

A LINGUISTIC APPROACH TO SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING

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PREFACE

The Seminar of Language Teaching held in 1964 by the English Department I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, inspired the writer to try help teachers of English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A., solve the so many problems of teaching English as a second language brought forward during above mentioned meeting. In trying to find the occasion for this, the writer found a very good opportunity when, in choosing a topic for the thesis that had to be submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of the sarjana degree, Reverend Father José C. Blanco S.J., former Head of the English Department I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma and Chairman of above mentioned Seminar, gave her his permission to write a thesis on the principles of second language teaching. In doing this however, the writer does not pretend that all the ideas she presents in this thesis are originally her own. Her work is rather a selection of those ideas which have a direct bearing on the problems of teaching English as a second language, from all the ideas that she collected from the lectures given in the Graduate Division of the English Department I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, from above mentioned seminar, from her teaching experience and from a selected bibliography.

In writing this work, the writer is deeply indebted to Rev. Father José C. Blanco S.J., who also lectured on second language principles and methods at the Graduate Division of the English Department I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, for his many valuable suggestions, corrections and patient guidance.

A word of thanks goes also to Drs. W.J. Hendrowarsito, Head of the Graduate Division of the English Department I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma for his encouragement in the accomplishment of this work.-

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CHAPTER I INTRODUCTION

It cannot be denied that the teaching of English as a second language in Indonesia has not produced the satisfactory results desired. After studying English for 6 years at the S.M.P. and S.M.A., students have hardly learned to use the language. Although they may pass the final examinations, yet their ability to carry on a simple conversation in English with a native speaker is almost nil. Beyond a knowledge of some hundreds of English words, some rules of grammar, and a very poor reading ability, they have almost achieved nothing. University professors complain that S.M.A. graduates entering the university, are not prepared to read textbooks in English and that consequently they still need one year or more further study of English.

Most teachers of English who teach at the S.M.P. and S.M.A., feel that teaching English is one of the most difficult tasks to perform. It is very hard for them to get the students to use the language, to make them understand, speak, read and write English. They often complain that the effort and time they spend in teaching English are not in proportion to the result obtained.

On the other hand, there is also a general complaint among S.M.P. as well as S.M.A. students that English, especially English grammar, is one of the most difficult subjects to be mastered. English, which is considered as one of the required and important subjects, is felt to be very difficult, if not boring and unpleasant.

From the writer's experience when she was studying English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. herself and from her observation as a teacher of English at the S.M.A., it can be said that the above problems are primarily the result of tackling the teaching of English from the wrong end. Many teachers take it for granted that teaching a foreign language is the same as teaching any other subject. They are not aware that foreign language teaching consists chiefly of the formation of new language habits, while teaching history or mathematics, for instance, is content teaching. Accordingly, the English classes usually aim at giving information about the language, rather than at teaching to speak it. What actually happens in so many instances is that the teacher begins by teaching grammar rules and by having the students do exercises based on those rules. This is done

from almost the first day. Vocabulary is taught by having the students memorize pages of lexical words together with their accompanying Indonesian equivalents. The reading class which mostly consists of clumsy oral reading of unconnected sentences or passages taken from classical literature, usually becomes the only opportunity for the students to hear and produce the language. Besides doing exercises, the students are asked to do the routine work of translation, which is felt to be very boring by the students. It is not surprising, therefore, that English becomes a very boring subject, that the process of English learning a very discouraging one and, worst of all, that the result of language teaching is not very satisfactory.

The above problems can be overcome and the teaching of English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. accordingly improved if the teacher of English has the right insight into language and knows the right principles of teaching it. Hence, the writer hopes, that this work, which is an attempt to give teachers of English who teach at the S.M.P. and S.M.A., the right view and principles of teaching English as a second language, may give a contribution, no matter how small, to the improvement of the teaching of English in Indonesia, particularly at the S.M.P. and S.M.A.

The point of view underlying the principles presented here is the modern linguistic point of view, the ideas of which are obtained from the following sources: 1. lectures on linguistics, second language principles and methods that the writer has attended during the course of her graduate studies at the I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma. 2. discussions and lectures given during the Seminar of Language Teaching, held in 1964 by the English Department of the I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma. 3. reading of a selected bibliography. Apart from this, some teaching experience at the S.M.A. also helped to contribute to the crystallization of the writer's ideas concerning second language teaching.

The discussion of the topic will be started by a presentation of a theory of language and second language learning. The following chapters will try to answer the various questions on second language teaching put forward by S.M.P. and S.M.A. teachers of English during above mentioned seminar, by applying the theory of language and second language learning to each aspect of second language teaching. Thus, the discussion will be centered on the following points:

- A. The objectives of teaching English as a second language; what they are and what they consist of.

- B. The linguistic method of teaching English as a second language; what it is and how it can be concretized.
- C. Teaching materials; what they are and the principles underlying their construction and evaluation.
- D. Tests and examinations; what they are, the principles of testing and the criteria for the evaluation of tests and examinations.
- E. Preparation of the English language teacher; the kind of preparation needed for the English language teacher to perform his task.

Finally, the last chapter, which will be the concluding chapter, will present a short summary of what have been discussed in the preceding chapters, and offer some practical suggestions which might be of some use for teaching of English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A.

As it has been mentioned before, the discussion of the topic will be started by presenting a theory of language and second language learning, since it is essential for language teachers to have the correct information about and the right attitude towards language and second language learning. This will be given in the following chapter. And it will also serve as the starting point and basis for the discussion of the other points mentioned above.

CHAPTER II

THEORY OF LANGUAGE AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

I. Language.

No intelligent discussion of a theory of second language learning is possible, unless there is an agreement concerning the idea of what language and second language is. We consider it necessary, therefore, to give some description of language and second language in this chapter, before coming down to the discussion of second language learning.

A. Definition of language.

Everybody uses language, but not everybody knows what language really is. If one is asked what language is, one might give the answer that language means "bahasa", One might even give its equivalents in other languages, "taal", "langue", etc. But usually one will fail to give a definition of language.

What is language really? Various definitions of language the one more accurate than the other, but most of them agreeing essentially, have been given by linguists and others. The following definition will serve to give a picture of language.

"Language is a structured system of overt, learned and therefore non-instinctive, sequentially produced, voluntary, human, symbol-carrying vocal sounds by which communication is carried on between two or more persons."
(28, p. 29).

B. Characteristics of language.

To give a clearer idea of what language is, the following part will deal with a further description of the characteristics of language as mentioned in the above definition and in the definitions given by other linguists.

1. Language is a structural system of symbol-carrying vocal sounds.

The first characteristics of language is that it is made up of vocal sounds and is therefore primarily spoken and meant to be spoken. Written language is only a representation and reflection of speech. It is speech that is of primary importance, and that has a wider distribution. This can be proved by the following evidence:

- A child can speak his mother tongue long before it has any idea of how to write a single syllable in the language.
- In daily life more activity is done in speech than in writing.
- Before writing was invented, human beings already used speech

to communicate.

- Many primitive tribes do not possess any written form of the language, yet they can use their language to communicate with each other.

The vocal sounds used in language are not just any sounds that come out of the vocal apparatus. Out of the millions of sounds that the human vocal apparatus is capable of producing, language selects only those sounds, which have meanings, which are symbol-carrying. With regard to meaning, acrimonious arguments have taken place among linguists and philosophers. There is even a branch of science called semantics, which is solely concerned with the study of meanings. However, this is not the place to discuss about meaning in detail. It is sufficient to say that the vocal sounds used in language should convey symbols.

The symbol-carrying vocal sounds are arranged according to a certain system." A system is a coherent arrangement of interrelated parts into a unified whole that makes possible the repetition of the same events or actions ". (28, P.30) Language is a system; the vocal sounds produced by the vocal apparatus are not produced at random. They are produced in an organized and systematic way, following certain patterns of arrangement. This system of arrangement is called the structure of language. In this structure, there are two basic units, the phonemes and the morphemes. A phoneme is a class of sounds, while a morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of sounds. The structure of language is the organization of these phonemes and morphemes into larger units, as words, phrases and sentences.

With regard to the structure of language, each language is a different system. A different language has a different set of phonemes and morphemes and has also a different system of organizing these into larger units.

2. Language is a communication system.

The second characteristic of language is that it is used as a means of communication. Man is by nature a social human being and as such, he has a need to communicate with other human beings. He can do this through various means. One way of communication is the use of gestures. With his head he can ask somebody to come or to go away. He can also nod or shake his head to show his agreement or disagreement. Even his facial expression can show various kinds of emotions: grief, love, hatred, etc. But all these are not adequate to express one's ideas and emotions. A better and at the same time more organized and systematic way of transmitting one's thoughts, ideas, desires or emotions is

the use of language.

The function of language, both spoken and written, is chiefly for communication. Man's purpose in using language is to communicate what he thinks, what he feels, what he wants, etc. Someone calling "John!" or "Jane!" wants John or Jane to come. If every year on the 17th of August, President Soekarno delivers his speech to the people of Indonesia, his purpose is to communicate his thoughts, ideas, emotions and desires to the Indonesian people. If a person writes a letter to one of his friends, his intention is not to demonstrate how beautiful his handwriting is, but, usually, in normal situation, to communicate his ideas, desires, or emotions. Any use of language has always a communicative purpose, whether asking for a response - be it an oral response, action response or response of attention - or not. Even the use of language in literature, though perhaps more artistically and aesthetically felt, is not less independent of the ordinary uses of language for basic communication.

Since language is used to communicate, it is a social behaviour. It is used to control the environment, to preserve and prolong patterns of relationship among individuals.

3. Language is a set of habits for oral production and reception.

Man uses language so frequently, practically at every moment in his life, that it has become a set of habits for him. He produces language without being aware of it. When he wants to say something, he does not think first what sounds and words to use, nor how to arrange or pronounce these. All the sounds and words and the structure he wants to produce, come out automatically. Just as walking has become a habit for him, the use of language has also become a habit for oral production and reception. According to Lado, these habits are so deeply set, that it is difficult to change them or to set up a new set of habits. (15 p. 13)

4. Language is complete in itself.

In addition to the three most important characteristics of language mentioned above, it is also good to add some other characteristics, in order to give a very clear picture of what language is and what it does. One of these is that language is complete in itself. Any speech-community has its own language as the most important means of communication. And just because it serves its communicative purpose so well and is so well-adjusted to the culture of the speech - community, language can therefore be called complete. Because of this fact, there is no such ex-

pression like an inferior or a superior language. One language might have a smaller number of phonemes than another language, language A might have a simpler system of organizing its phonemes and morphemes into larger language units than language B, or have a smaller lexicon, yet the one is not inferior compared to the other, as each language is adjusted to its own culture.

5. Language is arbitrary.

Another characteristic of language is that it is arbitrary. Language is a human invention and therefore it is arbitrary. It is based on agreement among the people speaking the language. A certain speech-community agrees to call a thing on which one can sit a "chair", whereas another speech-community calls the same thing, "kursi". Agreement does not only become the basis of the vocabulary, but language is also arbitrary with regard to the other elements, as the sound system, structure, etc.

6. Language is human.

The next characteristic of language is that it is human. Not all sounds that can be produced is language. Perhaps a certain animal can produce a certain sound which is significant in a certain language; it is possible that one day, when visiting a friend, one is greeted by a well-trained dog saying "How do you do?" or a parrot can imitate its owner and say "Selamat pagi!" The dog produces sounds which are significant in the English language, whereas the sounds produced by the parrot are meaningful in Indonesian. But neither of these sounds belong to language, because the sounds produced by the dog or the parrot are only reactions to certain stimuli. Both animals do not have a mind to think and to form concepts. Only human beings are capable of thinking and of conceptualizing, and therefore, only human beings can produce language.

7. Language is voluntary.

The above mentioned definition of language also says that language is voluntary. Language differs from breathing. Every human being, whether he likes it or not, has a necessity to breathe. He cannot say that he is tired of the activity of inhaling and exhaling air and wants to stop breathing for a week. On the contrary, he can refrain himself from talking for years without losing his human nature.

In every person language exists in a potential state. It consists of the impressions produced by the sounds, which impressions are kept in the memory. Only when the person wants to speak because of a stimulus, does the language operate. Speech produc-

tion will not take place, if the person does not want to speak, even if the stimulus is very strong.

8. Language is non-instinctive.

When a baby is brought up among wolves, completely isolated from human beings, it will howl like them and it will not be able to speak the language of his parents. But if the same experiment is applied to a little puppy, a very different result comes out; the little dog will not howl like a wolf; it will bark like other dogs. The difference is caused by the difference found in the nature of the child's language and the dog's "language". The language of the human being must be learned and is not instinctively given at its birth, while the sounds made by the dog are instinctive. They are already put into its mouth the very moment it comes into the world.

Some people are of the opinion that language is instinctive because of the presence of cries of pain, verbal manifestations of joy, interjections and onomatopoeic words in the language. But these cries of pain and verbal manifestations of joy are not meaningful in language; they are only an overflow of emotion. Interjections, though they are instinctive, are at the same time conventional and their sources are natural sounds, while onomatopoeic words are just creations of the human minds in imitation of the sounds. There are languages that do not possess any onomatopoeic words.

9. Language changes constantly.

In discussing the characteristics of language, we cannot omit the fact that language changes constantly. All languages, except the dead languages, change continuously. All their elements, their sounds, their structure and their vocabulary, change so continuously, that it is sometimes hard for us, especially when there are no written records, to recognize the kinship between two languages of the same origin.

According to Brum, these changes in language can be caused by an individual speaker, social changes in society, deliberate linguistic reforms or intercultural influences. (3 , p. 27-33)

10. Language is overt.

Out of the 7 characteristics mentioned in Warfel's definition of language given before, we have not yet discussed two of them. One of these is that language is overt. Language is produced by the vocal apparatus in such a way that it comes out of the mouth and can be observed as an acoustic manifestation.

11. Language is sequentially produced.

The last characteristic of language that we will mention

here is that language is sequentially produced. This means that language is produced as a sequence of sounds. The human vocal apparatus makes only one sound at a time. In producing a word or a sentence, a person produces the sounds that make up the word or the sentence, one by one using the correct sequence.

From these characteristics we can sum up that language is a set of habits for oral production and reception, consisting of a structural system of symbol-carrying vocal sounds, is complete in itself, arbitrary, constantly changing, human, voluntary, non-instinctive, overt, sequentially produced and is based as a means of communication among human beings. Now that the idea of language is clear, we come to our next question: What is a second language?

C. Second language.

We will define the term "second language" as "any language that is learned after the mother tongue". Thus, we assumed that a person who wants to learn a second language has already mastered his mother tongue.

In this thesis we have taken English as an example of a second language. If the definition given above is accepted, then it is clear, that English can be a second language in Indonesia. Not only for the Menadonese who speaks Indonesian at home, but also for the Javanese, Madurese, Sundanese, Balinese, etc. who have different languages as their mother tongues, English can be based on the given definition, a second language. However, some people prefer to call English a foreign language rather than a second language because of some political reasons. This is just another term. Whatever term is used, it is clear that English in Indonesia is a foreign language that is in general learned after the mastery of the mother tongue.

II. Second language learning.

Having made clear in our minds what a second language is we now come to the discussion of second language learning. This can best be done by giving a description of what a person actually does when he learns his mother tongue and by comparing this with the process of second language learning and by so doing finding the differences between the two processes.

A. Learning the mother tongue.

A clear description of what a person actually does when he is learning his mother tongue, can be given by explaining the

process of language learning. Since a language event involves many different branches of knowledge, we could talk of the psychological, the physiological, the linguistic and other possible processes of language learning. However, it is sufficient here to discuss the physiological process to show what is happening in the brain mechanism of the language learner and to discuss in relation with this, the linguistic process to describe the linguistic development as the result of the physiological advancement that the language learner has made. With regard to the physiological process of language learning, we can find many different theories. For our purpose we will just follow the theory found in one of I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma's stencil notes entitled "Epiloque - The Learning of Languages" (23, p. 6-12).

According to this theory, the child says his first word around the time of its first birthday. In the second year he begins to learn the skill of understanding and speaking. This is developed and perfected until the age of 4. But before the child can understand or speak, ~~he~~ must first form neuronal units in ~~his~~ speech mechanism.

Man has a speech mechanism which is found in the dominant hemisphere of his brain. In this speech mechanism there are four sets of neurone patterns: the sound units of words employed when listening to speech, the verbal units which enables him to speak, the visual units which make him able to read, and the manual units used in writing. To acquire the ability of understanding, speaking, reading and writing, man has to establish these four neurone units in his speech mechanism.

The formation of the sound units is preceded by the establishment of the concept units. Before the child can understand the word "boneka" for instance, ~~he~~ must first understand the concept of "boneka". To be able to understand a certain concept unit, the child must make a generalization from a number of particular experiences. If one day his mother brings him a doll and says "boneka", the child cannot yet understand the concept of the object shown to him. For him the concept of "boneks" is only restricted to one type of doll, the one brought to him by his mother. But when at another time his mother gives him a Negro doll and calls this also "boneka", and when he sees his sister playing with a Japanese - doll and calling it also "boneka", his idea of "boneka" becomes clearer. After several more experiences like this, gradually he begins to form the concept unit of the object and to understand the concept of "boneka". After he has established the concept unit of the particular object, he then

forms the sound unit of the word, so that he can not only understand the concept of "boncka", but can also remember the sound of its word. In addition to this, he must also establish an automatic connection between these two units, so that every time the child hears the sound "boncka", he will relate this sound to its corresponding concept. A person begins to understand, when he has established the general concept units, their corresponding sound units, and has formed an automatic connection between them.

The next step is the formation of the verbal units. These units will tell him what muscles to use in producing a certain word. When the child has done this, he is able to speak.

It has been mentioned that around the first birthday the child begins to produce communicative utterances. But before he can do this, he first learns to understand and then to imitate the speech of his environment. He first learns to imitate one-syllable words, e.g. /mam/. Gradually the one-syllable utterances become mono-syllabic and he learns to produce the sounds / mama / and / papa / using the suprasegmental phonemes of his language.

The process of learning the sounds involves the process of learning to distinguish the phonemes. When the child begins to speak, he does not pronounce the words accurately and consistently. He pronounces / mam / or / maam / instead of / makan /. He might pronounce / puvan / instead of / pulan /; / oyan / or / olan / instead of / oran /. But gradually, through imitation and repetition he learns to distinguish the phonemes of his language. He can distinguish between / l / , / y / , / r / , and / t / .

The child does not only improve his pronunciation, but progress comes also in pattern learning. The mono-syllabic words become poly-syllabic; / mam / is replaced by / maam /. The one word utterances are replaced by phrases and sentences. He soon learns to produce simple subject-predicate statements like / mama maam /, / papa maam /, etc. followed by the more complicated ones. He also learns to produce questions and requests and learns to distinguish the subject from the object. Little by little while he is still learning new sounds, he makes progress in his mastery of the structure, until finally he has learned all the patterns of his language.

But while he is learning the patterns and sound-system, the child does not stop learning new words. Every day he learns new words and increases his vocabulary. Even after he has learn-

ed all the sounds and the structure, he does not stop learning new words, and keeps building his vocabulary till he dies.

From this description we can say then, that Fries is right in saying that learning the mother tongue consists mostly of learning the vocabulary (9,p.3). When the child is old enough to go to school, and learns his mother tongue at school, (which Fries has in mind when expressing the above mentioned statement) he need not learn the sounds and the structure of his language any more. What he needs is the expansion of his vocabulary. If he studies Indonesian grammar or structure at the S.M.A. or S.M.P., it is not for the sake of forming pattern-habits, but rather to attain a knowledge in language analysis.

Usually one is considered to have learned a language if one can understand and speak it. But beyond these two language skills, there are two other skills in language learning, the skills of reading and writing. When the child has come to an age for reading and writing his language, two new sets of neurone units which are also found in the speech mechanism, the visual units for reading and the manual units for writing, are established. The formation of these two units, however, occurs only after the first two units, the sound units and the verbal units have been established.

B. Learning a second language.

In the case of one learning the mother tongue, the person establishes concept units and sound units to understand, verbal units to speak, visual units to read and manual units to write. This process also takes place in the brain mechanism of the second language learner. New sets of units have to be formed and although the second language learner does not begin to speak the language by producing one-syllable utterances like the baby who is learning its mother tongue, yet the process does not differ much from the learning process of the mother tongue. The learner has to learn new concepts, new sounds, new words and new patterns. He must form a new set of language habits. But what makes second language learning very different from the learning of the mother tongue is the fact that the learner is in a different condition, psychologically, physiologically, culturally as well as linguistically. The child learning his mother tongue is like a clean slate, waiting to be filled with concepts and ideas whereas the second language learner brings with him concepts and habits already written in his brain. This difference will be discussed under a separate heading in the next part of this chapter.

In learning second languages there is one thing which is

worth noting, viz. that those who learn more than one languages in early childhood, find the learning of later additional languages easier, especially if these languages are parallel with the languages mastered in childhood. The explanation behind this is that the child who has studied more than one language will naturally carry in his speech mechanism a larger variety of sounds elements and speech-units which will be of great help in the formation of new speech-units when learning a new language.

C. Problems of second language learning.

As we have mentioned before, the difference between the process of learning the mother tongue and that of learning a second language is caused by the different conditions which the learner is in. This difference causes learning problems, which, for the sake of clarity, we will be distinguished in physiological, psychological, cultural and linguistic problems.

1. Physiological problems.

It has been said earlier in this chapter that the person who learns a second language has to learn new sets of units. The formation of these units do not present any difficulties in the case of the native language learner because the brain of the child is still plastic. But with second language learners the formation of the speech units themselves can become a problem, since for the purposes of learning languages, the brain becomes stiff after the age of nine. (23,p.1)

Not only does the problem come from the new speech-units, but the old units of his mother tongue can also become a hindrance for the formation of new units. The second language learner always tends to use the units of his mother tongue in hearing speaking, reading, and writing. Thus, instead of forming new units, he transfers the units of his mother tongue to the new language.

Another problem is found in the speech organs. The production of speech exists, whenever the verbal unit tells the person, what muscles of his speech organs he must use, in order to produce a certain sound. However, the muscles of the speech organs of the second language learner are no longer as flexible as that of the child learning his mother tongue. They have been adjusted to the sounds of the mother tongue, so that it is difficult for him to move the muscles of his vocal apparatus in a way different from that used ~~XXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX~~ when producing the sounds of his mother tongue. The difficulty increases when the sound to be produced in the new language does not exist in the mother tongue.

According to Lado, the units in the speech mechanism and the muscular habits of the speech organs have been so deeply set in the learner that he tends to transfer the whole sound system of his native language to the second language. He transfers the phonemes, the allophones, their distribution, the patterns of syllables, of words, of sentences and even the meanings, from the mother tongue to the second language. (15, p. 14)

2. Psychological problems.

For the child at home, the learning of the mother tongue is a method of learning about life, a means of getting what he wants, a way of satisfying his curiosity. The child is not even aware that he is learning a language. He learns the language not as an end in itself, but as a means to come to an end, as a way to get his basic needs.

The adult second language learner lacks this psychological urge. He does not need the new language to get his basic needs. His mother tongue is adequate and complete enough to serve him. He can learn about life through his mother tongue; he can express his feelings, desires, ideas and thoughts through the use of his mother tongue.

This factor of motivation, no matter how trivial it may seem, is very important in language learning. A strong motivation in language learning is very helpful for the achievement of its success. A person who goes to America without knowing any English will learn the language more quickly and successfully than a person who learns English at the S.M.A. The motivation of the first is very powerful; he has a great need to know English in order to communicate with the people around him, whereas the motivation of the second learner to study English is perhaps only to pass the final examination.

The next psychological problem is the fact that adult second language learner is very self-conscious and restrained in trying to produce the sounds of the new language. He is continuously possessed with the idea that he is doing something funny and moving his mouth in an exaggerated way. Unless he can overcome this problem of self-consciousness and restraint, he will have a great difficulty in mastering the new language.

Another problem appears because the adult second language learner is too eager in learning the new words of the second language. He has the mistaken idea that the learning of a second language is similar to the learning of his mother tongue, which for the greater part consists of vocabulary expansion. The learning of a second language is chiefly the learning of its sound

system and structure, while the learning of the words is only subsidiary to the learning of the first two language elements. If the learner is too obsessed with the learning of the new words of the second language, he will not concentrate his attention on the other elements and will consequently have great difficulty in mastering the language.

3. Cultural problems.

Stack holds that language and culture cannot be separated. (27, p.3). This is true if Lado's definition of culture as "ways of a people" (16, p.110) is accepted. The ways of a people is best shown and expressed through language, since language is the way of speaking prevailing in a given society. On the other hand, culture is closely related to language since each language is adjusted to the culture of the people. Language is the most typical and the most representative element of any culture. How a certain idea is expressed, how a certain word or expression is used in a language, depends on the culture of the people. Therefore, an understanding of culture is necessary for an understanding of language and the study of language is not complete without a knowledge of the culture.

This becomes exactly one of the problems of second language learning. Besides the individual and linguistic meanings, language also conveys another kind of meaning which is not less important, viz. the cultural meaning. Students find the learning of a second language often difficult because they cannot grasp the cultural meanings attached to the language.

Cultural problems do not present themselves in the case of the child learning his native language, since the child is in the cultural field. He is learning in a situation of which the language is a reflection of the total life. Neither do these problems occur in the case of the person learning a second language in the country of its origin. A Javanese boy who speaks Javanese at home learns both English and Indonesian as a second language. But he will not have many cultural problems with regard to Indonesian, since he is living in Indonesia. However, this is not the case with English. The learner will be faced with cultural problems which can become one of the serious learning problems in second language learning.

The fact that cultural meanings exist in language and that these cultural meanings are quite different from the cultural meanings found in the mother tongue of the students has been often neglected in the teaching of second languages. Teachers are often too obsessed with teaching their students the linguistic

meanings of the new language , that they forget the cultural meanings.

4. Linguistic problems.

The linguistic problems in second language learning include phonological, structural and vocabulary problems and they consist of units and patterns of the second language which are different from those of the mother tongue.

Which language units and patterns will constitute learning problems? Language is a set of habits. When an individual speaks Indonesian, his attention is focused on the overall-meaning of the message that he wants to convey. He does not think any more what sounds, words or structures to use. He unconsciously uses them all as a habit. When he tries to speak English, he takes the same linguistic posture. He concentrates on the meaning that he wants to communicate and tries to use the English language units as a habit. If he knows English well he will have no difficulties in doing this. But if he knows the foreign language only partially, he will be using his native language habits to complement the partial English language habits that he possesses. Should this transfer take place, there will then be transferred units and patterns of Indonesian functioning satisfactorily in English , but other transferred units and patterns not functioning thus: these constitute the learning problems.

To know these learning problems, we need to have a structural understanding of language. By making a systematic linguistic comparison between both language structures, we can predict and describe the learning problems from the differences that occur. We can predict whether the problem will be a recognition problem or one of production. If it is a problem of grammatical structure we can state, for example, that the problem which occurs is caused by a difference in form, meaning or distribution, or a combination of them. Or we can also say that it is a problem caused by lack of a parallel form or feature in Indonesian. If it is a problem on the segmental phonemes we can say that, for example, the initial sound in "show" becomes a problem sound for Indonesian students because this particular sound is not found in our language. Or again that the initial sound in "pot" is difficult since in Indonesian, the "p" is never aspirated. According to Lado, a learning problem occurs where the native language of the student and the target language differ structurally. On the other hand, where the two languages do not differ structurally , there is no particular learning problem. (15, p.17)

From the above discussion we can understand , why students complain that second language learning is extremely difficult. All the problems discussed above, physiological, psychological , cultural as well as linguistic, make the acquisition of the speech habits necessary in language learning hard and the learning of a second language accordingly difficult. Unless the language teacher knows how to tackle this problem in the right way, the learning and teaching of a second language will become a millstone for both students and teachers. Therefore, the following chapters will discuss how this problem can be solved, by presenting some principles of second language teaching derived from the theory of language and second language learning proposed in this chapter. And since the factor of objectives is a decisive factor in a second language teaching activity, we will discuss this first in the next chapter.

CHAPTER III

OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

In the preceding chapter we have said that the factor of objectives is a decisive factor in second language teaching. However, many teachers do not realize this. They are not aware that there are such things as objectives in teaching a second language. Because of this fact and because we believe that a right knowledge of the objectives is one of the important requisites for a satisfactory result in second language teaching, we consider it important to spend this chapter on the discussion of the objectives of teaching English as a second language before starting with the discussion of methods, materials, tests, etc.

I. The need of setting up and defining the objectives.

Man is different from animals. Animals do not need to set up objectives. They are inevitably forced to move towards the goal; their instincts will lead them. But man is different. He is purposive; he does not base his actions on instincts alone. He has an intelligence and a will which enable him to set up objectives and judge them intelligently. Because of this, in all his actions, man should set up his objectives. And since objectives imply goals, therefore, by the objectives of teaching English we mean the goal, the aim or the purpose of teaching English.

We have mentioned that because man is purposive and has an intelligence and a will, he needs to set up objectives. But this is only one of the primary reasons. Another reason why man needs to set up his objectives is the fact that a clearly stated and well-defined one will help him systematize his actions and as a result of this, give him a satisfactory result. Besides this, it will also help him make the right choices; to do what he should do and to ignore what is not necessary. In short, it will help him direct his efforts to the particular task to be accomplished.

In teaching a second language, setting up and defining the objectives is of primary consideration and should be done before deciding what methods to use and what materials to choose. The methods and techniques of teaching, the materials to be used, even the kind of examination to be given depend for the greater part on the objectives of the language program. If we know what the objectives of teaching English at the S.M.A. are, we can

look for the devices and means to achieve them. We can think of what materials to use and what methods to choose. We can also decide on what kind of teachers to employ and what kind of training will be most suitable for them. We can decide how many hours we need for the whole course, how many we will give in the first, second and third year. Finally, we can also know from the objectives set up what to examine and what kind of examination to give.

The setting up of objectives of a second language teaching program is not completely independent of the philosophy of education held. In general it can be said, that an authentic philosophy of education should take three things into consideration: the total personal development of the learner, the social need of the country and the religious aspirations of the learner. Besides this, other factors as political and social ones have very often a great influence in the setting up of the objectives of second language teaching.

After setting up the objectives the next step is to define them and to work them out to the smallest detail, because the success of a teaching program depends partly on clear and exact objectives. It is therefore not adequate to state that the objective of the English course is a general mastery of English. It should be further defined. What mastery of English are the students expected to achieve? The oral or the written mastery? What level should they reach? It is likewise not enough to say that the objective of the English course is to acquire the skill of writing in English. For what writing skill is meant? The basic writing skill or the writing skill which produces the ability to write creatively?

Setting up and defining the objectives of the second language teaching program is usually the work of those in charge of building the curriculum. But it is the duty of the classroom teacher to work out these objectives. They should be worked out in such a way that the teacher knows what to do in every English class that he conducts. He does not come to class just "to fill the timetable" or "to pass the time", but he will come with a definite purpose. He will know exactly what to do in the first ten minutes or in the last fifteen minutes of the forty-five minutes given to him to teach English. This presupposes that he has worked out the general objectives set up and has arranged the material he is going to teach according to the number of periods given. If the objective of the English course is the mastery of reading textbooks of technology in English, the teacher

should know what other skills are involved in this objective. Depending on his outlook and attitude towards second language teaching he should answer these questions: What other objectives are involved in this big objective? What skills should be taught? How should they be taught? In what order? What kind of vocabulary should the students know? Is it necessary to teach the structure and the sound system? If it is, what structural patterns should be taught? Should the sound system be taught as accurately as possible or as Michael West in his article "Factual English" (29, p.122) suggested, should pronunciation be taught as little as possible? In what order should they be taught? How should he locate all these in the number of periods given?

II. The objectives of teaching English as a second language.

Basing our observations on the characteristics of language mentioned in the preceding chapter, especially on the first three of these characteristics, viz. that language is a structural system of symbol-carrying vocal sounds, that language is a communication system and that language is a set of habits for oral production and reception, we can say that the objectives of teaching a second language is to train the students to acquire the ability to use the language elements - sound system, grammatical structure and vocabulary - as a set of habits for oral production and reception in free communication situations. This will be further explained in the following part under the headings of short-range and long-range objectives.

A. Short-range objectives.

This involves the mastery of the basic elements and skills of English.

1. The mastery of the basic elements of English.

In the actual practice of language learning the basic elements - the sound system, structure and vocabulary - are learned simultaneously. The division given here is only done for the sake of clarity and ease of discussion.

a. The mastery of the basic sound system.

The mastery of the sound system is according to Fries, the recognition of the distinctive sounds that occur in the actual speech of native speakers of English, and the accurate production of these sounds so that they can be recognized by native English speakers. (9, p.14). We are therefore speaking of phonemes and their allophonic realizations. Thus the students

should be able to distinguish sounds which are phonemic and sounds which are not phonemic in English, not only on the recognition level, but especially on the production level, since the ultimate goal is the accurate production of the sounds.

The ability to produce the sounds accurately involves the ability to produce the segmental sounds and the combinations of sounds as found in words, phrases and sentences. The last presupposes that the students know how to use the correct intonation stress, rhythm and juncture.

The mastery of the basic sound system of English is in the first place the phonemic control both on the recognition and on the production level, of all the sounds in English. Phonetic accuracy, though desirable is not yet necessary.

b. The mastery of the basic structure.

Lado defines structure as the arrangement of words into sentences and of parts of words into words. (15,p.142).Mastery of the structure of English is the ability to arrange correctly words into sentences and parts of words into words. According to Fries, it is making automatic the use of the devices of arrangement of forms (9,p.2).

English has its own way of signalling linguistic meaning through the correct arrangement of forms. Therefore the point in teaching structure is to train the students to recognize and to produce the patterns of arrangement of forms in English or as Fries expresses, " to make automatic the essential features of arrangement of forms and function words " (9,p.34).

In the case of a mastery of the basic structure of English, there should be a selection of the patterns. Fries says that for the production level the patterns taught should meet two criteria (9,p.33). The first criterion is range of usefulness; patterns which are widely used should be preferred to patterns which are rarely used. The second criterion is regularity of form. If there are two patterns or two ways of expressing a certain thing then the most regular one should be chosen. As an example we can take the form of the verb "to dream". It has the preterite and the past participle "dreamed" or "dreamt". To meet the last criterion the form "dreamed" should be preferred. For the recognition level the patterns chosen should be those which have the most frequency of occurrence.

c. The mastery of the basic vocabulary.

By vocabulary we mean the words of the language considered as lexical units attached to the cultural meanings of a speech community. Mastery of the vocabulary of English is the ability to

to grasp lexical units - words, phrases and idiomatic expressions - in English, in their correct meanings, and producing them in the same way. This involves the ability to see the distinctive characteristics of the situation in which the unit is put. It also presupposes that the students know something about English culture, about the way English people think, talk and act, because a unit can have a different meaning in a different culture.

The vocabulary that we consider basic includes those units which are used in the earlier stages of learning English and which can become the basis for a wider vocabulary expansion in the later stages. Fries holds that this vocabulary should consist chiefly of the following vocabulary items : function words, substitute words and words with negative and affirmative distribution. The content words should include those items that are not in the immediate environment in which the language is being learned. This vocabulary could then be expanded to the general areas of experience and in a later stage to the special areas of experience consisting of typical vocabulary items of the special fields in which the students will be active. (9, p.44-51)

2. Mastery of the basic skills of English.

There are four basic skills in language learning, aural-comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. They are called basic skills because they form the basis for the learning of any other skill in language learning. However, the mastery of these skills presupposes that the students have mastered the basic elements of language , the basic sound system, structure and vocabulary.

a. The mastery of the basic skill of aural-comprehension

What is the basic skill of aural-comprehension or understanding ? This question can be answered in an indirect way by saying that there is an understanding when there is a proper reaction or response to the signal.

Language has a dyadic nature. It takes two parties to operate. When one party produces a signal, he wants to elicit a response from the second party. When the second party gives a proper reaction because of the grasp of the message, we can say that there is understanding. However, it should be taken into consideration that a proper reaction does not only depend on the understanding of the linguistic symbols. Sometimes, although the linguistic symbols have been understood yet of other factors , like difference of emotions, attitude, philosophy, etc. the reaction given might not be as expected.

To understand is to have a grasp of all the elements of language as an integrated whole. It presupposes that the students have grasped the basic sound system, structure and vocabulary, and can use them together as an integrated whole. However, just as there is a difference in the mastery of the vocabulary between the elementary student and the advanced one, there is also a spread of progress in understanding. The understanding in the first year of English learning is different from that in the third year.

b. The mastery of the basic skill of speaking.

The second basic skill of language learning is the basic skill of speaking. Speaking is the oral application of the language elements. In understanding, the student should be able to grasp the language elements as an integrated whole. But in speaking he should not only be able to do this, he should also be able to produce them as an integrated whole. Since language is a means of communication and therefore speaking has the purpose to communicate ideas, it also involves the organization of the ideas to be communicated to the hearer. This communication of ideas should be done in a free communication situation. Therefore the objective of teaching speaking is to train the students to have the ability to communicate their ideas in a free communication situation, using the language elements they have already learned.

Compared with the skill of understanding, speaking is far more difficult, since production is always more difficult than recognition. A person who can easily understand a book or a poem, cannot always write a book or a poem himself. In the same way, a person can easily understand a certain word or sentence without being able to use it in his own speech.

As the language elements, so are understanding and speaking learned simultaneously in the actual process of language learning. Practice in understanding will contribute to the development of speaking and, on the other hand, the ability to speak also helps one to increase one's understanding. The division given here is only done for the sake of clarity in discussing them.

c. The mastery of the basic skill of reading.

Lado defines reading in a foreign language as grasping meaning in the language through its written representation (15, p.223). This cannot be done without an oral mastery of the language.

Language is primarily speech. To understand language is

to grasp the message as contained in the stream of speech uttered by an individual. Reading is also a kind of understanding, however not that of understanding the message contained in the stream of speech but of understanding the message contained in the graphic symbols which represent this stream of speech. It is therefore more difficult and presupposes the mastery of the oral skills.

Fries says that unless one has mastered the elements of the new language as a set of habits for oral production and reception, the process of reading becomes a process of looking for word equivalents in the native language. (9, p.6) This is completely true. Whenever a person reads something, his intention is to grasp the meaning of what he reads through the symbols representing the words and the way of arrangement of the words. When he does not master these elements of language he tries to find another way to grasp the meaning. The easiest way of doing this is to use the habits of his mother tongue. Thus he only tries to get the meaning by using the processes and vocabulary of his own language.

There is another definition of reading that says that reading is the act of thinking under the stimulus of written or printed symbols. According to this definition, reading should aim to make one think, and therefore, the teaching of reading should also make the students acquire the ability to think and to grasp the meaning of the language through its written representation.

d. The mastery of the basic skill of writing.

The fourth basic skill is the basic skill of writing. This is not the same as creative writing. The skill of creative writing is a more advanced skill in language learning.

What is then meant by the basic skill of writing? Lado's definition of writing will be a very good answer to this question. According to him, writing a foreign language is the ability to use the language and its graphic representation productively in ordinary writing situations. (15, p.248). Therefore, the objective of teaching the basic skill of writing is to train the students to have the ability to produce the language which he has already mastered orally, in its written form. If in reading he is trained to recognize written English, in writing he is taught to produce it. Since recognition comes before production, reading should be mastered first before starting with writing.

B. Long-range objectives.

Of the many possible long-range objectives two of them mark out in importance with regard to language learning. They



are the attainment of a cultural insight and a literary appreciation.

1. The attainment of a cultural insight.

To have a cultural insight is to have an understanding and sympathy for the culture of the people whose language we are studying. It is to appreciate their way of life and to show our appreciation through our attitude towards their culture. To have an insight into something is more than just to have a knowledge of it. An anthropologist may know much of the English culture, but he may not appreciate it.

The attainment of a cultural insight should be set as one of the goals to be achieved in the long-range objectives. As we have mentioned before, language and culture woven together (27, p.3). Therefore, an understanding of English needs an understanding of English culture.

In an utterance there are three kinds of meanings attached, the linguistic, cultural and individual meaning. The individual meaning depends upon the individual speaker, his belief, his attitude, his character, his emotions and thoughts at a particular time. Just as human character is difficult to study, so is the individual meaning. But the linguistic and cultural meaning can and should be studied if a person wants to understand the utterance. Psychologists and anthropologists might study this individual meaning but it does not belong to the field of language teachers. What should be the concern of language teachers and language learners are the linguistic and the cultural meanings. The linguistic meaning can be attained by the mastery of the elements and skills of language. To attain the cultural meaning we should study and appreciate the culture of the people.

Just as languages are different, so too are cultures. Every group has its own way of thinking and of doing things which are different from that of another group with another cultural background. They have also their own way of speaking, of expressing their thoughts and of communicating their ideas to another person. An Englishman who is thanked for his services, will usually give an answer like, "You are welcome." or "Don't mention it" or "It's all right" or something else; but he will never want to "thank the person back". However, this is something common in the Indonesian culture. If an Indonesian is thanked for something he has done, it will be natural for him to say "Terima kasih kembali". Another example is the typical Indonesian "djam karet" which has often irritated Westerners coming to Indonesia for the first time. Efforts have been made to change

this tradition. However, the result is not very satisfactory, since it lies in the Indonesian cultural tradition to do things slowly and calmly and not to be in a hurry. Their slogan is ~~xxx~~ rather "Slowly but surely" than "Time is money". The Englishman who experiences this for the first time will be irritated and the Indonesian will think that Englishmen are always in a hurry. Both the Englishman and the Indonesian have acted correctly according to their own cultural traditions. But if they want to understand each other fully, they have to study each other's culture and try to adjust themselves to the situation. Unless they try to understand and appreciate each other's culture, there will be, using Lado's expression, "misinterpretations across cultures" (16, p.6).

We have mentioned that for cultural insight a knowledge or an understanding of the culture does not suffice. If we want to make the language more than just an adequate means of communication we should also have sympathy with and appreciation of the culture, and express this through our attitude towards those peoples's way of life. In our last example there can still be a misinterpretation across cultures if one only knows what the other is doing without having sympathy for it. But if the Englishman not only understands the Indonesian "djam karet" but also appreciate it as one of the Indonesian cultural traditions, then he will not feel irritated and instead of trying to change it he will rather adapt himself to it. In the same way, the Indonesian can communicate fully in English when he tries to have an insight into its culture. Therefore, misinterpretations across cultures can be eliminated if in teaching English, one of the objectives set up is to teach the students to acquire an insight into English culture.

2. The attainment of a literary appreciation.

The second long-range objective is the attainment of a literary appreciation: to acquire the ability to understand and enjoy the literature of the people. But what is the importance of putting literary appreciation as one of the long-range objectives to be achieved in second language teaching? Why is it necessary that advanced students should understand and enjoy the literature of the people whose language they are studying?

Because, as we have mentioned in Chapter II, language primarily serves as a means of communication, the primary aim therefore of studying a language is to acquire the ability to use it as a means of communication. The process of communication does not only depend upon the code, that is, upon the arbitrary

prearranged set of signals, but it also depends on the encoder, (the person who performs the process of encoding) and on the decoder (the person who receives the encoding) (10,p.374)The more characteristics and interests the encoder and the decoder share, the better the process of communication is. In the case of the attainment of cultural insight, our aim is essentially to bring the learner closer to the people whose language he is studying by having him share the same cultural interests. In our second long-range objective now we attempt to bring the language learner both closer to the cultural field, which is so specially found in its literature treasures, as well as closer to the speaker with his own understanding and appreciation of the literature of his language. In the later stages of language learning therefore the appreciation of literature serves this double purpose.

The objectives discussed in this chapter have made it clear what are to be accomplished in second language learning and teaching. And having known what our task is in second language teaching, we now come to the discussion of the methods to achieve the objectives.

CHAPTER IV

THE LINGUISTIC METHOD AND TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

Objectives to be useful should be complemented with suitable means and devices to attain them. In second language teaching the most important devices are the methods, which are treated in this chapter and the materials which will be treated in Chapter V.

With regard to methods there are different opinions and points of view. Some teachers adhere to one particular method, like for example, the direct method, the translation method, the oral approach, etc. Others have the opinion that any method is valid and acceptable if it can achieve the objectives in the most efficient way. According to Nelson Brooks, almost any method is justifiable if it is humane, does not require too much time and effort and remains faithful to the objectives (5,p.140). Mary Finocchiaro says that any method or combination of methods which will produce results with the pupils in the particular classes is the right method (8,p.115).

Although we admit the truth of the two last mentioned statements, yet to give clear-cut principles of second language teaching it will be good to present one method here that we consider to be in accord with the objectives described in Chapter III and with the linguistic point of view which this work takes as its basic principle.

I. What is the linguistic method ?

In order to make it more in accordance with the basic principle underlying this work, we will call the method that we want to propose, the "linguistic method". But actually it can be called by many other names, the oral approach, the pattern - practice method, the new method, the modern method, the scientific method, the oral-aural approach, the audio-lingual approach, etc.

What is this linguistic method ? The most important characteristic of this method is that it is based on the science of linguistics and its theory concerning language and second language learning, which has been dealt with in Chapter II.

As language is primarily spoken and writing but a graphic representation thereof, so understanding and speaking should be taught first, reading and writing being kept to a later stage. This implies that learning to read before knowing how to under -

stand and speak is inefficient. Lado calls this kind of reading "deciphering". He holds that even when the goal is only to read it should be through speech, since if the student has mastered the basic constructions of the language orally, he can expand his reading capacity to a higher level of achievement than if he sticks to deciphering script (14,p.50). Because writing is a representation of speech, written language should therefore be based on the spoken one.

Fries says that a person has learned a foreign language if within a limited vocabulary he can understand and produce the sound system and make the structural devices matters of automatic habits (9,p.3). This means that in teaching a second language the teacher should teach the sound system for use and establish the patterns as habits through pattern practice. It also implies that second language learning is chiefly a matter of establishing new sets of language habits, which are formed through practice, rather than giving information about the language. Cornelius, for example, is of the opinion that 75 % of class time should be devoted to practice and no more than 25 % to explanation and commentary (6,p.27). Since habits are acquired slowly the teaching of the patterns should be graded. The statement also implies that in teaching a second language the stress should be put on pattern practice rather than on vocabulary expansion .

The linguistic method makes also use of the findings of linguistics to find out the units and patterns of the second language which constitute learning problems for the language learner. It is based on a structural comparison between the language systems of the target language and the mother tongue. By comparing the two language systems structurally, the structural differences will become apparent and the learning problems accordingly known.

Modern linguists hold that culture is inseparable from language and that teaching a second language includes therefore, teaching the students to have an attitude of identification with or sympathetic understanding of the people who speak the language.

In short we can say that the method proposed here is based on the science of modern linguistics and its theory concerning language and language learning without neglecting the psychological factors involved in language learning. In the next part of this chapter we will see how this method can be made concrete for teaching purposes in the classroom.

II. Generalization of the linguistic method.

A. Teaching the sound system.

Since language is primarily spoken, the sound system of a language should be taught for use in speaking and listening. This kind of use of the sound system is called pronunciation (14,p.70). Because of the fact that pronunciation has to be learned, all language teaching involves the teaching of pronunciation. However, it should be noted, that pronunciation is harder to master for adults than for children. This means that where unconscious imitation is adequate for younger students, specific guidance and conscious awareness of problems might be necessary for older students. Facial diagrams, articulatory descriptions and other devices which may help the students produce or understand a problem sound, may be very useful. Sometimes it is even necessary to use the native language of the students to explain a problem sound. This is possible if it can help the students understand the problem better. However, understanding the problem is not the chief purpose; the main purpose of the pronunciation lesson is to develop in the students the ability to hear the sounds accurately and to produce them correctly and automatically (14,p.196). Explanations can be given if they help the students to establish the habits desired.

Modern experts in second language teaching like Lado, for example, hold that in teaching a second language we should teach the problems, since knowing the problems is knowing the language and those units and patterns that do not constitute learning problems will be learned easily through transfer. This principle also applies to the teaching of pronunciation. However, even if the learning problems have been known, we still need to decide on the order of presentation, since the sound system of a language comprises the segmental phonemes, the suprasegmental phonemes, the syllable patterns, the sound patterns and the phrase patterns permitted in the language. The traditional procedure followed is to teach the segmental phonemes first and to defer the suprasegmental ones until a later stage or to neglect them completely. Modern linguists, however, believe that since the suprasegmental phonemes affect consonants ~~xxxxxxxxxxxx~~ and vowels more or less heavily, the teaching of these former should be incorporated in the teaching of the latter.

After the problem sounds have been known by means of a comparative linguistic analysis of English and Indonesian, the next step is to select one problem to be presented and practiced. This selection should follow the principle of grading, from the easy and more familiar sounds to the difficult and unfamiliar

ones.

During the presentation the students learn the occasions for the use of the new sound in a context in which it is normally used. This will consist of the introduction of the problem - sound in context contrasted with another similar sound, by means of a minimal pair (a pair of words which differ only in one phoneme). This is followed by a recognition and finally a production of the problem sound by the students.

The presentation is followed by exercises and drills . Drills are "repetitions with understanding to internalize the new sound and to integrate them with the growing body of previously learned sounds" (7,p.97). They are of various kinds. Fe Danancy mentions 3 types of pronunciation drills : contrast drills, pattern drills and comparison drills. Contrast drills are designed to illustrate a specific contrast between the sound segments, by means of minimal pairs. Pattern drills focus attention on features of intonation and stress; and comparison drills are meant to make the students aware of the specific differences between his native speech sounds and similar sounds in the second language. All these types of drills are accompanied by transition exercises meant to set pronunciation practice in culturally meaningful context (7,p.196-239).

B. Teaching structure.

Assuming that a linguistic comparison of the native and the second language has pointed out the problem structures, there are two things left that are important in the discussion of the teaching of structure : the presentation and the pattern practice or structure drill.

Presentation is part of a lesson and meant to make the students understand the meaning of the problem structure and know the occasions in which it is normally used. It consists essentially of :

- (1). an introduction of the problem structure by using an attention pointer or an identification exercise. An attention pointer is a sentence which calls the students' attention to the problem discussed (14,p.214).
- (2). Examples of the problem structure in context, by means of a dialogue, story, letter, etc. to make the students understand the meaning of the structure , and to know the occasions in which it is used.
- (3). Repetition by the students. After they have understood the problem, we teach them to produce the structure correctly by repetition of the examples and by production of similar ones.

of similar ones.

- (4).Comments or generalizations. For adult learners, a presentation also includes comments or generalizations concerning the problem structure under consideration, to help them establish the desired habits with a fuller understanding of the problem. And since these comments only serve as a tip for the learners, they can be given, when necessary, in the mother tongue of the students.

It has been mentioned that the problem structure can be presented by means of a dialogue, a short story, a letter, a diary, a poem, an advertisement, etc. containing examples of the problem under consideration. Since the students understand the problem and thus understand the language through the dialogue, story, etc., in which the problem structure is presented, it is necessary therefore, that these presentation devices reflect the language that is used for daily communication. In this case the dialogue is the best presentation device, since it closely resembles real life. It uses sentences and words which are meaningful and can be found in real life situations.

But no matter how important the presentation is, it is not the actual practice to establish the desired language habits. The real practice is done through the drills and exercises which follow the presentation. Structure drills or pattern practice is defined by Lado as follows: "Pattern practice is rapid oral drill on problem patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself" (14, p.105). The use of this drill is based on the following assumptions:

- (1).The easiest way to form speech habits is through regular imitation and repetition.
- (2).The child in his learning of language does not simply imitate what he hears. He can make his own statements and produce them automatically, not as the result of mere imitation but because he has unconsciously grasped the patterns of arrangement by which the words of his language are put together.

By making use of pattern drills in class the students are expected, within a short time and in a systematic way, to grasp the patterns of arrangement by which the words of the second language are put together and make these same automatic habits. It is assumed that the students after imitating and repeating a series of examples of a grammatical feature will establish the pattern and will be able to make his own statements following the established form. And it is also assumed that the patterns that have been grasped and produced consciously will be made unconscious

automatic habits.

If the presentation aims to make the students understand the problem, both on the recognition as well as on the production level regarding its form, meaning as well as distribution, the drills have the purpose of making the students establish the grammatical structure that has been understood, as an automatic habit. Thus if during the presentation the students make a conscious choice of the structure being dealt with, during pattern drill they are encouraged to produce this as a habit by means of drawing their attention from the pattern. This can be done if the class is not told what the practice is about and if the cues that control the changes in each succeeding response are not at the problem point (7, p.106).

To test whether the students have established the pattern as a habit, every oral drill for teaching is supplemented with a testing phase. The testing phase which follows the teaching phase immediately and without announcing that it is a special part of the drill is simply a sampling in random order of the patterns of the teaching phase. (27, p.33). Stack recommends that the length of this part of the drill is from one-third to one-fourth the length of the teaching phase (27, p.33).

We have said that one of the principles held by the linguistic method is to teach the language in graded steps. This principle also applies to the teaching of grammatical structure. The patterns should be taught gradually by the adaptation of the learning problems, which according to Dacuzay are determined by the type of drill, the pattern being drilled or the sentences selected to drill the pattern (7, p.109), to the capacities of the students. In addition to this, the content of the drill should be kept to one context so that the whole will become more meaningful.

With regard to the types of structure drills, there is a very wide variety of which the most common types are the substitution drills, the completion drills and the transformation drills, each of which has its own varieties.

So far we have discussed the presentation and drills. But this is not the end of the grammar lesson. At the end of the pattern practice the students can use the patterns automatically but they are not yet ready to use them for communication. Thus they have to practice using them with full attention on purposeful communication by means of discussion topics, stories, pictures, films, etc. Lado calls this stage "free selection". (14, p.113).

C. Teaching vocabulary.

We have said that the traditional way of teaching vocabulary is through translation, either of individual words or of a passage containing new words. This is based on the assumption that teaching vocabulary is chiefly making the students understand the meaning of the words and that this can best be done through translation.

This assumption is of course not true. In Chapter III we have said that the mastery of vocabulary is the ability to grasp lexical units - words, phrases or idiomatic expressions - with their correct meanings and to produce them likewise. Therefore the teaching of vocabulary should not merely make the students understand the meaning of the lexical units but should also aim at making them acquire the ability of producing the words with their correct meanings. Translation is not the best way either of making the students acquire an understanding or of helping them produce the lexical units, since it never gives the accurate meaning, except perhaps of highly technical words, nor the amount of practice needed to make responses early available.

In Chapter III we have also stated that the mastery ~~the~~ of the basic vocabulary includes those units which are used in the earlier stages of learning the second language and which can become the foundation of a wider vocabulary expansion in the later stages. According to Lado, this may be distinguished in three levels:

- (1).vocabulary to operate the patterns and illustrate the pronunciation of the language.
- (2).vocabulary for communication in areas of wide currency.
- (3).aesthetic and technical vocabularies.

Based on the nature of these vocabulary levels and on the curriculum of the S.M.P. and S.M.A. (24,p.69-98; 25,p.119-120; 137; 62-64; 79-80) we can say that the first two levels are suitable for the S.M.P. classes and the first class of the S. M.A., while the last stage, which presupposes that the two levels have been mastered, can be taught in the second and third class of the S.M.A. in accordance with the particular sections, thus the aesthetic vocabulary for the Budaja section and the technical and scientific vocabulary for the Pusti, Alan and So - sial sections.

On the basis of the nature of second language teaching, we have mentioned that in teaching a second language we should teach the problems. This principle applies also to the teaching of vocabulary. In the case of Indonesian and English, two lang -

languages so completely different, the existence of problems on form, meaning and distribution, is obvious. That a certain limited number of words, as "radio", "president", "republic", etc., seem to differ only in form, we can predict different cases of ease and complexity in learning and consequently the principle of grading of the selection, based on the similarities and differences from the first language should also be applied in teaching vocabulary.

With regard to the selection, Lado says that in the first stage of vocabulary for speaking the chief criteria should be range of usefulness and regularity of form while in the second stage the chief criterion should be range of usefulness. For reading and listening on the other hand, the chief criterion should be frequency of occurrence. In the third stage the aesthetic use of the words, the selection has to take into account the style that is involved, (14,p.119,120).

Concerning the procedure of teaching vocabulary, it does not differ much from the teaching of the sound system and structure. Essentially it consists of : practice to make the students understand the form, meaning and distribution of the new word and practice to make them able to use the new word with its correct form, meaning and distribution.

Lado recommends the following steps:

- (1).Hearing the word.
- (2).Pronouncing the word.
- (3).Grasping the meaning. The teacher should give the meaning of the new word without making use of translation. This can be done through various devices,a.o. by means of the context, pictures, objects, by giving its opposite,synonym or by dramatizing it.
- (4).Giving illustrative sentences to make the students understand the word, not only in its form and meaning but also in its distribution.
- (5).Practice from meaning to expression. In this step the students are practiced to use the word with its correct form, meaning and distribution as a habit. This can be done in many ways , depending on the stimulus by which the meaning is suggested to elicit the expression. Pictures, realia, dramatization can be used.
- (6).Reading the word.
- (7).Writing the word. Reading and writing help to reinforce the new-formed habit.
- (8).Using the word more freely.

(9).Using the word for some communication purpose in which the students' attention will not be on the word itself. This will make them use the word in a more realistic and meaningful way (14,p.121-127).

In the last part of this chapter we have given a description of how to teach the sound system, grammatical structure and vocabulary to show that the method which we have proposed can be made concrete in the actual teaching of English as a second language. By doing this we also assume that the method can be applied to the teaching of the other language skills.

CHAPTER V
TEACHING MATERIALS

It is universally admitted that improperly designed materials have become a great problem for the teacher for many decades. On the other hand, suitable materials, which are well-fitted to the concepts of objectives and methods held, will give the teacher far greater returns for his efforts.

In the previous two chapters we have proposed a concept of the objectives and one of the methods of teaching English as a second language based on our theory of language and second language learning. However, these concepts, no matter how good they may be will not bring much results if they are not supplemented with the suitable materials. In fact good materials are more important than good methods. From good materials we can expect much, especially, if the teacher is also fully informed about methods. But good methods without being supplemented with the appropriate materials will not give the desired results.

It is also a fact that the teacher often finds himself faced with a problem; though it is not his responsibility to prepare materials, the inadequate and unsuitable textbooks available compel him either to adapt these or make completely new ones.

Therefore, because of these facts we would like to present in this chapter some principles for the evaluation and preparation of materials designed for the teaching of English as a second language, which are in accord with the linguistic theory concerning language and second language learning, so that the language teacher will not only be able to know which materials are suitable and which are not, but will also be able to prepare his own materials in case of necessity.

I. The materials of teaching English as a second language.

Before making any statements how the materials should be in order to fit the objectives and methods discussed in the preceding chapters, it is better to find out first what they are and what they consist of.

"The advanced learner's dictionary of current English" gives the following definition of materials: "things needed for a piece of work". We can therefore say that the materials for teaching English as a second language include all the things that the teacher needs to teach the language. These consist of textbooks, audio-visual aids and the language laboratory.

Of these three, the textbooks may be regarded as the most basic and important teaching materials. Audio-visual aids and the language laboratory may indeed be helpful as aids to the students, but they are only additional materials to supplement the textbooks. The textbooks remain at present the most basic and important materials in any teaching situation. Michael West in one of his articles states that textbooks are really necessary in language teaching, since not only one cannot learn to read a language without a book, but also because without a book one will forget much of what one has learned the day before. (30, p. 64)

The textbooks are also the most widely used of the three kinds of materials mentioned above. They are used in universities as well as in elementary schools. They are also used to teach children as well as adults. They have become so popular that in talking about teaching materials we will immediately think of textbooks.

In addition to texts, we have also the audio-visual aids as the second type of teaching materials. Audio-visual aids can be explained as things which help the students learn the language, by functioning as visual or audio stimuli. They usually include such materials as objects, pictures, charts, flashcards, slides, tapes, film strips, projectors, motion pictures, television, etc. Audio-visual aids as supplementary materials to the textbooks, have become very useful devices in teaching language and cultural content. However, their usefulness will depend entirely on how they are used. They will become effective devices for vitalizing learning and for creating the atmosphere of a foreign country when used in the right way. On the other hand, used in the wrong way, they can also be misleading. Therefore, in selecting and using audio-visual aids the teacher should take care that these materials in some way contribute towards the attainment of the objectives.

Besides audio-visual aids, we have another kind of teaching materials, the language laboratory, which has become popular because of the development of modern methods in second language teaching. A language laboratory is a special room equipped with individual booths along with the necessary technological instruments in which room the students can practice the second language they are learning. The language laboratory has been acknowledged as one of the most useful and effective teaching aids. However, since almost no S.M.P. or S.M.A. in our country is provided with a language laboratory, there will not be any use dis-

cussing it in detail here.

II. Principles for the evaluation or preparation of materials.

In the introduction of this chapter we have indicated , that principles of language and second language teaching will not be conducive unless they are also applied to the teaching materials to be used in the classroom. We have also said that the materials of teaching English as a second language are the things that the language teacher needs in performing his task and that they consist of textbooks, audio-visual aids and the language laboratory. Now we would like to show how the theory of language and second language learning that we have proposed in Chapter II and which we have applied to the objectives and methods, can also be applied to the materials used to teach English as a second language.

A. Teaching materials should be designed to teach the language.

The first principle has two implications :

- (1).teaching materials should teach the language rather than teach about it.
- (2).teaching materials should teach the language rather than test the language.

Teaching about the language or testing the language is characteristic of most textbooks used at our S.M.P.'s and S.M.A.'s As an example we will take "Sendi-sendu tata-bahasa Inggris" by S. Darmore Kasni and Alie Almasotic (26) which is meant to be used at the S.M.E.A.,S.M.A.,S.G.A.,etc. The first lesson starts with a description of the sentence accompanied by a number of exercises designed to make the students able to identify the subject and the predicate of the sentence. The following lessons deal with the description of subject, verb, object and all the other elements of grammar. At the end of the book there is a set of questions of the following type: What is a sentence? What is the difference between a multiple and a complex sentence? Describe the six different forms that a subject may be expressed with. etc. Another example is "English Exercises" by Achmad Saad, S.T.Kusumah, and M.v. Delden (2), which contains test drills of the following type: Change into the passive voice; Put into the reported speech; Fill in with the correct preposition; Give the correct forms of the verbs between brackets, etc. Such textbooks may of course be useful in themselves as reference or test

materials. But usually they are not used for such purposes. In most cases they are meant to be used as teaching materials.

We have mentioned before that teaching a language does not mean giving explanations about it. The objective of language teaching is to acquire the ability to use the language for communication. To acquire this skill the students must form new sets of language habits which can be achieved through practice. In the formation of these habits, explanations may be helpful. But explanations should never become the aim of language teaching. They are only good as long as they serve as an aid in the formation of the habits desired. Therefore, the explanatory section should only take a small portion of the lesson. Based on experimental basis Cornelius states that the proportion between language content and explanation content should be 3 to 1; 75% of the lesson should be devoted to language content and not more than 25% given to explanation content. (6,p.27)

On the basis of this principle and our previous discussions of methods, we can say that a textbook designed for teaching the oral skills of English should contain the following elements:

- (1).A presentation consisting of a large body of materials taken from the spoken language, containing a problem structure, a problem sound or a problem vocabulary. This may take the form of a dialogue, a short story, a diary, a letter , etc.
- (2).Generalizations or commentaries about the language feature that has been learned. This section will provide the students with a knowledge of the way the language system functions. If necessary the explanatory section can be given in the mother tongue of the students.
- (3).Drill materials for reinforcing language habits. This section should consist of two parts, a teaching part and a testing part, which should take one-third to one-fourth the length of the teaching part (27,p.33).
- (4).Exercises designed to make the students acquire the ability to use the new-formed habit in free communication situation.
- (5).Exercises to prepare the students to read and write the language, after he has acquired the skills of oral-comprehension and speaking. When the students have reached a more advanced level in language learning so that they are ready to start with reading and writing, these exercises can be replaced by special orientation, reading and writing materials. According to Finocchiaro, orientation materials should be centered upon the socio-cultural patterns or experiences of

the English speaking countries (8,p.19).

- B. Teaching materials should be based on a systematic linguistic comparison between the second language and the mother tongue of the students.

This principle is based on the assumption that in learning a second language the learner will transfer units and patterns of his mother tongue to the second language. Units and patterns that are similar will be learnt easily and where structural differences occur, learning problems will exist.

It is also based on the fact that a systematic linguistic comparison between the second language and the mother tongue of the students will bring into light the structural similarities and differences of both languages.

The actual application of this principle to the teaching materials is found in the construction of materials designed for reinforcing pronunciation, structure and vocabulary. Units and patterns which are similar are not paid much attention to while units which are different and accordingly constitute learning problems, are practiced by means of drills and exercises to become habits.

The same principle is also applied to the materials used for teaching cultural content, by relating the second language to the mother tongue of the students, not in the traditional way through translation, but by giving identical situations to show how an idea that is expressed in a particular way in the mother tongue, is said in another way in the second language (6,p.123). The greeting "Good morning" when translated literally into Indonesian becomes "Baik pagi", which will of course make no sense. But if the teacher says "Good morning" when entering the classroom at 7 o'clock in the morning, the students will understand, that "Good morning" means "Selamat pagi" because of the identical situation in which the cultural content is put. This is a simple example but in the case of more complicated cultural contents we need a systematic linguistic comparison between the cultural patterns of the second language and the mother tongue of the students, to know what is said in the mother tongue and what might be said in English in an identical situation.

Since languages are different and no two languages differ from English in the same way, the above mentioned principle implies that the materials for each ethnic group should be specifically designed so as to furnish language practice to that ethnic group, in the specific aspects of language in which practice is needed.

C. Teaching materials should be based on spoken language

Since the aim of language teaching is to train the students to acquire the ability to use the language for communication and since communication is chiefly done through speech, in language teaching our interest should be centered on the spoken form of the language. It is therefore logical, that the teaching materials also present the spoken form of the language. This means that we should prefer materials which use the colloquial language rather than the literary or classical language and prefer expressions like "Look at that flower" and "John went to bed early" to expressions like "Behold yonder flower" and "John retired at an early hour".

In discussing colloquial language we cannot avoid the question of "correctness" versus "incorrectness" and "standard" versus "non-standard". Cornelius suggests that instead of discussing whether a certain expression is correct, standard or not, it is better to find out whether a given form is part of the language system or not, and if it is, whether it is the form that will attract least attention to itself and consequently will get maximum cooperation from the greatest number of speakers of the language (6,p.115).

The principle also implies that the textbook designed for teaching English as a second language should not contain "book" forms or "classroom dialect" (6,p.116) by presenting forms which have been chosen quite arbitrarily from the language system. Cornelius says that everything that is used in the classroom must be part of the foreign language system. Anything that is not said or would not be said by native speakers of the language must not be used in class (6,p.120).

D. Teaching materials should be graded.

In our previous discussion of methods we have already pointed out that language teaching should be done in graded steps. This principle is based on two assumptions :

- (1). Language is a structural system. As it is, all its elements fit and depend upon each other. This means that we cannot start teaching the language at any point or with anything we like. There are parts of the language that should be taught first because they are simpler, more useful and frequent, more teachable or because they will make clear what will be taught next. Other elements should be postponed until a certain element has been mastered.
- (2). The learning of a second language should be made as easy as possible. Grading is now a means of simplification and making

progress easier to attain.

If grading is important in language teaching it is important too in the construction of materials, not only because materials determine the method of teaching, but also because the ease and complexity of a textbook depends largely on how it is graded. In the classroom the teacher's voice, his way of expressing and explaining may help to make a difficult lesson become easy. But in facing a textbook the students are left to themselves to find out the information that the textbook gives.

How is this principle of grading applied to the teaching materials? In the first place, grading involves the order of arrangement of the language elements according to their ease and complexity. Regarding this, Mackey mentions 5 kinds of grading (18, p.46) :

- (1). Structural grading, which includes the grading of most of the elements that make up the structure of English from the more simple, more useful, more frequent, more teachable, more expansible and clearer to the less simple, less useful, less frequent, less teachable, less expansible and less clear.
- (2). Lexical grading, which for the greater part includes the grading of nouns, adjectives and verbs. Concrete nouns and adjectives are easier to teach than abstract ones and verbs that are more regular, easier to demonstrate, and more useful should come before those that are less regular, more difficult to demonstrate and less useful.
- (3). Semantic grading, which involves the grading of meanings both structural and lexical. Since some structures and lexical items have more than one meaning, there should also be grading in meanings. In doing this we should take care that basic structural and lexical meanings which will make the secondary meanings of the same structure and lexical item clear are introduced before these latter.
- (4). Phonetic grading, which involves the grading of the sound system from the more useful and easier to learn sounds to the less useful and complex ones.
- (5). Systematic grading, which involves the grading of the graded elements. Grading a language is not merely selecting from a selection. It is the building up of the selected elements into a system in the best order possible (18, p.58). Therefore after grading the structures, the lexical items, the meanings and the sound features, we still have to grade all these graded elements. This means that the words should fit into these phrases, the phrases into sentences, the senten -

ces into paragraphs and finally, the paragraphs into a unified and coherent composition.

Material grading not only involves the order of arrangement of the language elements, but also includes, according to Mackey, the question how much the new elements should be introduced at a time. The greater the number of new elements introduced at a time, the more difficult the material will be (18, p.56).

According to Lee, grading is not a purely linguistic problem, since besides language it also involves the teaching circumstances and the learner. Thus it is not merely a matter of what we grade and where, but also of who we grade for (17, p.88).

E. Teaching materials should be suited to the interest of the students.

Learning a foreign language is not only difficult, but sometimes also boring. Because of this fact, efforts have been made by modern experts in second language teaching to make the process of second language learning as easy and as interesting as possible. Audio-visual aids, games, songs, etc. have been introduced into the classroom to make language learning more interesting. Since the textbook is the most basic teaching material used in the classroom and in some way helps to create an interest in the students, it is also very important that textbooks and other teaching materials should be suited to the interest of the students. This means that teaching materials should be prepared for the different levels of learning. They should be written specifically for the age, intellectual capacity and scholastic level of the students for whom the materials are constructed, because materials which are interesting for a certain age level, intellectual level or scholastic level may be felt very boring for another level. Thus, materials for adult learners should be differently constructed from those meant for the elementary schools and materials meant for the S.P.G. should not be the same as the ones designed for the S.M.A., S.M.E.A. or S.K.K.A.

In addition to the factor of age, intellectual capacity and scholastic level, the factor of sex should also be taken into consideration. Things which are interesting for girls may not be interesting at all for boys. Girls, for example, like love stories but boys do not. On the other hand, boys like stories about aeroplanes, machines, wars, etc. which are not interesting at all for girls.

The principle mentioned above is especially to be applied to the selection and construction of reading and writing materials. However, it does not mean that it should not be applied to the construction of the other materials. In constructing drills and exercises we should also pay as much attention to factor of interest as to the other factors.

Up to now we have seen what the teaching materials in teaching English as a second language and the principles underlying their construction are. But not less important than teaching materials are the testing materials which will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER VI
TESTS AND EXAMINATIONS

In a second language teaching program, the most efficient results are attained when the teacher has definite objectives toward which to work and dependable instruments for determining progress, because with the first he will be able to direct his efforts toward the particular task to be accomplished and the second will enable him to know what he has accomplished. Therefore, besides discussing the objectives in this thesis, we think it also important to give some principles of testing English as a second language.

I. What are tests and examinations?

Before we go to the discussion of the principles of testing, it should be best to give some description of what tests and examinations are and what their significance is in teaching.

According to Nelson Brooks, the word "test" as used by Chaucer referred to a process of verifying the purity of precious metals by the application of heat. Brooks further explains that a glance at a roomful of present-day students hard at work at a test shows the aptness of the metaphor (5, p.199).

The term "test" is very widely used. It is used by scientists, psychologists, educators, teachers and many others. The term as used by teachers in the classroom usually refers to a set of problems in a certain subject that the students have to solve within the limited time given, usually with the purpose to measure their progress or to diagnose their strength and weaknesses within the skills or elements tested. So the chief service of tests lies in their power to act as a measurement in teaching, by revealing the strength and weaknesses of individual students or of the class as a whole. In connection with this last use of tests, valid and reliable tests can also act as a measuring device to evaluate materials and teaching methods. Inadequacies in materials and weak spots in particular method can be pointed out through the critical use of tests and the interpretation of their results.

However, tests as a pedagogical device cannot only serve as a measuring device. They can also be used as a teaching device by giving unity to portions of the material being studied in class at different times. A good test should be able to give

the students an integrated picture of the parts studied in class at different times.

Another by-product of the use of tests is its capability of creating certain psychological effects favourable for effective teaching and learning situations.

"The experience of the children while taking the test, and the feeling on the part of the teacher that his work is being carefully checked, are both motivating forces making for better and more effective teaching and learning situations." (11, p.5)

Examinations differ from tests in formality and in the quantity of material to be tested. Examinations are usually more formal in the way they are constructed, administered and graded. Tests are less formal. They can be constructed, administered and graded by the classroom teacher himself. In an informal classroom test the students can even score their own work. Besides being more formal, examinations usually involve a greater quantity of material to be tested, e.g. the learning material studied during 3 years, while in tests the material to be learned can cover only a small portion of, for instance, the English sound system. Because of these differences, examinations are usually considered to play a more important role in the public relations contacts of the school and greater significance is attached to examinations by the school as well as by the teachers, students, parents and society. According to the authors of "Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School", examinations in part serve as a means of revealing to both parent and student the basis for a student's scholastic rating, his promotions, failures, conditions, awards and preparation for further educational work, while for the teacher, they make possible the setting up of specific objectives and help him in revealing over-emphasis or wrong emphasis in a certain teaching method (11, p.6).

However, no matter how important examinations are, they should not be over-valued. Their aim usually does not go beyond an attempt to evaluate subject mastery. In and of themselves, they are incapable of directly improving instruction in any subject. Therefore, there is a danger that the real aims of education will be corrupted if the results of examinations are used to measure the teacher's professional status or the rank of the school.

II. Principles of testing English as a second language.

After we have got a clear idea of what tests and exam-

nations are, their significance and utility in teaching, we now come to the principles of testing themselves. However, instead of describing the techniques of testing we would rather emphasize the description of what is to be tested in testing English as a second language, since we consider this last question more important than the question of techniques. Teachers usually know much about techniques of testing, but they are less concerned with what the modern view considers essential in testing, what is to be tested.

A. Testing the language.

There are people who would like to test the language indirectly by testing the situation in which the language content is found. A language test is valid if among other things it tests language content and uses a valid situation. But what is more important, the situation or the language content? If we want to know whether an individual knows English, should we put him into various situations, the first day among students, the second day among cooks, the third day among doctors, etc. and find out whether he understands what is going on? Or should we test him to find out whether he has mastered all the elements of English? If we choose the first step, then we are using the situational approach, while the second way of testing is the language approach.

According to Lado, the second approach is to be preferred to the first, because the situational approach is more difficult to administer; situations in which language is the medium of communication are potentially infinite, while the language units and patterns through which all the meanings must be conveyed, are limited by the system of the language (14, p.164). Besides this if a person understands a certain situation, it is not a guarantee that he also understands the language involved in it. We can easily find situations in which one would understand what a speaker means without understanding the language. On the other hand, we frequently find out that we do not understand another native speaker of Indonesian, because we are not familiar with the subject matter. From this evidence we can draw the conclusion that in testing English as a second language, it is better to test the elements of English directly rather than testing the situation.

B. Testing the elements and skills separately.

We have agreed that in testing English we should test the language. But language is made up of elements, the sound sys-

tem, including the segmental and the suprasegmental phonemes which consist of stress, intonation, rhythm and juncture; the structure, which can be distinguished between morphology and syntax; and the vocabulary with its lexical and cultural meanings. Besides this we have also the four language skills: aural-comprehension, speaking, reading and writing. In learning the language the students cannot master all these elements and skills with the same speed and ease. Some of the language elements will be easier and thus faster to master while others are felt to be more difficult and will therefore be mastered slower. Because of this, it is more accurate and profitable if in testing English we test the segmental phonemes, stress and all the other elements and skills of the language separately. Lado says that this is necessary and that the choice of one or the other or a combination of them depends on the purpose and conditions of the test (15, p.28).

C. Testing the problems.

The next principle is a very important one in language testing. It is based on the principle of economy of time in testing, on the nature of language as a system of habits and on a structural understanding of language.

Although there is a close relationship between language teaching and language testing, yet there is a great difference between the two with regard to the time given. Very often we have to test within one hour all the materials that have to be learned during a whole year or even 3 years. Therefore, it is impossible for us to test all that we have taught in class and it becomes necessary that we should select a sample of the materials to be studied. In general we can make a random selection, however, based on Lado's theory that knowing the problems is knowing the language (15, p.20) the sample we select should consist of those units that constitute the learning problems.

D. Testing production is not the same as testing recognition.

Finally, in testing English as a second language we should make a distinction between testing recognition and testing production.

We have mentioned before that in language learning the learner unconsciously transfers the units and patterns of his native language to the second language. But the effects of this are not the same for the recognition and production of the language (16, p.59). When a person speaks the second language he focusses his attention on the message that he wants to convey,



transferring unconsciously the units of his mother tongue that would signal the message he has in mind. When he listens to the second language, he hears the units of the second language and gives meanings to them as they would have in his own language.

Although it may seem that the effect should be the same yet from particular examples we will see that a difference exists. An Indonesian learner of English, for example, will have a difficulty in using the linking verb "be" in an utterance like "He is a doctor", since in his language no linking verb is needed to express the same thought. Consequently, the learner will tend to neglect the use of the linking verb in speaking the language. But in listening, he will have no trouble to see that the utterance "He is a doctor" is the equivalent of the Indonesian utterance "Dia dokter".

On the contrary, the phoneme / z / in final position is both a production and a recognition problem for the Indonesian students learning English. In Indonesian we do not have the above mentioned phoneme used with the same distribution as in English. Thus when an Indonesian student hears the sound / z / as in "has", he attaches meaning to it as it would have in his own language. But since Indonesian does not know this sound, he would interpret it to be identical with a similar existing sound in Indonesian, the sound / s /. Consequently, it will be difficult for him to see that the final sounds in "books" and "has" are not similar. When he speaks English, he will transfer the same sound from his mother tongue to the second language and will say / pins / instead of / pinz /.

From the above examples we see that the problems of recognition are not the same as those of production. Accordingly, the testing of production problems should also be done differently from the testing of recognition problems.

III. Criteria of a good test.

We have seen that tests can be very important as a measuring or diagnostic device. However, not all tests are good for this purpose. The selection or construction of tests and examinations of any type of testing situation requires a careful consideration of the characteristics of a good examination. Very often teachers come across final S.M.P. or S.M.A. examinations which they feel to be not quite valid or good, but their judgment is largely guided by their own personal opinions. However, if they know exactly the criteria for the evaluation of tests

and examinations, they will make a better judgement of the tests and examinations that they are going to administer. Knowledge of the criteria is especially important since standardized tests made by experts are not yet common in our country and so the classroom teacher is usually forced to construct his own tests and examinations. Therefore, we would like to spend the remainder of this chapter for the discussion of the criteria for the evaluation of tests and examinations.

With regard to this, test specialists usually have their own way of listing and classifying the criteria. The authors of "Measurement and Evaluation in the Secondary School" mention 9 criteria for the evaluation of tests and examinations in general which we consider also good as criteria to evaluate second language tests. (11, p.52-71).

A. Validity.

The first criterion is validity. A test is valid if it measures what it wants to measure. Thus a structure test to be valid, should only measure structure and nothing else. Validity is a specific rather than a general criterion. It is specific in the sense that it refers to a particular test meant for one particular group of students. A valid structure test may be an invalid vocabulary test because it does not measure vocabulary. And the same structure test may be valid for the first year students of the I.K.I.P. but not for, for instance, the second class of the S.M.A.

The validity of an examination also depends upon the efficiency with which it measures what it wants to measure. According to Lado, in a language test this efficiency depends on the linguistic content of the test and on the situation used to test this content(15, p.30). A test that uses a valid technique but test something other than the elements of language is not valid. Neither is a test valid if it tests the elements of language but does not use a communication situation. Questions like : "Mention the parts of speech in English", "Give a definition of an adverb" , "Give the opposites of : tall; little; cold; beautiful etc." are not valid since although they test language content , they do not use valid situations. On the other hand, a question can also use a valid situation, but does not test any language content, e.g. "The capital of Indonesia is.....".

Validity is usually measured statistically. However, an way to determine the validity of a test, that can be used by the classroom teacher is by using the curricular validity method

which according to above mentioned authors can be achieved if in the selection or construction of tests and examinations, the teacher makes certain that the test deals with the types of educational outcomes he wishes to measure and is at the proper level of difficulty for his students. Textbooks, courses of study, the writing of subject matter specialists can serve as evidence to guide the teacher in considering test validity from this standpoint (11,p.55).

B. Reliability.

The second criteria is reliability. A test is reliable if it is consistent. Reliability is in fact an aspect of validity because a test may be reliable without being valid, but it cannot be valid unless it is reliable. But unlike validity, reliability is general. If a test is reliable, it will remain reliable regardless of what we test or for whom the test is meant to be given.

Reliability , just like validity is determined statistically. One method commonly used is by correlating the scores of two equivalent forms of the same test given to the same group of students. If the scores of the first and the second test do not differ much, then we can say that the first test is reliable. When two forms of the same test are not available or cannot be given conveniently, the same test can be given twice to the same group of students, provided that no instruction is given between the two tests.

Validity and reliability are two important criteria in the evaluation of tests and examinations. Validity refers to the truth of the picture of the ability or achievement revealed by the test and reliability refers to the consistency with which the test reveals this picture.

C. Adequacy.

We have mentioned before that in testing we should select samples of the material to be studied. In doing this we have agreed to select the learning problems as samples. But there is still one thing that we should take into consideration in taking samples, that is, that the items selected should be adequate.

"Adequacy is the degree to which a test samples sufficiently widely that the resulting scores are representative of relative total performance in the areas measured". (11,p.64)

A test lacks adequacy if it is to test the English sound system and consists of 50 items but spends 40 numbers to test the English intonation and spends only 10 numbers to test the segmental phonemes, stress and rhythm. The scores resulting from this test

cannot be said to represent the students' knowledge of the English sound system because a student who has only mastered the English intonation can get a higher score than a student who has mastered the whole English sound system except intonation.

Validity, reliability and adequacy are the most important criteria for the evaluation of tests and examinations. From these general criteria we will deduce some specific characteristics of a good test, in order to make the criteria more concrete and the evaluation more exact.

We have discussed reliability as one of the important characteristics of a good test. But the reliability of a test also depends upon its objectivity. A test is objective if the teacher's personal judgment does not affect the scoring of the test. Since no two persons can have the same personal judgment, over a certain piece of work, the subjective factor in the marking of examination papers can have a great influence in the consistency of the scores. Therefore, the objectivity in a test helps to increase its reliability.

Since the validity of a test or examination depends on the efficiency with which it measures what it attempts to measure, it is also influenced by the administrability, scorability, comparability and economy of the test or examination.

A test should be easy to administer viewed from two angles: that of the students and that of the teacher. The test should be such that it can be given under the conditions that prevail and by the teacher that is available. From the point of view of the students, the instructions accompanying the test should be clear and where necessary, examples should be given.

Scorability means that the test can be easily scored by the teacher or even other persons not well acquainted with its content. Objective tests are usually more scorable than subjective tests. But even objective tests vary in their scorability. Some are so objective that they can even be scored by machines, while others still need some personal judgment of the teacher.

With regard to comparability, there is no need to discuss it here in detail, since although as a characteristic in itself it is important, yet it is not very important for the average language teachers in Indonesia. Comparability can usually only be found in standardized tests by the availability of duplicate forms of the test by which results from testing before and after a unit of instruction can be made comparable and by the availability of adequate norms by which individual students or class groups can be compared with average performance for stu -

dents of similar age or grade placement.

Economy is a practical criterion. A test is economical if it measures what it wants to measure without depending too much on financial outlay and does not take too much time and effort.

Finally, besides the three main criteria and the five more specific characteristics deduced from them, a test or examination should possess utility, which means that it satisfactorily serves a definite need in the situation in which it is used. Tests should not be used only for the satisfaction of curiosity or for any other unimportant purposes. Unless they are selected and constructed for definitely conceived purposes and their results used in an intelligent attempt to bring about the desired results, they are of little value.

IV. Examples of tests.

In the preceding part of this chapter we have discussed the principles of language testing based on the theory of language and second language learning mentioned in Chapter II. In addition to this we have also discussed the general requirements which are commonly found in good tests and examinations. To give concrete illustrations of all these we would like to give an example of a recognition test on pronunciation and a production test on vocabulary, both meant for the first class of the S.M.P.

A. Pronunciation test.

Recognition test on the problem sound /ð/.

Instruction : "I am going to read a pair of words. Write down the letter 'S' if they are similar and 'D' if they are different."

Test items:

1. rush - ruse
2. son - sun
3. price - price
4. Paris - parish
5. nation - nation
6. save - shave
7. brush - brush
8. nice - nice
9. side - side
10. self - shelf
11. show - show

12. Russia - Russia
13. son - shun
14. leisure - leisure
15. seat - seat
16. short - shot
17. shoot - suit
18. shoot - shoot
19. short - sort
20. present - present

Instruction: "Write down the number '1' if you hear the sound /ʃ/ and write down the number '2' if you hear the sound /s/."

Test items:

1. seat
2. show
3. measure
4. dress
5. machine
6. reddish
7. nice
8. shine
9. sew
10. present
11. finish
12. fashion
13. piece
14. Paris
15. parish
16. pleasure
17. brush
18. shy
19. shine
20. son

B. Vocabulary test.

Production test on lexical units using a foreign language content technique.

Instruction: "Fill in the blanks with the correct word."

Test items:

1. A man who writes books is called a.....
2. A man that makes clothes for men is called a.....
3. You cut with a.....

4. A painter is a person who.....
5. A person who cannot see is.....
6. If you want to buy a book you go to the.....
7. A baker is a person who makes.....
8. A deaf person cannot.....
9. A place where you can buy and sell things is called a.....
10. My father's father is my.....

The merit of tests like these is that they give very definite information as to what the pupils have learned, who has learned the problems, aside from the motivation that they give to the students to learn their lessons. The results reveal how far the pupils have advanced, how good the method is, how well the teacher is succeeding, etc. They may also indicate how materials can be improved.

CHAPTER VII

PREPARATION OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER

We have discussed the objectives of teaching English as the goal of our efforts and the final outcomes that we want to achieve. We have also discussed the methods and materials as some of the devices to attain these objectives. But methods and materials are not the only means to achieve them. The teacher of English plays also a very important role in the achievement of the objectives. To do him justice, therefore, we would like to give some description of the English language teacher in this chapter. But having in mind the purpose of this work and considering that the quality of a teacher largely depends on his professional preparation, our discussion will be mainly concerned with the preparation of the English language teacher who is going to teach English as a second language in Indonesia.

I. The English language teacher: the person and his work.

In order to know the kind of training the English language teacher needs, it is good for us to know first what he is and what he does.

The term "English language teacher" already suggests that he is chiefly concerned with the teaching of the English language. Teaching English has its own significance. English is a second language in Indonesia and teaching a second language needs a special consideration.

Based on Lado's definition of second language learning (14,p.38) we can define second language teaching as "training the students to acquire the ability to use its structure within a general vocabulary under essentially the conditions of normal communication among native speakers at conversational speed."

In Chapter II we have said that language is a set of habits for oral production and reception. Training the students to acquire the ability to use the language involves the training to form new language habits, and the formation of these habits is best done through imitation and repetition. We have also indicated the role of the native language factor in the formation of these habits and the learning problems it causes.

In the same chapter, and also in the following one, we have pointed out the relationship between language and culture. Although we are not going to repeat what we have said, since we will deal further with this in the next part, yet we would like

to stress here, that in teaching English as a second language the teacher must touch upon the cultural content that is communicated through language; the language teacher namely does in fact teach culture when he teaches a language (14,p.25).

Under the same term mentioned in the second paragraph of this part we also understand that the English language teacher is a teacher by profession. As a teacher he is also an educator. Although this is not a special characteristic of the language teacher, yet it will be good if we expand this idea further here since there is so much that the English language teacher as a foreign language teacher can achieve in the field of education.

Education is the harmonious development of man in all his faculties. In developing the complex faculties of an individual, the educator chooses a certain system of education based on his own philosophy. The Catholic philosophy of education believes that man has spiritual and physical potential capacities which should be developed harmoniously. Both the soul and the body which form a unit, are valuable. However, since there is a hierarchy of value, education puts emphasis on the development of the spiritual faculties, consisting of the will, the mind and the imagination, without denying the development of the body. The education that the students receive at school consists primarily of an intellectual education, aiming at the development of the mind. By studying the various subjects at school, e.g. mathematics, chemistry, physics, history, languages, etc., they will not only obtain the knowledge that each individual subject conveys, but they will also get the intellectual skills which enable them among others to think freely, constructively and accurately.

But the language teacher can do more than just contribute to the intellectual education of the students. Besides the mind and the physical faculties there are still the will, imagination and emotions that should be developed as well. The development of the will which contributes to the character-training and personality-forming of the individual, can be done through the study of religion, theology and ethics, and is therefore not so much the concern of the language teacher. However, in the development of the imagination and the emotions, especially the aesthetic ones, a field where the study of language and literature is so important, the language teacher can make a positive contribution.

The foreign language teacher can even contribute more since learning to hear and produce new sounds is to some extent a way to develop some of the physical faculties : an auditory

and a visual process is involved in listening and reading, while in speaking and writing there is a motor process involved.

We have so far given a description of the work that the English language teacher does as a second language teacher, and in doing so we hope that we have also given a picture of the person.

II. Preparation of the English language teacher.

Having made clear in our minds what kind of person the English language teacher is and what kind of work he does, we now come to a more detailed discussion of his professional preparation. With regard to this, Lado says that the language teacher must have the general professional preparation of a teacher and special qualification in the field of the foreign language he teaches (14, p.8). To make this clear we will discuss these points one by one.

A. General professional preparation.

Since the profession of a classroom teacher cannot be separated from his task as an educator, we are of the opinion that under the general professional preparation of the language teacher is also included the preparation to become an educator besides the preparation to become a classroom teacher. Therefore the general professional preparation of the English language teacher will consist of the study of various sciences, e.g. methodology, psychology, sociology, pedagogy, etc. However, we are not going to expand on these. We but just mention them.

B. Special professional preparation.

The special professional preparation consists of the study of various sciences which, because of their importance, will be discussed individually.

1. Proficiency in the English language.

In the first part of this chapter we have mentioned that learning a language is forming new sets of habits, and that the formation of these habits can best be done through imitation and repetition. This can be done by means of the live voice of the teacher, tape-recorders or any other technological instrument. Since in most cases in Indonesia, students learn English by imitating the classroom teacher, and repeating what he has modelled it is necessary that the student teacher who wants to teach English, knows the language he is going to teach well enough to serve as a correct model for his students. This means that he is

not only able to use the language elements freely, but that he is also able to use, if not all, then certainly a number of pronunciation features and idiomatic expressions. It also implies, according to Lado, that although it is adequate for him to use one standard variety of the language in speaking, and one acceptable style in writing, yet it is necessary for him to understand, in listening, the various major dialects, and in reading the various major forms including literature generally understood by the educated public (14,p.9). However, we hold that understanding the various major dialects is too difficult a requirement to be attained by the prospective English language teachers in our country. For the present we must be satisfied if the English language teacher teaching at the S.M.P. or S.M.A. knows the language well enough that he can serve as a good model for his students.

2. Knowledge of linguistics.

We have discussed the importance for the student teacher of having a proficiency in the language he is going to teach. But being able to speak the language is not enough to become a qualified language teacher. The task of the English language teacher in teaching English is not only to become a model but also to isolate and demonstrate the various elements of language, to give a description of the structure of English. In order to acquire this ability he must have studied descriptive linguistics which give a thorough knowledge of the structure of language and the analysis of a language in terms of its phonemes, morphemes and structures.

Gleason describes descriptive linguistics as " the discipline which studies language in terms of their internal structures" (10,p.iii). This internal structure of language can be described in terms of its phonemes and morphemes. The branch of linguistics which is concerned with the analysis, description and classification of the phonemes is called phonology while morphology is concerned with the study of morphemes. Some linguists make a distinction between morphology and syntax in describing the branch of linguistics which is concerned with the analysis, description and classification of morphemes. According to them, morphology is only concerned with the patterns of arrangement of morphemes into words, while the arrangement of words into longer utterances is the concern of syntax.

Even as a model the English language teacher needs to know the internal structure of the English language in order to be able to guide his students in their efforts to imitate him. If

he knows, for example, not only how to pronounce the first sound in the word "pen", but can also give a description of how to pronounce it, he will help his students better in learning to produce the sound.

From the contribution it gives to language teaching we can draw the conclusion that a knowledge of descriptive linguistics is indispensable for the preparation of language teachers. However, not less important is the contribution of comparative linguistics.

In Chapter II we have said that to find out the differences between the structures of the second language and the mother tongue, we need the help of linguistics. The kind of linguistics which compares the structures of two languages to determine the points where they differ is called comparative linguistics.

In comparative linguistics the linguist may compare a phoneme in English with a similar phoneme in the mother tongue. In the same way, he may also compare a sequence of phonemes, a sentence pattern, etc. From this comparison he will then be able to give a description concerning the similarities and differences.

A knowledge of comparative linguistics is very important for the prospective language teacher, since by knowing the differences between English and the mother tongue of the students the learning problems can be anticipated. This has the value that the teacher can prepare his materials and tests better and can correct the students' mistakes in the right way.

Comparing two language structures can be done easily if complete linguistic analysis of both languages are available. However, because of the lack of professional linguists in Indonesia and because of the great number of languages that are the mother tongues of Indonesian students learning English, we cannot expect to find a complete linguistic analysis of all the languages spoken in this country. To solve this problem Gleason suggests that the language teacher himself should do partial analyses of the mother tongue(s) of his students. He adds that language teacher need not make a complete analysis like that of a professional linguist. However, it should be such as to direct his attention to the trouble spots (10, p. 351). This presupposes that the prospective language teacher is also prepared in the art of analyzing a language.

Descriptive and comparative linguistics are the least that the student teacher should know in the field of linguistics.

Besides these two kinds of linguistics, Lado also suggests that the prospective language teacher some historical linguistics in order to understand the present state of the language better and thereby perhaps perfect his teaching of the same (14,p.9).

As to the amount of linguistics that the prospective language teacher needs , Ernest Pulgram states that the study of linguistics is not meant to make the prospective language teachers full-fledged professional linguists, but he suggests that the lower the level at which a language teacher is expected to teach, the more he must know of linguistics because it is at the earlier stages of language learning that the greatest problems must be overcome (22,p.82).

3. Knowledge of principles of second language teaching.

Besides linguistics, the prospective second language teacher must also know the principles of second language teaching, since this will provide him with a knowledge of the true nature of language, what language is and what it does, what is significant in language, what is superfluous and what is indispensable. It also gives him the information of the process of second language learning, how it differs from the process of learning the mother tongue, what problems these differences bring and how they can be overcome. All these will provide him with the right insight of language and language learning. Therefore, in teaching the language he will know what he should teach, in what order of importance, what the effect will be and it may help him with the knowledge to choose the appropriate methods, the suitable materials and the right tests for achieving the objectives. Accordingly, his teaching will be more effective and efficient .

The principles of second language teaching mentioned above are practically consequences derived from the speculations of linguistic science and the psychology of learning. In fact it can be discussed under the heading of linguistics, but to stress their significance in the professional preparation of the language teacher, we put them under a separate heading.

4. Knowledge of methods.

To the special professional preparation of the language teacher belongs also the study of methods and techniques of teaching the second language. The methods class will make the student teacher familiar with the theoretical and practical side of the techniques and procedures of teaching English as a second language. He knows the techniques and procedures of teaching the language elements, the language skills, culture, literature, etc. according to the principles given, has the skill to use these

techniques and procedures in class and knows their effectiveness, special strength and weaknesses. It also makes him acquainted with the techniques of preparing teaching and testing materials.

The study of methods also involves a knowledge of the materials - textbooks, visual aids and technological aids - used with each technique or procedure, and a skill to put them into use in the classroom.

5. Knowledge of the English culture.

From the many discussions on culture in the preceding chapters, it should be clear that teaching a second language involves the teaching of its culture. This means that the student teacher who wants to teach English as a second language, must not only have a cultural insight into the target culture, but must also know what cultural content to teach and how to teach them. For this purpose, special lectures on English culture, cultural seminars and the reading of books about English culture, will help him a great deal.

6. Knowledge of literature.

When discussing the objectives of second language teaching we have mentioned that one of the long-range objectives in teaching a second language is the attainment of a literary appreciation. Therefore, one of the subjects that the student teacher needs in his professional preparation is the study of literature. But the literature class here should not only aim to teach literature as a fine art. Besides giving the student teacher information about the literature of the second language, it should also aim to train the student teacher to acquire the ability to analyze, explicate and explain a literary piece of work.

Apart from the above mentioned reason, literature is also important in the preparation of the language teacher. We have mentioned that the study of literature is a good way of developing the imagination and the aesthetic emotions of an individual. Considering this fact, and having in mind that the study of English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. is part of the total personal development of the students rather than part of their training as literary critics or translators, we can say that the study of literature forms a good preparation for the prospective language teacher in performing his task as an educator, since the more his personality is developed, the better he can help his students in their personal development.

Since sciences are not static, but grow and develop, the teacher should keep abreast with developments in linguistic and

language fields through magazines, books, bulletins, courses and seminars on teaching English as a second language. He will then remain a well-informed and efficient language teacher.

CHAPTER VIII
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In the introductory chapter we have stated that our purpose in writing this work is to give teachers of English who teach at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. the right linguistic view and principles of teaching English as a second language in Indonesia. But principles will remain a set of abstract ideas unless they are applied to the actual teaching activity in the classroom. And since our purpose is to propose a concrete view of language and second language teaching rather than to present a set of abstract ideas, we have in writing this work, not only given the general principles of language and second language learning as a basis and starting point for our discussions, but we have also shown how these principles can be applied to the actual teaching activity in the classroom, and where necessary we have given examples to show how they can be put into concretization. In doing this, it has been necessary for us to repeat certain principles throughout the whole thesis, sometimes using the same words as found before, sometimes phrasing them in a slightly different way.

Although the title of this work is "The linguistic approach to second language teaching" and the principles discussed throughout the thesis can be applied to the teaching of any second language, yet to make it more concrete, we have taken English as the second language to be taught and we have restricted ourselves to the discussion of teaching English at the S.M.P and S.M.A. We have chosen English since this is the language that is most widely taught of all the foreign languages learned as a second language in our country.

Based on the characteristics of language, we have mentioned that teaching a second language is to train the students to acquire the ability to use the language elements as a set of habits for oral production and reception in free communication situation.

To achieve this, we have proposed a method which we call "the linguistic method" which is based on the science of modern linguistics and its theory concerning language and second language learning, without neglecting the psychological factors involved in language learning. To make it more concrete, we have given examples of how to apply this method to the teaching of pronunciation, structure and vocabulary.

Besides discussing the method we have also discussed the

materials of teaching English as a second language and we have shown how the general principles that we have proposed at the beginning of this work, can be applied to the teaching materials. In connection with this, we have mentioned that teaching materials should be designed to teach the language, should be based on a systematic linguistic comparison between the second language and the mother tongue of the students, should be graded and should be suited to the interest of the students.

Principles of second language teaching should be applied to the tests and examinations as well. Therefore, tests should test the language, should test the elements and skills separately, should test the problems and should make a distinction between testing production and testing recognition. In addition to this, they should also meet certain requirements which are commonly found in good tests.

Finally, the preparation of the language teacher also decides the result of the language course. Thus by applying our principles of language and second language teaching to the preparation of the language teacher, we can expect that the teaching of English as a second language in Indonesia will have far better results.

As a conclusion we can say that the linguistic view of language and second language teaching is not merely a set of abstract ideas or theoretical concepts which are only good as discussion topics for linguists and scholars, but that they can also be made concrete and applied to the actual teaching of English as a second language. By applying the correct principles of language and second language teaching in the right way to all the factors involved in the activity of teaching English as a second language at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. we may expect that the teaching of English at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. will bring far greater results.

In addition to this, considering that the result of the English course at the S.M.P. and S.M.A. also depends on the preparation of the language teachers who teach English in above mentioned schools, we would like to suggest that the ideas contained in this thesis should be inserted into the curriculum of all I.K.I.P. English Departments, P.G.S.L.P. English Departments and other training colleges preparing English language teachers for the S.M.P. and S.M.A. And seminars to disseminate these ideas should be made available to teachers of English who have not had the benefit of a good language teaching course.

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