

LADO AND FRIES'  
"ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS"  
AND  
"ENGLISH PATTERN PRACTICES"  
AS TEXTBOOKS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH AS A  
FOREIGN LANGUAGE IN INDONESIA

A Thesis  
presented to  
the English Department  
Sanata Dharma  
Teachers' Training Institute

In partial fulfilment  
of the requirements for the  
Sardjana Degree

by

Soeheru



Jogjakarta

December 1967

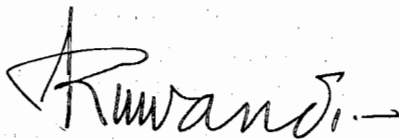
Approved by

I.



( Drs. E. Bolsius S.J. )

II.



( Drs. A. Rudy Tan Han Giok )

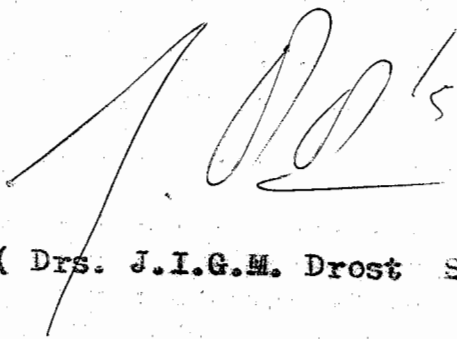
Rector of

I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma

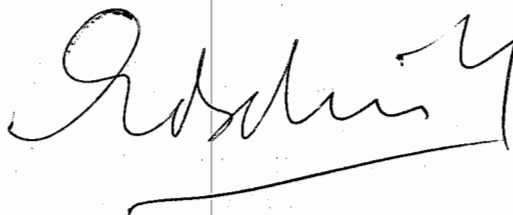
Head of the

English Department

I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma



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



( Drs. E. Bolsius S.J. )

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer is deeply indebted to the Rev. Father E. Bolsius S.J., Head of the English Department of the "Fakultas Sastra dan Seni" I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, for his patient guidance and stimulating encouragement and for the invaluable suggestions and corrections he has made, without which the thesis would never have looked as it looks now.

He also owes a considerable debt of gratitude to the Rev. Father F. de van der Schueren S.J., former Head of the English Department, and lecturer of Linguistics in I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, who has given him great help and valuable suggestions in choosing the topic and finding sources of material for the thesis.

He is no less grateful to Mr. Rudy Tan Han Giok, lecturer of English in I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma, for the time and energy he has spent on reading the manuscript.

At last the writer also wishes to express his gratitude to each member of the Teachers Staff of the Graduate Division of the English Department, for having painstakingly contributed a lot of invaluable knowledge to him.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS . . . . .	iii
INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
CHAPTER I. BACKGROUND PICTURE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE LEARNING BE- FORE 1940 . . . . .	4
A. The condition of language teach- ing and language learning . . . . .	4
B. A word on the inadequacy of the traditional texts . . . . .	10
C. The English Language Institute of the University of Michigan and its activities . . . . .	12
CHAPTER II. MODERN VIEWS ABOUT LANGUAGE, LEARN- ING, AND LANGUAGE LEARNING . . . . .	16
A. Modern views about language . . . . .	16
B. Modern views about learning and language learning . . . . .	20
CHAPTER III. PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE LEARNING OF THE "ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE" . . . . .	25
1. Linguistic principles . . . . .	25
2. Principles of second language learning or teaching . . . . .	27
CHAPTER IV. "ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS" AND "ENGLISH PATTERN PRACTICES" : THE ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS . . . . .	36
A. Objectives of the textbooks . . . . .	36
B. Organization of materials of the "English Sentence Patterns" . . . . .	37
C. The organization of the "English Pattern Practices" . . . . .	46

	Page
CHAPTER V. A SAMPLE OF LESSON ORGANIZATION IN "ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS" . . . . .	48
CHAPTER VI. AN EXAMPLE OF THE PROCEDURE OF CON- DUCTING A LESSON PRESENTATION TO THE CLASS . . . . .	57
CHAPTER VII. PROBLEMS FOR THE INDONESIAN STU- DENTS LEARNING ENGLISH . . . . .	69
A. Problems in acquiring a grasp on various tenses in English . . . . .	69
B. Problems in mastering the inter- rogative constructions . . . . .	82
C. Problems in mastering the con- struction of negative sentences. . . . .	90
D. Problems in maintaining the a- greement between the questions and their answers . . . . .	94
E. Problems in mastering the Eng- lish articles and some other de- terminatives (noun determiners). . . . .	99
CHAPTER VIII. EVALUATION OR JUDGMENTS . . . . .	110
A. The materials and the Indonesian students . . . . .	110
B. Ideal setting . . . . .	111
C. Cultural contents and vocabulary grading . . . . .	112
D. A word about the method . . . . .	114
E. Weaknesses of pattern practice as an approach to language learn- ing . . . . .	116
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	119

## INTRODUCTION

Success in teaching and learning a Foreign Language depends for the greater part upon several factors such as condition, method, material, objective, and personnel. When each of these factors fulfils the required standard, the learning is likely to bring to a satisfactory result.

The importance of materials in Foreign Language teaching and learning, especially for adults, who have mastered at least one language, is shown by Charles C. Fries in his Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language.

He says that "If an adult is to gain a satisfactory proficiency in a foreign language most quickly and easily he must have satisfactory materials upon which to work - i.e. he must have the really important items of the language selected and arranged in a properly related sequence with special emphasis upon the chief trouble spots." (p. 5). There Fries shows what the satisfactory materials must contain.

The coming chapters result from the writer's experience in using, as a source of materials, the two volumes produced by the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan under the directorship of Charles C. Fries and Robert Lado, that are called "English Sentence Patterns" and "English Pattern Practices". Having used the textbooks first in his pursuit of the mastery of English as a student, and then as a teacher for about three years in the Teachers' Training Institute, the writer has become strongly convinced that the materials

can, to a great extent, satisfy the student's need. Therefore, he is interested in dealing with something that has to do with those books, and thus he chose them as a topic for his writing. The points that he attempts to discuss in the following chapters are the following:

Chapter I will bring forward a short account of what has been said about the conditions of language teaching in the United States before 1940. This will give a picture of the background of the attempts to establish new teaching materials. In the second part of this chapter there will be a short discussion on the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan and its activities concerning Foreign Language Teaching.

The second Chapter will consist of an attempt to describe the modern views about language and language learning; they form a great contribution of modern linguists, and constitute a firm foundation for the preparation of materials. It is followed by another Chapter in which the writer tries to find out and then to illustrate the basic assumptions that have become the principles upon which the materials have been based. Two kinds of principles will be mentioned in this section, that is, the Linguistic principles and the principles of Second (Foreign) Language Learning.

The next Chapter is devoted to the discussion on the two books themselves, the "English Sentence Patterns" and the "English Pattern Practices", with regard to the purpose, the development and organization of materials, and the procedures of presentation.

In Chapter V the writer wants to take, as a sample, a lesson from the "English Sentence Patterns", and to de-

scribe the build-up of the materials, the organization, and the approach. Similarly, Chapter VI will present an example of the technique for presenting a lesson unit of Pattern Practice to the class-room; whereas Chapter VII will deal with some of the difficulties for Indonesian pupils in particular, and suggest some pattern practices particularly useful to them.

The last Chapter of this writing ( Chapter VIII ) consists of the writer's own evaluation or judgments on the materials and on Pattern Drill Approach. He would like to show how the textbooks may be adopted for the Indonesian students and what the ideal setting will be for the proper pattern-practice class. Finally he will also point out some possible dangers or defects of Pattern Practice as an approach to language learning.



## CHAPTER I

### BACKGROUND PICTURE OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE LEARNING BEFORE 1940

#### A. The condition of language teaching and language learning.

Before discussing the textbooks published under the directorship of Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries, it might be good to illustrate in brief the background situation of teaching and learning foreign languages, particularly in the United States.

Most of the teachers who formerly taught a foreign language, although they might have "studied" the language very well, did not know the nature of language and language learning as such. They did not realize what made up language and how language really operated and functioned in society. Hardly anyone saw quite clearly what the most basic characteristic features of language were that had to be mastered by one who was learning the language, and so when they tried to apply their knowledge of language in the classroom they completely failed to achieve the desired results. Most of the school time was spent on learning about language.

One of the other defects was the idea that the process of learning a foreign language is the same as that of learning a native tongue. This belief led to the wrong approach to foreign language learning and teaching, in which the learner was exposed to the language like a child that is forced to understand and to

get control of the mother tongue by means of its social environment.

The past trends of language teaching and learning can best be understood through the types of methods employed in the teaching.

### 1. "Grammar-translation" methods

These methods proved to be the oldest approach in the history of language teaching, and were adopted in most schools all over the world. Even at present their remnants are still easy to find in many schools and places-

Until the end of the nineteenth century, language learning had become grammar recitation and dictionary thumbing. The students defined the parts of speech, memorized conjugations, declensions, and grammar 'rules', and translated selections, using a bilingual dictionary or glossary. (Robert Lado's Language Teaching, p. 4 )

The methods were based on Faculty Psychology, which assumed that "appropriate training would improve the faculties so that they would function more efficiently whenever used thereafter". In this case, "rational memory" and "deductive reasoning" were stressed. Language was taught as a "disciplinary subject", that is, it was intended to exercise the mind. As a result, the students became "experts" in grammar analysis and probably good readers of easy as well as difficult texts, but very poor speakers of the language they studied.

### 2. Direct Methods

As a reaction against the grammar-translation methods, there was a movement that emphasized language learning by direct contact with the foreign language in meaningful situations. This movement resulted in

various individual methods with various names, such as new method, reform method, natural method, and even oral method, but they can all be referred to as direct methods or the direct method. (Robert Lado's Language Teaching, p. 4)

"The central idea of this method is the association of words and sentences with their meaning through dramatization, demonstration, pointing, etc." Grammar is reduced to a minimum, whereas the language is taught functionally with little or no recourse to grammatical rules. On the one hand the direct method deemphasized or eliminated translation and all types of conventional grammar exercises, and on the other hand it introduced, in some cases, phonetics and phonemic transcriptions. Conversation, discussion, and reading in the language itself form an important part of the work.

The direct method is brought forward by the 'IQ' psychologists, who believed, after some laboratory experiments on IQ, that "learning does not improve the mind in any general sense but that the things learned may influence the learner's later adjustments", as shown by the fact that one's IQ remains more or less constant. With a better understanding of the limitations in the way of transfer of training, these psychologists advocated the so called "direct teaching", i.e. the teaching of anything in the way it is to be used. (See Robert S. Ellis: "Educational Psychology", p. 158)

Although the method did not gain much hearing in the United States, it certainly has thrown light on the modern study of foreign language. In the 1930's, for a variety of reasons, the advocates of it "drifted into the more limited goal of a reading knowledge, this was a purely passive understanding of graded readings with

dictionary help on difficult words." (Lado's Language Teaching, p. 5)

### 3. Linguistic Approach

By 1938 people belonging to the Linguistics Society of America had, in their search for proper materials, attempted to apply the findings of Modern scientific studies of language to the practical teaching in schools. This approach, like the direct method, has got several different names, like the 'new approach', the 'aural - oral' approach, and the 'audio-lingual method'.

It is marked by its objectives which are clearly defined: proficiency in language skills that are to be mastered "in their proper order", i.e., Listening or Understanding, Speaking, Reading, and Writing; to be accompanied by familiarity with the culture that the language represents, as well as a larger view of life resulting from the realization that there are many cultures and value systems, some far different from the native culture of the learner, operating in the world of today. In this regard modern linguists have insisted on the imitation and memorization of basic conversational sentences as spoken by native speakers of the language in real life's communication. (See W.M. Rivers' The Psychologists and the Foreign Language Teacher, p. 12)

The method became popular during World War II, when people who could speak foreign languages were badly needed by the United States armed forces. By then, the method was still on the start, and, therefore, it had not been fully recognized by the majority of teachers and textbook writers. It is now being widely used in schools

throughout the world. Further discussion on this subject will be found in Chapter III.

The year 1940 is taken in this section as a 'milestone' in the course of language teaching and learning, a turning point where the hard, old path gives way to a much smoother and wider one that leads to a new direction.

Although many linguists have felt the importance of applying the results of linguistics to the teaching of foreign languages since early in the beginning of this century, it was not until 1940 that any considerable body of linguists assumed the role of active language teachers and attempted the application. How and why such an attempt was made can be understood by considering the status of foreign language teaching in the United States during the two immediately preceding decades.

Foreign language study during the 1920's and 1930's was characterized by three features:

1. "First of all, there was very little foreign language learning going on at the time." Not many of the people in the States were interested in foreign language study. Relatively few of the High School students took the course in a foreign language, but even of them, only "some would keep up for more than two years" while the rest dropped the language by the end of the second year of study. In the colleges usually there was only one foreign language required of every student for his graduation; and here again the knowledge gained was not more than could be learned in two years of study.

Nowhere in the educational system was such a [genuinely useful] knowledge of one or more foreign languages made a requirement for anyone

says William G. Moulton in his report. (See: "Trends in European and American Linguistics, 1930-1960", pp. 82 - 83).

2. Secondly, the study was limited to very few languages. In the high schools, the study included Latin, Spanish, and French, whereas in the colleges two or more were added to these three. People chose those particular foreign languages on the ground of, what they believed to be, their great usefulness or value: the learning of Latin was thought to sharpen one's logical powers and improve one's knowledge of English grammar; French was considered an adjunct of culture; Spanish was felt good for trade relations; and German was helpful for the study of the sciences.
3. The third feature was the type of instruction given. Instruction was offered by the "grammar-translation" method, the most widely used method for both ancient and modern foreign languages. One of the aims of the foreign language teaching was to teach the "grammar" of the language, by which was meant the inflectional paradigms, the parsing of sentences by classical technical terms and the applying of the grammar 'rules' by the student. Another aim was to teach the student to read the foreign language. The teaching method employed here was that of word-for-word translation from the foreign language into English (the native language of the student in this country), and sometimes accompanied by the memorizing of lists of words.

The teaching of foreign languages during that period did not bring satisfactory results; proficient reading skill was still hard to achieve, and very few people were able to speak the language they had studied, since the speaking skill was neglected in the instruction. By the end of the 1930's the problem of teaching foreign languages got much more attention from the language authorities.

B. A word on the inadequacy of the traditional texts

Many language scholars have written on the inadequacy of traditional text materials, as one of the determining factors for success or failure in foreign language teaching.

Textbook writers resorted to literary works by some great authors or eminent persons of the age, and had passages extracted from them for their subject matter. From these passages hundreds of exercises were taken for grammar analysis, and sentences were broken up into parts of speech, or other technical names were assigned to "words" in the sentences, or all types of prepositions found were discussed in great length.

The contents of the pieces taken were often remote from the learners' experience, and so, beyond their grasp; the language was no longer the one actually used by the native community. It was not realized that the spoken language as used every day by the native speakers was the only reliable source of materials. Consequently, the actual use of the language by the learner did not get any consideration.

Materials were not properly graded, with regard

to the presentation of grammatical structures, vocabulary and cultural contents in a lesson. (See Robert Lado's "Criteria for the Introduction and Proper Ordering of Sentence Patterns." Language Learning, Special Issue, June 1958).

Very often, there were too many grammatical patterns or pronunciation problems and vocabulary items to be learned at a time. In other cases there were some lessons containing too much cultural content, so that it was always outside the learners' interest, and translation from the target language to the native language of the learners became almost inevitable. Sometimes, there was a lot of vocabulary in the form of word-lists to be memorized.

Loose and individual sentences out of situation were given for the sake of grammatical exercises, in which the learner was forced to name parts of speech or to diagram the sentences on the one hand, and to memorize and apply rules of "correctness" based on "logic" or the "laws of thought" on the other. Oral practice on the part of the student in using the structures was kept aside from the lesson. This kind of formal grammatical exercises was based on the assumption that

if pupils learned the rules to be followed in speaking and writing correctly, these rules would be applied, and errors --- would be eliminated or greatly reduced . . . (See Robert S. Ellis: Educational Psychology, p. 69)

Yet, the facts have shown quite the contrary: "Grammatical generalizations did not transfer to any great extent to actual speaking and writing."

In short, it can be said that traditional grammar-translation textbooks began with the form classes and elaborated each form class in a special chapter.



The construction of sentences often did not get into the book at all or was relegated to a chapter at the end of the book.

(Robert Lado: "Criteria for the Introduction and Proper Ordering of Sentence Patterns". Language Learning, Special Issue, June 1958)

The direct-method textbooks were considered much better than those lately mentioned, since they introduced actual dialogues, and presented sentences in meaningful, real or thought-up situations. However, those sentences still were not properly graded.

Some improvement in the approach to better foreign language materials began to develop, in which the learners were brought in the direction of actual language usage through situational conversations and dialogues.

C. The English Language Institute of the University of Michigan and its activities.

The outbreak of World War II had brought radical changes not only to the political, social, as well as economical world, but also to the world of foreign language studies in the United States.

Within the armed forces it was realized that vast numbers of young American soldiers would soon be scattered throughout a large proportion of the globe, and that they would have need of many languages whose very names were unknown to most Americans,

says William G. Moulton in his article "Linguistics and Language Teaching in the United States 1940-1960". The traditional schools with their method could not fulfil this need. Thus, new programs and techniques should be designed, so as to bring a practical speaking knowledge in as short time as possible.

Outside the armed forces people had also anticipated the coming need for speakers of foreign languages. In the beginning of 1941 the American Council of Learned Societies (ACLS) had, mostly through the foresight of its Executive Secretary, Mortimer Graves, established an Intensive Language Program (ILP). This man was of the opinion that the first essential task was a sound linguistic analysis of each language to be taught, followed by the preparation of learning materials based on this analysis. The Armed Forces found the needed language training in this ILP. Then articles on a quick study of foreign languages were written, teaching manuals for the Army were published, and foreign-language courses were established. The persons primarily involved in the teaching program for the army were all members of the Linguistics Society of America, a constituent society of the ACLS.

When the war ended, the various activities concerning foreign language courses were continued by the Committee on the Language Program (CLP), an organ of the ACLS. One of its activities -- which is of particular importance to the discussion -- was to promote the application of linguistics to various fields of activity, including language teaching. The CLP was also actively engaged in the production of manuals for the teaching of English as a second language. In the language teaching programs of the post-war period the implications resulting from the wartime experiences began to be adopted to civilian courses in schools and colleges.

Then there was another attempt to bring the linguists and the language teachers into "closer under-

standing and cooperation". For this purpose, the Foreign Language Program of the Modern Language Association (MLA) and the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) were established.

Beside those activities concerning the teaching of foreign languages to the Americans in the United States, there also grew an interest in the teaching of English as a second language, both at home and abroad. In this field the CAL mentioned above became the pioneer. The Linguistics Society of America, of which Charles C. Fries was once a President, began the search for proper materials for teaching English as a foreign language in 1938. (See Fries, Charles C., Linguistics and Reading, New York, 1961, p. 80 ). Two years later, in 1941, the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan was founded. It was directed successively by Charles C. Fries, Robert Lado, and Albert H. Markwardt. Since its foundation, the Institute has devoted all its resources to the application of the results of modern linguistic science, and it has based instruction on the techniques of structural linguistics. (See William G. Moulton's article). It has been doing a number of activities, including the following: (See Linguistics and Reading, by Charles C. Fries, p. 81 )

1. Research work. This work is done to find any possible means of improving teaching and learning a foreign language, and to verify and check the theories concerning language teaching.
2. Teaching of English as a foreign language, either carried out in the United States for those foreign stu-

dents who came to the country, or done in other countries in which English is learned as a foreign tongue.

3. Production of texts and other classroom and laboratory materials. By adopting modern linguistic techniques the Institute has succeeded in producing teaching materials that are best suited to a particular cultural background. Before the materials were published into textbooks, they had been experimented upon for a long time, and tried out thousands of times, until the results were shown to be valid and reliable.
4. Production of language tests. The Institute has put forward the three major ingredients as the material to be tested, i.e., pronunciation, structural patterns, and vocabulary.
5. Teacher-training program. The outcome of language teaching, like any other teaching, depends for the greater part upon the persons who are assigned to that task. Well-equipped teachers are greatly needed so that the materials, which have been intensively prepared, may render their fullest service. The teachers should understand the principles upon which the materials are based and the implications of those principles for their method of teaching, besides a thorough knowledge of the language itself.  
The training is intended either for American teachers who want to teach English as a foreign language in their own country or abroad, or for those foreign teachers whose profession is teaching English in their countries, who come to the States to improve their teaching knowledge or to get more proficiency.

## CHAPTER II

### MODERN VIEWS ABOUT LANGUAGE, LEARNING, AND LANGUAGE LEARNING

For the sake of easy discussion, it would be helpful to split the subject into two sections: a) Modern views about language, and b) Modern views about learning and language learning.

#### A. Modern Views about Language

The objectives, materials and emphasis, as well as the techniques and procedures of language teaching and language learning are, to a greater extent, very much influenced by the people's philosophy about "language". Facts have proved that a change in people's view about language is followed by a change in the approach to and objective of language teaching; or, to put it the other way round, language teaching -- its methods and procedures, as well as goals -- of a certain time portrayed what people thought about language.

In the earlier days of the history of language teaching people viewed language as 'a direct gift of God'. They believed that language had been there since the existence of mankind, and that everyone was endowed with an inborn potential for a certain language of his parents. Much of the learning was devoted more to the search of the nature and origin of language than to the mechanical process of its operation; and language problems were settled by a kind of philosophical or logical reasoning. Language was considered as one of the "hard

subjects", beside Arithmetic and Logics, that could challenge one's mind and improve his wits.

Two well known languages, that became the prevalent subjects in ancient studies in the Continent were those of the Ancient Greeks and the Romans, called Greek and Latin respectively. These two nations, who were once very powerful and had conquered other nations, make their language known throughout Europe.

The Ancient Greeks studied no other languages but their own; and they constructed a grammar of their language, and took it for granted that the structures of their language embodied the universal forms of human thought or of the cosmic order. ( Bloomfield's language, p. 5).

Then the Romans established Latin grammars on the Greek model, and many other nations followed the example, adopting Latin grammatical names in their own languages.

In the meantime Hindu scholars had worked independently of those Europeans. They built up a grammar that was based on the description of their language, that is, Sanskrit. This phenomenon began to interest more and more European scholars, who had so far neglected to observe the characteristics of their own tongues.

After the 18th century people no longer believed that language was directly given by God. They considered language as an "invention of ancient heroes", or else the product of a "mystical Spirit of the Folk". Some educated persons belonging to this period discussed and studied language in terms of "correctness", and they usually appealed to the authority of learned men, especially authors of grammars and dictionaries, and proceeded through speculation or the principles of logic.

The Modern Viewpoint of what language really is

is the result of decades of a deep and thorough study of languages, carried out by a great number of linguistic scholars in Europe from the first quarter of the nineteenth century onwards. Their approach to those European languages was historical-comparative, as well as descriptive, through which they built up a tremendous amount of new knowledge concerning the nature and functioning of human languages, which had not yet been investigated by or even known to the general public. The work has produced statements about facts that can be observed and described in the language itself, and conclusions that can be verified. This modern study of language began to be realized publicly after the publication in 1818 of Erasmus Rask's Investigation on the Origin of the Old Norse or Icelandic Language, one of the prominent works on the problems of language diversity and relationship. (See Charles C. Fries: Linguistics and Reading, p.37 )

In the United States a similar movement of modern linguistics, working along the lines of that in Europe, started off vigorously in the year 1925 through the work of two eminent American linguistic pioneers, Edward Sapir and Leonard Bloomfield. The former was the conceiver, and the latter carried out in detail the principles of analysis. From their systematic, descriptive study on some of the languages of the Athabaskan family of American Indian languages, they concluded in a workable theory that every language has a system and numbers of phonemes of its own, differing from any other languages, and that every language is a structured system of communication. Since these two persons described lan-

languages in terms of their structures, the study is then commonly called structural linguistics. The theory caused a radical change in the usual thinking about language --

language is not a string of words with the individual lexical meanings of each word fused into a meaning whole. Rather, it is a system of structural units having meanings that are signalled by formal matters, and these formal matters can be described in terms of the contrastive arrangements and forms. (Charles C. Fries: Linguistics and Reading, p.70-1).

One of the modern language scholars, G.L. Trager, has defined language as

a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which the members of a society interact in terms of their total culture. (See Rivers' book, p. 24).

By this definition it is obvious that language is a system, i.e., that it operates in an orderly way or sequence; its material consists of arbitrary vocal symbols, which means that the symbols used are made up of sounds that are produced by human vocal apparatus, and that the sounds are conventionally chosen. It is also clear that the function of language is to be a means of social interaction, or a tool of communication. Or, as another scholar points out, language serves as "a symbolic communication system, or in one word --- a 'code'." (Martin Joos's definition as quoted by Wilga M. Rivers in her book The Psychologist and the Foreign-Language Teacher, p. 23). Among the various means of communicating one's ideas, feelings, and thoughts, language is by far the most effective and satisfactory.

As linguistic scientists have been working on the spoken language as actually used by the native speakers, they can also point out the importance of the spoken



language as a source of materials for language teaching or learning. For modern linguists the criterion for "correctness" should be based on the actual usage by the majority of educated native speakers.

The linguists have discovered the significant features that make up language, features shared by any language, that must receive due emphasis and enough attention in language learning. These features are as the following:

1. phonemes, segmental and supra-segmental, that constitute the sound system of the language.
2. grammatical patterns of arrangements: the characteristic orders in which words or group of words occur in the language.
3. vocabulary, i.e. the lexical items of the language.

These characteristic features constitute the main basic ingredients for building up materials for language teaching or language learning.

## B. Modern Views about Learning and Language Learning

### 1. Theories of Learning

Learning in general is marked by a change in performance or behaviour or attitudes. It implies activity, and it

takes place whenever an individual finds himself in a situation to which he cannot adjust through the utilization of customary modes of response, or whenever he must overcome obstacles that interfere with desired activities. (Crow, Lester D. and Crow, Alice, Human Development and Learning, p. 211).

Learning is complex, involving several areas that are interrelated. At one and the same time an individual is

- 1) learning new skills or improving those already at

work, 2) building a store of information or knowledge, and 3) developing interests, attitudes, and ways of thinking. Learning can proceed only through the experience of sensation and perception.

## 2. Theory of Language/Foreign Language Learning

Language learning. Modern theories of language learning stress the so-called "language in use", that is, the manipulation of the language in speaking at normal conversational speed under a speech set. The speaking skill assumes an important place between the Understanding (or Listening) skill and the other two skills, Reading and Writing, in the proper order in which the skills are to be mastered.

In the speaking process, some motivation [ i.e. some stimulus, either external or internal ] makes the person speak, and "some content is brought under attention".

In listening, the process is partly reversed, starting with expression as heard in context, followed by recall of content through associations between expression and content.

Reading and writing are parallel processes to listening and speaking, with the writing system associated with units of expression . . . (See Robert Lado's Language Teaching, pp. 32-33).

The speaking and listening process involves simultaneously these factors: memory, facility, fluency, units and patterns, and some others.

Language learning is complex and cannot, according to language scholars, be explained through "trial-and-error", "gestalt", "association", or "functioning" alone. It requires a more comprehensive explanation, because it involves at one and the same time the widest range of human activity; it involves the whole personality of man,

such as his mind, emotion, and his nervous system. The fact that children learn the language that is spoken around them confirms the idea that all language learning occurs through experience, except for analogic creations which combines previous experiences into new sequences.

Not all of the Laws of Learning are applicable to language learning. With some modification of those laws presented above, Robert Lado put forward some Laws of language learning, which are still hypothetical: Law of Exercise, contiguity, and intent; Law of familiarity of response; Law of recall under similar set; and Law of motivation through urge to communicate.

Theory of foreign-language learning. What is already said about language learning in general applies to foreign-language learning or teaching as well. Thorn-dike's theory of "selecting and connecting", or the 'trial-and-error' learning, is rejected by the common assumption that "foreign-language habits are formed most effectively by giving the right response, not by making mistakes." The basis for this rejection, as Wilga M. Rivers puts it, is

the valid premise that the foreigner has no way of knowing the arbitrary system of the new language without a demonstration by someone who does know it. (p. 76) (Underlining is added by the writer)

Second-language learning is specifically defined by Robert Lado as

the acquisition of the ability to use, in speaking, expression of the second language associated with the units and patterns of content that together constitute the language. And . . . the acquisition of the ability to grasp the units and patterns of content when listening to a second language. (Robert Lado: Language Teaching, p. 38).

Learning of the expressions and contents can be facili-

tated by indirect "props", i.e. any physical means for better illustration, such as articulatory description, phonetic as well as phonemic transcription, or synonyms. Association of a particular unit or pattern of expression with a particular unit of content can best be learned in the situational environment in which they occur in the first experience. It is learned through exercise.

Native language as a factor. Learning a foreign language means learning to establish a new set of language habits. In psychology, when something new is learned, there will be a probability of facilitation or inhibition; the old and the new experiences may influence each other. In foreign-language learning, it is most likely that the native-language habits interfere with or hinder the establishing of habits of the foreign language.

Facilitation and interference are determined by the Degree of similarity or difference between features of the two languages. That is, the more units or patterns that function similarly in both languages, the greater the facilitation will be; and on the contrary, the more structural features that function differently in both the native language and the foreign language, the greater the interference may be.

Personal factors of the learner. Unlike in learning a native language, the learner's emotion, will and intention, and interest form very important factors that can determine success in foreign-language learning. Therefore, they have to be taken into account in order that

the learning will be fruitful and may bring satisfactory results. In connection with those factors, motivations in foreign-language learning may be different for each individual.

## CHAPTER III

### PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LANGUAGE LEARNING OF THE " ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTITUTE "

In the following discussion on the principles underlying the materials prepared by Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries and the Staff of the Institute, two bases, which are different but clearly related to each other, are worthwhile mentioning. They are linguistic principles of second or foreign language learning and teaching.

#### 1. Linguistic Principles

With the development of modern linguistic science and its promising results, more and more language scholars have turned their eyes to the findings of this science and found the significance of the new insights into language in language teaching and language-learning, especially in the preparation of materials.

A new movement to a better approach to language teaching has begun to start, a well-devised plan has been constructed, and new techniques or methods have been proposed.

The "linguistic principles" on which the new language teaching is based, as William Moulton indicates in his articles "Linguistics and Language Teaching in the United States 1940-1960" are that

Language is speech, not writing. . . . A language is a set of habits. . . . Teach the language, not about



the language. . . . A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say. . . . Languages are different. (See Mohrmann, C.; Sommerfelt, A.; and Whatmough, Joshua: Trends in European and American Linguistics, 1930 - 1960, pp. 86-89).

The preparation of teaching materials at the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan is based upon the fundamental assumption that

the most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner. (See Charles C. Fries: Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, p. 9).

With this principle the preparation will proceed at least through four steps: (See C.C. Fries: "Preparation of Teaching Materials, Practical Grammars, and Dictionaries, Especially for Foreign Languages". Language Learning, Vol. IX, Numbers 1 and 2, 1959).

First, the making of a satisfactory descriptive structural analysis of the language to be learned. This is a description of the 'spoken language', i.e. the speech form of the language used by the majority of educated native speakers in carrying on their daily tasks in society.

Second, the making of a parallel descriptive structural analysis of the language of the learner. This analysis, which has proved indispensable, was commonly neglected by former language teachers and material builders.

Third, the making of a careful, systematic comparison of the descriptive structural analysis in step 1 with that similar analysis in step 2 as a means of finding out points of similarity as well as points of dif-

ference. Scholars have found ample evidence for showing that similar features will be learned with great ease, whereas different ones will become special centres of difficulty in learning. The comparison in this stage will bring out the basic contrasts of patterns that must be mastered both for production and for recognition.

The fourth step will be the organizing of materials based on the results of the comparison done in step 3, with special emphasis on exercises that are built around the centre of problems. This idea of emphasizing the problematic parts of the language stems from the belief that "learning the problems is learning the language".

People have also come to realize that it is of very great importance to have graded materials, that is, materials should be so organized that the difficulty presents itself stepwise, and that they suit the age level and the capacity of the learner, and also the time available.

In any one lesson the subject matter must be carefully graded in terms of the pronunciation, the structures, and the vocabulary. This means that every part has to be made digestible for the learner, and the problems are learned cumulatively, ranging from the simple to the most complicated ones. Thus, the student, after a certain period of time, has done a lot without feeling the pressing burden of the study.

## 2. Principles of Second Language Learning or Teaching.

A. First of all it can be said that learning a sec-



ond language, after one has developed skills in the mother tongue, is a very different matter from learning the native language.

A child learning the mother tongue feels quite at ease because he has almost nothing to hinder the efforts. He learns the language in a direct way of communicating his needs and wants with people around him in the community or family. He is constantly producing sounds that he thinks to be the exact imitation of what he hears from his parents or brothers, and trying to follow the patterns as he catches them.

The child learns to talk because through language he can acquire what he desires, wants, and needs. His motivation is comparatively great. Moreover, he learns the language in an environment in which it is constantly spoken.

Psychologically speaking, the child's mind is still like "a tabula rasa", upon which new habits of sounds and patterns are easily impressed. Also, the speech organs of the child are still flexible to adjust to any production, unless he has some physical defects.

The time that the child spends in learning the language is quite large; he learns to listen or to understand and to speak the language several hours every day during four or five years, at least, in his infancy.

On the contrary, an adult, who has mastered at least one language, finds learning another language very difficult, since his first language habits prevent him from forming another set of habits in the new language. Very often, the two systems of language habits are never parallel, but, in most cases, the system of the new lan-

guage habits is dominated by that of the first language habits. Besides, for the adult, language is not learned in the actual language environment, that is, he is not learning among the native speakers. The motivation of the adult may not be as great as the child's in learning the mother tongue. The new language is not the only medium to fulfil his needs to communicate; it functions only secondarily.

The adult's mind and his speech apparatus have become more rigid, and so, less sensitive than an infant's.

Another factor that constitutes the difference between these learnings is the time devoted to each of them. An adult usually has only two or three periods a week for two or three years in high schools. What W.F. Twaddell says might support this principle of second - language learning.

How disturbingly different our procedure has to be in learning a new language. Everything attracts our attention, aspects of habits as well as aspects of meaningful choice. (Twaddell, W. Freeman, "Meanings, Habits and Rules". Language Learning, Vol. II , 1, 1949).

B. The second principle that is basic to foreign language learning and teaching is that "language learning is a process of habit formation". This principle runs parallel with the assumption to which linguists and language teachers have agreed, and which has already been mentioned above, that "Language is a set of habits". (See William G. Moulton's).

The habits that a learner of a foreign language must establish consist of habits concerning the structural matters and the sound system of that language, and not habits concerning items as items. In order to have a thor-

ough control of the language and to be able to speak as a native speaker of the language, he must develop those habits to such a degree that they operate below awareness, or in other words, that they become automatic habits.

The fact that language operates largely on the basis of habit should be obvious to everyone,

Robert Lado says; and to show the importance of habit in language learning he goes on,

It is only through habit that the thousand - and - one rules of grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary are used by every fluent speaker of the language at normal speed. (Language Teaching, p. 105).

Materials, therefore, should be carefully selected and presented so as to be easily learned and to give ample provision for habit formation.

C. The third principle is the importance of learning through "Patterns practice" or "oral use". Since "pattern-practice" plays a very important part in this piece of writing as a whole, it might be good to illustrate the method or procedure in detail.

Most language teachers and linguists have come to an agreement that the habits of the sound system and of the structures are acquired most effectively through practice. Only through pattern-practice are the patterns of a language established as habits. Robert Politzer says that

Language is 'behaviour' and . . . behavior can be learned only by inducing the student to 'behave'.  
(Wilga M. Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1964, p. 20).

Another scholar says,

. . . if the mechanisms of a language constitute a set of habits, then learning a new language consists of learning these habits, and the learning of habits is best accomplished, the linguists reasoned, by constant imitation, repetition, practice, and drill. (See Trends in European and American Linguistics 1930-1960, p. 87)

The idea of pattern-practice and its role in language teaching and learning has developed during the years of World War II in America. It has been advocated by linguists and modern language-teachers in their proposal of the new method of language teaching or learning, the so-called "audio-lingual" method. 'Several hours of drill per day [with a native speaker . . .]' was one of the most characteristic features of language instruction during the wartime period.

"The main procedures advocated by proponents of the audio-lingual method are," as Wilga M. Rivers points out, "of this type: pattern-drill, dialogue memorization, directed dialogue, and recombination narrative." (See her book on page 62). In the pattern-drill step, where the structural patterns are learned mostly through imitation and memorization, the sentences being practiced might not illustrate a meaningful situation; whereas in the "dialogue-memorization", several or a number of sentences together make up a real everyday situation. In the "directed dialogue", "the teacher suggests exactly what the students should say in both question and answer". (See W.M. Rivers', p. 41). What Rivers means by recombination narrative is the step of combining "vocabulary and structures of preceding units in a new form with some variations and some new words which are easy to recognize as cognates or by context". (See p. 62).

In order to make clear what is meant by pattern-

practice, a definition by Robert Lado might be helpful,

Pattern-practice is rapid oral drill on problem patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself. (Robert Lado's Language Teaching, p. 105)

Rapid oral drill: After the teacher has presented the pattern, the student is asked to imitate and repeat the same sentences, with exactly the same speed, intonation and rhythm as the teacher says them. Then the rest of the time will be spent on the practice by the students; the teacher giving the cues and the students responding to them as rapidly as possible, keeping to the normal conversational speed. The teacher attempts to make the class produce as many recitations as possible within a classroom period. Thus, the students are given enough opportunity for constant practice in the use of the language.

Attention on something other than the problem itself :

Each pattern drills one problem or a set of problems, but while it is being practiced, minimal changes are made everywhere except at the problem part, so that the students' attention will be focused on those changes. In doing so, the crucial point of the pattern being learned will gradually become a habit. The student is not aware of this habit formation, because his attention is drawn away from it, and centered upon something other, i.e., the "message" as brought by the cues.

Pattern practice is characterized by imitation and repetition, but it is much more than either of them. Simple repetition and conscious-choice drill on linguistic problems are not pattern practice in the technical sense of Robert Lado's definition. Very little or no

learning occurs after an accurate imitation, and even after the third correct repetition of fixed sentences without variation.

Repetition alone will not develop the kind of habits necessary to speak and understand a language,

Fries says in his Foundations for English Teaching, page 341. Then he also points out, on the same page of his book, that in order to attain the highest degree of effectiveness, pattern drill must proceed through at least three important steps as the following:

1. An "accurate imitation of the pattern in the sentence as presented by the teacher", and followed, then, by "enough repetition of the complete sentence" to facilitate the student's oral production proficiently. This step is known as the 'mim-mem' stage, a short form of 'mimicry-memorization'.
2. "The second step must provide for practice by the pupil in choosing the proper item of a contrastive pair in accordance with significant lexical or structural clues within the utterance of which that item is a part".
3. The third step is practice that "must lead to the automatic unconscious use of the appropriate item or structure", while the attention is focused not on the "necessity of making a selection", but on the "meaning of the whole utterance". This is supposed to be the degree of mastery that constitutes the real free use of patterns in meaningful language situations.

The function of pattern practice. According to Robert Lado, teaching a second language comprises four

stages: 'mimicry-memorization, conscious choice, pattern practice, and free selection'. If we follow this order of stages, it is clear that pattern practice plays an important role to link the stage of practice with conscious choice with that of free selection. Putting it in another way, Fries says that pattern practice has a function to bridge the gap between the introduction of the new material and the pupil-pupil dialogues, which use it in communication situations. He might incorporate the 'mim-mem' stage and the practice with conscious choice in what he calls 'introduction of the new material'; while the 'pupil-pupil dialogs' might parallel Iado's stage of free selection.

In the introduction of the new pattern material the teacher presents sentences that belong to the same structural pattern. The pupils are asked to imitate them sentence by sentence and to memorize the structure. This is the 'mim-mem' stage, in which the pupils just imitate and memorize the pattern, probably without knowing its meaning or function. Then the teacher explains or shows the structural meaning that all of the sentences already presented and imitated have in common. He may add a few more examples for illustrating the meaning. The pupils are supposed to see and then to understand the meaning.

So far, although the pupils have understood the pattern and been able to distinguish it from the others in the utterances, they have not made it a habit --- the choice of its usage in the pupils' sentences has not become automatic. It is the function of pattern-practice to make the new pattern transform into a new habit; and it is

achieved through a variety of exercises, such as substitution drill, conversion or transformation, question-and-answer drill, and expansion. After pattern-practice, there comes the stage where the pupils manipulate all the patterns that they have learned to express a larger contextual meaning, like the real communication as done by the native speakers. If we compare what Fries means by pupil-pupil dialogs with what Lado means by free selection, it is quite clear that they are two different terms for one and the same thing.

Pupil-pupil dialogs are designed to take the sentences that have been mastered in detail through pattern practice and to use them in a larger context,

says Fries in his Foundations for English Teaching, p. 343. On the following page he continues, saying that in the pupil-pupil dialogs the pupils are given practice in using the language "in the context of a social situation in which both the questions and the answers are significant parts". "In these dialogs," he goes on, "the effort is to center the attention on the social situation in which language is being used rather than on the repetition of linguistic items and isolated sentences." As to free selection Lado says that the students must practice using the patterns that have become habits "with full attention on purposeful communication". (Robert Lado: Language Teaching, p. 113).



## CHAPTER IV

### "ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS" AND "ENGLISH PATTERN PRACTICES": THE ORGANIZATION OF MATERIALS

#### A. Objectives of the textbooks

The texts being discussed here together with their companions, "English Pronunciation" and "Lessons in Vocabulary", constitute the set of An Intensive Course in English for Latin American Students, built up by the English Language Institute Staff of the University of Michigan, first published in 1942 and newly revised and completed in 1958. (See Robert Lado's Foreword in English Sentence Patterns). The "grammar" lessons which make up the materials consist of exercises to develop habits, and not explanations or talk about the language. Therein the word "grammar" is chosen to mean

the particular system of devices which a language uses to signal one of its various layers of meanings -- structural meaning. (Charles C. Fries: Preface to English Sentence Patterns)

The whole material aims at oral mastery of the language, or, in other words, it attempts to teach the language for use, of which normal conversational speed is the ultimate goal.

"English Sentence Patterns" aims at conscious understanding and producing of correct grammatical structures on the student's part. In the initial stage of learning the student is first made aware of the problems he is facing and then of the choice of the proper responses to

a grammatical cue in learning situations.

The final purpose of "English Pattern Practices", on the contrary, is to establish, by means of oral practice, the patterns of the language as subconscious habits. As indicated in Chapter III, Robert Lado divides language learning into four stages: mimicry-memorization, conscious choice, practice with automatic choice, and free conversation (selection). Pattern practice takes up the third stage, where the grammatical structures are made to operate as habits below the learners' awareness,

so that the mind and personality may be freed to dwell in their proper realm, that is, on the meaning of the communication rather than the mechanics of the grammar. (See Robert Lado's Introduction to "English Pattern Practices")

The "English Pattern Practices" provides more additional practices or drills on patterns that have been introduced in the first book, and it also furnishes the material with several conversations or dialogues.

The director of the Staff of the English Language Institute has declared that the emphasis of the materials is laid more on phonemically and structurally significant grammatical patterns, which contribute fundamentally to communication, than on other matters, which contribute primarily to the student behaving like a native speaker.

(Robert Lado: Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English as a Foreign Language, p. 55)

#### B. Organization of materials of the "English Sentence Patterns"

The whole pattern material is divided up into thirty-five lessons. The first ten lessons consists of

"simple but important" patterns (Lesson I - X), the second ten present what might be labelled "intermediate patterns", and the rest complete the materials with "more advanced patterns". Lessons X, XI, and XX are summary lessons, each one of which reviews the immediately preceding nine lessons. Lesson XXXI to lesson XXXIV are, in turn, Summary of Question Patterns, Summary of Subject and Subject Modification, Summary of Class 2 Expressions and Class 2 Modification, and Summary of Object Structures.

It is worth mentioning that a "Lesson" as found in the text is actually a unit of lessons, made up of several patterns.

The discussion on the material build-up will be carried out in the light of such aspects as Voice, Tense, Type of Sentence, Number, Gender, and Parts of Speech. Among the various Tenses in English, the Present Tense (Simple) is chosen to begin the presentation of patterns. This presentation starts off with patterns using the verb to BE as a 'linking verb'. The very first pattern is a positive or affirmative statement represented by sentences like "The lesson is interesting", and "John is a student", and followed by the transformed question-pattern like "Is the lesson interesting?". In addition, the contracted forms ISN'T, and AREN'T are introduced through short answers such as "Yes, he is" and "No, he isn't". Still belonging to the first Lesson is a pattern making use of the article A with Singular Class 1 word and the plural inflection  $\{-S\}$  of Class 1 word. The last pattern consists of the invariable forms of the and of Class 3 words GOOD, IMPORTANT, etc., which case

might become a problem for Spanish speaking students .

(see Chapter 10 : )

The lesson moves on to patterns that use the "DO" verbs, like BEGIN, STUDY, HAVE, with the same types and Tense as those of BE-verbs, including the short forms DON'T and DOESN'T in negative short answers. Those patterns are then expanded by means of Adverbs or expressions that are most characteristically used to signal habitual actions, ALWAYS, USUALLY, SOMETIMES, and the like. For example, Mary is ALWAYS busy, Mary USUALLY studies in the morning. Moreover, there is a part of the lesson dealing particularly with expressions of Place and expressions of Time such as HERE, AT A RESTAURANT, EVERY DAY, AT 10 A.M., etc., in which attention is given to their respective position in "ordinary" sentences.

The next Tense that is introduced is the Simple Past Tense. It is presented through patterns with BE-Verbs and DO-Verbs, where Past Time expressions are contrasted with present time expressions. Before going to the next Tense, however, the Staff must have felt the necessity of offering another type of questions, that is, the question-word questions, beginning with WHAT, WHEN, WHERE, WHO(M), and WHO. "WHAT does John study?", "WHEN did he arrive here?", etc.

With the presentation of the Present Continuous Tense, one more Time Adverb is introduced, that is, NOW. Exercises are, then, developed by contrasting the three different tenses by substituting the time expressions NOW EVERY DAY, YESTERDAY, etc. The next part is concerned with the Simple Future Tense which is expressed by a form of BE + GOING TO + a Class2 word. Examples: "We're

going to study tomorrow", "Are you going to study tomorrow?", "What is he going to study tomorrow?". The material has, so far, concentrated on Affirmative and Interrogative sentences; and it is only then that Negative sentences (patterns), that have been touched upon in short answers, are practiced more intensively.

Another part of the first group of materials consists of patterns which include the use of 'countable' and 'uncountable' Class 1 words, and expressions that may be used with them. The presentation is so worked out that there is a contrast of usage between the following expressions: SOME and ANY; article A, AN, THE and the absence of each one of them; MANY, A FEW, and MUCH, A LITTLE; THIS, THAT, and THESE, THOSE; MY and YOUR or HIS, etc. The "irregular" plural forms of Class 1 words are given special attention in a new pattern.

The last part of the group, in general, adds some elaboration to patterns that have already been given previously; for instance, the use of three different forms of "Indirect Object" such as ME, TO ME, FOR ME, after a 'transitive' Class 2 word; the past tense forms of "irregular" Class 2 words; the use and position of Class 4 words RAPIDLY, CORRECTLY, and the like; position of Subject modifiers in sentences like "The TALL man WITH BLOND HAIR is a doctor". The group is completed by patterns that describe a difference in structure between "WHO did you see last night?" and "WHO saw you last night?" (The first sentence exemplifies question - word questions having question word - order, while the second represents those using statement word - order).

The second part of the textbook offers compound

sentences and Complex sentences, in addition to those simple ones found in the first part. It begins with a pattern that illustrates the use of the Auxiliary Verbs CAN, MAY, SHALL, WILL, SHOULD, etc. Examples of Compound sentences might best be chosen from the pattern with AND --- TOO; AND --- EITHER; BUT:

John is a student AND Mary is TOO.

John can play the piano AND Mary can TOO.

John plays every day AND Mary does TOO.

John wasn't a teacher AND Mary wasn't EITHER.

John didn't go AND Mary didn't EITHER.

John is a teacher BUT Mary isn't.

The next pattern makes use of the so called 'verb - phrase', which consists of a Verb and a preposition like CALL ON, LOOK LIKE, BRING UP, PUT ON, and so on. After that there comes another pattern of questions using WHY or HOW and their typical answers with IN ORDER TO, FOR, or BY, WITH, or just a Class 4 word like CLEARLY, SOFTLY, etc. Another type of 'verb phrase' is made up of a Class 2 + TO + another Class 2, for example, LEARN TO SPEAK, HAVE TO WRITE, PLAN NOT TO SPEAK, and TRY NOT TO DO.

'Impersonal' Subjects IT in IT's nine o'clock now and THERE in THERE is a book on the table make up another pattern to be found in the second group. This pattern leads to the presentation of 'possessive case' shown by 'S and OF, and words like MINE, OURS, HIS, MARY'S, etc. Examples: IT's MARY's chair, IT'S the cover OF the book, IT's MINE.

The degree of comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs falls under the fifth lesson of the second group.

The first pattern of this lesson shows the usage of LIKE, THE SAME AS, and DIFFERENT FROM; the second deals with forms like THE SAME + Noun + AS (e.g. "the same color as"), and AS + Adjective/Adverb + AS (e.g. "as black as", "as rapidly as"); the third presents the comparative degree of Adjectives and Adverbs (with MORE, or suffix -ER); and the last part is concerned with the Superlative degree.

Patterns of complex sentences begin to be presented in the second half of the group. One of these patterns has an included sentence (called an 'Adjectival Clause' by traditional grammarians) that is introduced by a Relative Pronoun THAT, WHICH, WHO, or WHERE. For instance, The professor WHO teaches your class is my friend, The student THAT you visited is feeling fine now, The room WHERE I usually study is near here. The other pattern consists of a main clause and an included clause beginning with WHEN, WHILE, BEFORE, UNTIL, or AFTER. --- We studied WHEN the course began, He arrived BEFORE the school began, He stayed UNTIL we washed the dishes. The included sentences of the other pattern stand for the Objects of the sentences, for example, "I know WHO sees Mary", "Do you know WHAT happened here yesterday?" "Please repeat HOW MUCH they will cost". Much more similar to the pattern just mentioned is the one that has an included clause like an independent statement, e.g. I know (THAT) John sees Mary, I know (THAT) Mary is looking at Mr. King, I think he's interesting. (Note: In the first two examples THAT may be omitted and the meaning remains the same).

Perfect Tenses, except the Future Perfect Tenses,

are dealt with in Lesson XVIII, covering the whole of their different meanings. Some examples might clarify the patterns: Present Perfect Tense, e.g. I have lived in the United States for several years now; Present Progressive Perfect Tense -- He has been working for three hours now; Past Perfect Tense (Non-progressive) -- I HAD STUDIED French before I began to study English; Past Progressive Perfect Tense -- HAD Mary BEEN STUDYING before you came? The past participle forms of Class 2 words (Verbs) that are irregular are postponed until the learner has mastered the patterns and been able to supply with correct short answers.

Up to this point the Active Voice was used in all the material. The Passive Voice construction is to be found in the last lesson of the second group, in which those several Tenses already presented in the earlier parts are brought together into one pattern. Lesson XIX also deals with particular lexical words STILL, ANY MORE, ALREADY and YET (as "sentence modifiers"), and with "meaning" difference shown in the contrasted forms TIRED and TIRING, INTERESTED and INTERESTING, that function as Adjectives or Class 3 words.

The third group of lessons begins with a pattern like "I LET them READ the newspaper", as differing from "He ASKED me TO GO to Florida". With that the lesson moves on to patterns that indicate situations, ranging from the probable or deductive to the "supposed" or "imagined" ones, for instance; firstly, a pattern with WISH, indicating present situations like I WISH I was in New York now, I WISH he could drive a car; then, secondly, there are patterns having the form of Perfect



Tenses, to show "specific" or "particularly chosen" meanings, e.g. We should have practiced English yesterday. The students must have written this exercise last week. We should have been practicing the conversation last night; and thirdly there comes the "WISH" pattern for past situations --- "I wish my friend had gone to the doctor after the accident".

In Lesson XXIII attention is given to the use of the conjunctions WHENEVER, IF, UNLESS, ALTHOUGH, BECAUSE and WHETHER OR NOT. This pattern constitutes a step towards the next material, that is, the "IF-Clauses" with their three different meanings: Present or Future probable, Present Unreal or Contrary to fact, and Past Contrary to fact or Past Unreal or Past Improbable. Compare the following sentences: "I will help you if you need help", "I would help you if you needed help now", and "I would have helped you yesterday if you had needed help then". Another pattern of complex sentences illustrates the correlation between "included clauses" that are preceded by SO or SUCH ... THAT and the Main Clauses. Examples: "The professor is SO busy THAT he can't leave his office"; "His secretary was SUCH a nice person THAT I enjoyed the visit". The following section deals with Negative questions and Questions made up of Statements and their Question-tags or Attached-questions. Examples of question-tags:

The professor is very busy, ISN'T HE?

He has a lot of work, DOESN'T HE?

You haven't talked to his secretary, HAVE YOU?

Lesson XXVI comprises two kinds of patterns, one dealing with "Reflexive Pronouns" ("I see MYSELF in the mirror")

and with "Emphatic Pronouns" (like "You see the mirror YOURSELF") and the other working on the usage of forms like "I enjoyed SINGING", or "I KEPT (ON) SINGING". The succeeding part is concerned with some similar constructions but having different "meanings", as represented in these sentences:

1. We elected TOM SECRETARY.
2. We want the house PAINTED WHITE.
3. We watched the boys PLAYING.

The following constructions have an ING-form of Verb at the beginning, e.g. "LIVING can be difficult", "WORKING ALL DAY made him tired", "GOING TO THE LIBRARY we met Professor Brown". In the first two examples the -ING form functions as a Subject, whereas in the last sentence it serves as a modifier of the Subject of the following sentence (clause). The last part of the third group of materials is specified for a provision of more complex sentences or longer sequences of sentences, by using sequence signals. These signals are grouped into three types, and presented in separate parts. The first group consists of THEREFORE, HOWEVER, ALSO, and many others; the second is made up of THEN, LATER, NEXT, FARTHER WEST, ON THE RIGHT, etc.; and the last group comprises all "summarizing" words such as IN OTHER WORDS, IN SUMMARY, or BRIEFLY.

As has already been pointed out above, Lessons XXXI to XXXIV are summary patterns with some additional exercises. In Lesson XXXV, which is the last part of the material, the writers of the text want to introduce the learner to various styles in a language as used in varied situations, for example, in conversations, in let-

ters, in scientific and business reports, in newspaper reports, in short stories, and in poetry.

These are the structures that make up the whole material in "English Sentence Patterns".

### C. The Organization of the "English Pattern Practices"

This book consists of thirty-four lessons, and these lessons follow exactly the order of those given in the English Sentence Patterns. Moreover, the key-sentences outlining the contents of each lesson, (some lessons do not begin with key-sentences), are taken from that book discussed above.

The book is meant to give additional practice material, and exercises are always given after the pattern has been presented in the other textbook. It is intended primarily to be a source for the students, from which they get more practices or exercises to be done outside the class period.

Use of pictures. There are some sixteen charts attached at the end of the book, and every one of them consists of a number of varied pictures. Almost all of the practices are carried out by means of these charts; that is, when a particular pattern is being learned, the relevant Chart may be used to help the learning. For example, in Chart VI there is a picture of a bus and a bank, which might be helpful in sentences like "John went to the bank by bus", or "Are they going to the bank by bus?", or even in a question-answer exercise "How did you go to the bank?" -- "By bus", or "Are you going to go to the bank by bike?" -- "No, I'm going to go to the

bank by bus."

This procedure has some advantages: 1) The student learns to operate the language within a limited vocabulary, while using the same Charts repeatedly, 2) The objects and actions pictured provide a challenge to him without placing on him a heavy load of vocabulary material, 3) Each Chart covers at least one definite problem in connection with which it is first introduced. 4) To most students the situational meaning of a particular sentence is easily grasped through a picture or a sequence of pictures.

Use of Dialogues. Most practices in the text are framed into dialogue forms, that is, questions and answers between the students. The conversations incorporate patterns that have so far been practiced through individual sentences, and they may bring the students closer to the actual language usage in real situations as far as possible.

There are, in all, eight dialogues in the book, three of which are closely related to each other.

## CHAPTER V

### A SAMPLE OF LESSON ORGANIZATION IN "ENGLISH SENTENCE PATTERNS"

In order to understand the organization of the lessons prepared by Robert Iado and the Staff of the English Language Institute, it will be helpful to take a particular lesson and to show how it is worked out and presented to the learners. For the sake of this purpose, Lesson XVIII is chosen here to illustrate the presentation of "Perfect Tenses".

Now before going to the subject itself it is helpful to be clear from the beginning about what the English Language Institute Staff calls a "Lesson". It is by no means the same as most people or teachers think; neither is it equivalent to that portion of material that a teacher presents to his class in a period of fifty or forty-five minutes. One may probably call it a unit of materials which consists of several lessons.

The lesson to be discussed here is made up of five big divisions. The first part deals with the pattern indicating Present Perfect Tense (Non-progressive); the second part is a pattern of Present Progressive Perfect Tense; and the third part consists of patterns of Past Perfect Tenses, both simple or non-progressive and progressive. The fourth division supplies short answers to questions with those Tenses. Since the Past Participle forms of Class 2 words (i.e. the Verbs) constitute one of the major components signalling Perfect Tenses,

and since there are a number of Verbs whose past participles are quite different in form from their Infinitives, learning those particular forms will become a special problem for the learners. Therefore, it was considered wise to insert a separate part for the presentation of the "irregular" past participle, and that is the material of the fifth division of the Lesson unit.

The material does not include the Future Perfect Tenses, whereas such sentences as the following can be expected: "John will have completed the course by next year", and "He will have been living in New York for five years next month". The omission of those Tenses might be caused by the assumption that, having mastered the other Perfect Tenses and the structures illustrating Future Tense, the learners will transfer easily and naturally to Future Perfect, if situations demand it; or that the Future Perfect Tenses are easily predictable and can easily be derived from the other Tenses. However, it is probable that it has arisen out of the authors' opinion that such Tenses are not found very frequently in daily situations. If the last supposition is right, then we understand why Robert Lado has said in one of his books that

the Michigan materials give more emphasis to . . . .  
 structurally significant grammatical patterns that  
 contribute fundamentally to communication . . . .  
 (Robert Lado's Annotated Bibliography for Teachers  
 of English as a Foreign Language)

Yet, the future Perfect Tenses are, for us, as necessary and significant as the other Tenses, as far as English language is concerned.

The unit starts off with an outline which pre-

sents in brief the contents of the lesson, i.e. sentences illustrating the patterns, accompanied by some notes on the grammatical forms. The outline is followed by a frame in which the materials are presented to the students. now it would be better to go step-wise part by part.

Part I, or we may call it lesson I, is exemplified by a sample sentence "I HAVE LIVED in the United States for several years NOW". In this Simple or Non-progressive Present Perfect Tense attention should be paid to the correlated structural forms signalling the pattern, like HAVE STUDIED, HAS STUDIED, etc., and to such expressions of time as FOR A YEAR NOW, FOR TWO YEARS, THIS WEEK, SINCE 1960, NOW. Sentences that represent the structure follow in a sequence of contrasts between the positive and the negative and the interrogative forms. For example:

I HAVE STUDIED mathematics FOR A YEAR NOW.

John HASN'T PRACTICED his speech TODAY.

HAVE you STUDIED mathematics?



Then there are some comments on the forms of the structure and on the Adverbs of Time given after the presentation. The different shades of "meanings" that the pattern can carry are described in the illustrative examples. On the one hand the structure may indicate "a situation that began in the past and continues in the present", as shown by the adverbs FOR, SINCE, and an expression like ALL DAY, for instance "Tomas HAS LIVED in the United States FOR THREE MONTHS", "He'S ATTENDED this school SINCE LAST MONTH", "They'VE STUDIED ALL NIGHT". On the other hand, especially when there are time ex-

pressions like SO FAR and RECENTLY, it indicates "an action that is completed at the present time", e.g. We'VE PRACTICED all the exercises SO FAR, Mary'S STUDIED Lesson XVII RECENTLY. With the expression JUST between the HAVE-form and the -ED form (the past participle) of the Class 2 word, the sentence shows "an action that was completed only a very short time ago", for instance, John'S JUST OPENED the window.

In the exercises for the students, the pattern is contrasted with that of simple Past Tense (the latter having been presented in Lesson III) by substitution of the appropriate Adverbs of Time NOW, LAST WEEK, BEFORE I CAME HERE, RECENTLY, YESTERDAY, SINCE THEY ARRIVED, FOR THREE WEEKS NOW, and LAST WEDNESDAY. Thus, the new pattern is not learned in isolation, but in a real or situational context, so that its "meanings", both structural and lexical, can be easily distinguished and then grasped by the students. Another type of exercise demands the learners to restate in sentences using the pattern being learned a number of situational statements; for example, the sentence "I began to live in the dormitory in January and I live there now" is to be changed into " I'VE LIVED in the dormitory SINCE JANUARY". The third exercise, which is more advanced than the others, makes the students supply the sentence or the statement with HAVE + the -ED form that gives information or a background related to a given situation in the present time. This is a half-way free exercise. For example:

"She is a good leader". "organize" ----

She HAS ORGANIZED many activities on the campus.

"Tom has good pronunciation". "practice" ----



HE HAS PRACTICED MANY HOURS IN THE LAB.

Lesson 2, or the second part of this lesson unit, deals with a structure of the Present Progressive Perfect Tense, which is characterized by the form HAVE or HAS + BEEN + the -ING form of a Class 2 word. The structural meaning of this pattern differs from those meanings carried by the first pattern in that it "emphasizes the continuation of an action from some time in the past until the present time". However, the pattern has or uses the same Adverbs of Time as the Present Perfect Tense non-progressive. The procedure of presentation is also the same as that of the previous pattern. The first technique of exercise consists of giving a cue and followed by the student's response, in question-answer type. For example, the teacher gives the cue talk; a student produces a sentence (i.e. a question) incorporating that word -- WHAT HAS THE TEACHER BEEN TALKING ABOUT? ; and another student responds to his fellow's sentence, HE'S BEEN TALKING ABOUT GRAMMAR.

In the second technique of exercise the pattern is associated with the Present Progressive Tense and the Non-progressive Present Perfect Tense. Every "Present Progressive" sentence supplied by the teacher in the text elicits from the students two sentences using HAVE + the -ED form and HAVE BEEN + the -ING form. For instance:

"John is talking to the teacher" ----

I HAVE TALKED TO THE TEACHER TODAY.

I HAVE BEEN TALKING TO THE TEACHER SINCE TWO O'CLOCK.

The corresponding Perfect Tenses in the past ----

both Simple and Progressive --- constitute the main task of the third part of the unit. These Perfect Tenses indicate "occurrences in a portion of time which ended in the past", but their different structural forms also make a difference in meaning: One, having HAD BEEN + the -ING form, expresses a situation in progress and completed before another action in the past, while the other, using the structure HAD + the -ED form, does not emphasize the continuation or duration of the process during a portion of time in the past. Examples might show this distinction: "I HAD STUDIED French before I began to study English", "John HAD BEEN WRITING letters when you entered".

For rapid pronunciation's sake, the contractions, such as I'D, YOU'D, HE'D, THEY'D, etc., are recommended.

The exercise on the first structure, i.e. Non-progressive Past Perfect Tense, that follows the presentation is done by way of dialogue. For example: "When had you prepared your clothes?" ---- "I HAD PREPARED THEM A FEW DAYS BEFORE I LEFT". A very brief note found in the instruction makes the student see the meaning of the pattern, which is in this case "an action completed in the past and which occurred previous to another situation", and makes him know what to do in the exercise.

In the other exercise the Tense is drawn out of sentences using the Past Progressive Tense, and it is also carried out through question-and-answer procedures:

Q(uestion). What were you doing when John came?

A(nswer). I WASN'T DOING ANYTHING, BUT I HAD BEEN WRITING LETTERS BEFORE.

Part 4 is devoted to a presentation of the short

Answers, which is chiefly a matter of proper choice out of the variety of "HAVE" ---- HAVE, HAS, HAD, HAVEN'T, HASN'T, and HADN'T. Examples:

<u>Questions</u>	<u>Answers</u>
Have you visited the new hospital?	Yes, I HAVE.
Have the students been working?	No, they HAVEN'T.
Had you studied French (before you came here) ?	No, I HADN'T.

The choice, however, is largely determined by the form occurring in the question, since the answer must include the same form, with or without -N'T.

The last part of the unit completes the material with a supply of "irregular" Class 2 words, that is, verbs that do not take the suffix -ED for their past participle forms. There are about eighty of these verbs listed in this part, and they are arranged side by side with the Infinitives and the Preterites. The sentences accompanying the list show the usage of the Past Participle forms.

This part is made up of two sections. The first section deals with the Class 2 words that have the same form for the preterite and the past participle. To this group belong verbs like MEET, SPEND, BUY, SIT, and many others. The second embraces all Class 2 words whose past tense forms are quite different from their past participles. For example: the verb BEGIN has BEGAN for its preterite form and BEGUN for the past participle; the verb to GO becomes WENT in the Past Tense, and GONE in Perfect Tenses; DO becomes DID and DONE, and so on. The preterite and the past participle forms are prac-

ticed in contrast in the exercises, in order to have the students learn the two forms with their different meanings most profitably. On the one hand, Past Tense sentences are contrasted with Present Perfect Tense sentences, while on the other hand the Simple Past is contrasted with the Past Perfect Tense. Examples:

1. I met Fred last year. ----

I MET FRED LAST YEAR, BUT I HAVEN'T MET HIM SINCE.

I sat in the first row two weeks ago. ----

I SAT IN THE FIRST ROW TWO WEEKS AGO, BUT I HAVEN'T SAT THERE SINCE.

2. I gave him five dollars. ----

I GAVE HIM FIVE DOLLARS AFTER HE HAD GIVEN ME THE BOOK.

Some additional notes:

The perfect tenses, for the most part, are used to indicate time relationships with regard to other times expressed or implied. Examples:

1. I HAVE STUDIED ENGLISH FOR 6 YEARS NOW.

2. HE HAD STUDIED FRENCH BEFORE HE CAME HERE.

In the first sentence, HAVE STUDIED indicates a time relation between the expressed "NOW" and that which is implied in "FOR 6 YEARS". Similarly, HAD STUDIED in the second example shows that the action of STUDYING is prior to the action of COMING HERE.

The difference between Past Tense and the Perfect Tenses (Present and Past) can be seen in the following summary of their meanings: (See Handy Grammar Reference A Guide to Better English [ pp. 12 - 13 ] by Robert L.

Shurter, Ph.D.).

Past Tense : Action begun and completed in the past.

Example: I WROTE TO HIM YESTERDAY.

Past Perfect : Action begun and completed in the past prior to some other stated or implied time.

Example: I HAD HEARD (past perfect) FROM HIM BEFORE I WROTE (past) HIM YESTERDAY.

Present Perfect: Action begun in the past and completed at any moment up to the present.

Example: UP UNTIL TODAY, I HAVE WRITTEN HIM EVERY DAY THIS MONTH.

## CHAPTER VI

### AN EXAMPLE OF THE PROCEDURE OF CONDUCTING

#### A LESSON PRESENTATION TO THE CLASS

The following section will show how a lesson unit is to be presented to the class. Out of the so many lesson units found in the textbook "English Sentence Patterns", Lesson IV was chosen for that purpose with the hope that it might provide a good source for an illustration of lesson presentation in the following part.

This lesson material consists mainly of the Present Progressive Tense, of which the pattern has the following structural formula: (AM, IS, ARE) + the -ING form of a Class 2 word. The problems involved in this pattern will include 1) the choice of one form of the verb to BE with regard to the Subject of the sentence, and 2) the addition of suffix -ING to the main verb, like STUDYING, WRITING, and SITTING. The link between the Subject and the Predicate has been dealt with and learned in Lesson I, in which the students are trained to select among the three varieties of the present tense of BE. In this case it can be assumed that now this feature does not cause a serious problem any more. Moreover, the "Full" Verbs or Class 2 words other than the "BE" - Verbs have already been practiced in the patterns presented in the second Lesson. And, in addition to those patterns, a number of Adverbs of Time such as EVERY DAY, EVERY WEEK, EVERY MORNING, and IN THE AFTERNOON, and several expressions that are related to the "meaning" of repeated actions, like ALWAYS, USUALLY, OF-

TEN, and SOMETIMES, are also given in the presentation as well as in the exercises that follow. Therefore, the students have, until then, learned the "meanings" of the patterns.

The problem of attaching the -ING ending to the Class 2 word will be encountered in writing only, since in speech the addition of the suffix does not make any change in the pronunciation of the Verb-stem as well as the suffix itself; or, in other words, the derived form will be pronounced like the stem + the -ING suffix (in). If the learner goes from speech to writing, he has to bear in mind that there<sup>are</sup> some changes made in the stems whenever they are combined with the -ING ending. The following examples will show both forms with changes and forms without changes:

1. READ + ING ---- READING (simple addition)
- GO + ING ---- GOING idem
- WALK + ING ---- WALKING idem
  
2. WRITE + ING ---- WRITING (loss of the silent final E)
- GIVE + ING ---- GIVING
- CONTINUE + ING ---- CONTINUING
  
3. SIT + ING ---- SITTING (doubling of the final consonant of the stem)
- PLAN + ING ---- PLANNING
- TRAVEL + ING ---- TRAVELLING
- OCCUR + ING ---- OCCURRING
  
4. DIE + ING ---- DYING (IE --> (becomes) Y)
- LIE + ING ---- LYING

This problem may be tackled in a special way much later after the student has mastered the pattern orally, both receptively and productively, in its meaningful con-

texts. It has to do with one of the orthographic systems, i.e. the systems of symbolizing or visualizing what has already been learned through listening and speaking.

The lesson unit under discussion here consists of three parts. The first part deals with a question - pattern using the Interrogative words **WHAT**, **WHEN**, **WHERE**, **WHO(M)**, and **WHO**. It is an introduction on question-word questions, which are discussed in more elaborate details in another Lesson. Emphasis is placed on the questions that use the ordinary Question Word - order. Examples:

**WHAT** DOES JOHN STUDY?

**WHERE** DOES HE STUDY EVERY DAY?

**WHEN** DID YOU ARRIVE HERE?

**WHO(M)** DOES HE USUALLY VISIT?

The presentation is then followed by various types of exercises on the part of the students.

The second part presents patterns of the Present Progressive Tense, where two of the patterns are to be learned, that is, the positive statement pattern and the question pattern. The last part is spent on patterns that illustrate the different "meanings" of single-word modifiers preceding Class 1 words, as they are brought about by different Parts of Speech of the modifiers. In this case, the modifiers consist of Adjectives or Class 3 words, and Nouns or Class 1 words. For example:

1. WE HAVE A GOOD DINNER -- WE HAVE A STEAK DINNER  
EVERY DAY. EVERY DAY.
2. IT'S A SMALL CLASS. -- IT'S A GRAMMAR CLASS.

Not only are the modifiers -- **GOOD**, **SMALL**, **STEAK**, **GRAMMAR** -- different in meanings but also they have a marked



difference in intonation in phrases where they occur. The phrase GOOD DINNER has the phrase-stress on DINNER, and its intonation starts from level 2 on the first word, rises on the syllable DIN to level 3, and then drops into level 1 on the second syllable of DINNER; whereas in the phrase STEAK DINNER the stress falls on the first word, STEAK, and the phrase intonation immediately starts off with pitch-level 3 and drops at the end of the first word to pitch level 1. Compare the intonation mark:



The following discussion will be limited to the second part of the unit only, that part that illustrates the presentation of the Present Progressive Tense. In the first place the material deals with patterns of the Affirmative sentences, and secondly it is concerned with the Question patterns.

#### A. Pattern of the Affirmative Sentences

The presentation of this structure can take several steps as shown in the following:

##### I. Review

Before presenting the pattern the teacher makes the class review the previous lesson that has a close relation to this one; namely, the Present Tense sentences. It may be done by means of a substitution exercise, for example:

I GO TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY. (WE)  
 WE GO TO SCHOOL EVERY DAY. (ALWAYS)  
 WE ALWAYS GO TO SCHOOL. (STUDY ENGLISH)

WE ALWAYS STUDY ENGLISH. (HE)

HE ALWAYS STUDIES ENGLISH. (THE STUDENTS)

THE STUDENTS ---- etc.

Or, by questions and answers (Teacher asks, individual student answers). Examples:

1. WHAT DO YOU USUALLY DO IN THE MORNING? -- I USUALLY PRACTICE ENGLISH IN THE MORNING.
2. WHEN DOES JOHN USUALLY STUDY EVERY DAY? -- HE USUALLY STUDIES IN THE MORNING EVERY DAY.
3. WHERE DO THEY PLAY TENNIS? -- THEY PLAY TENNIS HERE.

## II. Transition to New Development (Pattern)

In the next exercise the teacher performs a series of related actions in front of the class, by which he frames his sentences. He asks the class to be silent while listening to him, and then he begins:

"Now listen to my sentences carefully. I'M SPEAKING TO YOU NOW. I'M STANDING IN FRONT OF THE CLASS NOW. YOU'RE LOOKING AT ME NOW. JUDY IS SITTING BESIDE MARY NOW. And, now look here: (walking towards the door the teacher says) I'M WALKING TO THE DOOR NOW. (Then, putting his right hand on the door handle) I'M PUTTING MY HAND ON THE HANDLE. I'M HOLDING IT NOW. (Opening the door slowly he continues) I'M OPENING THE DOOR NOW. (Then) I'M CLOSING IT. (Back to the class again) I'M WALKING TO THE CLASS AGAIN NOW."

With those examples in such a given situation the students are expected to be able to grasp the structure and its appropriate meaning.

## III. Statement of Aim

The next step is that the teacher tells the stu-

dents that they are going to practice, in this particular lesson, sentences which indicate actions or situations that are still in progress at the present moment, or most commonly called in grammar the "Present Continuous Tense" or the "Present Progressive Tense".

#### IV. Development

After that, the teacher turns to the sentences that are printed in the textbook, reads or recites them twice to the class, first in normal conversational speed and then a bit more slowly. Then he reads again sentence by sentence, the students listen and repeat the sentence in chorus immediately after the teacher has finished each sentence. Now he asks an individual student to say it after him, and he writes the sentence on the blackboard. It is followed by another individual for the second sentence, and so forth, until some of the sample sentences are put on the blackboard. This time the students see in printed form what they have already heard from the teacher.

The teacher may add his own made-up sentences to this mimicry-memorization step.

#### V. Generalization/Comments

Now it is time for the teacher to show the class the meaning of the structure. All the explanation given are inductive conclusions drawn from the sentences that the students have heard and repeated. In this case the teacher can divide the conclusions in terms of the following points: Form, Meaning, and Distribution.

- a) Form: Present Progressive Tense sentences have a structural form consisting of the Present Tense of BE

+ -ING form of a Class 2 word.

b) Meaning: (AM, ARE, or IS) + the -ING form of the Verb is used to indicate "actions" or "situations" in progress at the present time. For instance, the sentence PETER IS WALKING DOWN THE STREET, or IT'S RAINING HARD NOW, shows the fact that until then the action of walking or the situation of raining still goes on. Comparing the above sentences with the sentence PETER USUALLY WALKS DOWN THE STREET IN THE AFTERNOON it might become clear that in the latter the action of walking is done repeatedly or habitually.

c) Distribution: The pattern is most frequently used with time expression NOW. The choice of the proper form of BE (AM, ARE, IS) is wholly determined by the Subject of the sentence.

This Affirmative pattern, like any other positive pattern, is used to indicate a statement of fact that is going on at the present moment.

## VI. Practice

It is the teacher's task to vary the exercises in such a way that the class keeps in a lively atmosphere.

1. Substitution drill: (subject position).

I'M WORKING HARD NOW (YOU)  
 YOU'RE WORKING HARD NOW (HE)  
 HE'S WORKING HARD NOW (THEY)  
 THEY'RE ----  
 etc.

Note: this practice is carried out first in unison, and then individually.

2. Transformation exercises: Sentences of different Tenses are transformed into Present Continuous sentences.

I STUDY ENGLISH HERE EVERY DAY -- I AM STUDYING ENGLISH HERE NOW.

THEY VISITED MARY YESTERDAY -- THEY ARE VISITING MARY NOW.

JOHN WORKS THERE EVERY DAY -- JOHN IS WORKING THERE NOW.

SHE WASHES THE CLOTHES ON FRIDAY. -- -----

etc.

3. Transformation - Substitution Drill: a combination of substitution exercise and a change in the Tenses.

MARY IS WATCHING THE PLAY. (HE)

HE IS WATCHING THE PLAY. (YESTERDAY)

HE WATCHED THE PLAY YESTERDAY. (EVERY SATURDAY)

HE WATCHES THE PLAY EVERY SATURDAY. (THEY)

THEY WATCH THE PLAY EVERY SATURDAY. (NOW)

THEY ARE WATCHING THE PLAY NOW. (ALWAYS)

etc.

4. Supplementary Practices: As an assignment to be done at home the teacher tells the students to use their Practice-Book, i.e. the "English Pattern Practices", and the Charts, especially Charts I and III. For example, there are practices as the following:

a) (Chart I). I'M LOOKING FOR A COMB.  
I'M LOOKING FOR A WATCH.  
I'M LOOKING FOR AN UMBRELLA.

b) (Chart III). THE BOYS (THEY) ARE WALKING DOWNTOWN.  
THE GIRLS (THEY) ARE WORKING AT HOME.

THE BOY (HE) IS ATTENDING THE CONCERT.

### B. Question Pattern

The presentation of the Interrogative sentences in this pattern goes along the same procedure as the statements. This pattern consists of two structures, one dealing with the "Yes-No" questions (i.e. questions that can be answered by YES or NO) and the other with the "Question-Word" questions (i.e. questions that demand a "complete" answer, or whose answers have a different form from them). The practices on the students' part are also done in chorus first and then through individual turns.

The steps of procedure:

I. Review Exercise. The lesson is begun by recalling the question forms that the students have learned in the previous lessons. It moves on to the Present Continuous Tense statements that have been practiced very recently.

II. Transition to New Development. The teacher reads (or, if possible, recites) to the class several sentences that involve a contrast between the statement pattern and the question pattern of Present Progressive Tense.

Examples:

WE ARE STUDYING GRAMMAR NOW.

JOHN IS LEARNING ENGLISH.

ARE YOU STUDYING GRAMMAR NOW?

IS JOHN LEARNING ENGLISH?

WHAT ARE YOU STUDYING?

WHERE IS JOHN LEARNING ENGLISH?

III. Statement of Aim. The teacher tells the students

that they are going to practice the question sentences of the Present Continuous Tense; and he asks them to focus their attention especially on the splitting of the Predicate by the interruption of the Subject.

IV. Development. Now, the teacher presents the sample sentences as found in the textbook. It is followed by choral and individual repetition of the class. When he feels that, on the whole, the students have got some "feeling" about the pattern, the teacher might write some of the sentences on the blackboard, by which the pattern will be more strongly and vividly learned by the students. It may be helpful to adopt the question-answer technique in the presentation.

V. Generalization/Comments.

A. Form: The forms of BE (AM, ARE, IS) is separated by a class 1 word (the Subject of the sentence) from the -ING form of the class 2 word. Question-words WHAT, WHERE, WHO(M) and the like, are placed before the form of BE. See the examples:

ARE THEY WAITING FOR THE DOCTOR?

WHERE ARE THEY WAITING FOR THE DOCTOR?

B. Meaning: Like the other questions with other Tenses, this pattern demands an oral response from the second person (that is, the person to whom the first speaker speaks).

C. Distribution: (Also see the statement pattern!)

Forms of BE + the -ING in question patterns specifies the pattern for "situations" and "actions" that continue until the present moment. The Adverb of time

"NOW" is also another explicit indication of the patterns.

## VI. Practice

### A. Transformation or Conversion exercise (From Positive to Interrogative)

JOHN IS WORKING IN HIS OFFICE -----

IS JOHN WORKING IN HIS OFFICE?

HE IS TEACHING GRAMMAR ----- IS HE TEACHING GRAMMAR?

SHE IS OPENING THE WINDOW -----

IS SHE OPENING THE WINDOW?

THE BOYS ARE PLAYING FOOTBALL NOW -----

ARE THE BOYS PLAYING FOOTBALL NOW?

### B. Substitution exercise

ARE YOU STUDYING GRAMMAR? (HE)

IS HE STUDYING GRAMMAR? (TEACHING)

IS HE TEACHING GRAMMAR? (ENGLISH)

IS HE TEACHING ENGLISH? (THEY)

ARE THEY -----

### C. Transformation (Advanced). From statements about PAUL the students are required to produce the corresponding questions concerning HIS BROTHER.

For example:

PAUL IS DRINKING COFFEE -- WHAT IS HIS BROTHER DRINKING?

PAUL IS LIVING IN NEW YORK -- WHERE IS HIS BROTHER LIVING?

PAUL IS VISITING A FRIEND -- WHO IS HIS BROTHER VISITING?

PAUL IS TELEPHONING JOHN -- WHO IS HIS BROTHER TELE-



## PHONING?

Notes:

1. More practice may be given by means of the Charts that are provided in the accompanying practice-book.
2. Resourcefulness and willingness of the teacher will contribute greatly to a success in the lesson.
3. Robert Lado and some other advocates of Pattern Practice Approach suggest that the presentation of each pattern should not take more than 15 per cent of the allotted time. The remaining 85 per cent will be for practices by the students. Whether it can be applied in practice or not still needs to be proved by the teacher concerned.

## CHAPTER VII

### PROBLEMS FOR THE INDONESIAN STUDENTS

#### LEARNING ENGLISH

In this chapter the writer wants to point out some major problems which, according to him, most Indonesian students will generally experience in learning English. What is presented here has been taken from the writer's own analysis of the structural difference and similarity between Indonesian and English, together with his teaching experience for some years. Each problem is illustrated in close connection with the material found in the English Sentence Patterns.

#### A. Problems in acquiring a grasp on various Tenses in English

Students will find a great deal of trouble in learning the English Tenses, because in English there are a lot of different structural units called tenses causing changes in the meaning of a sentence, which phenomenon is not found in Indonesian. As a result, they make mistakes in recognizing the meaning of sentences spoken to them, and also in producing the correct Tense in their own English sentences.

Unlike English, Indonesian does not have any conjugation of Verbs nor has it any tenses or concord between the Subject and the Predicate. The forms of Verbs remain the same in all Tenses or circumstances regardless of the Subjects. Look at the following examples:

- a) 1. Saja menulis surat. )  
 2. Ali menulis surat. )  
 3. Kamu menulis surat. )
- There is only one form of the Verb menulis, though the Subjects are different Persons.

b) 1. Saja menulis surat tiap hari. (Simple Present --- Habitual action).

2. Saja sedang menulis surat sekarang. (Present Progressive Tense).

3. Saja telah menulis surat sekarang. (Present Perfect Tense).

or, Saja sudah menulis surat sekarang.

4. Saja menulis surat kemarin. (Simple Past Tense).

5. Saja sedang menulis surat kemarin. (Past Progressive Tense).  
 (ketika hari mulai hujjan)

6. Saja telah (sudah) menulis surat kemarin (ketika engkau menelpon). (Past Perfect Tense).

7. Saja akan menulis surat nanti sore. (Simple Future Tense).

8. Saja akan sudah menulis surat besok. (kalau engkau datang kemari djam 8 pagi besok). (Future Perfect Tense).

If we compare English with Indonesian in terms of the signalling devices for different Tenses, it will be clear that an Indonesian sentence differs from other sentences by way of Adverbs of Time like sekarang, tiap pagi, kemarin, and/or Function Words ("Structure" Words) such as sedang, sudah, akan, etc. The point will be clearer if the comparison proceeds step by step from one Tense to another.

I. In the Simple Present Tense the Verb undergoes a

change in form by conjugation if the Subject of the sentence is a Third Person Singular. Compare these examples: I play tennis. ----- He plays tennis. In Indonesian, however, the Verb is never conjugated, e.g. Saja bermain tenis, Dia bermain tenis, Mereka bermain tenis. Furthermore examples of the conjugation of the Verb to BE and of that of the DO-Verbs can be found in the English Sentence Patterns Lesson I and Lesson II respectively.

a. The lesson is interesting. (Lesson I.1b, p.4)

John is busy.

You are busy.

I am busy.

b. I study in the morning. (Lesson II 1a, p. 12)

You study in the morning.

The classes begin in the morning.

John studies here.

Mary studies here.

She practices English.

To learn that BE becomes AM with I, or IS with John or he or she, or ARE with you, we, they, etc.; and that the DO-Verbs always have two forms in Present Tense ( i.e. the infinitive form and the one with the suffix -ES indicating third-person-singular), will be one of the fundamental problems that the Indonesian students will encounter as soon as they begin their study of English. It is not surprising if they make sentences like He study or He don't go home.

This situation can be remedied by sufficient pattern - practice exercises like the following:

A. I go home.

He -----

She -----

John and Mary -----

We -----

The teacher -----

C. I am ill.

You -----

He -----

She -----

The students -----

John -----

B. I do not like him.

He -----

She -----

We -----

They -----

Mary -----

D. I'm not hungry.

You -----

He -----

She -----

They -----

II. In learning the Simple Past Tense, attention should be focused on the inflectional forms of the Verbs, most of which have -ED as the ending while the rest take special forms that are not predictable. (Verbs belonging to the second group are what is commonly called Irregular Verbs).

In Indonesian the signalling unit for this Tense is the presence of an Adverb of Time (Expression of Past Time) such as kemarin, minggu yang lalu, tahun yang lalu, etc. The learner may produce a Simple Present sentence when he intends to express it in the Past Tense, e.g. " They work in the laboratory yesterday." (Translated from the Indonesian Mereka bekerja dilaboratorium kemarin, in which bekerja indicates a past action only because of the occurrence of the Adjunct kemarin).

Exercises to teach the use of the Simple Past Tense.

A. He is in Djakarta now. (Yesterday)

He was in Djakarta yesterday. (They)

They were in Djakarta yesterday. (Now)

----- (We)

----- (I)

----- (Last week)

----- (The students)

----- (My father)

----- (Now)

B 1. I am hungry now. (yesterday morning)

I was not hungry yesterday morning.

2. We are busy now. (last night)

We were not busy last night.

3. She is happy now. (last Monday)

-----

4. Tono is tired now. (two hours ago)

-----

5. They are absent now. (last week)

-----

C 1. We practice English every day. (last night)

We practiced English last night.

2. He works in the garden every afternoon. (yesterday

afternoon)

He worked in the garden yesterday afternoon.

3. Mother cooks meat every day. (yesterday)

-----

4. They go to the movies every Saturday. (last Satur-

day)

-----

5. I see the professor every morning. (last week)

-----

D 1. They waited for the bus there.

Did they wait for the bus there?

2. The girls drank ice-cream in the restaurant.

Did the girls drink ice-cream in the restaurant?

3. He rode a bicycle to Prambanan.

-----

4. I lost my watch last month.

-----

5. We walked past his house last Sunday.

-----

III. The structural signal that indicates Progressive Tenses in English consists of one form of BE and the -ING form of the Main Verb. In Indonesian, Progressive Tenses are marked by a "Function Word" sedang or lagi, which is placed in front of the Verb. If we look at the following examples, it seems that the structural devices of the English sentences and the Indonesian ones look alike; but as we analyze further, it is clear that the English devices are more complex, since the Verb to BE alone varies from one form to another to show different Tenses.

A 1 a. I am going to the door now. (Lesson IV 2 a, p.33)

b. Saja sedang pergi kepintu sekarang.

2 a. You are studying grammar.

b. Kamu sedang beladjar tatabahasa.

3 a. Peter is walking down the street.

b. Petrus sedang berdjalan-djalan didjаланan.

4 a. He is coming to class now.

b. Dia sedang masuk kekelas sekarang.

B 1 a. What were you doing when John came to see you ?

(Lesson XVIII 3, pp. 171 - 172)

b. Apa jang sedang kamu kerdjakan ketika John me-  
ngundjungi kamu?

2 a. I wasn't doing anything, but I had been writing  
letters before.

b. Saja sedang tidak melakukan apa-apa, tapi saja  
baru sadja telah sedang menulis surat sebelum -  
nja.

C 1 a. We should have been practicing English last  
night.

b. Kita seharusnja <sup>telah</sup> sedang latihan bahasa Inggris  
kemarin malam.

2 a. John might have been resting in his room. (See  
Lesson XXII 2, p. 216)

b. John mungkin telah sedang istirahat dikamarnja.

D 1 a. This time tomorrow I shall be flying to Spain.  
(Note: This is not included in the English Sen-  
tence Patterns)

b. Saat ini besok pagi saja akan sedang terbang ke  
Sepanyol.

Notes: - The English and the Indonesian sentences above  
are to be read in pairs.

- Tenses exemplified by sentences under numbers  
C 1 b, C 2 b, and D b are not frequently  
used in Indonesian.

Some exercises to enforce the use of Progressive Tenses

A 1. My friend attends classes every day.

My friend is attending classes now.





2. The students play badminton every day.  
-----

3. Siti eats a banana every day.  
-----

4. My sister washes the clothes every morning.  
-----

5. Usman listens to the radio every night.  
-----

B They were walking in the street when it rained yesterday. (He - read a book)

1. He was reading a book when it rained yesterday.

(She - sleep)

2. ----- (I - cycle home)

3. ----- (We - eat lunch)

4. ----- (Sidin - iron his clothes)

5. ----- (My brother - work in the garden)

C Had John been doing his homework when you called?

1. (They - study). Had they been studying when you called?

2. (His brother - lie in bed). -----

3. (His father - read a magazine) -----

4. (His mother - sew). -----

5. (The maid - dust the floor) -----

6. (She - write letters) -----

D 1. He is drawing a picture now.

He has been drawing a picture for an hour now.

2. I am writing a composition.  
-----

3. Sidin's father is selling several kinds of fruits.

-----

4. We are waiting for you now.

-----

5. It is raining now.

-----

IV. English Perfect Tenses are signalled by a form of the Auxiliary Verb HAVE and the past participle of the Main Verb. In Indonesian, sentences that are equivalent to English Perfect Tense sentences are expressed by means of a "Function Word" sudah or telah, which does not vary in form. Consequently, the various forms of HAVE cause difficulty in learning, because the students have to learn more structural forms than what they have mastered in their native language. The difficulty arises not only in recognizing these forms with regard to the Subject, but also in grasping the meaning of the Tenses. Moreover, the learning of the Past Participle form of the Verbs itself constitute a separate problem. In most cases the Perfect Tenses are confused with the other Tenses, for instance, such an error as this may frequently be found in the student's exercise or conversation: I have seen the movies yesterday, instead of I saw the movies yesterday.

Remedial exercises:

A. (Simple Past Tense contrasted with Present Perfect Tense)

1. I lived in Magelang last year. (since January)

I have lived in Jogjakarta since January

2. He borrowed the book two days ago. (for two days

now)

3. The teacher lent him the money last week. (for a week now)

4. The janitor opened the windows at five this morning. (Now)

5. Saleh wrote two letters last night. (Today)

B. (Present Progressive Tense is contrasted with the two kinds of Present Perfect)

1. He is cleaning the blackboards now.

a. He has cleaned the blackboards now.

b. He has been cleaning the blackboards for five minutes now.

2. Sumardi is returning the book to the library now.

a. -----

b. -----

3. Is father smoking a cigar now?

a. -----

b. -----

4. They are staying at this hotel now.

a. -----

b. -----

5. The boy is resting on a sofa.

a. -----

b. -----

C. 1. Telephone ---- Had you telephoned before you came here?

2. Tell them ---- Had you told them before you came

here?

3. Write her a letter -----
4. Ask permission -----
5. Receive the money -----

D. 1. I was answering the questions when you rang the bell last night.

I had been answering the questions when you rang the bell last night.

2. He was listening to the radio when you rang the bell.

3. ~~My~~ brothers were playing chess when you rang the bell.

4. Were they going for a walk when you rang the bell?

5. He was not repairing his bicycle when you rang the bell.

V. To show something that is going to happen in the future, English makes use of to BE GOING TO and the Auxiliary Verbs SHALL and WILL in front of the infinitive form of the Verb, whereas Indonesian uses the "Function Words" mau and akan before the Verb. Adjuncts of Time such as nanti, besok pagi, minggu depan, bulan yang akan datang, etc., are also important indications of future actions or situations. It can be said that any sentence in the Simple Present Tense will be changed into a Future-tense sentence if an expression of Future time is added to it. For instance, Saja bermain sepak bola will

be changed into Future Tense in Saja bermain sepak bola nanti sore.

The problem concerning the Future Tense lies in the choice of the proper forms of Auxiliary to BE in to BE GOING TO in agreement with the Subjects, and in the choice of SHALL and WILL together with the Infinitive form of the Verb. In this case, the student might put TO in front of the Verb or add an s-ending to it, like in these two "sentences": I shall to go, and He will goes.

Some remedial pattern-practice exercises:

- A. 1. Sudjono is going to talk to the teacher this afternoon. (She)
2. She is going to talk to the teacher this afternoon. (tomorrow)
3. She is going to talk to the teacher tomorrow. (We)
4. - - - - - (They)
5. - - - - - (I)
6. - - - - - (tonight)
7. - - - - - (Maria)
8. - - - - - (Maria and Ani)

- B. 1. The cameraman is taking a picture of them now. (tomorrow)

The cameraman is going to take a picture of them tomorrow.

2. They are swimming now. (this afternoon)
- - - - -

3. The doctor is coming to see us now. (tomorrow morning)
- - - - -

4. She is buying me some sweets. (next time)

-----

5. We are riding in a taxi to Surabaya now. (next week)

-----

- C. 1. I shall come by bus. (We)  
 2. We shall come by bus. (They)  
 3. They - - - - - (He)  
 4. He - - - - - (Mrs. Mulia)  
 5. Mrs. Mulia - - - - - (The professor)  
 6. The professor - - - - - (We)

Besides the problems listed above, there is a difficulty when, as every English teacher will have observed in the classroom, the learner jumps from one Tense to another without being sure of himself. This happens when he is made to use the language actively and freely, either in writing or in conversation. Moreover, within a single complex or compound sentence itself there might not be agreement in time. Look, for example, at the following incorrect "sentences": "When I saw him yesterday he is working in the garden", and "One of our friends bought the tickets and the rest wait by the door." More and more practices of the various Tenses in varied situations, like those given above, may assure the students of the usage of Tenses in English. See also the other two exercises to remedy the situation.

A. (Use Chart III in the English Pattern Practices)

1. The boys are walking down town and the women are working at home.
2. The women are working at home and the boy is at-

tending the concert.

3. The boy is attending the concert and the girl is opening the window.

4. - - - - -

5. - - - - -

etc.

B. (Using the same Chart)

1. The boys walked downtown while the women were working at home.

2. The women worked at home while the man was attending the concert.

3. The man attended the concert while the girl was opening the window.

4. - - - - -

5. - - - - -

6. - - - - -

etc.

B. Problems in mastering the Interrogative Constructions

Disregarding intonation as one of the sentence-signalling features, Word Order in English forms an important criterion to differentiate between a Statement and a Question. The simple sentence The man is tall (which is a statement) is different in meaning from Is the man tall? (i.e. a Question) although the words are the same in both of them. The only difference is marked by the word-order, that is, the Predicate IS precedes the Subject the man in the second sentence.

Statements with the linking Verb (or Copula) to BE have the following word-order: Subject ←→ Predicate , or

Noun  $\leftrightarrow$  Verb + Adjective or Noun  $\leftrightarrow$  Verb ( Linking Verb ) + Noun. (Cf. Paul Roberts' Understanding English, pp. 176 - 178).

Note: the symbol  $\leftrightarrow$  is used to indicate the concord between the Subject and the Predicate.

The Interrogative forms of these Statements have the reverse order Verb  $\leftrightarrow$  Noun (or Predicate  $\leftrightarrow$  Subject).

Observe the following sentences:

Statements

Questions

- |                                   |                                |
|-----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Grass <u>is</u> green.         | <u>Is</u> grass green?         |
| 2. The professor <u>is</u> busy.  | <u>Is</u> the professor busy?  |
| 3. That man <u>is</u> my brother. | <u>Is</u> that man my brother? |
| 4. They are lawyers.              | <u>Are</u> they lawyers?       |

The Auxiliary Verbs BE, DO, and HAVE, likewise, precede the Subjects in Interrogative sentences. Observe these examples:

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| 1. The professor <u>is working</u> in his office. | <u>Is</u> the professor <u>working</u> in his office? |
| 2. They <u>play</u> tennis in the park.           | <u>Do</u> they <u>play</u> tennis in the park?        |
| 3. He <u>has gone</u> to the doctor.              | <u>Has</u> he <u>gone</u> to the doctor?              |

In Indonesian the difference between a Statement and a Question is not signalled by a contrast in word-order. There are no Auxiliary verbs that are equivalent to the English BE, DO, HAVE and their variations, but there is a "structure word" or a "function word" apakah as a signalling device for Questions that have, in English, the verb to BE or the Linking-Verb to BE or any other Auxiliary Verb. This word apakah is used for all Yes - No



Questions. See the sentences below, which are almost the exact equivalents of the last three above.

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Profesor sedang bekerja dikantornja. | <u>Apakah</u> profesor sedang bekerja dikantornja? |
| 2. Mereka bermain tenis dihalaman.      | <u>Apakah</u> mereka bermain tenis dihalaman?      |
| 3. Dia telah pergi kedokter.            | <u>Apakah</u> dia telah pergi kedokter?            |

The following are examples of sentences that have, in English, the Linking-Verb to BE.

- |                                   |                                     |
|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1. Dia (adalah) seorang pedagang. | <u>Apakah</u> dia seorang pedagang? |
| 2. Mereka (adalah) teman Hardi.   | <u>Apakah</u> mereka teman Hardi?   |

Learning Word-Order is learning something new for the Indonesian students, that is, that they have to shift the habit of merely adding a Function Word apakah in their own language into the habit of reversing the order of words, from Subject  $\leftrightarrow$  Predicate (Noun  $\leftrightarrow$  Verb; or Noun  $\leftrightarrow$  Auxiliary + Verb) to Predicate  $\leftrightarrow$  Subject (Verb  $\leftrightarrow$  Noun; or Auxiliary  $\leftrightarrow$  Noun + Verb) in English.

Indonesian also has a number of Interrogative words that are equivalent to those of English: Siapa, Mengapa, Kapan, Berapa, Apabila, Berapa banyak. Questions that are preceded by Interrogative words, which are commonly called Question-word Questions, can be divided into two groups: the first group consists of those questions in which the Interrogative words function as the Subjects or parts of them, and the second group includes those in which the Interrogators stand in the position of Objects

of the sentences. The two groups differ from each other in word-order, the first having the word-order of Statements (i.e. Noun  $\leftrightarrow$  Verb) and the second having the order of the Yes-No questions (i.e. Verb  $\leftrightarrow$  Noun or Auxiliary  $\leftrightarrow$  Noun + Verb). Compare the following sentences:

A. Who visited Mr. Smith last week?

B. Who did Mr. Smith visit last week?

or Whom did Mr. Smith visit last week?

A learner usually has trouble with the first construction, and he will confuse it with the construction of sentence B. So, he will say Who did visit Mr. Smith last week? for sentence A, or How much coffee does grow in Brazil? instead of How much coffee grows in Brazil?

In Indonesian, the difference between the two constructions is signalled not by Word-order but by the forms of the Verb; the Predicate of sentence A is in the Active form, whereas the Verb of sentence B is in the Passive form. Observe these equivalents of the two Questions above:

A. Siapa (jang) mengunjungi Tuan Smith minggu jang lalu?

B. Siapa (jang) dikunjungi Tuan Smith minggu jang lalu?

Siapa in the first sentence functions as the performer of the action, like who in sentence A; whereas in the second sentence, Siapa, like Who or Whom in sentence B above, is the undergoer of the action.

Both Indonesian and English have a type of Clauses (or "Included Sentences") that are introduced by In-

interrogative Words. These Clauses, if we may call them "Dependent question-word Questions", are of the two types paralleling the two kinds of Question-word Questions already mentioned above. Yet, they have the same Word-Order, i.e. the Statement word-order -- the Predicate following the Subject. Observe each pair of the following examples: (See English Sentence Patterns, Lesson XVII, p. 157).

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| A. 1. I know <u>who was here</u> .                              | Saja tahu <u>siapa jang ada disini</u> .  |
| 2. I know <u>what happened here</u> .                           | Saja tahu <u>apa jang terjadi disini</u> .  |
| 3. Do you know <u>which answer is correct?</u>                  | Tahukah kamu <u>dijawaban mana jang betul?</u>  |
| 4. I will ask him <u>how many students went on the picnic</u> . | Saja akan menanyakan <u>panjanja berapa banjaknja mahasiswa jang pergi piknik</u> .                   |
| B. 1. I remember <u>whom I talked to</u> .                      | Saja teringat <u>siana jang saja adjak bitjara</u> , or <u>Saja ingat kepada siapa saja bitjara</u> . |
| 2. I believed <u>what he told me</u> .                          | Saja pertjaja <u>apa jang dia katakan padaku</u> .  |
| 3. Do you know <u>what time it is?</u>                          | Tahukah kamu <u>djam berapa sekarang?</u>   |
| 4. I can't remember <u>when the train leaves</u> .              | Saja tak ingat <u>kanan kereta api berangkat</u> .  |
| 5. I can't understand <u>why you want to go</u>                 | Saja kurang mengerti <u>me-ngapa kamu akan pergi ke-</u>  |

there.sana.

It is hard for the learner to realize that the question When did he arrive? becomes When he arrived if it is included in a larger sentence like "Do you know when he arrived?" What he has been accustomed to in his native language is that a question does not undergo a change in the word-order whenever it is included in a larger construction. See once again the examples above: Siapa jang ada disini? (a Question standing by itself) remains the same in "Saja tahu siapa jang ada disini" (A 1.) ; and Kapan kereta api berangkat? (an independent sentence) also remains the same in "Tahukah kamu kapan kereta api berangkat?" (a dependent sentence in B 4). Consequently, he is inclined to treat all the English dependent Question-word Questions in the same way as he does the independent question-word questions, according to the practice in his own language.

Another thing that is worthwhile noticing concerning the learning of the English Interrogative sentences is the bringing back of the Main Verb into its Infinitive form when the question demands a form of Auxiliary DO. The following affirmative sentences may incorrectly be transformed by the student into those Interrogatives as shown on the right hand side:

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1. They went to school by bus.         | <u>Did</u> they <u>went</u> to school by bus?<br><br>or <u>Do</u> they <u>went</u> to school by bus? |
| 2. He opens the windows every morning. | <u>Does</u> he <u>opens</u> the windows every morning?   |

or Do he opens the win-  
dows every morning?

Some remedial exercises

A. (Exercise to enforce the Word-order)

1. Bardi can go now. --> Can Bardi go now?
  2. Siti is ten years old. --> Is Siti ten years old?
  3. She might come tonight. --> Might she come tonight?
  4. They are ill. --> Are they ill?
  5. You will be here tomorrow. -->
  6. The teacher has bought a motor-scooter. -->
  7. You must practice constantly. -->
  8. We saw him recently. -->
- etc.

B. (Practice to induce the proper Word-order in Question word Questions)

- I.
  1. Who came here yesterday? (What)
  2. What came here yesterday? (Which students)
  3. Which students came here yesterday? (Which)
  4. - - - - - (How many)
  5. - - - - - (How many students)
  6. - - - - - (Whose father)
  7. - - - - - (Whose)
  8. - - - - - (Which)

- II.
  1. What did you see last night?
  2. Whom --> Whom did you see last night?
  3. Which book --> Which book did you see last  
night?
  4. Which --> - - - - -
  5. How much money --> - - - - -

6. How many people --> -----
7. When --> -----
8. Where --> -----
9. How much --> -----
10. Which girl --> -----

III. 1. We met them in Surabaya two weeks ago.

- a. Who --> Who met them in Surabaya two weeks ago?
- b. Whom --> Whom did we meet in Surabaya two weeks ago?
- c. Where --> Where did we meet them two weeks ago?
- d. When --> When did we meet them in Surabaya?

2. Mother usually buys meat in the butcher's shop.

- a. Who -----
- b. What -----
- c. Where -----

3. He should take the medicine three times a day.

- a. Who -----
- b. What -----
- c. How often -----

C. (Practice to enforce the use of the Auxiliary verb to DO)

1. He likes chocolate. --> Does he like chocolate?
2. We drink milk every day. --> Do we drink milk every day?
3. The lazy boy came late this morning. --> -----
4. My brother repaired my bicycle. --> -----

5. Djono took your books. ---> - - - - -
6. He taught them to swim. ---> - - - - -
7. They did their homework until ten last night. --->  
- - - - -
8. This watch costs a lot of money. ---> - - - - -
9. She knows the shortest way to the station. --->  
- - - - -
10. Columbus discovered America. ---> - - - - -

D. (Practice to induce Word Order in the Dependent question-word questions)

1. Who came late yesterday? --> I don't know who  
came late yesterday.
2. What did you eat yesterday? --> I remember what I  
ate yesterday.
3. How many of you need new books? --> Tell me - - -
4. What time will the party begin? --> Who can tell  
me - - - - ?
5. How old is he? --> I don't know - - - - -
6. Which is better, this one or that one? --> I can't  
tell - - - - -
7. Where is he going? --> Can you tell me - - - - ?
8. Where did he go last month? --> I know - - - - -
9. Why didn't he come? --> Who knows - - - - - ?
10. How much butter does she need? --> Ask her - - - -

C. Problems in Mastering the Construction of Negative Sentences

There are two negative words in Indonesian - ti-  
dak and bukan. When the Predicate of the sentence is a-  
dalah, the negative word bukan or tidak follows it, and

thus the order of the words is parallel with that of the English negative Statements. For example:

1. Sumardi adalah bukan seorang guru.

Sumardi is not a teacher.

2. Murid-murid itu adalah tidak tjerdas.

The pupils are not intelligent.

As shown in these examples, it is clear that the distribution of bukan and tidak is the following: Tidak (or shortened into Tak) is used whenever the Subject Complement of the sentence consists of an Adjective (Class 3 word); while bukan is used when the Subject Complement is a Noun (Class 1 word).

With the other type of Predicate (or Verb) , the negative word tidak, which is the only one, precedes the Auxiliary, or, if the sentence does not have an auxiliary Verb, it precedes the Main Verb. There are two things to notice here: one of them is that the Word Order of the Indonesian Negative Statements is exactly the reverse of that of the English ones; and the other is that "tidak" can be used whether the sentence has an auxiliary or not, whereas the English Negative word "not" can occur in a Negative Statement only when there is an Auxiliary preceding the Full Verb. Compare the following pairs of examples:

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Dia <u>tidak</u> dapat berenang.           | He can <u>not</u> swim.                    |
| 2. Ibu <u>tidak</u> sedang membuat kueh-kueh. | Mother is <u>not</u> making (any) cakes.   |
| 3. Saja <u>tidak</u> menulis surat kemarin.   | I did <u>not</u> write a letter yesterday. |
| 4. Mereka <u>tidak</u> pergi seko-            | They do <u>not</u> go to school            |



lah pada sore hari.                      in the afternoon.

In number 3 and number 4 (the Indonesian Statements) we see that there is no word intervening between tidak and the Verb. The English "not", however, is always preceded by an Auxiliary in all four sentences above.

If the Indonesian student is to transform an Affirmative sentence into a Negative one, he almost always will simply add not to it, like He not studies mathematics or I not went to the cinema last night. Moreover, the student frequently misses the Verb to BE, since the Predicate adalah in Indonesian is usually omitted without any effect on the meaning of the sentence.

One need not be surprised at finding that the learner makes sentences like He not clever, and You not a doctor because of the transfer from his own sentences Dia tidak pandai and Kamu bukan seorang dokter.

Another problem in learning the structure of Negative Statements, like in learning the Questions, is to be found in bringing back the Verb to its Infinitive form. As shown earlier in this chapter, Indonesian does not have a variety of forms for a Verb; and as a result, the student tends to neglect the verb-forms in English. Such common errors as the following sentences may be found in the student's exercises:

1. My brother does not works in a factory.
2. John and Mary didn't attended the concert last night.
3. Jenny doesn't speaks English well.

Exercises to remedy the situationA. (Practice to enforce the use of the Linking-verb  
to BE)

1. This pencil is long. --> This pencil is not long.
2. The sky is blue. --> The sky is not blue.
3. They are engineers. --> They are not engineers.
4. These cigarettes are expensive. --> - - - - -
5. The film was interesting. --> - - - - -
6. I am a Sundanese. --> - - - - -
7. He is taller than Sidin. --> - - - - -
8. She is always proud of herself. --> - - - - -
9. They were at Malang last week. --> - - - - -
10. That building is very tall. --> - - - - -

B. (Practice to assure the student of the position of  
NOT)

1. He has bought a new pair of shoes. --> He has not  
bought a new pair of shoes.
2. I can drive a car. --> I can not drive a car.
3. You may go to the cinema tonight. --> - - - - -
4. They might arrive late. --> - - - - -
5. She is wearing a new hat. --> - - - - -
6. We should practice every day. --> - - - - -

C. (Practice to implant the habit of bringing back the  
Infinitive form of the Verb)

1. He always works hard. --> He does not always work  
hard.
2. You have to write in ink. --> You do not have to  
write in ink.
3. We enjoyed the picnic very much. --> - - - - -
4. She finished the assignment last week. --> - - - - -

5. They wrote a lot of poems. ---> - - - - -
6. The worker earns a lot of money. ---> - - - - -
7. The boy smoked a packet of cigarettes. -> - - - - -
8. He frequently plays football. ---> - - - - -

D. Problems in Maintaining the Agreement between the Questions and their Answers

In answering questions, the Indonesian student might produce sentences that do not show agreement with the Questions, in terms of Tense, Number, as well as Gender. When there is no trouble in substituting the appropriate Pronouns for the Subjects, there is probably great difficulty in keeping the answers in the same Tense as that of the Questions, or there might not be concord at all between the Subject and the Predicate. One may find the examples in Robert D. Wilson's English Sentence Patterns for Filipinos, (pp. 24, 145, 197 and 228) , as the following:

1. Did the teacher give a lot of assignments?  
Yes, he do. (p. 24)
2. Does your instructor teach well?  
Yes, she did or Yes she do. (p. 145)
3. Did you finish the project?  
Yes, I was finishing it in two hours. (p. 197)
4. Were you writing your theme?  
No, but I am writing a letter. (p. 228)

Likewise, when attention is focused on the Tense, there might be an error in choosing the proper Pronoun for the Subject. See the following sentences, which are also taken from the same book as the sentences above:

1. Did the students enjoy the party?  
Yes, he did. (p. 24)
2. Did Teresa bring the flowers?  
Yes, he did. (p. 24)
3. Did the plan work? Yes, they did. (p. 34)
4. Did the planes fly? Yes, it did. (p. 34)

In the response to the second sentence above, there is a mistake in the Pronoun with regard to Gender (i.e. that Teresa must become she), and in the other responses the Pronouns show no concord in Number.

(Note: The underlining in those sentences is not found in the original sentences. It is added there of the writer's own accord in order to clarify the points of discussion)

The Pronouns he and she are equivalent to the Indonesian dia or ia, but the Indonesian Pronouns do not indicate sex-distinction. Therefore, it demands the learner's conscious understanding to see that Teresa or Mary or Mrs. Smith becomes she, whereas John or Peter or Mr. Brown becomes he. The Pronoun mereka is not exactly equal to they, because its usage is limited for persons only. Yet, the student might not find trouble in using this English Pronoun, since it can be a substitute for any plural Noun, either animate or inanimate. (In this case THEY has a larger scope of usage than MEREKA).

The fact that short answers in Indonesian consist mostly of Ja or Tidak causes a fundamental problem for the student in acquiring the habit of making the proper short answers in English. The typical short answers in English are made up of Yes or No plus a very short construction having a Subject and a Predicate, e.g. Yes, he is, Yes, we do, No, she didn't, No, they can't, etc. Great care must be given to this learning point, so that the student will not develop the wrong habit of giving a very short answer Yes or No only. Probably this is also the case with the Spanish-speaking students in learn-

ing English, because, as we can see, the managing Staff of the English Language Institute of the University of Michigan has anticipated the problem, and thus presented the Short Answers from the very first lesson in English Sentence Patterns. (See page 6 of the book mentioned lately)

Remedial Exercises:

A. (Practice to drill the agreement or the concord in Tenses)

Answer all of these questions, first with Yes and then with No.

1. Does he work in the Shipping Company?  
a) Yes, he does.      b) No, he doesn't.
2. Do they live with your parents?  
a) Yes they do.      b) No, they don't.
3. Was she driving a car when you saw her? a)---b)---
4. Did they plan to make a trip again? a)---- b)----
5. Is she still in the hospital now? a)---- b)----
6. Are they waiting for me? a)---- b)----
7. Was she sorry for that? a)---- b)----
8. Will it begin early tonight? a)---- b)----
9. Has he received the money? a)---- b)----
10. Does she mend her clothes herself? a)---- b)----

B. (Practice for proper Pronouns)

1. Does the boy play football in the afternoon?

Yes, he does.      No, he doesn't.

2. Do the men often walk downtown?

Yes, they do.      No, they don't.

3. Do the women work at home? -----

4. Does the gentleman attend the concert? -----

5. Does the maid always open the windows? ---- ----
6. Do the ladies usually wait for the bus  
there? ---- ----
7. Does the mother wash the dishes? ---- ----
8. Do the students study in the library? ---- ----
9. Does the professor listen to the radio? ---- ----
10. Do the children go to school in the  
morning? ---- ----

C. (A combination exercise)

1. Did your friend meet you at the station?  
a) Yes, he (she) did. b) No, he (she) didn't
2. Are the boys going to do it again later?  
a) Yes, they are. b) No, they aren't.
3. Do you want to go to town again this  
week? ---- ----
4. Does your father usually have coffee  
for dinner? ---- ----
5. Had the students taken the examina-  
tion before? ---- ----
6. Is a doctor always busy? ---- ----
7. May the tickets be sold now? ---- ----
8. Does the waitress serve good meals? ---- ----
9. Were the teachers discussing the  
problem here? ---- ----
10. Did the train arrive early this  
morning? ---- ----

There is still one thing to mention before closing this part of discussion, that is, the recognition of the response to a Negative Question. English Negative Questions principally elicit the same responses as the

Positive ones. In Indonesian, on the contrary, a Negative Yes-No Question can draw forth two kinds of answers that are a little different in form but can mean the same thing. Look at the following examples:

1. (Question): "Apakah dia tidak datang hari ini?"

(Didn't he come today?)

(Answers) : a. Ja. Dia tidak datang hari ini.

b. Tidak. Dia tidak datang hari ini.

c. Ja. Dia datang hari ini.

2. (Question): "Apakah kamu tidak senang melihat bioskop?"

(Answers) : a. Ja. Saja tidak senang melihat bioskop.

b. Tidak. Saja tidak senang melihat bioskop.

c. Ja. Saja senang melihat bioskop.

Answers number 1a and number 1b are the same in meaning, though different in form. Similarly, numbers 2a and 2b mean the same thing. In the two answers numbered a above there seems to be a contradiction, because Ja and Tidak are used together; but the Indonesian language does allow such a construction. For number 1a and 1b, and 2a and 2b there are only two equivalents in English, i.e., "No, he didn't come today" and "No, I don't like to see films" respectively. (There is no sentence like "Yes, he didn't come today" or "Yes, I don't like to see films"). Responses number c are equivalent to the English positive answers, that is, "Yes, he came today" (1 c) and "Yes, I like to see films" (2 c).

When, in Indonesian, the answer to a Negative Question merely consists of Ja or Tidak, it usually means that

the second person (i.e. the person addressed) wants to give his agreement to the first speaker. An Indonesian learner may, consequently, treat the English negative Question in the same way as he does to the Indonesian one. Thus, he might say, "Yes, he isn't" as an answer to "Isn't the professor busy today?", or "Yes, he doesn't" for the Question "Doesn't he have a lot of work?" ( See English Sentence Patterns by Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries, p. 242).

Enough practices can confirm the usage of the proper forms. For example:

1. Didn't he come by bike? (Yes) - Yes, he did. He came by bike.
2. Isn't he playing the piano now? (No) - No, he isn't.  
He isn't playing the piano now.
3. Aren't you very fond of football games? (No) -----
4. Won't they send him to prison? (Yes) -----
5. Wasn't it you who shouted at me? (No) -----
6. Doesn't he like mangoes? (Yes) -----
7. Aren't we going to be late? (No) -----
8. Haven't we got another book? (No) -----
9. Don't they think him an old fool? (Yes)-----
10. Wouldn't she rather go out with Tono than with Toni?  
(No) -----

#### E. Problems in Mastering the English Articles and some other Determinatives (Noun Determiners)

Both Indonesian and English have a number of words that are called Determinatives, but the distribution or usage of the Indonesian Determinatives are not, as we will see in the following discussion, exactly the same



as that of the English ones.

I. The use of A or AN. The Indefinite article A or An can be used to mean "one", for example, in the sentence I have a pencil or I see an aeroplane. Besides, it is generally used to mean one in general, not identified — "One of these things that we call, any one of those things that are called, it doesn't matter which one".

(Palmer, Harold E., The New Method Grammar, Longmans, Green and Co., London - New York - Toronto, 1958, p. 28).

For example, if we say This is a car, we mean "This is one of those things that people call 'cars'".

This Indefinite Article has various equivalents in Indonesian, such as seorang, seekor, sebuah, sebatang, seputjuk, sehelai, etc., although these words also belong to what people call Partitive Nouns (like the English a sheet, a bunch, a crowd, a piece, etc. -- See Palmer's book, p. 21). However, a singular Countable Noun in Indonesian might not be preceded by an Article, whereas in English it must be. Observe these examples: Saja membeli sebuah buku kemarin. (I bought a book yesterday), or Saja membeli buku kemarin (which is equivalent to I bought a book yesterday, or I bought books yesterday) ; Dia adalah seorang dokter. (He is a doctor), or Dia adalah dokter (which is also He is a doctor). Consequently, the students might omit A or AN in their sentences, where its presence is indispensable. He will, quite frequently, make sentences like She is teacher, I am student, and This is apple.

II. The Use of THE. This is probably a word whose grammatical usage (as well as whose meanings) is the

most difficult to learn by the Indonesian students. It is more difficult than A or AN. Principally, the definite Article THE is used to mean specific or identified. For example, The new student is from Diskarta, The coffee from Brazil is good. A variety of its usages has been indicated by Harold E. Palmer in his book already mentioned above as the following: (pp. 27 - 28)

1. THE is used with certain words to mean "the only one that there is", e.g. the sun, the sky, the world, the highest mountain, etc.
2. THE is used to mean "the one you know about, or I need not tell you which one because you can guess". For instance, Open the door, Give me the pen.
3. THE is used to show that we mean "this, the one I spoke about just now, the one in question, etc." For example, the use of THE in a story style, when it is the second or the next mentioning of the same person or animal, or any other object: "Once I saw a very black cat with only one eye. The cat was bigger than any other one that I have ever seen in my life."
4. THE is sometimes used to mean "all the things that are of this sort". Examples: "Edison invented the gramophone", "The nuclear bomb is very disastrous".

Besides these usages, THE is also used with the names of a mountain (e.g. The Alps), a river (The Mississippi River, The Amazon), a sea or an ocean (The Pacific Ocean, The Red Sea), a few countries, usually consisting of two words or having -S ending (The United States, The Dominican Republic, The Netherlands).

To learn a single word with such a lot of different meanings requires a special effort and great perseverance. The student may not find it so confusing in the recognition level, but he will, perhaps, not be able to use it correctly and properly in his production exercise (in writing or speaking).

In Indonesian there are two words equivalent to THE, that

is, the words ITU and TERSEBUT, but they are used only for the meanings indicated in numbers 2 and 3 above. With the other meanings, THE has no equivalent, since in Indonesian people just say matahari for the sun, langit for the sky, gramafon for the gramophone, pegunungan Alpen for the Alps, sungai Amazon for the Amazon, and Nederlan for the Netherlands, etc. In addition, the word ITU is also a Demonstrative Adjective that has the same meaning as THAT or THOSE in English. See the following examples:

THAT book is expensive. - Buku ITU adalah mahal.

THOSE books are expensive. - Buku-buku ITU adalah mahal.

Remedial exercises on the use of A or AN and THE:

A. I. The Use of A or AN. (See Allen, W. Stannard, Living English Structure, Longmans, 1959, p. 1).

1. A dog is AN animal.
  2. - potato is - vegetable.
  3. - student is not always good.
  4. - chair is made of wood.
  5. - husband is - man.
  6. - pencil is like - pen.
  7. - eye is blue or brown.
  8. - fish can swim.
  9. - cow gives milk.
  10. - picture is pretty.
- etc.

II. Use of A or AN (Chart I - English Pattern Practices)

- |               |                               |
|---------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. comb       | - Do you want <u>a</u> comb?  |
| 2. watch      | - Do you want <u>a</u> watch? |
| 3. key        | - - - - -                     |
| 4. pencil     | - - - - -                     |
| 5. toothbrush | - - - - -                     |
| 6. fork       | - - - - -                     |
| 7. apple      | - - - - -                     |
| 8. iron       | - - - - -                     |
| 9. umbrella   | - - - - -                     |
| 10. knife     | - - - - -                     |
| 11. spoon     | - - - - -                     |
| 12. hairbrush | - - - - -                     |

B. Use THE when necessary. (See also English Sentence Patterns, pp. 52-53).

- |                             |                                      |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| music                       | - My brother likes <u>music</u> .    |
| 1. film                     | - My brother likes <u>the film</u> . |
| 2. Spain                    | - My brother likes <u>Spain</u> .    |
| 3. professor                | - - - - -                            |
| 4. professor Brown          | - - - - -                            |
| 5. lady                     | - - - - -                            |
| 6. young student            | - - - - -                            |
| 7. South America            | - - - - -                            |
| 8. story                    | - - - - -                            |
| 9. philosophy               | - - - - -                            |
| 10. philosophy of Aristotle | - - - - -                            |
| 11. zoo                     | - - - - -                            |
| 12. airport                 | - - - - -                            |
| etc.                        |                                      |

C. Use of A or AN and THE.

1. Once there was - king called Alfred.

2. When - king saw this, he began to laugh.
3. This is - picture. It is - picture of - mountain. It is - picture of - highest mountain in - world.
4. - microscope was invented a long time ago.
5. Please give him - piece of bread.
6. What is that animal called? It is called - camel.
7. Please shut - window.
8. I can see - man coming along - road. ( See Palmer's The New Method Grammar, pp. 30-31).
9. - aeroplane is flying in - sky.
10. - Nile is in Egypt.

D. (Chart V).

- |                               |   |   |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| 1. camera - on the table.     | - | The camera on the table is not expensive.   |
| 2. typewriter - on my desk -  | - | The typewriter on my desk is not expensive. |
| 3. ink - in the inkpot.       | - | -----                                       |
| 4. record-player - over there | - | -----                                       |
| 5. soap - in the bathroom.    | - | -----                                       |
| 6. nail-file - on the table   | - | -----                                       |
| 7. toothpaste - in my room    | - | -----                                       |
| 8. needle - in the box        | - | -----                                       |
| 9. thread - on the table      | - | -----                                       |
| 10. pen - in my pocket        | - | -----                                       |
| 11. string - in the box       | - | -----                                       |
| 12. wristwatch - on the table | - | -----                                       |

III. The Use of the other Determinatives. In order to be clear it is better to show from the very beginning

what we mean by "Determinatives" (or, as they are called by modern Grammarians, Noun Determiners). A Determinative is "a word which determines something about the word which it modifies or for which it stands, but does not describe it." (See: Hornby, A.S., Gatenby, E.V., Wakefield, H., The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, London, Oxford University Press, 1958, p. ix). The English Determinatives include such words as A, AN, THE, THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE, SOME, ANY, NO, NONE, MANY, MUCH, FIRST, HIS, THEIRS, etc. Some of them, which bring about difficulties to the Indonesian students will be discussed here.

THIS, THAT, THESE, and THOSE: The Indonesian word INI is equivalent to both THIS and THESE, whereas ITU is equal to THAT and THOSE. These two Indonesian Demonstrative Adjectives can be used with either Countable Nouns (Singular and Plural) like orang ini, medja itu, buku - buku itu, sepeda-sepeda itu, or Uncountable Nouns such as tinta ini, gula itu, etc. In English, however, only THIS and THAT can be used with both kinds of Nouns, while THESE and THOSE are only for Plural Nouns (i.e. Countable Nouns). For example: this table, that chair, this ink, that sugar, these gentlemen, and those girls. As a consequent, the students will have trouble in using these Determinatives properly, but it is comparatively not so serious as that caused by THE or A/AN above, and it can be overcome soon.

A Pattern-practice exercise to induce the distribution of these Determinatives. (Also see English Sentence Patterns, p. 54).

The exercises are easy. There - Those exercises are  
easy.

The building is large. Here - This building is  
large.

The books are heavy. Here - These books are heavy.

The tree is green. There - That tree is green.

1. The students come from Surabaya. There - - - - -
  2. The book has a green cover. Here - - - - -
  3. The pencils are sharp. There - - - - -
  4. The ideas are new and interesting. Here - - - - -
  5. The car is expensive. There - - - - -
  6. The women are waiting for the bus. There - - - - -
- etc.

SOME and ANY: These two words only have one equivalent in Indonesian, that is, beberapa, but there is a difference in their distribution of usage. Beberapa is used with Countable Nouns only, whereas SOME and ANY are used either with Countable Nouns or with Uncountable ones. There is no word for SOME and ANY that are used with Uncountable Nouns. People say beberapa manga or beberapa djeruk, but not beberapa air or beberapa mentega. Moreover, beberapa, unlike SOME and ANY, may occur in any forms of sentences — Affirmative Statements, Negative Statements, and Questions. Indonesian students will find some difficulty in mastering the distribution of SOME and ANY, and thus they may confuse their proper usages.

An example of pattern-practice exercise on SOME and ANY:  
(By use of Chart V of the English Pattern Practices).

1. camera. This store sells. -- This store sells some

cameras.

2. typewriter. John doesn't have. - John doesn't have any typewriters.
3. ink. We need every day. - We need some ink every day.
4. record-player. Did you see? - - - - -
5. soap. She bought. - - - - -
6. nail-file. The store has. - - - - -
7. toothpaste. Do you need? - - - - -
8. needle. She always has in her bag. - - - - -
9. thread. Who wants? - - - - -
10. pen. He asked me to get. - - - - -
11. string. The teacher doesn't need. - - - - -
12. wristwatch. He didn't buy. - - - - -

MANY, MUCH, A LOT OF, FEW, LITTLE, A FEW, and A LITTLE:

The Determinatives MUCH, MANY, and A LOT OF are equal to the Indonesian BANJAK, FEW and LITTLE are equal to SEDIKIT, and A FEW is equivalent to BEBERAPA, but there is no Indonesian word for A LITTLE. Like SOME and ANY, these words cause a problem concerning the distribution, where MANY, FEW, and A FEW are used with plural Nouns only, while MUCH, LITTLE, and A LITTLE are used with Uncountable Nouns. A LOT OF is like the Indonesian BANJAK, since it can precede either of the two types of Nouns.

Examples of the exercises on these Determinatives:

(By use of Chart V)

- A. 1. I don't have many cameras.
2. I don't have many typewriters.
3. I don't have much ink.
4. - - - - -
5. - - - - -



- 6. - - - - -
  - 7. - - - - -
- etc.

- B. 1. The store sells a lot of cameras.
2. The store sells a lot of typewriters.
3. The store sells a lot of ink.
- 4. - - - - -
  - 5. - - - - -
  - 6. - - - - -
  - 7. - - - - -
- etc.

- C. 1. Do you see many cameras?
- No, I don't. I only see a few cameras.
2. Do you see many typewriters?
- No, I don't. I only see a few typewriters.
3. Do you see much ink?
- No, I don't. I only see a little ink.
- 4. - - - - -
  - 5. - - - - -
  - 6. - - - - -
  - 7. - - - - -
- etc.

Although Nouns in Indonesian are also distinguished into Countable and Uncountable Nouns, as we have observed so far, they are not grammatically treated the same as the English Nouns. One can say "Saja membeli roti" as well as "Saja membeli buku" (Roti, like tinta, is uncountable, but buku is countable). In English, nevertheless, he can say "I bought bread", but not "I bought book". For the latter, he has to say I bought a

book, or I bought books. Therefore, it is not surprising if the Indonesian student makes a lot of errors concerning the use of Nouns --- he might pluralize the Uncountable Nouns, or miss the plural ending in Countable Nouns, or omit the Noun Determiner when its occurrence is very significant. With all the exercises given above, and a lot more of practice, we hopefully expect the problems to have been solved, or at least, reduced to a minimum.

## CHAPTER VIII

### EVALUATION OR JUDGMENTS

Finally we feel that the discussion will not be complete without giving an evaluation of the materials and the method of presentation, i.e., whether they are proper or improper, sufficient or insufficient, suitable or not. To make it easy, the whole material will be viewed from some different angles.

#### A. The Materials and the Indonesian Students

As indicated in the earlier part, the materials have been carefully prepared for Latin - American students, whose first language is Spanish. However, they are also intended to be used by other students of differing ethnic groups and mother-tongues, with a rearrangement or a special shift of emphasis. It may not be bad to adopt the procedure of presentation of the patterns as it is found in the textbook, in which patterns of the "linking-verb" BE are placed in the beginning, for in Indonesian the Auxiliary verb BE as the Predicate of a given sentence is usually not expressed either. For example, "SAJA (ADALAH) SAKIT", "DIA (ADALAH) SEORANG DOKTER", "INI (ADALAH) BUKU".

Because of this phenomenon the Indonesian students will have difficulties in learning the patterns of to BE since they cause an interference in their established habits of patterning.

In the preceding Chapter we already saw some of the problems particular to Indonesian students; the books

have of course to be adapted to them, and extra practices to be inserted, in the way we have already suggested. Other practices are less relevant to Indonesian students, for example, Exercise 4.3 pp. 28-29, Exercise 2b.1 p. 35, Exercise 1b.1 p. 99, Exercise 1.3 Situations 1, 2, 3 pp. 233-234 in "English Sentence Patterns" and Practice 3 p. 2, Practice 37:7 p. 51, and Practice 5:5 p. 335 in "English Pattern Practices", and they can be left out without much loss.

The development of material proceeds in such stages that the subject matter is presented cumulatively, from the simplest patterns through the intermediate to the most complex ones. For example, the lessons start with a pattern of IT'S A COMB or HE STUDIES GRAMMAR EVERY DAY, move on to patterns like I HAVE LEARNED ENGLISH FOR SEVERAL YEARS NOW and sentences consisting of more than one Clause — HE MUST HAVE LEFT THE HOUSE WHEN YOU TELEPHONED HIM YESTERDAY —, and reach the patterns with "IF-Clauses" such as WE WOULD HAVE TOLD THE POLICE IF A THIEF HAD BROKEN INTO OUR HOUSE, and sequences of longer sentences that are linked by THEREFORE, ALSO, HOWEVER, etc.

Those steps can also be followed by the Indonesian students without causing much trouble to them.

#### B. Ideal setting

The prevalent situation in the Indonesian schools at present is that there are thirty to fifty pupils in a class. For pattern practice, this is too big a class, since continual practice of the whole class as well as of every individual pupil demands much control from the

teacher. A class of ten or fifteen students at most will be quite ideal, so that the pupils will get enough turns in learning each new point. Every pupil needs to have the two kinds of textbooks ("English Sentence Patterns" and "English Pattern Practices") for the sake of their own practice in class and at home. This too is impossible because of the scarcity of books available and the consequent danger of losing books that are used in the home of students.

In addition, it might be preferable to have Charts in the classroom, large enough to be seen by the whole class. Available pictures hung on the classroom walls might facilitate the learning and understanding of the cultural contents and backgrounds of the language. If it is possible, the school should have a language laboratory.

### C. Cultural Contents and Vocabulary Grading

It cannot be denied that the materials have been so carefully arranged that each pattern may carry and depict an aspect of the English usage. If one goes deeper into what is included in the materials, he will find now and then something that has to do with the people's ways of life, their daily activities, their recreation and games, and many other things — all of which constitute the so-called "culture".

The presentation of cultural contents is more or less related to the development of the vocabulary contents, since it is largely through vocabulary items that the culture reveals itself. With this assumption the writer feels that it is necessary to describe how the vocabula-

ry is worked out and presented in the text. What Charles C. Fries points out in his book entitled "Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language" (p. 50 and p. 51) has shed light on this particular subject concerning the vocabulary build-up.

With regard to several stages of language learning, the presentation of Vocabulary contents undergoes four steps. In the first place the vocabulary items consist of words that describe situations in the immediate environment and of those expressions that are directly connected with the experience of the student. (Such as the names of objects to be found in the classroom, actions or activities done at school, etc.).

Secondly, the vocabulary is concerned with the chief areas of living of the student: the home; time and weather or seasons; food and necessary utensils; the parts of the body and clothing; and physical characteristics like size, colour, weight, and flavour.

Thirdly, the vocabulary material extends to the more general areas of experience, such as words concerning post-office, bank, hospital, bookstore, clothing store, drugstore, groceries, railway station, and places of interest (e.g. museum, art gallery, zoo, theatre, cinema) and public sports.

Fourthly, the vocabulary covers words illustrating some special areas of experience, for example, education, government and politics, and music in the United States.

With the supplementary exercises fostered by the use of Charts in the English Pattern Practices, the cultural contents as well as the vocabulary contents can be presented very extensively and progressively. Yet expe-

rience has shown that the students complain at the end of the course that the two books do not supply them with as much vocabulary as they need to use. (This is the case with the students of the I.K.I.P., to whom the material is given. Outside this Institute, the textbooks have never been tried out or introduced). The trouble might be caused by the fact that most words recur here and there in the presentation of a new structure or pattern.

#### D. A Word about the Method

People are of the opinion that no method is superior to any other in a rigorous sense. Every method is suitable and proper as well as valid and fruitful for a certain objective, a particular subject, at a particular time and place, and with particular individuals. "There are no good or bad methods; there are only good or bad teachers," says Mary Finocchiaro in her "Teaching English as a Second Language". According to her, it is the teacher that plays an important role in any teaching situation.

From an experiment Underwood, a psychologist, summarizes as follows,

The superiority of one method over the other, when found, has not been great and seems to be largely a function of the S's (Subject's) previous experience. (quoted in Wilga M. Rivers, The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, the University of Chicago, 1964, p. 105).

Here he shows that the learner's previous experience will affect or determine success in the next learning.

In spite of this all, experiments and experience have proved the virtues of the Aural-Oral Approach as a

method in language learning or language teaching. It is by far the most profitable and the shortest way to the mastery of language, both receptively when listening and reading, and productively when speaking and writing. It can bring the learner nearer to that kind of language which is used in real communication among the native speakers. The superiority of Pattern Practice over a Grammar-Translation method is shown by Robert Lado in a way that is more or less mathematical. In pattern-practice, the student produces a sentence at normal conversational speed after each cue is given to him. A class may produce twenty or thirty different sentences per minute following as many cues as supplied by the teacher. Thus within a class period of fifty minutes the number of recitations will range over 1,000 to 1,500. In a grammar-translation class of the same period of time there will be no more than 50 recitations, since each student will take one minute to recite. If it is proved that learning increases with the number of recitation in which the same utterance is not repeated more than three times, pattern practice must be far superior. With choral recitation in pattern practice, the number of students' responses in a class of 10 students would be 10 times 1,000, or 10,000. (See Robert Lado's Language Teaching, p. 106).

During a pattern-practice class, the students learn not only how to embody ideas and to make a correct response to a given cue, but also how to maintain the right pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation, — these aspects of language that receive very little attention in a grammar-translation class.



### E. Weaknesses of Pattern Practice as an Approach to Language Learning

However good and appropriate a method might be it is in no way free from defects. Some weaknesses of pattern practice will be pointed out in the following section.

Boring. Continuous practice done over and over again causes fatigue to the student; and to a great extent it makes him feel bored. Fatigue is usually followed or accomplished by decreasing attention and diminishing interest. If this happens, the class will come to little more than just passing time.

With a well-prepared teacher who has equipped himself with a number of methods which he has at his finger tips, such a situation can easily be avoided. This teacher, with all of his intelligence and rich experience, can jump from one technique to the other, which he feels quite useful. The teacher's sense of humour is usually the best ingredient to prevent the class from being bored.

Too mechanical. The second danger of using pattern-practice procedure is that the production by the students may become mere mechanical manipulation of meaningless words in substitution and conversion exercises. The majority of objections to pattern-practice have come from psychologists and educationists, who consider that pattern drill does not challenge the student's mind, let alone improve it. They say further that the learner is treated as an animal that can be made to do whatever the trainer likes, without employing his personality. To

that extent the instruction will lose its chief value , i.e. improvement and help in the growth of the student's mentality and personality.

Yet, one may keep in mind that all practices must be done immediately after, and never before, the material has been introduced and after the first imitations and repetitions by the pupils. The procedure adheres to the principle that "Appreciation (Understanding) precedes Execution (Practice)". The tendency to mechanicalism can be avoided by preserving, in pattern practice , the situation and the contrasts with which the material is introduced, for these contrasts and this situation are definitely the clues to the meaning that is to be grasped and to be enforced by the pattern practice exercises . (See Charles C. Fries, Foundations for English Teaching, The Kenkyusha Press, Tokyo, 1961, p. 342).

Non-communication. Advocates of Pattern Practice have realized that the technique does not readily bring the learner to real communication with the native speakers in society, and they have tried to defend it through various argumentations. Nelson Brooks, after discussing the method a little bit broadly in one of his books, says that pattern practices make no pretence of being communication, but they take the learner through the types of behaviour that must be automatic when he does communicate. He also shows the importance of pattern practice through a comparison with other types of practices , by asserting that pattern practice is to language in action as practice exercises in any skill are to meaningful performance in that skill. In any case pattern practices are intended to give way to automatic production of smooth,

correct single sentences whenever a real communication situation demands their use.

A psychologist, Wertheimer, in his Productive Thinking gives his own opinion about pattern - practice and concludes that "repetition is useful but continuous use of mechanical repetition also has harmful effects." "It is dangerous," he continues, "because it easily induces habits of sheer mechanized action, blindness, tendencies to perform slavishly, instead of thinking, instead of facing a problem freely." (See W.M. Rivers: The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher, p. 67 ).

Rivers herself, as a language scholar, is of the opinion that pattern practices or pattern drills have not led automatically to fluency in varied situations.

Pattern practice, to be effective, should be followed by exercises in dialogue forms, ranging from the simple, guided pupil-pupil dialogues to the more free dialogues, where the pupils are trained to make proper selections.

Demanding too much. At last it may be said that Pattern-practice approach demands a lot from the teacher. With this method, the characteristics and personality of the teacher become much more important than with a grammar-translation or reading method. The student will identify himself as closely as possible with the teacher: his tone of voice, his pronunciation, his intonation, and even his gestures and his facial expressions. Consequently, when there happens to be a student or a pupil who dislikes the teacher, it is the former who will inevitably suffer.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Allen, Stannard W., Living English Structure. London: Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1959.
2. Bloomfield, Leonard, Language. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1933.
3. Brooks, Nelson, Language and Language Learning. Theory and Practice. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1964.
4. Carrol, John B., "An Application of Psycholinguistics in Language Teaching: An Audio-Visual Instructional Device". Monograph Series on Languages and Linguistics, (Georgetown University) No. 14, 1961.
5. Crow, Lester D. and Crow, Alice, Human Development and Learning, New York: American Book Company, 1956.
6. Ellis, Robert S., Educational Psychology. Princeton, New Jersey: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc. 1952.
7. Finnocchiaro, Mary, Teaching English as a Foreign Language. New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1958.
8. Fries, Charles C., American English Grammar. New York: Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1940.
9. Fries, Charles C. and Fries, Agnes C., Foundations for English Teaching. Tokyo: Kenkyusha Ltd., 1961.
10. Fries, Charles C., Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963.
11. Fries, Charles C., "Preparation of Teaching Materials, Practical Grammars, and Dictionaries, Especially for Foreign Languages", Language Learning, Vol. IX, Nos. 1 & 2, 1959.
12. Fries, Charles C., The Structure of English. An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences. New York: Harcourt Brace & World, Inc. 1952.
13. Fries, Charles C., Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1960.
14. Gurrey, P., Teaching English as a Foreign Language. London: Longmans, Green and Co. Ltd., 1960.

15. Hill, Archibald A., "Can Linguistics be made useful to Teaching?". Language Learning, Vol. IV, Nos. 3 & 4, 1952-53.
16. Hornby, A.S., Gatenby E.V., Wakefield, H., The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English. London: Oxford University Press, 1958.
17. Lado, Robert, Annotated Bibliography for Teachers of English as a Second Language. Washington : U.S. Government Printing Office, 1955.
18. Lado, Robert, "Criteria for the Introduction and Proper Ordering of Sentence Patterns". Language Learning, Special Issue, June 1958.
19. Lado, Robert, Language Teaching. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1964.
20. Lado, Robert, Language Testing. The Construction and Use of Foreign Language Tests. New York : McGraw - Hill, Inc., 1964.
21. Lado, Robert, Linguistics Across Cultures. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1960.
22. Lado, Robert, "Linguistic Science and Language Tests". Language Learning, Vol. III, Nos. 3 & 4, July - December, 1950.
23. Lado, Robert, "Maintaining Interest" (Editorial). Language Learning, Vol. II, No. 1, 1949.
24. Marquardt, William F., "Linguistic Theory and Teaching in Columbia". Language Learning, Vol. IX, Nos. 3 & 4, 1959.
25. Meras, Edmund A., A Language Teacher's Guide. New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1962.
26. Mohrman, C., Sommerfelt, A., and Whatmough, Joshua, Trends in European and American Linguistics, 1930-1960. Utrecht: Spectrum Publishers, 1963.
27. Palmer, Harold E., The New Method Grammar. London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1958.
28. Rivers, Wilga M., The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher. Chicago & London: The University of Chicago Press, 1964.
29. Robert, Paul, Understanding English. New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1958.
30. Shurter, Robert L., Handy Grammar Reference : A Guide to Better English. New York - Toronto - London: McGraw-Hill Book Coy., Inc., 1959.
31. Twaddell, W.F., "Meanings, Habits and Rules". Language Learning, Vol. II, No. 1, 1949.