

THE
TEACHING OF ENGLISH
TO NON-ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS
(APPLICATION COURSES)

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by
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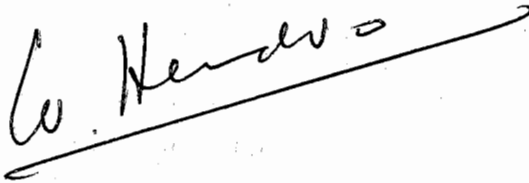
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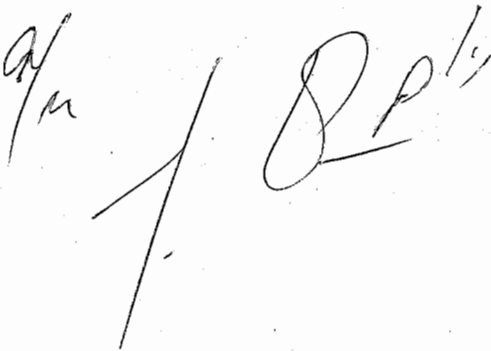
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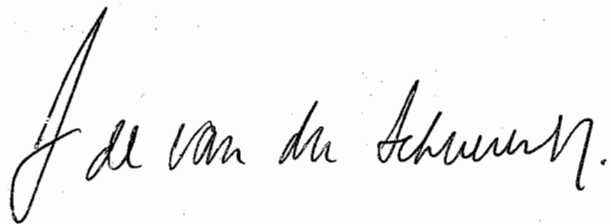
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PART I

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Most non-English Departments in Universities or IKIP's want their students to acquire an adequate reading ability for various reasons. Most of the books used are still written in English. On the part of the academic world, the business world, the military, and the public at large, knowledge of another language - in this case English - is unquestionably approved of and sought after. Yet, strange to say, students are reluctant to read books that are written in English. The reason behind this is that they are not able to handle the mechanism of reading properly. As a result, university students seldom read other authors, and learn only from the lectures given, solely depending on their lecturers' point of view. At the end of their academic year these students then become mere "sardjana2 diktat!" Lack of critical outlook is a prevalent phenomenon among students at present. They tend to take in blindly whatever is presented to them without critically "digesting" the contents.

Teaching English at the non-English Departments is a terribly difficult task, especially if one wants to create the right motivation so that the students are urged to proceed on their own and to practise for themselves.

So much depends on the teacher of English. The teacher feels desperate at times when he looks at the result and finds that he has prepared twice as hard but only gets half as much for his efforts. On the students' part they see no progress in their work. Students stumble continually over difficulties, either structurally or lexically. To them it is no fun spending forty-five frustrating minutes in doing an exercise in English and making mistakes if not blunders in the process. Where then do the actual problems lie ?

They are :

1. There is no graded material available in the teaching of "Application English".
2. The teachers themselves are not sure what goal they are aiming at.

3. Another reason is the vague and obscure ideas about the right method.

Let us look at the problems more closely.

ad. 1. No graded material.

So far no fixed programme is available to aid the teacher in teaching English a "vak minor" ("minor" here means that English does not affect their promotion) at a non-English Department. Most of the work done at present by students at various universities consists of reading passages which structurally as well as lexically are not suitable. The final result of this kind of reading without any insistence on the mastery of the basic patterns and a systematic expansion of the vocabulary, is a blurred and vague idea of the contents of the reading passage.

The majority of the students does not even comprehend the general outline of the reading passage. A light of understanding would start dawning on them only after repeatedly re-reading the passage. This is the wrong attitude. Students should not understand a reading passage only after two or three times reading it. The method is time-consuming and most inefficient. What we language teachers are trying to do is train these students to acquire a reading ability to such an extent that they can easily skim through a passage and get the gist of it. Students should not feel tied to want to know the meaning of each and every word in the process of reading.

We have previously stated that there is no fixed programme in the teaching of "Application English". Material for teaching is taken at random without much emphasis on whether the structures are graded, the vocabulary systematically set up. When the students have the text in front of them, they are confronted with numerous problems at once.

This kind of teaching is no good, because very little progress if any will be made. The number of students who succeed in getting some benefit from the lesson is very small. There is no motivation for the students to go ahead.

ad. 2. No specific idea of what to achieve.

In most cases the teachers themselves are not sure what goal they are aiming at. Teachers in general

are not keeping up with new trends in the teaching of English as a second language, while on the other hand we have to admit that there seems to be a great opportunity for English in Indonesia for commercial as well as social purposes. Hence, it would benefit the teacher to remain up-to-date by acquainting himself with the latest theories on language teaching from the magazines or journals he can get hold of. Teaching should never become a routine though there is a tendency for those teachers of long experience. Routine in teaching is detrimental to the atmosphere in class.

If we ask these teachers what they are teaching, the answer is "English". However, we feel that we need to be more specific which skill of the language we are endeavouring to improve. The teaching of English as a whole is too enormous a task to undertake in such a limited period of time. Our aim is to improve their reading ability, and thus we should place the greatest emphasis on this skill by using the other skills of understanding, speaking, and writing as contributing factors.

Very frequently teachers give the students exercises on how to build sentences in English, turning nouns into their plural forms, explaining vocabulary items, etc. But they forget one important aspect: the systematic presentation of basic structures so vitally needed for an understanding in reading.

ad. 3. Vague and obscure ideas about the right method.

Many teachers take the skill of reading for granted. Reading is still taught without the explanation and the mastery of the basic patterns. The prevalent method of teaching reading is reading aloud, varied at times by an explanation - in most cases it is a translation - of difficult words. In the long run the reading lesson becomes a vocabulary lesson, while we know that mastering long lists of vocabulary items does not mean learning to read or learning to speak for that matter.

On the part of the students, reading seems to be very difficult, because most of them make the mistake of reading words instead of reading meaningful phrases. The meaning of each word in a sentence will not guarantee the understanding or the sum-total meaning of that sentence.

This is very obvious when we deal with English idioms.

We have experienced that students are usually suffering from this defect : they know books full of grammar, rules, and the like, but they are unfortunately not able to put these rules into useful practice, spoken or written.

Hence, we should place the greatest emphasis on trying to set up the proper method of teaching English for these non-English Departments. We will go into further detail about this in Chapter 4.

First, however, we want to trace some defects in the preliminary education the students have received before they enter the University or IKIP, i.e. the Secondary Schools, and to indicate a remedy for them. Moreover, we want to give an account of our own experience in teaching English to students of the non-English Departments.

DEFICIENCIES OF SECONDARY HIGH SCHOOL GRAMMAR TEACHING

COMPARED TO THE ORAL APPROACH

Lack of Knowledge of Basic Patterns.

High School students cannot read because they lack the knowledge of the basic patterns of the language. The inability to comprehend a reading passage is attributed to several reasons, but the main reason is exactly this lack of the fundamentals that make up the language.

Is the knowledge of the basic patterns of a language any useful? How much does it contribute towards the learning process? How efficient is it? Does the result compensate for the energy spent on the exercises?

These are the questions teachers as well as learners ask before they undertake the study of the patterns.

Let us look at these patterns and see what they really are. Patterns form the skeleton of a language. In the English language the patterns are of the utmost importance since English has a very rigid and fixed word-order. In ordinary language these basic patterns may either be minimum or expanded through modifications. When modified, these patterns then grow into larger utterances. It is only by reading sentences constructed from the basic patterns as the original framework, that ideas are shaped, new concepts created, and the mind enlightened with new information about the world around us. However, it seems that in Secondary education just this knowledge of basic patterns is lacking.

Too Much " Grammar " .

What is happening to our SMA students? Our students there are not studying English, they are studying about English, about the mechanism of the language.

Let us clarify what we mean by Grammar to avoid any confusion.

What is actually Grammar as it is still taught today at so many high schools? To contrast this Grammar with the new kind of Grammar which is propagated nowadays and is said to lay down a firm basis for the study of the language, let us look at the first kind of Grammar.

The English Grammar old-style is an imitation of the Latin Grammar. Latin Grammar was considered to be a necessary preliminary to the learning of Latin, and from this it was supposed that it could be applied to English as well. Thus in the old-style teaching of English the main task of the learner consisted in the learning of grammatical terms and concepts, and the acquiring of skill in labelling words into their proper categories such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, and the like. This kind of Grammar may be useful for the study of Latin, but that it should be useful for English as well does not follow.

It is admittedly unjustified to label a word correctly, to pick out the parts of speech, to analyze a sentence into its parts without synthetizing all of these parts into one integral whole. Because instead of improving comprehension the method merely improves skill in detecting grammatical relationships and functions. This would surely not benefit anyone, except those few who have mastered the language already and now want to make a thorough study of the mechanism of the language. The result of this kind of Grammar is that students learn about the language rather than learning to use the language in its proper situations.

Hence, it is not exaggerated to admit that the average standard of English of high school students entering universities is saddeningly low. The six years at high school are wasted in the useless learning of rules and phrases for the student's benefit which later on are not used anymore. The chief complaint of students is that during those six years they seldom spoke the English language or heard it spoken.

The other kind of Grammar is a necessity for the learning of a language, but within certain limits. We should continually bear in mind the practical contribution this second kind of Grammar is to have on the students of the non-English Departments.

What then is Grammar ? " Grammar is a description of the forms, structures, and grammatical functions of common occurrence in the use of a language, and of the way these play their part in various situations in real life ".
(Gurrey, P., Teaching English Grammar, pp. 44 - 45)

This Grammar will be the cornerstone on which the theories of how to devise an "English Application Course" for the non-English Departments will be based. Chapter 4 of this thesis will deal with this Grammar extensively.

The Oral Approach.

In the Oral Approach the main focus is on oral practice. No matter if the final result desired is only to read the foreign language, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language - the structure and the sound system with a limited vocabulary - must be through speech. The speech is the language. "To 'master' a language it is not necessary to read it, but it is extremely doubtful whether one can really read the language without first mastering it orally". (Fries, Charles, C., Teaching & Learning English as a Foreign Language, p. 6)

There seems to be a misunderstanding among teachers of English, if not deliberate ignorance to the real method behind the Oral Approach. When this new method was propagated teachers of English were not very enthusiastic about it. Some read it briefly but put it aside again to forget about it entirely afterwards. Others simply ignored it, and attributed the method to some newfangled idea sprung from some silly groups of men.

These people mentioned above are harmless as far as their attitude towards the Oral Approach is concerned. The Oral Approach is a new method of teaching a language, and it is not surprising that a number of people adopt a sceptic attitude towards it. People want to see proofs, evidence.

But there is another group of people that cause more harm after they had got acquainted with this new method. These are the teachers who try the new method but who after some time fall back to their own proven methods simply because they have not fully comprehended the real nature of the Oral Approach. In doing so, these teachers have used the students as guinea pigs for their experiments. They forget that the mind of the students is then twisted and confused due to this mixture of different methods they were exposed to. And it would be downright ridiculous to expect something good from these students.

What then is the Oral Approach ?

In the Oral Approach the main emphasis lies on the basic drill, the repeated repetitions of the patterns prod-

used by preferably a native speaker of the foreign language. This is the most economical way of thorough learning, that can be used even in reading, the structural method of a language. It is only when one has such a thorough control of the fundamentals of a language, that one can almost automatically produce utterances in accordance with the usual patterns of that language, that one can proceed to the process of reading. With such a control of the fundamentals of the language, and the graded expansion of vocabulary items, reading will be profitable.

So we once again stress that even if one wishes to learn the foreign language solely for reading, the most economical and most effective way of beginning is the Oral Approach. This method should be thoroughly implanted in the student's mind, it is the initial stage where the student can within a limited vocabulary manipulate the structural devices of the language, and has grasped the sound system.

The Oral Approach does not completely abandon the use of the student's language. When necessary, so as to make sure words understood, "occasional translation" is permitted. The frequency of translating for the sake of understanding of words or phrases is left to the teacher's discretion.

CHAPTER 3

AN ACCOUNT OF THE WRITER'S EXPERIENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH

AS A " MINOR SUBJECT " (VAK MINOR)

To give the reader a background idea of the English courses, the following points are worth noting:

These courses are given to the first year students of the Economics Department of Atma Jaya University in Jogjakarta, and to the graduate students of the Educational Department of the IKIP Sanata Dharma in Jogjakarta. The Economics Department get these "application courses" twice a week, one and a half hour each time, while the Educational Department once a week for one and a half hour with a break of fifteen minutes in between.

The materials are taken from the School Journals, published by the School Publications Branch, Dept. of Education, New Zealand.

The Material

"Negro Slaves in America" (School Journal Part 4 Summer 1960, Volume 54, School Publications Branch, Dept. of Education, New Zealand, pp. 23 - 29)

Some time before we dealt with "Negro Slaves in America", we tried another article from School Journal Part 3, entitled "The adventures of Ruatara". The latter did not seem to hold the interest of the students. Most probably this was due to the unfamiliar places and people occurring in the story. The lesson dragged on.

"Negro Slaves in America" is different. The story centers around a very controversial issue, which is about the negroes in America at present, and how they were shipped by slave traders from Africa a couple of centuries ago.

The kind of Class.

The Economics Department numbers about 70 students. We divided this class into two smaller groups of about 35 students each, so that we could give the students more individual turns during the lesson. Each group was taken separately.

The Purpose of the Lesson.

Before the lesson we stressed the importance of reading to get the general understanding of the text. The students are not required to translate the text into their own language, since translation is a different skill altogether. However, the students will have to be able to give the contents of a paragraph in their own words.

In reading the text it is not an absolute necessity for the students to know the meaning of each and every word. This kind of reading will eventually lead to a frustrating search of the meanings of difficult words in the dictionary.

On the contrary, we are concerned mainly with improving ease and fluency of silent reading. Another reason for encouraging rapid silent reading is that we want our students to acquire the habit of reading, so that they will continue to learn and gain knowledge, and especially to profit from all that a literature of the new language offers them. If they can read with ease without having to plough through books slowly, they will enjoy reading more. If these students can read rapidly, they can read more books, and eventually find other sources for further reading to gather information.

The aim of reading in our case is to obtain a general understanding of the passage quickly. For this purpose one thing is of the utmost importance: the passages selected must be fairly easy and interesting.

The Method.

We will content ourselves with outlining in brief fashion the procedure of the reading lesson.

After reading one or two paragraphs, we would stop and allow the students to re-read the same paragraph(s) silently for themselves. After a break of three minutes, one of the students is asked to give the essence of the paragraph in the Indonesian language. If the student fails to do so, another is asked to help him, and thus in the course of giving these turns, a lively discussion arises. It is true that vocabulary items still form an inherent part of reading. Students struggle continuously in trying to unravel the meaning behind those seemingly irrelevant string of words.

After two or three paragraphs have been treated in

this way, one student is then asked to tell the class what they have read so far. In a way this method is to force the students to see a coherent unity in the story, and also to train them to observe that one paragraph is not just loosely connected with the others preceding it.

One unfortunate factor arises which forms a handicap on the part of the students. After the lesson is over, we would have liked to lend the books to the students so that they have an opportunity to read the story for themselves at home. However, due to a lack of books this cannot possibly be done. The drawback of this is that the forty - five minutes intensive work in class is not reinforced outside.

The Procedure.

After having read one or two paragraphs, we would tell the class to read the same paragraph(s) again for themselves. Three minutes are allowed for this. Silence would then fall on the classroom while the students go over the passage again.

When the three minutes are over, we give them the signal to stop reading. Here are some questions which we have asked.

1. Europeans had been capturing African Negroes and using them as slaves. When did this happen ?
2. Why were the slaves wanted most in America ?
3. Where did these slaves work ?
4. Did all the captured slaves reach America ? Why ?
5. Now, tell me once again what these two paragraphs are about. Use your own words. Don't look in your books as you might be tempted to translate.

The questions above merely serve as a sample. However, we hope that we have given the reader some idea about the procedure of the lesson.

" Far too Difficult "

The first time we taught English to the same students we had made the mistake of overestimating the knowledge of English they possessed. We started with a reading passage given to us by the Head of the Economics Department. He was of the opinion that the article would be interesting in that it was closely related with their subject, being Economics. The passage was not difficult as far as the ideas

were concerned. It was entitled " The Functions of Money " .

We took the material home, read it carefully, made up possible questions about the text, etc. In short, we were hopeful it would become an interesting lesson. The actual day of teaching came. Each student was provided with a mimeographed copy of the material. The procedure of the lesson went on as follows:

- a. The teacher read the text slowly at conversational speed, pausing after each paragraph.
- b. At the same time the students read from their own text.

At the end of the reading by the teacher, we put the questions in English. The students, however, were permitted to answer them in Indonesian.

The questions were solely about the text and almost all were comprehensive in nature. To illustrate the description, here are some of the questions:

1. What is the text about ?
2. Is there a clear definition of " Money " ? Prove your answer from the text.
3. State the important functions of Money.
4. What is the contents of the first paragraph ?
5. Give an example of how money used to be a measure of exchange.
6. Is it always safe for people to keep a great deal of money for later use ? Why ?

The Result.

What was the result of this first lesson about "The Functions of Money " ? We were literally perplexed to see the blank faces gaping at us as if we had just read to them a report on the findings of the latest possibilities of space flight to distant planets. We could not believe this was true. Or were the students just playing the fool ? Or was it the bare reality that the students could not make head or tail of what they had just read ?

Patiently we asked them how much they had actually understood from reading it only once. The answers we got varied from " Oh, it's so difficult " ., " There are so many difficult words in this story " ., " We don't have the time to think " ., to " We don't understand anything at all " .

The truth is that these students had never been

trained how to read properly. Hence, we could not blame them for their lack - if not absence altogether - of reading ability. All our preparations for the reading lesson had gone down the drain.

However, we did give it a second try. We told the students to make a summary of it for their home assignment. They were permitted to do it in Indonesian, the length of the summary was to be not more than half a page of an ordinary exercise book.

The result of this summary business was equally sad. We realised to our dismay that the students had not been making a summary as was required, but they had blindly and foolishly translated every sentence, every word. This resulted in a conglomeration and a jig-saw puzzle of strange words and incomprehensible words they had picked out of their dictionary at random without realising in the least that a word has more than one meaning.

We felt we could not continue with this method, nor with the former where comprehensive questions were given to check how much they had understood from their reading. It was time and energy consuming on both our part and on the students'. To put it bluntly, the result of this method and the previous one was a big zero .

PART II

CHAPTER 4

A THEORY OF HOW TO DEVISE A COURSE

General Principles.

So far we have touched on the first part of our work which is our experience in the teaching of English to the non-English Departments. Now we come to the heart of the matter. How can the teaching of English to these non-English Departments be improved? What are the concrete steps to take? What are the foundations upon which these concrete steps are based?

The principles which we will relate presently and the observations we have made from various sources will be relevant to our problems. However, we feel a word of caution is in its place here before we present the subject in full detail.

It is generally known that there does not exist any method yet of teaching which is so good that it has universal approval or application. A method that may prove useful in one certain area may fall flat in another. The main point worth noting is that a method is good when it is adapted to the local situations, the background, and the language of the learner.

What is Reading?

Before we venture to set up a theory on how to devise a course for non-English Departments with special emphasis on improving the reading ability of the students, let us examine what actually the nature of the reading process is. In doing so, we will have a much clearer background and much firmer basis upon which we can base our theories.

The "nature of reading" is a subject which has caused a great deal of controversy among experts. For the sake of better judgement after a survey of the various opinions by several scholars, we here present some of their opinions:

In the Second Report in 1937, W.S. Gray in 'defining reading broadly' insisted:

"A broader view of the nature of reading is that

it involves the recognition of the important elements of meaning in their essential relations, including accuracy and thoroughness in comprehension. This definition, while implying a thorough mastery of word recognition, attaches major importance to thought-getting. Those who hold this view believe that reading involves both the recognition of the meanings of words and phrases and the fusing or organization of the various elements of meaning into a chain of ideas or an integrated system of thought ..." (1)

Similarly in another article in 1940 Gray said:

"... reading is a highly complex activity including various important aspects, such as recognizing symbols quickly and accurately, apprehending clearly and with discrimination the meanings implied by the author, reacting to and using the ideas secured through reading in harmony with the reader's purposes, and integrating them into definite thought and action patterns ..." (2)

And it was in 1956 where Gray furnished a condensed summary as follows:

" In harmony with the foregoing statements, reading is conceived today as a complex activity of four dimensions: the perception of words, a clear grasp of meaning, thoughtful reaction, and integration. All four steps are essential in varying combinations if adults are to secure through reading an adequate understanding of the conflicting issues that current life presents, to choose wisely between alternatives, to find valid solutions to the challenging personal and social problems faced, and to develop richer and more stable personalities." (3)

Another person, Arthur I. Gates expressed his view as follows:

" ... Indeed, it is believed that reading is one of the best media for cultivating many techniques involved in understanding, thinking, reflecting, imagining, judging, evaluating, analyzing, and reasoning ..." (4)

Looking at the various opinions expressed above, we notice a thread of similarity through all of them. Reading is a very active skill because the mind is trained, disciplined and shaped as it gathers information from the printed

page. And this skill is exactly what the majority of our students do not possess. They read words but the meaning of these words remains scattered, it does not blend into one coherent unity out of which ideas are shaped.

Fries, however, in "Linguistics and Reading" does not agree that this use of reading is stimulating and cultivating the techniques of thinking, evaluating, and so on constitutes the reading process. Fries is of the opinion that everyone of the abilities listed above may be developed and has been achieved by persons who could not read. In Fries' opinion they are all matters of the uses of language and are not limited to the uses of reading. In saying so, Fries is concerned with and focuses his attention on the learning to read in one's native language. Our main work here centres around the learning to read in a foreign language. However, the opinions of the various people mentioned previously have been presented to give the reader an idea about the different views on the process of reading in one's native language contrasted to the process of reading in a foreign language.

Let us now look at what Fries has to say about reading in a foreign language. In "Foundations for English Teaching" on pp. 373 - 375, we read:

"Reading a foreign language has been approached from four different points of view. It is necessary to separate these purposes clearly and to select the materials and the procedures appropriate to each one.

- a. Reading can be used to support and supplement oral procedures. In the approach used here it is assumed that most of the classroom activities will consist of oral teacher-pupil dialogues to introduce the new structures and vocabulary, oral pattern practice to gain thorough control over the oral production of the separate patterns... Reading and writing exercises, that also use exactly these same structures and vocabulary, can help the pupil to achieve the thorough learning that is the goal of all his oral practice.
- b. Some have attempted to teach a foreign language by means of reading - by using reading as the only or the basic tool of learning. Most frequently such reading has been accompanied by grammar drills and translations into the native language

of the learner. Sometimes the teacher has done most of the translating and, using the native language (not the foreign language) has explained the meanings and the structures through which the meanings have been expressed. This practice has been defended on the ground that, since the ultimate aim was to have the pupil read the foreign language, it was not necessary to have the pupil take the time to learn the pronunciation in order to speak it. This practice has not been successful. The evidence seems to be overwhelming for the conclusion that whatever the ultimate aim in the teaching of a foreign language - whether limited to reading or to translation - the most efficient procedure for the first stage of that teaching is the "Oral Approach " as defined in this book. Even for reading alone, the language signals must be mastered in some way.

This " Oral Approach " has as its first goal such a complete mastery of the basic language signals that they can be produced orally with the speed required in speaking. Only when the language signals are so mastered can satisfactory independent reading be done by the learner."

The same thing is emphasized by R. Dixon in " Practical Guide to the Teaching of English ", where he stresses that since language is primarily speech, oral work should still be the basis for the students' learning of the language, no matter if the final aim is to read.

It is this part of Fries in " Foundations for English Teaching " and of R. Dixon in " Practical Guide to the Teaching of English ", around which the present thesis revolves. Our aim will be to provide the students with a reading ability. And basing our work on what have been stated previously, we will confine ourselves to the application of this " Oral Approach ", with certain modifications.

We will have to modify this " Oral Approach " slightly due to the few hours a week that are allotted for these " English Application " courses.

The " New " Grammar.

In chapter 2 of this thesis we have made a brief analysis of the old style Grammar. Now we will relate in detail about the " new " Grammar and the parts that are useful for setting up our Application Courses.

If we take a book written in the English language and if we were to count the number of sentences in the whole book, we would come to a frighteningly infinite number. However, from this seemingly infinite number of sentences contained in the book, the variety of the sentences is finite, meaning that it has its limits. The direct implication is that students need to master these basic sentences which will occur again and again in their reading. Since English consists of a very limited number of pattern which form the basis of what we call sentences, the learning of these patterns would be relatively less complicated.

In " Understanding English " by P. Roberts, the basic patterns are listed as follows:

PATTERN 1. N \longleftrightarrow V

This first pattern is composed of a noun (N) tied to a verb (V). The double arrow (\longleftrightarrow) shows the close tie that exists between the noun and the verb in any sentence.

Actually this pattern occurs rather infrequently in this minimum form, but there is usually some kind of expansion. This expansion is in the form of modifiers that either modify the noun (N) or the verb (V), but these modifiers would basically not influence nor change the original basic pattern.

An example of PATTERN 1 in its minimum form:

N	\longleftrightarrow	V
Birds		fly
Dogs		bark

An example of PATTERN 1 in its expanded form:

D	N	\longleftrightarrow	Aux.	V	Adv.
The two	men		will	sail	to Europe
My	brother		cannot	come	this afternoon

PATTERN 2. N \longleftrightarrow V Adj.

The second pattern is a noun tied to a verb with an adjective (Adj.) following. Verbs which belong to this pattern are but a few, and by far the most common verb is: be , or its equivalents, as we will see in the examples. Again, expansion of this pattern may occur without basically altering the original pattern.

An example of PATTERN 2 in its minimum form:

N	\longleftrightarrow	V	Adj.
Grass		is	green
Blood		is	red
George		looks	foolish

An example of PATTERN 2 in its expanded form:

D	N	Aux.	V	Adj.	Adv.
The	boys		were	unhappy	
	George	will	look	foolish	later
The	milk	has	turned	sour	after two days
This	cake		smells	good	indeed

PATTERN 3. N \longleftrightarrow V N

The third pattern consists of a noun tied to a verb with a second noun following. This second noun in this pattern is what is traditionally called an object, or a direct object. Verbs belonging to this pattern are called transitive verbs. Expansions of this pattern also occur.

An example of PATTERN 3 in its minimum form:

N	\longleftrightarrow	V	N
Lions		eat	meat
Bill		plays	football

An example of PATTERN 3 in its expanded form:

D	Adj.	N	\longleftrightarrow	Aux.	V	D	N	Adv.
The	hungry	lions		were	eating	the	meat	
My		brother's friend			likes		spaghetti	
		Somebody	has		left	his	umbrella	outside

PATTERN 4. N \longleftrightarrow L V N

The fourth pattern also consists of a noun tied to a verb with another noun following. The difference is that in Pattern 3 the two nouns refer to two different people or two different things, whereas in PATTERN 4 the two nouns refer to the same person or the same thing. The verb of PATTERN 4 is what is called: a linking verb (L V). By far the most common linking verb is: be , though become and remain occur in this pattern sometimes.

An example of PATTERN 4 in its minimum form:

N	\longleftrightarrow	L V	N
They		are	teachers
We		are	students

An example of PATTERN 4 in its expanded form:

D	N	\longleftrightarrow	L V	D	N	Adv.
That	man		is	my	brother	
	He		became	a	lawyer	then

PATTERN 5. N \longleftrightarrow V N N

The fifth pattern consists of a noun tied to a verb with two other nouns (or noun equivalents) following. In traditional terms, the first and the second noun following the verb are called the indirect object and the direct object respectively.

An example of PATTERN 5 in its minimum form:

N	\longleftrightarrow	V	N	N
Henry		told	us	lies
She		asked	me	money

An example of PATTERN 5 in its expanded form:

D	N	\longleftrightarrow	Aux.	V	D	N	D	N
My	father			gave	my	brother	a	beating
The	girl	has		sent	my	brother	her	picture
I		will		buy		you	some	candy

PATTERN 6. N \longleftrightarrow O V N N

The sixth pattern also consists of a noun tied to

a verb with two nouns following. However, in Pattern 5, the two nouns refer to different people or different things, whereas in PATTERN 6 they refer to the same person or the same thing.

In Pattern 5, the two nouns following the verb are called indirect object and direct object respectively. In PATTERN 6, the two nouns following the verb are called object and object complement. To differentiate the verbs in PATTERN 6 from the verbs in Pattern 5, the verbs in PATTERN 6 are called object-complement verbs (O V).

An example of PATTERN 6 in its minimum form:

N	←→	O V	N	N
Albert		made	me	chairmen

An example of PATTERN 6 in its expanded form:

N	←→	O V	N	D	Adj.	N	Adv.
Bill		thought	me	a	big	fool	
Nobody		considered	him	a		coward	
I		consider	her	an	honest	girl	now

PATTERN 7. There V ←→ N Adv.

PATTERN 7 is different in many respects from the other six patterns preceding it. The main difference lies in the order of the noun and the verb that is reversed. The word there is not an adverb, but a structure word, the function of which is to get the sentence started. In English, this pattern occurs fairly often. The pronunciation of the word there in this pattern is [ðə], and not [ðeə], which is an adverb.

An example of PATTERN 7 in its minimum form:

There	V	←→	N	Adv.
There	is		John	outside
There	is		ink	on the table

An example of PATTERN 7 in its expanded form:

There	V	D	N	Adv.
There	are	many	snakes	in the garden
There	is	a	spoon	here

In this pattern the verb that is used is always: be. However, there are few other patterns where the verb is different, such as:

There goes my sister

But the word there in the sentence above is an adverb, and not a structure word.

Other patterns in which the subject follows the verb are those where a special adverb such as seldom, never, not once starts the sentence.

Examples:

Seldom was the man on time.

Never would he listen to me.

Not once were they together.

To summarize the basic patterns discussed so far, they are as follows:

PATTERN 1 : N \longleftrightarrow V

PATTERN 2 : N \longleftrightarrow V Adj.

PATTERN 3 : N \longleftrightarrow V N

PATTERN 4 : N \longleftrightarrow L V N

PATTERN 5 : N \longleftrightarrow V N N

PATTERN 6 : N \longleftrightarrow O V N N

PATTERN 7 : There V \longleftrightarrow N Adv.

These seven basic patterns will have to be explained to the students. In the next chapter we will deal with the modifications of these patterns and their parts. We will also discuss in great detail the oral exercises that precede these basic patterns.

We feel convinced that these seven basic patterns will be the solution to the mastery of the student's ability in reading. In reading, students need merely have a recognition knowledge of these basic pattern and their modifications, and the meanings that are expressed by them. Students will not be in a quandary about how long sentences

are actually structurally made up. Because students have mastered these patterns, they will much more easily derive the meaning from what they read. Or, as Lester D. Crow and Alice Crow say in their book " Educational Psychology " on page : " ... description of reading power is that of putting thought into what is read - the symbols to which one responds visually".

Hence, we have no right to introduce reading as long as students still struggle with these basic patterns.

EXPANSION OF THE BASIC PATTERNS

The Terms.

We have seen in the previous chapter a survey of the basic patterns that exist in the English language. However, we all know that these patterns do not always appear in their minimum forms. Very frequently they are modified in a number of ways so as to form longer utterances.

Before proceeding with our discussion on the expansion of the basic patterns we had better first get acquainted with some terms.

One is modification structure. This means a word that is modified plus its modifier or modifiers. The word that is modified is called the Headword. The modifiers of a Headword are called Modifiers. Hence, a modification structure consists of a Headword plus one or more modifiers of the Headword.

In English, the head of a modification structure is in most cases a noun or a verb. Unlike adjectives and adverbs, nouns and verbs are modified in a great variety of ways. Modification structures with adjectives or adverbs for their headwords are simpler.

All of the formclasses - nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs - and some structure words occur as modifiers, which means that a noun may be modified by another noun, a verb, and adjective, or an adverb. It may also be modified by a determiner - the, some, a, an, few, etc. - or a certain word group or word groups.

Similarly a verb as the headword may be modified by a noun, another verb, an adjective, an adverb, an auxiliary, or word groups.

For convenience' sake, instead of a noun modification structure - that is a modification structure with a noun as the headword - the term Noun-cluster is used. Thus a modification structure with a verb as the headword is then called a Verb-cluster. Of all the clusters in English, the noun-clusters and the verb-clusters are the most significant.

To make clear what we mean we present one example of a noun-cluster and a verb-cluster in one sentence:

The young taxi driver behind the wheel was shouting at the top of his voice.

This sentence consists of two parts, a noun-cluster and a ver-cluster.

The noun-cluster is:

The young taxi driver behind the wheel

The Headword in this noun-cluster is the noun driver. This is modified on one side by a determiner (the), an adjective (young), another noun (taxi). On the other side the noun driver is modified by a prepositional group (behind the wheel). Since a preposition is a word that comes before a noun or a noun equivalent, this prepositional group - or P group - contains another noun-cluster the wheel, with the word wheel as the headword.

The verb-cluster is:

was shouting at the top of his voice

The Headword of this verb-cluster is the verb shouting, modified on one side by an auxiliary (was), and on the other side by a prepositional group (at the top of his voice). This P group contains a noun-cluster with top as the headword and a determiner (the) as a modifier on the left side and another P group (of his voice) as another modifier on the right side.

Noun-clusters.

Of all the noun modifiers the determiner is the most common one.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	D (=determiner)	N (=noun)
	the	classes
	our	house
	a	safe
	some	weeks
	every	day

Next, nouns are also frequently modified by adjectives.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Adj. (=adjective)	N
	yellow	roses
	rainy	days
	fresh	milk
	dirty	footsteps
	old	mansions



If a noun as a headword is modified by a determiner and an adjective at the same time, the order is Determiner - Adjective - Noun.

examples:	Modifier	Modifier	Headword
	D	Adj.	N
	some	brave	men
	that	smart	student
	his	sad	story

Nouns may also be modified by other nouns.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	N	N
	taxi	driver
	ocean	liner
	bank	account
	space	ship
	fountain-pen	ink
	lighter	fuel
	structure	drills
	pattern	practice

If a determiner, an adjective, and a noun all modify a noun headword, the order is Determiner - Adjective - Noun - Noun (=headword).

examples:	Modifier	Modifier	Modifier	Headword
	D	Adj.	N	N
	a	reckless	tram	conductor
	all	dilapidated	country	houses
	his	valid	bank	account
	the	extraordinary	wood	sculptor

Nouns may also be modified by verbs. There are two types of verbs that modify nouns. One is the type ending in the spelling -ing, such as singing, hesitating, laughing. This type is called the present participle. We shall write it V -ing for convenience's sake.

The other type is the past participle form, the same form that is used after the auxiliary have, such as have invited, have shunned, have resented, have written. Most of these past participle forms end in the spelling -ed. Some, however, those belonging to the irregular verbs, end otherwise, such as spoken, written, told, put.

The latter we shall indicate by the symbol V -ed.

Here are some nouns modified by V -ing verbs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	V -ing	N
	screaming	children
	dripping	clothes
	burning	room
	working	students
	decreasing	value

And here are some nouns modified by V -ed verbs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	V -ed	N
	suggested	improvements
	written	statement
	repaired	roads
	renovated	buildings
	reclaimed	land

Modifiers after the Headword.

So far we have been concerned with those noun modifiers that come before the noun headword. However, there are also noun modifiers that occur after the headword. This, for instance, is the usual position for adverbs modifying nouns.

examples:	Modifier	Headword	Modifier
	D	N	Adv. (=adverb)
	the	students	there
	our	car	outside
	the	party	afterwards
	the	office	upstairs

Another construction serving as noun modifier occurring after the noun headword is a P group. A preposition group may be defined as a word patterning like with in the construction 'the boy with the bike.' Substituting for with in the construction we would get words such as behind, over, under, by, in front of, ahead of, of, inside. A preposition is regularly followed by a noun or a noun equivalent, sometimes called the object of the preposition. The preposition and the noun work together as a tight word group, and this word group may be referred to as a preposition group, or P group. Thus in 'the boy with the bike', the P group is

with the bike, consisting of the preposition with and the noun-cluster the bike.

Here are P groups modifying nouns.

examples:	Modifier	Headword	Modifier
	D	N	P group
	the	man	in the streetcar
	a	toy	in the shopwindow
	the	lake	beyond the hills
	the	patient	on the operating table
	a	mechanic	under the tractor

Subordinate Sentences as Noun Modifiers.

Nouns may also be modified by sentence patterns, as in the noun-cluster the people who left early. Here, the word group who left early is obviously similar to a regular sentence pattern like He left early, the only difference being that the word who stands in place of the subject he. Who in this sentence group is called a subordinator, since it serves to subordinate the sentence pattern to which it belongs, to make it a part of a larger construction, the noun-cluster. The group of words who left early may be called a subordinate sentence, or for convenience, an S-group.

The subordinators introducing S -groups that modify nouns are who, whom, whose, which, and that. We shall encounter other subordinators when we take up verb-clusters.

Here are some examples of S-groups as noun modifiers. Notice that the subordinator sometimes takes the place of the subject of the sentence pattern, sometimes of the object, and sometimes of the determiner.

examples:	Modifier	Headword	Modifier
	D	N	S-group (=sentence group)
	the	girl	<u>who</u> went away (=subject)
	the	house	<u>that</u> had been renovated (=subject)
	the	gift	<u>which</u> he had given his mother (=object)
	a	child	<u>whose</u> parents were in trouble (=determiner)

A subordinator is sometimes left out. However, position of the S-group shows its relation to the noun-cluster.

examples:	Modifier	Headword	Modifier
	D	N	S-group
	the	guests	we had invited
	the	girl	he left behind
	a	pigeon	I had wanted to buy

When a P-group and an S-group modify the same noun headword, the order is rigid: the P-group comes first and the S-group second.

examples:	Modifier	Headword	Modifier	Modifier
	D	N	P-group	S-group
	the	men	in the pit	who were working
	a	child	of six	that came yesterday

Verb-clusters.

Like nouns, verbs may also be modified in a variety of ways. As nouns may be modified by determiners, so verbs may be modified by auxiliaries. The determiner signals that a noun is coming, the auxiliary signals that a verb is coming. The auxiliary adds to the verb such meanings as tense and mood. Note that the form of the verb depends on the particular auxiliary that occurs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Aux. (=auxiliary)	V (=verb)
	may	go
	have	gone
	was	going
	should	go
	can	take
	must	take
	have to	take

Verbs may be modified by other verbs. The verb headword in such clusters has either the form -ing or the simple form preceded by the structure word 'to', depending on the particular modifier that occurs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	V	V
	kept	going
	started	driving
	wanted	to leave
	ordered	to stay

Verb headwords are also modified by adverbs. We know that there are adverbs of place (there, outside, here), adverbs of manner (thus, so, hurriedly), and adverbs of time (tomorrow, a fortnight ago, now).

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	V	Adv. (=adverb)
	came	in
	went	outside
	drove	recklessly
	wrote	slowly
	arrived	yesterday

Verbs may also be modified by nouns. Notice that these nouns usually occur with a determiner or with a special time word like 'last' or 'next'.

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	V	N
	came	this morning
	worked	last week
	leaves	this month
	returned	every month

P-groups and S-groups in Verb-clusters.

P-groups modify verbs as well as nouns. When they modify verbs, they occur after the verb headword.

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	V	P-group
	came	in a hurry
	arrived	in a betja
	walked	by the river
	worked	in the office
	left	before dawn
	crawled	under the table

A verb headword may also be modified by more than one P-group.

examples:	Headword	Modifier	Modifier
	V	P-group	P-group
	came	in a car	with his father
	walked	by the river	before sunset

Verb headwords may also be modified by subordinate sentences (S-groups). These S-groups are slightly different from those that occur in noun-clusters. In verb-clusters the S-group is introduced by a subordinator of the type because, if, although, when. These words signal that the sentence pattern that follows is not a separate sentence but is part of another sentence, it is dependent on another construction.

Here are verb headwords modified by S-groups:

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	V	S-group
	comes	when he has time
	left	before the party was over
	hurried	because it was already late
	worked	until he collapsed
	speaks	if he is asked

If a P-group and an S-group modify the same verb headword, the P-group comes first, and then comes the S-group.

examples:	Headword	Modifier	Modifier
	V	P-group	S-group
	came	on his bike	because it was not raining
	spoke	to me	whenever he had time

Adjective and Adverb-clusters.

Adjectives and adverbs may also be modified by a variety of other words, though in these clusters we do not usually find more than one or two modifiers at a time.

Adjectives are more commonly modified by intensifiers, occurring before the adjective headword.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Intensifier	Adj.(=adjective)
	very	dull
	rather	tall
	somewhat	bigger
	pretty	skinny

Adjectives can sometimes be modified by nouns.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	N	Adj.
	knee	deep
	skin	deep

Modifier	Headword
N	Adj.
ice	cold
a yard	wide
water	repellent

A few adjectives are modified by other adjectives, or by verbs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Adj.	Adj.
	icy	cold
	bluish	green
	pale	blue

Modifier	Headword
V -ing	Adj.
boiling	hot
freezing	cold

Adjectives are also modified by P-groups, these P-groups, however, come after the adjective headword.

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	Adj.	P-group
	ready	for anything
	strong	like a bull
	clever	with his hands
	red	in his face

And in some cases, adjectives are also modified by S-groups.

examples:	Headword	Modifier
	Adj.	S-group
	young	as he was
	silent	when he came home

About this last part, not all S-groups modify the adjectives that precede. And it is wise to leave this part out, or if it is used at all, to take those instances where we are sure that the S-group really modifies the adjective.

Adverbs are most commonly modified by Intensifiers.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Intensifier	Adv. (=adverb)
	very	unhappily
	rather	beautifully

Or, adverbs may also be modified by other adverbs.

examples:	Modifier	Headword
	Adv.	Adv.
	extremely	well
	unusually	quickly

These are the various modification structures that occur in English. However, these are not the only ones.

With these modifications, the students will get a clearer picture of how the various words in a sentence are interrelated to each other, how one word is dependent upon another. Students will no longer gaze at a sentence seeing only a string of seemingly unrelated words.

The technique of presenting this theoretical part should be closely integrated into the Pattern Practices, which we will deal with extensively in the next chapter. Care should be taken to explain one item at a time, and to integrate the theoretical explanations into the Pattern Practices. This is to prevent the students from knowing how certain words are modified but not being able to really 'dig' them up when they encounter them in their reading.

We need to mention here that most of the material and set-up of the expansion of the basic patterns have been taken from "Understanding English" by P. Roberts, with certain slight changes and omissions.

CHAPTER 6

READING VIA PATTERN PRACTICE

Speech as a Start.

Quite a lot of people suppose that a reading skill can be attained by having students read passages in order of difficulty. We are convinced that these people are making an erroneous supposition. When we have a passage that is "graded" we find that most of these so-called simplified versions are still difficult from the point of view of structure. Now, why is that so?

Partly because these books or passages are mostly chosen by people who have never taught at all in classes where the standard of English of the students is far below average. These people know what vocabulary items are to be introduced at the initial stages of language learning, what structures are to be explained. However, they are not aware of the fact that most of the teaching at universities or faculties consists of remedial work. Passages that may be regarded very simple in theory, are very complicated in actual practice, so that they go beyond the average student's comprehension. Thus, these books or reading passages - if they are used at all - will have to be subjected by the teacher to another re-simplification, in so far as these books or passages are to be presented systematically in their order of structure and vocabulary.

There should be, and there is, a firmer basis underlying the reading skill, which is the speaking skill. Speaking is the groundwork upon which all the other skills of reading and of writing are pyramidally built up. To a considerable extent spoken English ought to be integrated into the English Application Courses. It goes without saying that the amount of oral practice should not be as great as the oral practice that forms an integral part for students studying at an English Department.

Why is the speaking skill so important, even if the final aim of the course is just to read? We will give the reader clear evidence of the importance of speech as the basic skill of any language. For this purpose we need to look into the nature and characteristics of language in greater detail.

What is Language ?

Edgar Sturtevant in Section I - Language: 'By Way of Definition' in " Perspectives on Language - an Anthology " by John A. Rycenga and Joseph Schwartz, p. 3 , says:

" A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by which members of a social group cooperate and interact ".

In this definition the main emphasis lies in symbols which are vocal. Language is a system of vocal symbols. These symbols are voiced, produced by the speech organs and these symbols refer to something else. So, language is primarily spoken.

Barbara M. H. Strang in her book " Modern English Structure ", in Chapter 1, paragraph 4, pp. 3 - 4 , says:

" Structurally, language is an articulated system of signs, primarily realised in the medium of speech ".

And somewhat further, on p. 9 of the same book, Barbara M. H. Strang declares:

" Language has two aspects, it is the mental system ... and it is the body of utterances framed in terms of these systems. The primary medium for that framing is speech - primary in that it came first and is still most wide-spread in the experience of mankind, and in the sense that for almost all human beings it is the first linguistic medium they learn to use (except for few exceptions like Helen Keller) ".

Leonard Bloomfield in his book " Language ", Chapter 2, p. 21, says:

" All languages were spoken through nearly all of their history by people who did not read or write ... "

Here is another view on what language is:

" In the first place language is primarily a system of phonetic symbols for the expression of communicable thought and feeling ". (5)

From the above definitions we can draw the conclusion that speech is an indispensable part of language. And what is more, not only that it is indispensable but the fact that speech occupies the primary position in the nature of language.

Speech and Reading.

Now that we have seen that in language, speech is the primary part, let us see how certain authors think about the teaching of speech, even if the final aim of the course is to read.

Nelson Brooks in " Language and Language Learning " on p. 165, says:

" ... that the student be asked to read and write only that which he has learned to understand when spoken and which he himself can actively produce. If this procedure is not followed, and the learner is suddenly presented with a text he has not already learned, he will obviously tend to pronounce the written symbols as he would pronounce them in his mother tongue."

Charles C. Fries in " Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language ", on p. 3, says:

" In learning a new language, then, the chief problem is not at first that of learning vocabulary items. It is, first, the mastery of the sound system - to understand the stream of speech, to hear the distinctive sound features and to approximate their production."

On p. 6 of the same book, Charles C. Fries goes on saying:

" The practice which the student contributes must be oral practice. No matter if the final result desired is only to read the foreign language, the mastery of the fundamentals of the language - the structure and the sound system with a limited vocabulary - must be through speech. The speech is the language ...

To 'master' a language it is not necessary to read it, but it is extremely doubtful whether one can really read the language without first mastering it orally."

After viewing these various opinions by these authors we now have every reason to demand that oral practice be incorporated into the English Application Courses. And since oral practice - or speech as it is - is the cornerstone of language proper, we see no justification to substitute it for any other kind of practice, let alone leave it out altogether. Thus we strongly adhere to the concept that the reading skill needs spoken English for its foundation.

Pattern Practice.

In our discussion below we will use the term Pattern Practice for the oral aspect of English, since it reflects much more vividly the nature of the learning of language, namely the acquiring of habit in the fundamentals of language through constant oral practice. And the direct implication of this is that speech needs training or practice of the patterns underlying the language to express our ideas and feelings to other people. These patterns have to be practised to a stage where automatic production is achieved.

We hope that no sentimental urge would exist to abandon or diminish the spoken part of English because of the unfounded supposition that the mastery of the patterns of English would be detrimental to the language of the student. Some people are of the opinion that the mother tongue will suffer because of the study of a second language.

We think that studying a second language has the opposite effect. It brings the student toward a much better perspective of this new language against the vast background of his mother tongue. From the point of view of the structure of the second language, there is no reason to believe that it will endanger the student's ability in speaking his mother tongue. The mother tongue which he has learned from early childhood, will always remain deeply imprinted and engraved in the student's mind. The advantage of learning a second language, however, is that the student will usually adopt a more critical attitude towards his own language. This fact is stated in "Basis" - *Madjalah Kebudajaan Umum*, XV - 3, Desember 1965, in an article "Bahasa Indonesia para peladjar" by Drs. Th. Koendjono, p. 81 :

"Gedjala jang kerap kami alami ialah bahwa banjak orang jang menguasai satu bahasa asing, baik bahasa Belanda maupun bahasa Inggris atau bahasa asing lain, bahasa Indonesianja tjukup terpelihara djuga. Sebahnja karena mereka mempunjai "taal discipline", disiplin bahasa. Dalam menggunakan bahasa asing mereka harus mentaati kaidah bahasa asing dengan sebaik-baiknja. Mereka berusaha membuat kalimat jang lurus dan memilih kata2 jang tepat. Usaha ini mendjadi kebiasaan, jang djuga dilandjutkan dalam bahasa Indonesia."

From the psychological point of view, learning a

second language is getting to know more of the world around us, the people who speak the language, their works of art and literature. Thus it enriches the experience of the learner, widens his intellectual horizons, which will eventually lead him towards a better forming of his personality and broadminded spirit as a mature person in society.

After we have seen the position that speech occupies in the teaching of a language, and the contribution it makes towards the mother tongue of the student, we sincerely hope this proven truth will always be borne in mind by all language teachers.

We will be very realistic in our approach and view concerning Pattern Practice. Although Pattern Practice should be conducted as realistically as possible, the fact remains that it is to a great extent artificial. However, this artificiality is no reason for disregarding its inestimable value. And what is more, in spite of its artificiality, the Pattern Practice takes the learner through the types of behaviour that must be automatic when he wants to communicate, or when he recognizes the patterns again on paper.

In the Pattern Practice classes, it requires great skill to get the students to practise the spoken English. This undertaking is not simple. It is not enough to have good intentions, one must also have cunning, one must know how to carry out one's intentions successfully. An unflagging effort on the part of the teacher plus the proper motivation on the part of the student will in the end convince each one of them that it is not beneath his dignity to practise these seemingly unimportant fundamentals of language.

As John Amos Comenius said, 350 years ago in "The Great Didactic" :

" All languages are easier to learn by practice than from rules. But rules strengthen the knowledge derived from practice." (6)

Pattern Practice and Reading.

We will now consider the contribution of Pattern Practice to Reading in greater detail.

1. One more quickly understands what one reads when one has previously used the patterns and

structures orally. Reading is a process of recognizing again the various structures.

The reading skill has to be achieved through the oral method, though the progress may seem slow at the beginning stages. M. A. K. Halliday says that:

" ... it is easier to acquire an effective reading knowledge of a foreign language after gaining some command of the spoken language ... in the learning of a foreign language a reading knowledge most readily follows a speaking knowledge ..." (7)

The progress during the beginning stages may be slow, but as the student proceeds, the speed of reading becomes greater, it is accelerated, and the student will eventually read more quickly. In so doing, the field is now open for the student to deal with more difficult reading material without being handicapped by the fundamentals of the language which he already masters. This reader will acquire a full grasp of the contents of the reading passage.

It is different when actual reading is introduced from the very start without the mastery of the fundamentals of the language. The progress of the student may seem quicker at the beginning stages, but as he proceeds to more difficult material he is constantly hampered and handicapped because he encounters structural problems which he has never solved previously. As Charles C. Fries puts it in his book " Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language " p. 6:

" Unless one has mastered the fundamentals of the new language as a language - that is, as a set of habits for oral production and reception - the process of reading is a process of seeking word equivalents in his own native language. 'Translation' on an exceedingly low level is all that such 'reading' really amounts to.

Such a reader never enters into the precise particular way the foreign language

grasps experience, he is still using as a means of grasping meaning or understanding only the processes and vocabulary of his own language with the added difficulty of seeing a different set of symbols on the printed page which must act as clues from which he must guess the correct words of his own language to be substituted in order to make some kind of sense. He never really enters into the 'thought' (the full meaning) expressed by the foreign language."

So, the progress of this reader slows down, and if he ever reached any stage in his reading, it is a limited stage, which is far behind the unlimited stage of reading ability of the reader who has mastered the fundamentals of the language first. We now can conclude that teaching reading through reading may at first seem to save time but it is actually longer and ineffective, whereas teaching reading through speech - which at first seems slow - is actually moving at a greater speed and it is more effective as the student proceeds to more difficult material.

2. Psychologically, it gives the student a certain amount of confidence and satisfaction to be able to manipulate the various structures orally. The vocabulary he uses is no doubt still very limited. However, he feels content with his achievement , and this is a great stimulus towards his further progress.

After the initial stage - the mastery of the fundamentals of the language - actual reading may be introduced. However, it is imperative that the student be asked to read only that which he can previously produce actively himself. In this way the patterns he has already mastered are reinforced, but now on print. The reading passages must be easy in terms of vocabulary and of structure to prevent any confusion and guess-work.

Mary Finocchiaro suggests in her book " Teaching English as a Second Language ", p. 148:

" Reading, particularly in the beginning stages of learning, should not be from textbooks. Nor is it imperative

that reading for more advanced students be from formal texts. Teacher-prepared materials, particularly suited to the pupils for whom they are written, may be used for as long as needed. Such materials are essential when no others are available."

For this purpose, some samples of easy reading passages have been provided. The reader will find them in the Appendix of this thesis.

Vocabulary in Pattern Practice.

The patterns that are practised must also contain a very graded vocabulary. The words and phrases should also somehow be in concordance with the subject the students are taking. Say, at the Economics Department the teacher has to endeavour using words or phrases connected to Economics, so that these students will identify their subject in these pattern practices.

It is true that much is demanded from the teacher in preparing his material, but this approach provides a better motivation for the student's progress. If what is to be practised is too difficult in terms of vocabulary or of structure, the natural tendency for students will be to recode the target language into their mother tongue and thus withhold attempts at comprehension until this recoding has been accomplished.

Vocabulary in Initial Reading.

Next we will look at vocabulary items in a reading passage. It should be pointed out to the students that meaning relates to an isolated word only when he is reading a dictionary or a vocabulary list. In all other cases, in fiction or non-fiction - be it dialogue, narrative, explanatory or descriptive - meaning is no longer related solely to a single word but to clusters of words as they are inter-related in phrases, sentences, and paragraphs.

Hence, the matter of vocabulary in the initial stages of reading is an important aspect worth considering. New vocabulary items gradually introduced in every new lesson will need some explanation if not occasional translation for that matter. A long-winded and elaborate explanation in English of a word or a phrase will frequently end up in an even vaguer or more distorted picture of what that word or that phrase actually means. On the other hand, an

equivalent in the mother tongue for a certain word or a certain phrase would be more effective and more time-saving. There is nothing disadvantageous whatsoever about "occasional translation". The teacher should use this translation technique with a discrete attitude.

" Occasional translation " is the translation of key-words in a paragraph. It must be remembered that this is not a word-for-word translation. There is no necessity for the student to know the meaning of every word, however. The reader may not know the meaning of a single word encountered by itself - indeed may never have heard or seen it before - but when he comes upon it embedded in an environment of other words that are familiar, the context often provides it with meaning for him. There is a certain amount of " intelligent guessing." A word will become clear in a particular context.

" Modified " Pattern Practice.

The pattern Practices in " English Pattern Practices " and " English Sentence Patterns " both by Robert Lado and Charles C. Fries cover two voluminous books. It is not our intention to deal with all those exercises completely. We will only take those exercises that are of direct use to our students.

Pattern Practices come in a rich variety of shapes and sizes. With these practices we show the students, by having them hear the utterances and then repeat them, that a certain segment of the pattern can change in a consistent way.

Pattern Practices cannot be invented effectively on the spur of the moment before a class. For the most part they must be carefully prepared before the lesson, and this preparation will be the major aspect towards an integrated whole in the materials.

To participate in Pattern Practice, the student must have two kinds of knowledge:

1. he must know what type of change is to be made.
2. he must know how to make the change.

The first is a matter of technique, the second of language. The two, however, are closely interrelated. If there is confusion about the technique, the performance in the language will also suffer.

Kinds of Pattern Practice.

(from Brooks, Nelson, Language and Language Learning, p. 156)

- | | |
|------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Repetition | 7. Expansion |
| 2. Inflection | 8. Contraction |
| 3. Replacement | 9. Transformation |
| 4. Restatement | 10. Integration |
| 5. Completion | 11. Rejoinder |
| 6. Transposition | 12. Restoration |

ad. 1. Repetition.

The student repeats an utterance aloud as soon as he has heard it. He does this without looking at a printed text. The utterance must be brief enough to be retained by the ear.

examples: This is a class - This is a class
 The production is slack - The production is slack
 He's my brother - He's my brother

After he has repeated an utterance he may repeat it again, and add a few words, then repeat the whole utterance and add more words.

examples:

This is a class	- This is a class
This is a class in the morning	- This is a class in the morning
This is money	- This is money
This is money from the bank	- This is money from the bank
This is money from the bank at Malioboro	- This is money from the bank at Malioboro

ad. 2. Inflection.

One word in an utterance appears in another form when repeated.

examples:

I bought the box with goods	- I bought the box with goods
I bought the <u>box</u> with goods	- I bought the <u>boxes</u> with goods
He works in an office	- He works in an office
He <u>works</u> in an office	- He <u>worked</u> in an office
He comes on Monday	- He comes on Monday
He <u>comes</u> on Monday	- He <u>came</u> on Monday

Inflection of one word often requires inflection of another.

examples:

She dropped her glove

- He dropped his glove

We signed that paper

- We signed those papers

ad. 3. Replacement.

One word in an utterance is replaced by another.

examples:

He bought the house very cheap - He bought it very cheap

Helen left early this morning - She left early this morning

They gave their boss a present - They gave him a present

Replacement and Inflection are often combined.

examples:

Mary leaves early tomorrow

- She left early yesterday

A progressive form of pattern practice is also possible, involving Replacement and Inflection. An utterance is made, then one additional word is given which is then fitted into the utterance last made, and so forth.

examples:

She dropped her glove (watch)	- She dropped her watch
(he)	- He dropped his watch
(lost)	- He lost his watch
(they)	- They lost their watches
(hat)	- They lost their hats
(I)	- I lost my hat
(found)	- I found my hat

In another useful drill involving progressive change, a Replacement is made alternately in one of two words in the sequence.

examples:

They find the restaurant	- They find the restaurant
(know)	- They <u>know</u> the restaurant
(waiter)	- They know the <u>waiter</u>
(ask)	- They <u>ask</u> the waiter
(price)	- They ask the <u>price</u>
(pay)	- They <u>pay</u> the price
(bill)	- They pay the <u>bill</u>

They believe that the earth is flat. - They believe it.

I hope they will remember us. - I hope so.

ad. 9. Transformation.

A sentence is transformed by being made negative or interrogative, or through changes in tense, mood, voice, aspect, or modality.

examples:

He knows my address

- He doesn't know my address.

- Does he know my address ?

- He used to know my address.

- If he had known my address.

- My address is known to him.

- He may know my address.

It goes without saying that such exercises are accompanied by a cue that points to the desired transformation.

ad. 10. Integration.

Two separate utterances are integrated into one.

examples:

They must be honest. This is important.

It is important that they are honest.

I know the man. He is looking for you.

I know the man who is looking for you.

I saw the girl. You were dancing with her last night.

I saw the girl you were dancing with last night.

ad. 11. Rejoinder.

The student makes an appropriate rejoinder to a given utterance. He is told in advance to respond in one of the following ways:

a. Be polite.

f. Express regret.

b. Answer the question.

g. Disagree.

c. Agree.

h. Disagree emphatically.

d. Agree emphatically.

i. Question what is said.

e. Express surprise.

j. Fail to understand.

a. Be polite.

examples:

Thank you.

- You're welcome.

May I take one ?

- Certainly, help yourself.

b. Answer the question.

examples:

What's your name ?

- My name is Widodo.

Where did it happen ?

- In the middle of the Alun2 Utara.

c. Agree.

examples:

He is following us.

- I think you're right.

This is good coffee.

- Yes, it's very good.

d. Agree emphatically.

examples:

Pretty hot, isn't it ?

- Yes, it's terribly hot.

That was stupid of her.

- It certainly was.

e. Express surprise.

examples:

I'm leaving tonight.

- Really ?

He passed his finals.

- He did ?

He told the court about the document. - He did ?

f. Express regret.

examples:

He says he can't come.

- That's too bad.

We missed the bus.

- What a shame.

Hester lost her pen again.- Oh, dear.

g. Disagree.

examples:

I liked the film.

- I didn't like it.

I'm sure he is honest.

- I don't think so.

h. Disagree emphatically.

examples:

You are angry.

- I'm not angry at all.

Some day you will ask my help. - Never.

i. Question what is said.

examples:

She is forty years old.

- It's impossible.

She smokes cigars now.

- I can't believe it.

j. Fail to understand.

examples:

He is a chip off the old block.- What did you say ?
That's one for the book. - I don't understand.

ad. 12. Restoration.

The student is given a sequence of words that have been taken from a sentence, but still bearing its basic meaning. He uses these words with a minimum of changes and additions to restore the sentence to its original form. He may be told whether the time is present, past, or future.

examples:

students / wait / bus

The students are waiting for the bus.

Bill / go / Semarang

Bill has gone to Semarang.

door / close / after / push / button

The door will close after you have pushed the button.

These kinds of Pattern practice provide the teacher with enough material to cover a whole semester. However, these Pattern Practices can be varied without limitation. The ingenuity of the teacher is challenged in inventing other kinds of practices. Robert Lado & Charles C. Fries' " Sentence Patterns " and " Pattern Practices " give a miscellany of exercises.

We have previously stated that these Pattern Practices have to be modified, adjusted to the needs and environment of the students. If an exercise presents items of culture that have irrelevant bearing to the students' actual applicability later on, the teacher had better substitute the items with other more familiar ones.

One typical example is:

Did you have tomato juice for dinner ?

Indonesian students would find it strange to hear that tomato juice can be a part of dinner. Instead of arousing any possible confusion and consequently unnecessary explanation, this sentence could be re-phrased as follows:

Did you have tea for dinner ?

Since tea is a favoured drink in Indonesia, students will not see anything out-of-place in the above question.

In this chapter we have tried to present to the reader the core of our thesis. However, we have treated the oral aspect of language - the Pattern Practices - after a thorough observation of the basic patterns. That the treatment of the Pattern Practices comes after the treatment of the Basic Patterns does not in the least convey the supposition that Pattern Practices are less important. In fact, both the treatment of the Basic Patterns and that of the Pattern Practices are so much interwoven that they are mutually dependent upon one another.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

Finally we will state very briefly the summary of the preceding chapters so as to get a better perspective on the motivation, the procedure, and the aim of our work.

The reasons that have inspired us to devise a method for the teaching of English to non-English Departments, are:

1. The inability of university students to read even simple passages in English, whereas most of the reference-books they have to read are in the English language.
2. The wrong method that has been used and is still being used to teach reading to university students without incorporating the spoken language into the course.

Next, we have traced back the fault to the Secondary High School where students were not trained to know the language, but to know about the language. And this fundamental error repeats itself at the later stages of language learning. Getting to the university level, these students are constantly hampered in their reading progress, since they do not possess the firm basis of language learning proper.

Then we come to the procedure where we have set up a method that will help students to acquire an adequate reading ability. The quintessence of the method lies in the mastery of the fundamentals of language, that of incorporating speech practice at the beginning stages. Only after these fundamentals of language have been mastered, may the theoretical part - the expansion of the basic patterns, the modifiers - gradually be introduced. Actual reading comes after the students are able to manipulate the various structures orally themselves.

If these steps are followed systematically and faithfully, the students will have a more adequate reading ability.

Later on, further reading by the students can be



carried out with greater ease. The student is now like a container into which outside knowledge and different views of life can flow in. The student is now on his way to progress.

APPENDIX

READING PASSAGES

In this appendix we will give the reader samples of easy reading passages. These reading passages have been taken from various sources, consisting of miscellaneous topics.

We feel we ought to stress one very significant factor. These reading passages may only be introduced after the basic patterns have been thoroughly drilled in the Pattern Practices. The teacher is wise enough to find out whether the proper time has come to try actual reading. The procedure should be that, in the course of time, the Pattern Practices grow less in frequency because of the introduction of these easy passages.

Roger Bacon.

Roger Bacon lived in England 700 years ago. He was a clever man. He asked many questions. He was never satisfied. He was not willing just to talk. He wanted to do many things. So, one day he put some of this powder and some of that powder into a pile. Then he set fire to the black stuff. A flash. An explosion. Boom. He had invented gun powder. Unfortunately Roger Bacon did not know the use of this powder.

About 100 years later a man from Germany learned about Roger Bacon's invention. He now put some of the powder into a tall tube. The tube was an iron tube. Then he dropped in a stone. He closed the tube at the bottom, except for a tiny hole. He then set the powder on fire through this hole. The powder exploded. The stone flew out of the tube. The German had now invented the principle of a gun. The inventions of gun powder and guns made great changes in the world.

(English Language Institute - University of Wellington,
New Zealand, mimeographed, November 8, 1962.)

The Wonderful Thing.

The man was an invalid. The war had caused this. War is very cruel indeed. War is sometimes more cruel than

death. War can make a man crazy. War can make a man crippled. The war was very cruel to this man.

The war was over. So the man returned home. But he had an ugly face. It had many scars. People ran away from him. Even children ran into their houses. Every was afraid of him. The man was very sad. His friends now grew fewer and fewer. The poor man felt very lonely. But he bore this all very bravely.

Then one day a friend called on him. This friend was bringing his little daughter with him. The poor man did not agree at first. But his friend still brought the little girl with him. They came to his house. The man entered the room. The girl followed her father. The little girl walked up to the ugly man. The man said to himself, " This little girl will surely run away like the other children. She will not like my face." But this time he was wrong.

The young beautiful little girl did not run away. She did not even stop. She walked on to him. Then she threw her little arms around the man's neck. She silently whispered " Poor man ", and then she kissed him on the cheek.

The Ass and His Burden.

One day an ass was returning home. He was very tired with the heavy load of salt on his back. The trip was very long. Presently he came to a river. He crossed it. But unfortunately he stumbled. He fell into the cold water of the river. The ass then got up slowly. He noticed something. His burden had become much lighter now. It was not heavy any longer. He was very surprised.

Salt dissolves in water. But the ass did not know this. So he reached home very pleased. He was really lucky this time.

Some time later he crossed the same stream. But this time he was carrying sponges on his back. And he remembered his experience of a few days before. So he lay down in the water again. He thought, " Surely now my burden will become lighter." But the sponges filled themselves with water. They now were very heavy. The ass was very afraid. He was not able to get up now. And soon the stream carried the poor animal away.

(Judd, J. O., Exercises in English for Foreign Students, p. 107)

The structural patterns in the three previous reading passages are very easy. The sentences are all simple sentences.

Next, we will give reading passages where complex sentences will occur. Modification structures will also be integrated in the passages.

Mark Twain.

Mark Twain was a famous American writer of novels and short stories. He was also famous in his day as a lecturer and a humorist. He liked very much to tell funny stories, and he also liked to play jokes on his friends. One day a friend of his lost his wallet and asked Mark Twain to pay his railroad fare for him.

Mark Twain said, " I'm sorry but it happens that I have very little money with me. I don't have enough money to pay for you and myself."

The friend was very sad.

" However," said Mark Twain, " you can get on the train with me and when the conductor comes through the train for our tickets, you can hide under my seat."

The friend had no other choice so he finally agreed to this plan. Later, however, when the conductor came through the train, Mark Twain gave him two tickets, one for himself and one for his friend under the seat.

Then in a loud voice, so that everybody in the train could hear him easily, Mark Twain explained, " My friend here is a very strange fellow. When he rides on a train, he does not like to sit on the seat. He prefers to lie on the floor under the seat."

Of course, everybody then looked at the poor fellow under the seat and laughed at him loudly.

(Dixson, R. J., Direct English Conversation for Foreign Students, Book I, pp. 110 - 111)

Labels.

Every word on a label that describes food, a drug, a cosmetic, or a medical device, is very important. It is important because it protects you and your family from buying an inferior product, from using a good one in the wrong way, from being cheated by dangerous people and propaganda, and from not knowing a harmful substance.

First of all, the label on a can or package of food must be completely truthful. If a loaf of bread is made with soy flour the loaf of bread cannot be labelled as white bread.

A label must not be misleading. This restriction is still rather vague and therefore there are still many violations. Although the government tries to get rid of all misleading labels, the consumer must always be very careful. We must not immediately believe in the name on a can or a package of food. A foreign name does not mean a foreign product. Manufacturers - the makers of the product - must list their names and places of business on their labels.

Manufacturers must use common names when they identify their products, so that anyone can readily understand them. Synthetic foods must be clearly labelled as artificial. If foods consists of two or more ingredients, the manufacturers must list these ingredients in their proper order.

(English Language Institute - University of Wellington, New Zealand, mimeographed, December 7, 1962, dR.)

Steel.

Steel is stronger than wrought iron and cheaper. Ships, bridges, railways, guns are all made of steel. Steel contains from 1 % to 1.6 % of carbon.

There are many different kinds of steel. When certain other metals are added when steel is being made, special quality steel is the result, for instance hardened steel. Electric furnaces are often used to make high-quality steel and special steels for special jobs. When metals are mixed they are called alloys.

(Pittman, G. A., Preparatory Technical English, p. 50)

Fires.

When a fire burns very slowly we say it smoulders. When the speed of combustion is quicker, we say a fire burns, and when the combustion takes place very quickly, indeed we say 'it explodes', it causes an explosion.

A smouldering fire makes no noise, a fire burns without much noise, but an explosion always makes a noise. Sometimes an explosion can be heard many miles from its source.

When we light a cigarette, the tobacco smoulders. It makes a lot of smoke, it produces smoke which we breathe in, which we inhale.

The tobacco is consumed and a residue of grey ash is left. The unconsumed part of the cigarette is called the cigarette end or the cigarette butt. We put the unconsumed portion of the cigarette in an ash-tray.

(Pittman, G. A., Preparatory Technical English, pp.117 - 118)

Lack of Parental Care.

The timidity of little children comes from mistakes of loving parents. Jack's shyness had other beginnings, it came from lack of parental care. Jack's father died during the great war in Korea. He had left just after Jack was born. Jack's mother, who was young and irresponsible, had put him in a boarding school. She got married again and left Jack. She completely forgot to pay for her son's care. She finally disappeared.

Jack moved from one place to another until he came to a very good boarding school. The teachers tried very hard to be friendly towards Jack. But Jack had become a sad, little old man who had no friends at all.

One day, the teacher, who was Jack's special friend, talked to him about the situation at school before Jack came. Then the teacher asked Jack about his earlier life. The teacher said, "When you like people, you want to know a lot about them."

"Well," Jack sighed, "first I was born and then ... everything stopped."

A Letter to a Sweetheart.

One day a young man was writing a letter to his sweetheart who lived just a few miles away in a nearby town. Among other things, he was telling her how much he loved her and how wonderful she was. The more he wrote, the more poetical he became. Finally, he said that in order to be with her he would suffer the greatest difficulties, he would face the greatest dangers that anyone could imagine.

In fact, to spend only one minute with her, he would climb the highest mountain in the world, he would

swim across the widest river, he would enter the deepest forest and with his bare hands fight against the fiercest animals.

He finished the letter, signed his name. Then he suddenly remembered that he had forgotten to mention something which was quite important. So in a postscript (P.S.) below his name, he added, " By the way, I'll be over to see you on Wednesday night - if it does not rain."

(Dixson, R. J., Direct English Conversation for Foreign Students, Book II, p. 36)

In these passages we find that the structure is somewhat more advanced. The sentences sometimes occur in the Passive Voice, whereas in the first three reading passages all sentences are in the Active Voice. It goes without saying that some vocabulary items need explaining or sometimes occasional translation.

In selecting a reading passage the teacher has to simplify the material according to what the students already know. It requires much effort and preparation on the teacher's part, however, this is the only way for a smooth progress in the students' reading aptitude.

Suggested Books for Reading Passages.

We would here recommend some books where teachers can find fairly easy reading pieces. Still, the teachers should be discrete in choosing the proper materials. If they appear to be structurally difficult, simplification of the material is the only solution.

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