue's equivalents. The establishments of these words are gained by learning the given list. Since the student can only see a single application of the word in the passage used as the main source of the unit, he may be unable to use the word for further applications, though he already masters the equivalent. The case is even more true for the synonyms. He may store a very long list of synonymous words but he is not adequately equipped with practical knowledge of how to use those listed words, or - which is still worse - he makes the wrong choice. Thus he may say the thief has a very bad deportment, which is grammatically correct but is an awkward utterance, instead of the thief has a very bad character. A word has its own specific characteristics demanding a special application. Cultural factors may also cause the difficulty in searching for the exact term or equivalent. If the Javanese use numerous words to denote the smell, then the Eng-

lish just say "It smells bad" or "It smells nasty". Therefore the English equivalents do not represent exactly the precise reality conveyed by those Javanese words. It most probably results in misunderstanding. Linguistic interferences, which must be avoided as much as possible, so that the language habits of the mother tongue can exist side by side with the newly acquired habits of the foreign language, are made more evident by inadequate translation drills.

Translation and immediate establishment

On the contrary, some language problems call for the help of translation. For difficult words, for which explanation in the foreign language cannot describe exactly the meaning, translation is recommended. If round-about-way explanation will only confuse the student, instead of clarifying the problem, there needs be no hesitation to give the mother tongue's equivalent, especially for different cultural setting where no visual aids are available. It will be more satisfactory for the student to give the Indonesian equivalent to-serba for department store rather than using a lot of descriptions that cannot likely explain the word-meant exactly. Much time and effort are economized then.

5. Direct Method and Drills

If in Translation Method the native language is used as a medium to attain the target of language learning - thus it is an interlingual process -, Direct Method plunges directly in the foreign language without

any use of the mother tongue. It is called 'intra-lingual process'.¹ The contact between the foreign language and the language reality is made directly without any reference to the mother tongue. The principal aim of attaining the threshold of establishment is the foreign language itself. The concept is proposed in connection with the way how a child learns his native language. Using constant and natural practice the child will come step by step to the achievement of the language. Translation is to be avoided as much as possible because the thing meant (Morris calls it 'referent') remains identic and unchanged in whatever languages.²

Drills in Direct Method and Language Learning

The language drills have a prominent role in the language learning. They are used as medium to attain the referent. Since language is directly approached, with the foreign language itself, the language being learned is then presented as it is. Misunderstanding can be somehow diminished.

Direct Method makes language learning very natural. Learning a language means to learn the characteristics of that language. When learning English the student makes a keen observation on those specific characteristics that make English English. These special elements are what make the language different

¹R. Jakobson, Essais de linguistique générale, as quoted by H. Beas, Langue Française, déc. 1970, no. 8, p. 62).

²I. Morris, The art of teaching English as a foreign language, op. cit., p. 39.

from other languages. Direct Method introduces these features and the language drills are supposed to internalize these features. By means of drills the foreign language patterns are embodied as originally as possible in the student's mind. Translation sometimes does not really stand for the items that the original utterances want to convey. Social and particularly cultural backgrounds may in themselves create a gap in between, so that the two different codes do not exactly reflect the same one message or referent. Translation is not always able to function as a transmitter from the English to the Indonesian codes, or the other way round. The role of the drills in this case is no longer undeniable. By perceiving how the patterns are presented, the student ultimately grasps how pattern operate and the meanings as well.

A child learning his mother tongue needs a lot of repetitive stimuli and experience, and recurrent practice. He must see constantly how the language is practiced and by means of imitation he will be able to practice it himself. In Direct Method, the social intercourse surrounding him is replaced by intensive language drills, so that the establishment is made possible. Many efforts, on the contrary are indispensable. Ready-made translated patterns are more easily learned, but not firmly established. What is easily in, will be easily out.

Drills in Direct Method and effort after meaning

Grammatical rules are not given as such by merely translating them or using mother tongue's explanations.

In the pattern drills the student is forced to deduce something out of the examples. The student, then, is kept active and attentive. He keeps asking himself because of his personal curiosity which enables the teacher to keep the effort after meaning in his class. And as long as the effort after meaning is still there, great success can be expected from the lesson presentation.

Conversely, if everything is already given in the beginning of language course, the effort after meaning is totally destroyed and the student has no motivation any longer. He then thinks that it will be useless to pay attention to the examples and explanations because the rules are already at his disposal.

Disadvantages in Direct Method

Some disadvantages may be proposed in Direct Method.

- The problem comes when the drills cannot support or clarify the item, since the drills are irrelevant to the item itself. Moreover explanations and examples used in the practice may cause misunderstanding and misinterpretation on the part of the students. In establishing 'this' and 'that', the student may be trained with sentences like : This is the door and That is the window, the teacher pointing the concerning objects. But if the teacher does not make suitable gestures, the student may think that 'this' means 'right' and 'that' means 'left', or 'this' is used for larger objects, while 'that' is applied for smaller things. The

teacher then makes variations to avoid such misunderstanding, for instance by saying : This is an ashtray and That is a table, where he uses an interchange for his hands and completely reverses the way of pointing out to avoid misinterpretation of 'bigger' and 'smaller' objects. The student is even more confused because the first impression is opposite to the second, yet both ways of presentations do not reveal the main problem. Until the teacher denotes with his actions that 'this' refers to the nearer objects, and 'that' to further objects, by using a lot of examples that all express the same idea, the student remains puzzled. Effort after meaning is to be kept in class, but if the understanding of the student is deferred very lately, he becomes indifferent and gives up his efforts.

- Much effort and time are wasted in successful explanations and the progress of the learning is very slow. A word that can be presented in three seconds by means of mother tongue's translation may take some ten minutes before the student comes to understand it. This mostly happens where no visual aids are available.

- It is not always easy to find examples that are really relevant to the items being dealt with. And therefore much effort is needed for the teacher in the preparatory stage. And only an experienced teacher and a good speaker at the same time can carry on this method successfully.

- The language learning is only gaining success if constant practice is afforded. Furthermore the social environment in which the mother tongue is very prom-

inent in its usage, as medium of communication, will strongly discourage the establishment of the foreign language.

- Oral approach that is predominant in this method is not always suitable for serving all purposes of language learning. A person who just wants to learn a foreign language with major stress on translation skills or reading would not likely employ this method.

- The passage to communication practice will be very difficult if the student has not completely grasped what is meant by the pattern itself. And it is what happens frequently because the student only knows the language outwardly, never in direct understanding as in case of Translation Method.

- Since the use of the mother tongue is to be avoided, the student will identify the referent by his own imagination. It will therefore inevitably cause the 'mental translation'. The student looks for the equivalent in his mother tongue to make a stronger grasp of the item.

- The student is never assured of the item being achieved, because he merely sees the pattern operate in applications, but never as a pattern containing its own identification. He may say, for instance, The ring is around my finger instead of the correct or common form The ring is on my finger; he has an analogy with sentences like 'we're sitting around the table', 'the sea is around us', where the word around means "in every direction", or the state of surrounding something.

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thing.

- The cultural problems that make linguistic interferences remains unexplained. The different way in expressing an attitude is sometimes amazing, like the response 'How do you do' to the same question. The student is not a dead machine who must swallow indiscriminable different language habits.

CONCLUSION

Whatever viewpoints may be proposed concerning the concept of language, language drills are necessary in the process of foreign language learning. Language drills are especially good to establish new phonological system, syntactic patterns of the foreign language studied, and also to help produce fluent speakers of the foreign language. The success of the drills, however, depends on how the drills are organized and presented or put into the functional forms. It should be kept in mind also that there are still other factors that are important in deciding the good results. For example the class should be small enough for the teacher so that he is able to make a personal contact or control with his students. Besides, enough time should be allotted in the curriculum (see Chapter V, p. 131). Finally alert and fluent teachers, who know a lot of drilling techniques are indispensable to obtain the expected result of foreign language learning.

Language drills are especially useful in the beginning stages of the foreign language learning, to make the students get accustomed with the new language. Once the phonological systems and the sentence patterns have been established and have become the automatic habits of the students, the role of the drill can be reduced to acquire vocabulary of low frequency.

The efficiency of the drills depends also in the 'nature' of the foreign language being studied. Foreign language of the same language family, where the phonol-

logical system and the syntactic patterns are not so much different from those of the mother tongue, may not need drills badly. A Javanese student who studies Indonesian, for example, does not need as much drill as a European student, doing the same thing in normal circumstances.

Language is not mathematics. The beginners are not expected to make a scientific analysis of the new language they are about to learn. They will not make any progress that way because they have to stop in front of language problems that are unsurmountable. The "why-questions" are not to be answered in the first stages of foreign language learning. This is the essential difference between language and other branches of science. The most important thing is that the student accepts the language reality that is to be established and not to be discussed by trying to answer all those puzzling "why-questions".

The automatization of the drill will not change the poor beginners into empty pots and dead dolls into which the things called language is to be inserted, if practice is given in a good way. It depends on the textbook writer and also on the teacher whether they are capable to make the language drills as natural as possible. The major stress on the automatization is not without any reason, because it is the unconditional way in relation with the nature of language, language need and language reality.

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