

THE ENGLISH TEACHING
IN NON-ENGLISH DEPARTMENTS AND
A TEXT-BOOK FOR THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

A Thesis
Presented To
The Department Of English
" Sanata Dharma "
Teacher Training Institute

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by

Wena Cintiawati

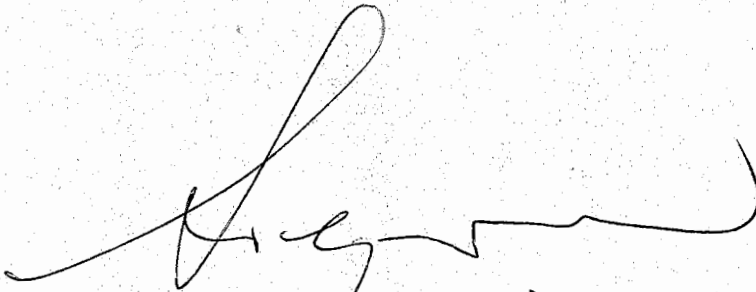
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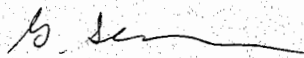
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(Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo Ph.D.)

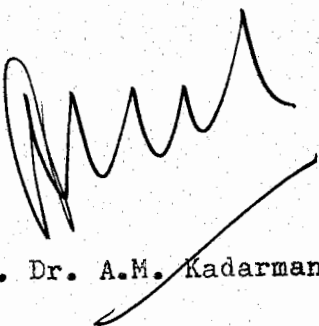
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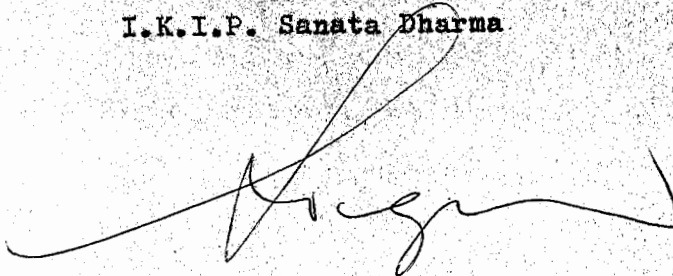
(Gloria R. Poedjosoedarmo Ph.D.)

Rector of the I.K.I.P.
Sanata Dharma

Head of the Department
of English Language
and Literature
I.K.I.P. Sanata Dharma



(Prof. Dr. A.M. Kadarman S.J.)



(Soepomo Poedjosoedarmo Ph.D.)

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INTRODUCTION

English now takes a more important role in Indonesia as a developing country because we need to keep up with what modern countries have achieved, and so many books about them are written in English.

As teachers we must learn a lot to be able to enrich our knowledge by reading English textbooks in which we can find more complete information.

Therefore it is interesting to see how English teaching is done in our college, because lately it has often been argued whether it is necessary to maintain English as a subject taught in the non-English Departments.

So far the Education Department of Sanata Dharma does not have a text-book. Therefore in my thesis I write a text-book for them.

This thesis consists of two parts : English teaching in non-English Departments and a text-book for the Education Department. We can see how English teaching has changed from year to year in regard to its function and its importance in each Department, how to be a good teacher in non-English Departments, whether it is necessary, and because the text-book is for the Education Department, I enclose the difficulties of teaching English in the Education Department. So while using this text-book, the English teacher can prepare himself in order to achieve successful results.

I hope this can help English teachers in teaching English in the Education Department, and I welcome constructive suggestions and criticism from the readers.

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CHAPTER I

THE DIFFICULTIES OF TEACHING ENGLISH IN THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

The English teacher of the Education Department has different difficulties compared to those teaching in the English Department. The teacher cannot just ignore this fact. Personally, I think it is more difficult to teach in the Education Department. There are many factors to be taken into account if the teacher wants to succeed.

A. Different Levels of Capacity

To enter the Education Department, one does not have to master good English. English is not considered important. The Department judges the students from other points of views, among others are the results of their IQ tests and their general knowledge tests. As long as they pass those tests, they can follow the English class without any other requirement. Thus it is easy to imagine that the English teacher will find that the English knowledge of the students, especially the first-year students, varies a great deal. Some students are good enough, probably, but most are terrible. It is understandable, however, since those who have good mastery of English will certainly enter the English Department. It is no longer a secret that the English Department is considered better. Those left in The Education Department are poor in their English knowledge. Most do not even know the meaning of a word which is taught in the first year of Junior High School, such as what the word this means. This is really what the English teacher of the Education Department once experienced. As for the idea that the students of the Edu-

cation Department are less clever than the students of the English Department is irrelevant. Maybe the students of the English Department are better at their English knowledge but poorer in the field of psychology and those of the Education Department are better at their knowledge of psychology but poorer in English. The problem is that English is not very important, so they will not spend any effort to deepen their English knowledge.

It is not only the entrance test that plays a role but the schools where the students come from also play an important role in creating the different levels of capacity. We can expect, for example, that schools in villages will produce only fair students, considered from the point of view of the English knowledge; good schools produce not-too-bad students, at least. If the teacher gives a test to the first year students of the Education Department, she will find that most of them have not even mastered the first five-hundred-word vocabulary list.

This fact, of course, is one of the difficulties the teacher must face. It is difficult to decide where to begin. Even if the teacher has begun with something, she will often have to go back explaining something they should already know. She cannot just go on without caring whether the students understand or not. If most understand, then she can go on with her subject. This coming back to the previous items hinders the progress of the teaching. If the teacher does not know this before hand, she will soon be frustrated because her planning does not work out well. By knowing this, the teacher will take into consideration this aspect of difficulty. Thus she can handle the class in a more prepared way.

B. Too Big Class

A big class creates another problem. Unfortunately all Departments at IKIP Sanata Dharma adopt this system.

Every year the Education Department accepts about eighty students and in 1979, it accepted about 100 students. This is indeed very big. This great number is divided into two groups. Each group consists of about fifty students and each student is suggested to follow the English class. However, a class of fifty students cannot be considered small. Moreover they are of different levels of capacity.

In dealing with big classes, so far the emphasis has been on the teacher's part, on how she should arrange and deliver her teaching, how to deal with the situation she and her students are in, and if she is teaching using a text-book - how she may adopt the language of the text-book for her class. But the problem is no matter how carefully and economically the teacher divides the time, she cannot give any student much personal attention which is often necessary.

The lack of attention will impair the teaching. Those lazy students most likely will feel that the teacher does not know them, even if they become lazier, the teacher will not recognize them either. With this conviction they will not be serious in learning. They ignore the lessons and choose to be idle. The lazier they are, the more difficult the lesson will seem to them. Once they cannot understand something, they will not try to catch up with their other friends, but be upset and then decide that English is too difficult, or English is useless and boring, etc. .

The second problem the teacher has to face is that concern-

ing the choosing of the materials to teach. It is often very difficult to decide where to begin, as there are so many things to consider. Although the teacher very accurately arranges the materials, these materials will still be considered 'terribly difficult', 'completely new and unintelligible', or 'too simple and easy', or even 'deadly boring'. With these various considerations, it will certainly be very difficult for the teacher to handle the class.

Thus we see that a big class is not easy to teach. The students' belief that the teacher does not know them will not help the teacher much. No matter how she teaches, the thing just will not enter the students' brains. This is a great obstacle for the teacher.

C. Too Little Time

English used to be taught three periods a week in the first year, two periods per week in the second year and also two periods for the third year. It was also taught for the whole semester. Even then it was considered too short a time, much less the new policy in which English is taught only two periods per week, only for one semester. There is no English for the second year students. Fortunately the third year still get two periods per week for the whole year.

Can the teacher and the students gain much within forty hours, especially if the classes are big and of various levels? The better way to deal with big classes is to divide them into several groups. Students of about the same level

are grouped together. The materials are arranged to suit each group's demand. But to do this will need much more time than that is given, otherwise it will not work out well.

Now the new policy is put into effect. It attempts to limit the English classes. There are only two periods of English and only for one semester. What can be expected from this? There are so many basic materials to teach, but how to achieve that? The policy only puts the teacher in a more difficult position. The aim of the Department is to help the students to be able to read later on. To teach reading requires much time, and a lot of practice, but there is no time available.

Thus it is impossible for the teacher to teach all the basic materials, whereas those are the basic ones which will help the students to do their own reading later on. If that cannot be finished, how could they be let alone to do their own reading? Excellent results are almost impossible to achieve without any good facilities. One of those is time. Enough time presents enough exercises and practices. Consequently the lack of time hampers the progress of the teaching activity.

D. English, a Non-Compulsory Subject

So far, English is not a compulsory subject. This means that the students themselves may decide whether they want to attend the English class with the consequence of taking the exam at the end of each semester, or not. They can drop out of the English class any time they want to. So if there are

about sixty students in the first semester attending the English class, in the second semester there will only be around thirty. The other half drops out. Some consider that English is just too difficult for them that they cannot catch up with the others, but most are just lazy. Why do they have to study while they are allowed to be free? The frivolous students will certainly prefer to be idle rather than to study English.

This dropping out occurs every year. They seem to be interested only at the beginning when they still feel they are new and feel afraid of the lecturer. But after they understand that English is not compulsory, they begin to be lazy. This kind of thing often occurs although this is not what the Department expects by making English a non-compulsory subject. Of course the purpose of making English a non-compulsory subject is good. It is meant to give the students the opportunity to grow up, to make their own decision and choice and to take the responsibility of what they do. But since our students are not mature, the system makes them worse.

It is not easy at all to awaken the students to the fact that English is necessary either when they want to read English books or when they work later on. Most students are satisfied with the information given by the lecturer who has translated the subject. They think it is the lecturer's task to read the reference books and then summarize the important points and present these to the students. It is enough for them to swallow up all the information given; it is more than enough for them. They think that the lecturer knows

everything, and this makes them feel contented. As a result they do not try to seek for more information and knowledge. They do not want to fight their own laziness. It is nice to be lazy and if they are allowed to be lazy, it is stupid not to take the chance, so they say !

If English were a compulsory subject, the students would be more serious in learning it. They would have to. And I personally think that Indonesian students must be forced to study if they are to succeed. They are not old enough, psychologically, to force themselves. So although it is best for them to have primary motivation, that which comes from themselves, secondary motivation is absolutely needed. Like for example, the Javanese students in particular, still have deep feeling of 'perkewuh' if they want to be absent from the lesson taught by somebody they know. This can be used by the teacher. She should try to know more about the naughty and lazy students, talk to them outside the class, ask them the reason they were absent, etc. . By doing so, the students will feel uneasy and they will not run away from the English class. This helps both sides, the students and the teacher herself. The students learn to control and force themselves and the teacher learns to do some better relationship with the students, since teaching is not merely a matter of giving information only. It also needs human relationship.

To overcome this problem, the Department held a kind of screening test for the second year students. Those who did not pass the English test were advised not to follow the English class. Those who passed should follow the English class. By having this screening test, the Department helps the teacher a lot. At least the test shows who are to follow

the English class and who are not. It has bettered the quality of the class as a whole. After the test, the teacher has approximately the same level students. It also helps the teacher to teach faster. But it seems that this test will not be held anymore, especially after the new policy is put into effect.

E. No Text-Book for The Second And Third Years

A text-book is a help for the students to know what the programme of the teacher is. It also helps those who want to pre-learn the lessons at home. Of course the text-book should suit the purpose of the teaching or the course. For example, the reading passages in the text-book should contain the subjects taught in that Department. This is meant to show the students the use of English for them and also to help them to read directly what they require and give them the feeling of safety, because they know what to do. It helps to arouse the motivation to learn. So a text-book is a good guide to develop the students' positive attitudes of learning.

Up to now there has not been any text-book to help the students of the Education Department. The students often ask the teacher what kinds of books they should read to help them understand the English lessons. They feel restless and lost. They are sometimes too afraid to come to class only because they feel they cannot answer the teacher's questions. If the students are often absent, they certainly will be left behind. They will drop out when they feel that there is too much they do not know.

A text-book also helps the teacher. It includes a plan and a systematic preparation of what should be taught to the students. The already programmed materials help her to save her time to prepare something else. To prepare materials requires much time and energy, especially if the Department has no syllabus. Having a text-book in her hand, she does not have to run here and there selecting materials. She can use her time to add to the inadequacy of the text-book. Without any text-book, she is often confused to select the materials suitable for the Department. Especially when the teacher does not have much time to prepare the materials for her teaching, she will just grab at any materials she can think of. If this happens once in a while, the students might not see it. But if it occurs very often, then her teaching is already deviated. She does not teach what should be taught.

A text-book also saves time for copying. If each time the teacher has to write everything on the blackboard and then ask the students to copy, it will take too much time. It would be worse if there are some students who cannot write fast. The teacher cannot go on explaining things while most of the students are still writing. Most cannot divide their attention on two things. If there is a text-book available the teacher will only have to write and explain some extra things. She does not have to write the whole things on the board and the students do not have to write everything down. They can use their time to do some other things, such as to do some more exercises and more practice.

So we see that having no text-book slows down the prog-

ress of the teaching since a text-book is a determining factor which can influence the success or the failure of a teaching. A text-book is a good help for the teacher in planning her programme, a good guide for the students, and an important plan which includes the main things to teach. Sometimes a teacher forgets some parts which are important. And last but not least, a text-book contains exercises which are very helpful for both parties.

F. Many Courses Outside College

One of the students' habits is to delay what they can delay, and to do it later when they are in emergency. This is what happens to them. They do not study English seriously when they are in college. They feel peaceful since they have something else to rely on : the courses outside the college. They think they can take the courses outside and acquire the materials needed even if they do not attend the one at their college.

Attending the courses outside is the same as spending money on something futile. That is what one of the good students told me. I think that is true. If the students do not want the class at their college, how could they expect to be serious when they are at courses which do not demand anything from them? The courses only teach general things whereas the college has already specified its programme.

This kind of belief and attitude is a disadvantage for the teacher. They believe they can catch up with their friends later by attending the courses, but their later

is always flexible, so that it can be applied any time they want. When they want to take it is still a big question mark. One cannot expect much from this kind of students.

G. Too Many Kinds Of Subjects

There are about 14 subjects taught in each level. This is considered too many by the students. That becomes the chief source of complaint. They say that the time available is not enough, that they are too occupied by the lessons. Another reason they put forward is that they can do nothing except going to college. They do not think they can imbibe anything else. They feel they deserve some free time. The way out is by being absent. To be absent from other subjects which are thought to be more important than English is impossible. The solution is by being absent from the English class. When there is a test, instead of studying at home, they hopefully ask for The English teacher's permission to be absent to study the things they have to study. This especially takes place in the third year class. They have to do some researches and practice teachings. The time left for them is less. The way out is taking the time offered by English.

It is clear enough that most of the students are not good time-arrangers. They just do not know how to arrange their time so that they will not be too confused when the time comes for them to have the daily tests or the final tests. They prefer to be idle until there is no other choice left. The motto of this decade - to be santai - is adopted and applied in the field of studying.

We can see that there are two contrary facts : 1. the students complain about having no time to study the abundant subjects ; they feel bored. 2. The motto they adopt - being santai . Either they are lazy and then santai or they are too santai that they cannot, or to be more precise, do not want to arrange a good time schedule they themselves know best. However, these aspects surely decrease the progress of the teaching and learning processes.

Another complaint concerns the feeling of boredom. The students feel fed up with the subjects since there are too many subjects to learn but too little time to learn them. When they adopt this manner, it is difficult for the teacher to put things into their brains.

H. The Dark Future

One of the most important factors in learning is the future one is going to face after one graduates. The future is a determining factor in creating the students' willingness to study harder or to fall deeper into frustration. It is a good secondary motivation for them.

The first year students are not very much influenced by this aspect since they are still high spirited in entering new surroundings. They feel they are now really adults since they are now in college. They still have to go a long way before they enter the working world. They can just then leave this problem behind for a while and concentrate on their study, but it is different with the second and third year students, especially the third. They begin to think about

their future. They are about to graduate, but what will they do when they enter into society? The fields opened to them are very limited. If they want to become teachers, the salary will not be sufficient, but if they want to find other jobs, then what? Their field is the one that is not very frequently used in life. If there are some, then these cannot feed them. Some students are already married. They have to feed their wives and children. This dark future begins to make them wonder what is the use of studying these things. They have spent so much money and energy, but what is the reward? This future darkens their views of studying, and discourages their spirit to learn. Unfortunately, this does not happen only to English but also to the other subjects as well. Their minds are just closed by all these problems. They cannot think clearly and consequently that affects their spirit to learn.

One thing is clear though, most of the students did not have a definite aim when they went to college. They just wanted to go to college, that is all. Going to college is better than working which demands their responsibilities more. So when school is almost finished, they begin to worry again, - what should I do? they wonder. In this case, bright future can spur the low spirited students. The feeling of being needed makes them study more seriously; they are willing to do the best for the good things they will get. This feeling of self-confidence helps a lot. The teacher cannot do much if they are very pessimistic. It is they themselves who are their own masters.

As mentioned above, it cannot be denied that one of the

most important factors in learning is motivation. Lack of motivation results in no desire to learn.

According to the psychology of learning, there are three things that underline motivation :

1. goals
2. purposes
3. plans

One should remember that many aspects of individual motivation are represented in awareness : the awareness of what the individual is doing. He makes clear plans. He is guided by the expectations and risks involved in his plans. He knows what he wants. If he knows what he wants, what obstacles he is likely to face and to overcome, what satisfaction he will get at the end, then he knows his goals. If he knows his goals, then certainly what he does is guided by the purpose of his action. His ways to achieve his goals are purposeful. He is not just floating in the air without having any firm root to hold on. The thing to do is to make plans to be carried out. When they have these three things, then they are supposed to be already motivated to learn.

But almost none of the students of the Education Department know what they are doing. They do not know what their goals are. I do not understand why they are going to school if they do not know their own purposes in doing such things. The only possible answer is that they will find out that real life is much more difficult than life in schools. The obstacles they have to face in life demand their responsibilities more than the ones in schools. So they choose the easy ones. They enter college without having any clear or definite goals. Everything they do has a very vague purpose and therefore

they are easily distracted. Furthermore they are too cowardly to face obstacles in learning. When they meet any difficulties, they shrink from them rather than trying to face them bravely. They lack strong will and withdraw and dare not take the risks. They do not realize that everything is difficult before it is easy.

It is easier to be in the midst of everything without having to make decisions and take the risks. The worse thing is that the students do not want to struggle to reach their goals, if they have any. Most have no goals, no purposes, no plans and thus unmotivated. They are already satisfied with what the teacher gives them. It is the teacher's task to read as many books as possible, and then take the important points, afterwards the teacher is supposed to feed the students with the already digested materials. The students think that the teacher should know everything and remember everything and be motherly by guiding them all the time. They have no plans to read more books and seek for more information from other sources except the teacher. They lean on the teacher. They do not have any motivation of their own. The outside motivation, to force them to read books, is not reinforced. They are unaware that to lean on the teacher all the time is disadvantageous.

Having no goals makes the students not care for what happens to them, whether they pass or fail the final tests. This is worsened by the new policy in which the students may repeat the tests until they at last pass. By doing this, one of the external motivations is left out.

Some people say that when the students get satisfaction

in their learning, the learning motivation is increased, and when they are not rewarded, the motivation is decreased. Another theory shows that students with histories of failures set their goals very low as to avoid the repeated experience of defeat, or else so high, that if they fail, they are not to blame. The first opinion does not seem to work for the students of the Education Department. Maybe the second one is more likely to take place. With their experiences in the secondary schools, they begin to set their goals in English learning too low or too high, or just take the attitude that English is not important to them. Only after they have graduated and plunged into society and work, will they begin to believe again that English is important. But isn't that rather too late ?

Another disadvantageous thing is that if the teacher is affected by the low spirited students. Sometimes the teacher cannot help but feeling hopeless for the students and as a result her attitude shows how she feels.

We already know that in the teaching and learning processes both parties play the same great important role. They affect each other. A high spirited teacher receiving no response from the low spirited students will feel down hearted, while high spirited students having a low spirited teacher will not learn. The lack of motivation from either party will result in unsuccessful teaching or learning.

So far we have talked about motivation since it is a factor affecting the students greatly. It is just like the dark future, it determines the students' attitudes towards learning. The future is an aspect of motivation. It is an external motivation to encourage the students to learn or not.

A bright future is a good motivation for the students. It encourages them to study harder and better since they go to college with the hopes of bettering their future. So it is understandable if future plays a great role in making the students motivated or unmotivated.

I. The Students' Attitudes

Some years ago the word attitude did not have primary importance in education. But now things have changed. It is an inevitable fact that we must pay attention to, attitudes. The teacher cannot just ignore this since it is the students' attitudes that make life easy or difficult in the classroom.

Factors influencing attitudes are many. Among others are teachers, parents, social class values, peer group attitudes, positions, and social and academic success or failure of the parents, etc. . For example, boys tend to develop more favourable attitudes in learning because of the values in their future, they need their college knowledge when they work later. Attitudes are learned. Then how do these attitudes come into being ? They are often analyzed like this :

1. There is the cognitive component, namely, the perception of the concept or situation.
2. There is the affective component, namely, the feeling that rises about the cognitive component.
3. There is the evaluative component, namely, the feeling that rises in the affective component which are then appraised, good or bad.

4. There is the behavioral component, namely, the evaluations which are acted out; this is called attitudes.

But when one says attitudes, then others are likely to associate them with the unfavourable ones. Otherwise there will not be any problem .

We know that the first day the students enter the English class, they have already had a set of attitudes. These can either be positive or negative. Then the students develop the cognitive sides, namely, the English class. Second, they will feel bored, excited, happy, enthusiastic or confident , etc. . After that they form the evaluative part; some feel that English is difficult. Some think that it is useless and inadequate, while others feel that English is good and useful. Unfortunately, the students of the Education Department have already adopted the negative attitudes. This is due to their previous schooling. They received very little, almost nothing, when they were in secondary school. So when they enter colleges, they have no confidence in the English knowledge. Gradually the 'dumbbell' attitudes are adopted. They meet only failure. This frustrates them and they react in a negative way. They become indifferent. Nothing will ring a bell in their minds. There is no response whatever hits them, they remain mute.

Thus whatever techniques the teacher chooses to wake them up is in vain. They just come and sit in the classroom to spend a day. This certainly is terrible, since no matter how the approach is, they just sit there with their eyes fixed on the blackboard or the teacher, knowing nothing.

These poor attitudes of the students in a way create a lazy atmosphere in the classroom. This is the case with the students of the Education Department. It is good to remember that there will be no sanction if they do not pass the final test. The Department allows them to have repetitions until they pass. This makes them santai and lazy. Some will not follow the first chance to have the repeat test; they think they still have other chances. I am not sure if it is a wise policy.

The problem is that we cannot treat college students in the same way that we treat secondary school students. College students, although they are still in the first year, feel that they are already adults. They want the teacher to treat them as adults. The fact is that they are not as mature as they think they are. If only they were, there would be no problem. Thus the teacher is certainly in a very difficult position. She cannot adopt a hard attitude towards them. Most will take it hard if the teacher scolds them. They even feel humiliated by routine corrections. Actually, they need this correction since their English is still poor. If the teacher does not take this into consideration, the students are likely to adopt a negative attitude. This negative attitude may take many forms. Some will very likely make as much noise as possible. They feel they are great if they become the naughtiest students in class. Others do not care what happens. Once the students establish unfavourable attitudes, it is very difficult for the teacher to change them.

As mentioned above, the teacher cannot adopt hard attitudes towards the students. If she does, she indirectly

helps the students to have unfavourable attitudes towards her subject. This especially happens to the students of the Education Department. They have very little interest in English or even in life. They do not know what they are doing, therefore they easily become low-spirited, unmotivated, and establish unfavourable attitudes towards their studies.

The various unfavourable attitudes of the students are a hindrance in the teaching and learning processes. When many students react negatively to the subject taught, then the chance of a successful teaching is diminished. It is much more difficult to change the students' attitudes than to establish new ones.

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From all the information mentioned previously, we can see that teaching English in the Department of Education is difficult, to say the least. The facilities are inadequate. The students are unmotivated, and the new policy is not helpful. All of these are worsened if the teacher is not strong or full of self-confidence. A weak teacher facing all those negative things is certainly dragged downwards.

A teacher is the focus of a teaching process. She becomes the director and she should direct the students in a correct way. It is not easy to be a good teacher. Her attitudes are certainly scored. Negative attitudes will destroy her teaching. If the students judge her as tiring, too serious, not understanding, etc., she will be disliked. Once they dislike her, it is almost impossible to like the

subject she teaches.

A teacher who considers that the students have the same interest as she does is greatly mistaken. The teacher of course finds learning English is interesting and easy. But she must remember that not all her students share the same feelings. Some might have the same interest as hers, but most might not. They regard English as disgusting and difficult. If the teacher does not realize this, she will act in a foolish way. She gets angry with them and sometimes fails them. So her scoring and marking are not objective anymore. As a result the students dislike her. Getting angry is not a help since an easily angry teacher is only a cause of fright. The students are not willing to learn or they are too frightened to come to class. Thus we see that the teacher's attitudes also play a part in determining the success or the failure of a teaching. Hence the teacher's task is indeed very heavy if a successful teaching is to be achieved. A low-spirited, indifferent and unmotivated teacher worsens the teaching.

CHAPTER II

HOW TO BE A GOOD TEACHER

This part of my thesis is based on Robert Lado's Language Teaching. The chapter taken is "The Qualifications for Secondary School Teachers of Modern Languages". Of course, if the secondary school teachers should know that much, then college teachers should know more. The qualifications for superior secondary school teachers will not be superior for college teachers. They need even more to be able to become superior college teachers. Here I try to show the aspects needed to teach in the Education Department and how far those things should be mastered by the teachers so that they can be considered good. Does the teacher need to master aural understanding, speaking, writing, language analysis or only reading which she is supposed to teach so that later the students can read independently? What do these aspects do to her? What is the influence if she does not master them and if she does? Will they influence her teaching? In what ways? Let us see all those aspects one by one.

1. The Aural Understanding

To be a good college teacher, at least she has to master this aural understanding. The one required is "the ability to understand conversation of average tempo, lectures and news broadcasts" or the better one is that "to be able to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays or movies".



It is already clear that a college teacher is more demanded than a Junior or Senior High school teacher. A college teacher is not supposed to teach only grammar. The students want more than a teacher who knows so little. It is clear enough that good college students will not merely nod their heads hearing what the teacher says. They will soon see whether their teacher masters her subject well or not. Once they learn that she is not qualified enough, they then learn to disrespect her. If, for example, a foreigner speaks English to her, but she only stays gaping, what will the students think, especially if that happens in front of the students? Will they respect a teacher who knows only so little, who cannot understand if other people speak English to her? That certainly is a bad symptom for her teaching.

As a teacher, she should make the students trust her. Only after that, they will listen to her, seek her when they meet any difficulties. They need and respect and like a teacher who is ready to help them, perhaps they would want her to listen to news broadcast or songs or other things which demand her aural understanding, not a teacher who needs one day to think and gives the answer the other day.

In daily practice, namely in her teaching, she might not often use this aural understanding. But teaching is not merely giving information without being able to communicate, without mutual help, without mutual respect, isn't it? It involves more than merely giving notes. It also needs the trust from the students on the teacher. If there is no trust and no respect, then a part of her teaching is a failure. Thus, the more she knows, the better.

2. Speaking Ability

Is this ability necessary for a college teacher? To what extent does she need this? What is the use of being able to speak fluently for her?

This speaking ability is directly used in class, compared to the aural understanding. This means that the students of the Education Department will not ask the teacher some questions in English. But the speaking ability is used in class activities, meaning to say that the teacher has to speak English in class.

As a qualified teacher, she has to master all the skills. She has to show the students that she is able to speak good English, namely, to be able to approximate native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation, at least. The teacher has to introduce this speaking ability to the students. If it is not for the students to imitate her to speak English, then it is a help for the students to know of English. When the teacher speaks English, she indirectly lets the students hear the English sounds. First the students may find English a strange language. But gradually they will be used to those sounds. They will find them not strange anymore. Once they know that English is not as strange as what they thought, they will begin trying to know it better. Although the aim of the Department is not teaching the students to be able to pronounce the words correctly, but I personally think that this will help them to be accustomed to English.

Although the students might not understand spoken

English, the teacher still has to speak it out and then translate the sentences into Indonesian again. By speaking English in class, she creates an English atmosphere which is often needed in learning a foreign language.

Besides helping the students, this ability also helps the teacher herself. It is a prestige for her. It can be used to show that she is capable of teaching them. She masters her subject well. She should remember that college students need a teacher who can help them correct their English when they make mistakes, to teach them standard English. So she is the centre of the students' confidence. She has to show that she can be trusted since she knows what she is talking about. They do not respect a teacher who can speak English but nobody can understand since her pronunciation is unintelligible. Good speaking ability helps her a lot to lift her up in the eyes of the students.

Remember that there is no limit of how much an educated person must know.

3. Reading Ability

It has been clearly stated before that the aim of the Department is to teach the students reading, so that they can read textbooks concerning the fields they are studying now. What about the teacher? What qualification does she need? A good teacher should have the ability to read, almost as easily as in Indonesian, materials of considerable difficulties, such as essays and literary criticism, says Lado.

If reading is intended in the Department, the teacher must master this ability well. It will not be easy since college reading passages are different from those taught in secondary schools. The secondary school reading passages are not of wide range. But the college ones are of wider range. If a secondary school teacher can be contented as long as she has prepared the passages in the books used in that school, a college teacher cannot. A college teacher should know more since she has to be ready to answer the students' questions about the subjects the students learn at their college. It often occurs that the things the students ask are not written in the English text-book, because college students have to read some reference books suggested by the other teachers. When the students find any difficulties, they will of course seek the English teacher to help them. In this case, the teacher cannot prepare what the students are going to ask since she does not know what they are likely to ask. However, she should be able to answer the questions after she reads the things asked. The technical terms she might not know, but the general things she must know, especially the sentence structure. She cannot merely say: "I'm sorry, I need more time to think." or "I have some other important work to do" or other excuses. If it takes place once in while, it does not matter, but if it occurs always, the students wonder about it. They immediately discover that their teacher is not a good one. She only knows the things written in her book. Even when they ask simple questions outside the text-book, the teacher cannot answer. If this takes place,

the students will gradually disrespect her. She is supposed to help them solve the problems they meet when they read something in English, but the fact that she knows so little is really discouraging. Eventually some questions emerge in the students' minds, "Does the teacher teach the correct things? Does she really understand what she is talking about? Do we have to believe her?" etc. . . The result is that they soon learn to distrust her. What can be expected if nobody listens to her? Teaching demands a constant, more sympathetic and personal relationship between the teacher and the students. It also needs mutual respect from both parties as well.

This kind of thing less often occurs in the secondary schools. First, the students will not ask complicated questions. Second, the reading passages are not of wide range. To be a good college teacher is not easy at all. Concerning this reading ability, the teacher should at least be able to read "with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulties and mature content."

Besides helping the teacher in her teaching, the reading ability would also help her personally. It is a personal satisfaction if the teacher can help the students to understand the things that bother them, either it be school subjects or others. The greatest consolation for a teacher is to see the students successful either in their study or in life later.

4. Writing Ability

" The ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression, and some feelings of the style of the language " is supposed to be needed by a college teacher.

Why is this writing ability needed if the aim is reading ? A secondary school teacher does not need a high qualification. If she can give some examples to the students, it is already fair. But a college teacher needs more than that.

This writing ability helps the teacher to make various examples without having to think for a long time. Sometimes the students ask the teacher to help them to write letters to apply for a job. Those activities certainly demand her writing ability. Often the good students need the teacher's help in writing some letters or articles to improve their English. The teacher is supposed to be ready to help.

In her teaching this writing ability helps her in giving various examples without being afraid to make glaring mistakes. Without mastering this part, she can only give examples taken from the text-book. If this occurs from year to year, teaching exactly the same things, how boring her teaching will be! Not only it is boring for the students, it is boring for herself too. The senior students can merely tell their junior friends that they do not have to write anything since the teacher is giving the same things or they do not have to come to class since the things the teacher knows are already written in their notebooks. The materials will always be the same. There is no improvisation nor improvement. This means that the students are not willing to write English. If the

poorly-equipped students do not want to write English, they will not be able to recognize the graphic symbols which in fact can help them a lot in their reading. How can they read if they cannot recognize the graphic representations? This kind of thing will happen sooner or later. Can a teaching work out if only a small number of students attend her teaching since they feel they already know what the teacher is going to talk about? This will be a great disadvantage for the teacher. Writing helps the students to recall, not merely recognize. As a teacher she has to be able to represent what she has in mind and put it down in the symbols - writing.

For the teacher's part, she will be able to write a hand-book or a text-book of her own. The other books available might be good enough, but the better one is the one she writes herself since she knows what she wants. The book she writes will deal with the subjects she teaches and the aims of the Department the students are in. She knows the weaknesses of other text-books because they do not contain what she and her students might need in their Department. She then can write materials that suit the purpose of the English teaching there. She also knows the level of the students' capacity. With her experience and knowledge, she can help the students a great deal. Writing a text-book is not an easy job. So she needs this writing ability. When she writes a book of her own, she can teach more clearly. She knows what she means by the things she writes there and hence the practice would be better. Mastering writing ability is a sign of the better understanding of the language.

5. Language Analysis

No matter where a teacher teaches, she will always face similar problems, namely, the interference of the mother tongue. This interference may cause some difficulties to the students. How to deal with this? What does a teacher need to know in order to deal with this kind of problem better? I personally think that the knowledge on language analysis can help a lot in trying to solve the problems the students are likely to face. The teacher should know linguistics, both historical and descriptive comparative.

Linguistics is the science describing and classifying languages. It contains the description of sounds, words and sentences the teacher must teach. The part mostly needed is the descriptive comparative and historical linguistics. The chief source of difficulties in learning a foreign language is the difference between the two languages.

The descriptive comparative linguistics here shows the difference between two different languages. It compares the structures of two different languages. By knowing this, the teacher can predict what kind of mistakes the students might make, she can arrange and prepare her teaching in such a way as to show them the difference between those two. By showing this and explaining to them what they should do, it helps them to understand more clearly. Not knowing language analysis, the teacher will not know where the difference lies and what should be done about the recurring mistakes the students make. She goes on teaching and teaching and the students go on forgetting and forgetting.

A teacher may be able to speak English fluently without knowing language analysis, but she cannot explain why it is that way. It is also the case with us, we can speak Indonesian fluently but we cannot explain it to a foreigner why we say that. For example, why a word is made plural by doubling like buku-buku, but we cannot apply the same rule for the word kunang-kunang. Why not? We certainly cannot explain as clearly as when we know something about linguistics. We only say "that's the way we say it", but how come? A teacher certainly cannot give this kind of explanation to every item asked by the students. A child may be satisfied given such answer, but will college students just nod their heads without making any judgement?

What role, in fact, does this language analysis play? It teaches the teacher about the language she is learning and teaching. The teacher sees the elements of the language and how the language operates by a certain set of rules which differ from her native ones. When she knows the difference, then she can avoid to make the same mistakes. If she can, why can't the students know after they are shown the difference? Gradually they will develop the sensitivity towards English and they know better. Then they try to avoid the same mistakes.

Language is developing. Everybody cannot deny it. A teacher should always follow the development of knowledge, including languages. If she does not know the development of a certain word, for example, she will keep on using it in her daily life. It is not only awkward for her, it will

sound strange to the ears of a native speaker. The problem arises if she teaches the out-of-date knowledge to her students, they perceive something which is rarely used anymore. Maybe she is asked about the meaning of a word in a book, which now undergoes a slight change, but she does not know it, she will probably say that it is misprinted or wrong. The worse thing is if the student asks another teacher and he gives him the desired answer. This frequently occurs and that certainly drags the first teacher to the ground. The students will not trust her anymore.

Language analysis also gives the teacher the knowledge that spoken and written languages are different. There are no two words which have exactly the same meanings. Sometimes they are different in their usage, for example, one is more formal while the other is less; or sometimes one has a wider range than the other. This kind of thing also occurs in the students' native language. Some words are often used in the written language such as the words andaikan and walaupun, they sound very formal if they are used in the spoken one.

As a whole, language analysis contributes a knowledge about the language. It is helpful in making the explanation clearer. It helps the teacher to understand the problems of the students which arise from the difference between the two languages. Thus she can predict and prepare what difficulties are likely to occur and how to overcome them.

6. Culture

One cannot understand a language fully without knowing its culture. A teacher of a foreign language should be aware that culture is one element in forming a language. Language is a part of the culture and they cannot be separated from each other. As Robert Lado says "There can be no real learning of a language without understanding something of the patterns and values of which it is a part".

The difference between the two cultures will create misunderstanding in learning a foreign language. As language is a means of communication, one is to try not to misuse it, even if one uses it as a tool to read scientific books.

Every cultural content of a language differs from one another. Culture shows the ways of thinking, acting, talking, and feeling of the people who use the language. For example, in Java when a guest arrives and is served a drink, he is not supposed to drink it directly. It is considered rude. But a westerner thinks that this kind of attitude is rude since the guest keeps on saying "Yes, thank you" but does not drink it. This kind of difference might cause annoyance or maybe offence.

That cultural difference also exists in writing. In scientific writing, not all the words are fully defined. For example, English people may say a cat without really meaning to say the Indonesian kucing. The word Cat includes all the animals that have the body shape like a cat. So a tiger is also called a cat in English. The students will not realize this until the teacher explains it to them. If the teacher does not know either, she explains it as kucing only, the meaning of the thing read will be very much different from

what the author wants. All of them misunderstand the whole concept.

Furthermore, as mentioned previously, the teacher should know that written language is more formal than the spoken one as this is a part of culture. The students will not realize that it is similar to his own native language until the teacher shows it to them. The students might ask why the word purchase is used instead of buy. If those two words are exactly the same, why doesn't the writer or the teacher use the word buy? The explanation is that in a formal situation the word purchase is used since it is the formal form of the word buy. In scientific books the word purchase more often occurs than the word buy.

Showing the differences between two cultures will always be interesting for the students. They are learning something new. They see that other people think, act and feel in a different way. Other people have certain expressions which they do not have. They indirectly learn more about their own culture while they are comparing those two.

As the cultural aspect will always be an interesting part to people, the teacher can use it in teaching a language, as long as she does not teach the wrong concept. She teaches the students to see the language from another point of view. She shows them that other people's language is just as good as their own. They will not be prejudiced against it. When the students have already had in mind that English is bad, the teacher can only do very little.

As mentioned above, the teacher must not teach the

wrong concept. What is meant here is that the teacher teaches English in terms of Indonesian culture. Language attaches words and phrases to the most frequent and important cultural meaning. This the teacher should keep in mind.

Even if the objective of teaching English is to help the students to read scientific books, this cultural aspect is still necessary to know. This cultural difference may create a difference in the classification of words. The difference is a problem to them. The teacher has to know this, especially as the scientific books define the scientific terms for the sake of precision, and not all the words are fully defined. The teacher must define it in accordance with its original meaning. For example, the word fish in English includes only the cold-blooded animal living wholly in water and breathing through gills, with fins for swimming and does not feed their young with milk from the breast. So manatees in English are not in the class of fish although they live in the sea. They are mammals. But in Indonesian a manatee is ikan. The Indonesian word ikan covers those two classes of animals in English. This kind of difference is a problem.

Hence in other words, culture helps the teacher to understand more precisely and better the language she is learning and teaching.

7. Professional Preparation

To become a teacher, one should equip oneself with

professional preparation. At least one has to know the basic knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching.

An unqualified teacher may not know much about professional preparation, and she is like a lost person. She teaches but does not know where she is going, what her aims are and how to teach them. Professional preparation is a provision for the teacher to plan her teaching programme. It helps her to see the situation in her class and apply a certain method and technique in that class. It helps her to plan step by step. She knows what to do and how to do it.

A teacher equipped only with certain small teaching techniques is monotonous. A teacher possessing a wide range of teaching methods and techniques can vary her teaching programmes to make her teaching more interesting. She can adapt herself to a new teaching situation without feeling lost.

There is no perfect method with no weaknesses. It is too extreme to say that. As a teacher she should remember that every specialist is tempted to have a theory of his own. He tends to over-emphasize a partial truth. And the other specialists may over-emphasize the other parts of the partial truth. This leads to what seems to be contradictory. The teacher must take a moderate view and add some parts which the other lacks. Thus she can improvise. She can choose the effective methods and techniques she has that suit the goals of the teaching programmes.

The teacher should remember that not all modern methods are good. Not all the old ones are bad. People just often

associate the word modern with " better, more effective and scientific". This is not always true. Not all old things are not bad and ineffective. The teacher should view with caution before deciding that one method is the best for a certain class but not for the other.

Sometimes the same teacher has to teach many different classes of different goals and levels of capacity. If this takes place, then the teacher should not stick to the one teaching method. . It is rather unwise of her to believe that her teaching methods are the best. She would be too reluctant to see her methods again. A part of her teaching has failed if she tries to adopt one method for all kinds of classes. Each programme has its own goals and consequently may require methods different from the ones used in the other programme. Some teachers tend to stick to the teaching methods they have been using. They fear the change and the effort to bring about the change, especially if the methods are already familiar to them.

Even in the same Department and in the same class there are so many variaties. For example, the learning attitude of the first year college students of 1978 and of 1979 will be different. If the teacher goes on believing that they are the same . she begins to treat them as objects having no personalities and brains. This should not happen. She should stimulate the students to be active and responsible, treat each class in accordance with its own personality. So she should not generalize them and generalize a certain method. Just because a method is successful in the hand of some good

teacher, she should not jump to the conclusion that it can be successful with all teachers. Each teacher has her own talent in carrying out her teaching. She can look at herself and see what methods that suit her and her students. To do this, she has to know many varieties of teaching methods and techniques that equip her.

By knowing that a certain method or technique teaches what the other does not, the teacher will not be too extreme. That helps a lot in her teaching. There are so many things to consider in teaching, among others are the goals of the programme, the means to carry out the teaching itself and the students' ability. To reach the goals, the teacher should apply the teaching technique that suits her course and vary them to enliven the class. This prevents the students to get bored and leave the class, never to come back. The teaching methods and the teacher are a good pair. One helps the other. That is why teaching lacking either part will seem unbalanced. A good method being misused is the same as pulling things into waste baskets, there will not be good results. Thus the teacher is also an inventor in some way. She improvises her knowledge and presents it to the students and helps them to reach their goals.

So we see that professional preparation prevents boredom on the students' part, it also gives the teacher self-confidence which she needs very much in teaching. It is as important as the knowledge itself. A genius teacher lacking in professional preparation cannot teach satisfactorily. She does not know how to deliver her knowledge and as a result the

students cannot accept what she attempts to deliver. Then she cannot be considered a good teacher anymore.

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When someone has possessed all the qualifications mentioned previously, it does not mean that she can become a good teacher. To be a good teacher needs more than merely possessing knowledge of some subjects well. Other things concerning her personality is also needed. Keep in mind that modern methods demand a constant, more sympathetic and personal relationship between a teacher and a student. A teacher cannot act as a dictator anymore if she wants the students to respect her. A teacher cannot just order the students around like servants. The students often cannot do more than complaining. But they can begin hating the teacher. Once they hate her, it is better for the teacher not to expect her teaching to work out well. It is almost impossible to demand the students to like the subjects if they hate the teacher, but not the other way around.

Sometimes a teacher just does not have a sense of humour. She cannot leave out the tension in the language teaching. Humour is important in teaching as well as in life. Life without any humour will be very dull, so is teaching. My personal experiences also reinforce this fact. Once our English course held a quiz in which one of the questions was who their favourite teachers were. Most of the students chose some certain teachers because they were humorous and intelligent. This does not mean that all people who possess this

sense of humour will be good teachers. Some of the students said :

" If only she can laugh once in a while, you do not get so nervous of making mistakes."

" When the teacher is smiling at you, you want to try."

Discipline on the teacher's part is also important.

When she says that the homework is due on time, she should not forget it. Why should they learn and do the homework if the teacher does not remember it and even will not correct it? She should give back the homework while the students are still excited. Besides that, her lesson should be organized. It is easy to tell if the teacher runs out of materials before the bell rings.

A good teacher is a sympathetic teacher. She cares for all her students. She should realize that the students are human too. She should not just pay a good deal of attention to those clever students without realizing that those less clever students do exist.

A good teacher is supposed to be young at heart and just. Her personal charm can influence the students a lot. There are some students who formerly did not like a certain subject, but since the teacher teaching the subject is so charming, they gradually begin to like it. She should be patient too. She should not be easily provoked to anger. An everlastingly angry teacher is like a demon. The teacher should not have an acid tongue and make the students embarrassed all the time. She ought to be polite to the students too.

A good teacher should have confidence. When she does not

know, she would not be afraid to tell so, not just beating about the bush and hits nothing. She is supposed to like her classes. The students can easily and immediately feel whether the teacher likes her teaching or not. If she does not like her teaching and her students, she will teach carelessly.

The other factor is the voice of the teacher. It should not be monotonous since it will soothe the students to sleep. The voice should be loud enough to be heard from the back row. My own experience taught me that voice is a great factor to keep the students awake and alert. One of my teachers had a very soft voice. He had to teach a class of about a hundred students. He seemed not to care whether his voice reached the back row or not. Consequently the students talked to each other. The class was always like a group of humming bees. There was no communication and the students began to be absent when they saw the front rows were already occupied. It was actually an interesting subject, but because the way the teacher presented it was so monotonous and soft that it became a dull class.

Another thing that a teacher often forgets is the way the teacher dresses. It is not nice to see an untidy teacher. Everything neat is nice to look at. The teacher cannot deny this.

From all those things we see that to be a good teacher is difficult, to say the least. But at least one should try if one wants one's teaching to succeed. Of course there are

some people who are talented to be teachers, but it does not mean that only they could become teachers. One should try hard before saying that one is not a good teacher and cannot be a good teacher. Remember that everything is difficult before it is easy.

CHAPTER III

IS ENGLISH NECESSARY ?

To see how English teaching has been developing in the non-English Departments, how each Department sees English teaching and what their attitudes towards this English teaching, I tried to hold some interviews with each Department. From what they said, one can easily see they are not in agreement in judging the necessity of English teaching. Some think that English should be maintained, the others are indifferent.

It was very difficult to acquire the two kinds of information I needed, they are :

1. How the English teaching develops : the periods from year to year and the functions from year to year.
2. The opinions of the heads of all non-English Departments concerning the English teaching in their Departments.

The first part was not easy to get. First, I went to see the secretary of each Department. They told me to go to the Institution office (Bagian Pengajaran). I went there but nobody knew about it. They suggested that I go back to the secretaries of the Departments. I told them I had, they insisted on my going back there again. So back I was at the secretary of the Department. They failed to give me anything. They said that the one who kept the record must be the Institution office. I went there again and was asked to go to see the rectorate secretary. She, however, suggested that I

should see the rector's assistant in charge of academic activities. But he did not know either. Nobody knew how English teaching developed and how it functioned there. Nobody seemed to care where the records were kept in case they are needed.

One day, it was more by chance, I went back to the Institution office and one of them knew the answer. He took me to the man who kept the records. His office was inside the main office, a place I thought never existed before. He helped me a lot.

I explained to him everything I needed and he willingly took out all the papers and files and showed me everything. But of course he could not explain all. He could not remember whether the Departments carried out what were written in the curriculum or not. Sometimes they wrote all down but did not carry out exactly like what was written there. Sometimes some periods were reduced. So I had to be contented with what was written in the files.

I acquired the other piece of information from my interviews with the head of each Department. They gave me their opinions and some reasons as why English teaching has recently been reduced. Two of the main causes are the new policy from the government and the other is the data available from the post-tests and pre-tests.

To make it clearer, here I enclose the list of English teaching since 1962 just to see how English develops in each Department. Formerly, English was taught as a remedial course on all Departments for one semester. The results were

quite good but not very satisfactory. They thought that it was due to the lack of time. So one more period was added to the syllabus. English was taught for the whole year, four periods a week. Eventually its importance^{ce} changed, and Department had its own reason to regard English as a necessary subject to teach or a useless one. The aim of all Departments concerning this English Teaching is similar. They all want the students to be able to read scientific English books later on. It served as an additional subject. English had been taught since the Institute was established. Some Departments have been eagerly insisting on its continuation but some have not. The data are taken from the college guide-book. Unfortunately, they began having the book since 1962 and not before. Information on the previous years is impossible to get. Nobody knows what happened and nobody seems to care.

The Department of Social Geography and History

This Department has maintained English since Sanata Dharma was first established. The aim is to help the students to acquire the reading comprehension ability. Most good books are still written in English. Whether the students like it or not, they have to read those books of international affairs. If they want to follow the development of the outside world and the history of other countries, they would have to learn English. The Department also demands some papers from the students. So they have to read books to summarize what they read in the form of papers.

In the first year, the students get the theoretical part. The teacher is supposed to teach the theory which can help them later and also some reading passages to practice. In the second year, the practical part is given more. The materials suggested are those concerning history and social geography. In the third year, they have to make two papers by the end of each semester, whereas in the doctoral part there is some group work in translating more difficult materials and then summarize them. That forces the students to read and understand what they read. It also motivates them to learn English. The subjects of their papers depend on the teachers. According to the curriculum of 1960 - 1961 (the curriculum was made for two years) English was taught only in the first year for two semesters. Before that, the Institute had to follow the exam of the government school. English served as a general subject (fak umum). In 1961 - 1962, the first year had three periods a week in the first semester and two periods in the second, so did the second year. The third year had two periods for each semester.

In the curriculum of 1962 - 1963, the first year and the second year received two periods English for two semesters, whereas in 1963 - 1964, the first year students did not have any English. The second year was supposed to be grouped together with the third, but there was no teacher to teach English, so there was no English lesson at all.

However, English occurred again in 1965. There were two points in this English teaching, namely, to teach reading comprehension and scientific reading. It was taught only

in the first year. In 1966, English should be taught as an applied skill. So there had to be more practice.

A rather surprising curriculum was that of 1967. English was taught from the first year up to the doctoral and for the whole two semesters, two periods a week for each semester. It was called a helping subject (fak bantu).

In 1968, the first year got three periods for two semesters whereas the second, third and doctoral students received two periods a week for two semesters. In 1969, English vanished from the Department.

In 1970 and 1971, English which then served as a skill subject (fak keahlian) was taught in the first, second, third, fourth and fifth years. The first had a great time since they received six periods a week for the first semester and two periods a week for the second semester. The others had two periods for two semesters. In 1972, the first year had the decreasing sum - four periods a week in the first semester and two periods a week for the second. The others were still the same.

In 1973, the first year had four periods a week for two semesters; the second and third years had two periods a week for two semesters. In 1974, English was taught only in the first year for two periods a week in two semesters.

In 1975, the first year had four periods a week in the first semester and two periods in the second. The second and third years had two periods for the whole semesters. There were no English classes for the doctoral students. In 1976 and 1977, English, the basic subject (fak dasar), was



taught in the first year, four periods in the first semester and two periods in the second. The second, third and doctoral students had two periods of English for two semesters. In 1978, there were only two periods of English in all classes.

In 1979, there was a change in the policy of the school system in Indonesia. The beginning of the academic year was in July. There were three semesters in this particular year. There was English for two periods for all classes. The new curriculum of 1980 is not yet fixed.

This Department still considers English teaching necessary, although the rector seems to disagree.

The Department of Physics and Mathematics

This is the only Department that thinks that English is a useless subject to teach. They are very pessimistic about the results. English does not reach the required target, so they say. They say that the students acquire something about the language but not how to use the language to help them to read scientific books. There will be no difference if there are some English classes and if there are not. When I asked whether the unachieved target was due to the lack of a text-book that contained things they received in their Department or not, they just flatly refused any argument. They said a firm " No " without even thinking. The text-book may be useful for the students. But the Department does not care the least. They think that English is useless no

matter what argument or reasons one gives. It will not work. When I asked ; " What will happen to the students if they know nothing about English whereas most good books are written in English ? ". The answer was : " Oh, never mind. They do not have to read any books. It is not necessary." Are they going to maintain English or not ?

Let us see first how English develops in this Department. In 1960 - 1961, they had two periods English for the first, second and third years students. It was taught for two semesters. In 1961 - 1962, it was only taught in the first year and second year for two semesters, two periods a week. It was a general subject (fak umum). The same thing was applied for 1962 - 1963.

In 1963-- 1964, there was no English. In 1964 - 1965, only the first and the second years received English, two periods of English for two semesters. In 1966, 1967, 1968, 1969, 1970 and 1971, the college gave each Department a freedom to decide whether English should be taught or not. It is impossible to get the information from the Department concerned.

In 1972, the first year had three periods of English a week for the first semester, and two periods for the second. In 1973, the first year had two periods a week for two semesters. The second year had one period a week for two semesters.

In 1974, 1975, 1976, 1977, and 1978, the second year had two periods a week for two semesters.

In 1979, the new policy began. The first year still had

one semester of English, two periods a week, but not the other classes. So from then on there was no English classes anymore. It was not surprising though. They always think that English teaching is useless.

The Department of Indonesian Literature and Language

This Department is young compared to the others. It was established in 1963. From the first year it was established they thought that English teaching was necessary and they still think the same now. So they maintain English up to now.

Since this Department is concerned with language and literature, English teaching here has a slightly different aim. English teaching is not merely to reach reading ability, but also to give the students more vocabulary which the Indonesian language often adopts and also to give them some information concerning the theory and literature. So English acts like a comparative study. When asked what was meant by the information, the informant did not want to explain but said that the students need to compare the Indonesian literature to the western literature, how it is different and what makes the difference. So I think they will continue maintaining the English teaching.

The first time it was established, English was taught in the first year for two semesters, two periods a week. The second year had the same sum. The aims were comprehension

and science reading. That was based on the 1963 - 1964 curriculum.

In 1965, 1966 and 1967, English was taught as an academic English. Those who did not choose English as a minor subject would have to follow English. English was taught in the first year, the second year and the third, two periods a week for two semesters. It seems that English was optional at that time, the students were allowed to choose by themselves whether they wanted to follow the English class or not.

In 1968, English served as an additional subject (fak tambahan). It was taught from the first year up to the fourth year. Each had two periods a week for two semesters.

In 1969, English served as a remedial course. But the Department did not follow this remedial programme. In 1970 and 1971, the first year and the second year had two periods for two semesters. Its function was a skill subject (fak keahlian).

In 1972, the under-graduate classes had two periods for two semesters. In 1973, again only the first and the second years had two periods of English for two semesters.

In 1974, there was no English. In 1975, there were two periods of English for the first and second years for two semesters. In 1976, there was no English.

In 1977, it was taught for two semesters, four periods in the first year, two periods for the second and third years. In 1978, the second and the third years had English as an optional subject. In 1979, the new policy began and

English was taught for two periods only.

However, after this change of periods and functions, the Department still insists on the continuation of English teaching since it serves as a comparative study and also as a source of information.

The Department of Economics

It was established in 1957. English was taught in the first year, second year and third year for two semesters, two periods a week. It served as a basic subject (fak dasar). The aim of the Department is to reach the reading comprehension. The reason given is the same, namely, that most good books are written in English. They said that the results so far have been quite good. It would be better if the teachers forced the students to read books. However, they still maintain the English teaching there.

In 1960 - 1961, the first year had four periods English for two semesters. The second and the third had two periods. In 1961 - 1962, the first year had six periods for two semesters. The second had two periods for two semesters. There was no English for the third. In 1962 - 1963, the same curriculum was applied. In 1964, 1965 and 1966 only the first year had two periods of English for two semesters.

In 1967, the first year had two periods for two semesters. There was no English for the second year. The third year had four periods for two semesters and the fourth had three periods

in the first semester and two periods in the second semester. The fifth year did not have any English.

In 1968, English served as a subject of skill (fak keahliah). It was taught six periods a week in the first semester and none in the second. The second year had two periods of English for two semesters, so did the third year. The fourth and the fifth had three periods of English for two semesters.

In 1969, the first year had six periods in the first semester and two periods in the second. The second year had three periods for two semesters. The third year had two periods for two semesters. There were no English classes in the doctoral part.

In 1970 and 1971, there were no English classes at all. In 1972, the first year had six periods in the first semester and three in the second. It was a subject of skill (fak keahliah).

In 1973, the first year had five periods in the first semester and three periods in the second. The second year had two periods for the whole two semesters. The third year had two periods in the first and second semesters. The doctoral part had two periods in the first semester and four in the second.

In 1974, again the first year had six periods in the first semester and four periods in the second. The other classes had the same as those of 1973.

In 1975, the English classes in the doctoral were reduced into two periods for the whole two semesters. The

others were still the same as those of 1974.

In 1976, the first year was still the same but the second got three periods in the first semester and two periods in the second. There were no English classes for the third year. The doctoral had the same sum.

In 1977 there were no English classes for the third year, fourth year and fifth year. The first year had six periods in the first semester and four periods in the second. The second year had two periods in the first and second semesters.

In 1978, the sum decreased even more. The first year had three periods for both semesters. The second year was still the same. There were no classes for the third and doctoral classes.

In 1979, the first year had two periods for both semesters. The second year had one semester of English, two periods a week. The others had nothing.

The Department of Economics is one of those that insist on the continuation of English teaching. Although the results have never reached the required target, they still think that English is necessary to teach. The good students can read the books referred to.

The Department is very enthusiastic talking about English teaching. This, I think, is caused by the fact that the head of the Department himself can speak English. So he insists on maintaining English.

The Department of Education

This Department was very helpful. The head of the Department gave the details why the importance of English decreased so rapidly. English has been taught since Sanata Dharma was established. It served as a remedial course programme.

The students of the first year have to follow English class except those who have had good knowledge of English. The English subject in the second and the third years is selective. It means that the students decide whether they continue following the English class or not. It depends on the students themselves. This is done since 1977.

Besides it is selective as they call it, it is also applied, meaning to say that English is not studied theoretically. Its practical use is also taken into consideration. It is clear that the aim is comprehensive reading. But it is also a requirement for those who want to continue to the doctoral division. This Department has a policy that is like a screening test. Those who get bad marks in the first year final test are not allowed to follow English classes anymore. For the second year, they also apply the same policy. So the higher classes consist of eager-to-learn students. This policy helps the teacher a great deal. At least the remaining students are eager to learn although they might be rather slow to learn. It is better not to set one's hope too high concerning the students of the Education Department.

The better policy is the one used to enter the doctoral division. The students have to pass a test if they want to enter the doctoral division. The test consists of three things :

1. vocabulary test
2. comprehension, this includes answering questions in English
3. translation, this is to know how far the students know.

In this division, English is used to read. A teacher will give the students some material and the students must do what the teacher wants them to do.

The new policy has influenced the English classes at this Department as well. The aim of the policy is to produce as many teachers as possible. The system follows the credit system. The credit points a student should achieve within eight semesters are 144 points minimally and 160 points maximally. The Institute chose the maximum ones. Each student has to collect 160 points if he wants to have his degree. The 160 points should be fulfilled within eight semesters. In each semester a student has to acquire 20 credit points. English is grouped into the common basic subject. It should be taught only in the first semester. The other semesters are for the other three groups. There are 4 kinds of grouping concerning all the subjects :

1. the common basic group (fak dasar umum)
2. the educational basic group (fak dasar pendidikan)
3. the study field group (bidang study)
 - minor
 - major
4. the teaching field process group (proses bidang mengajar)

- minor

- major

The credit points are really limited. The students have to fulfill the credits for the other subjects as well. Because the time is not enough, they have to sacrifice this English class. That is why English is not taught anymore in the second semester.

However, let us see first the development of the English teaching in this Department.

In 1960 - 1961, English was taught for six periods in the first semester and two in the second semester. It was only taught in the first year. In 1961 - 1962, the same curriculum was applied.

In 1962 - 1963, English served as a basic subject (fak dasar). It was taught from the first year up the fifth. The first year had two periods in both semesters. The second and third years had one period in the first and two in the second semester. The fourth and the fifth years had two in both semesters.

In 1963 - 1964, English served as a skill subject. There was no English for the third year. The first year had four periods in both semesters. The second year had two periods in both semesters. The fourth and fifth had two periods in both semesters. In 1964 - 1965, the same curriculum was applied. In 1966, there was no English classes.

In 1967, English was taught only in the first and second years. The first had four periods of English in the first and

second semesters.

In 1968, the first year had six periods in the first semester and four periods a week in the second semester. The second year had two periods of English in both semesters. The third year had only one semester of English, two periods a week in the first semester and none in the second. The fourth had two periods a week for two semesters whereas the fifth year had nothing.

In 1969, English served as a remedial course and was taught only in the first year, six periods in the first semester and one period in the second. The other classes had nothing.

In 1970 and 1971, the first year had four periods in the first semester and two in the second semester. The second year had two periods in both semesters. The third year had two in the first semester and none in the second. The fourth and fifth years had one in both semesters.

In 1972, the first and second years had the same sum as that of the previous year. The third had two semesters of English, two periods each. The fourth and the fifth years underwent a great change. They had three periods of English in both semesters.

The curriculum of 1972 was used in 1973 and 1974.

In 1975, the first year had four periods a week in the first semester and three periods in the second. The second and third years had two periods in both semesters. The fourth and fifth had three in both semesters. In 1976, the same

thing was used but the fourth and fifth years only had two periods in the second semester.

The curriculum of 1972 was used again in 1977. The first year had four periods in the first semester and three in the second. The second year and the third year had two in both semesters. The fourth and the fifth years had three periods for the first and the second semesters.

In 1978, there were no English classes for the fourth and fifth years. The first year had three periods for both semesters and the second and third years had two periods in both semesters.

In 1979, the new policy began. The first year only had one semester of English. The third year had two periods in both semesters.

So far we have seen that the most eager Departments in maintaining English teaching are the Departments of Education, Economics and Social Geography and History. The others are indifferent. The new policy has erased the English teaching in most Departments.

However, the blame is not entirely on the institution. They only see the data. But it is rather unwise to use the unvalid data as a reason to erase English. There must be some causes that create this failure. They argue about the importance of English teaching. The institution said that English was useless. They abolished it from the curriculum.

They said that there was no improvement on the students' part. Is there any improvement on the students' part in learning religion? There has never been any research on whether there is an improvement or not. If there is no change, is there any necessity to teach religion to them?

The data taken are not always true. There are some good students who really and seriously want to learn and get good things. Don't they deserve to get them from the college? They are sure that English is not necessary, but how come? From my own experience which I got from a friend of mine who studied in the Department of Education, I got the impression that English is necessary. She could read English books. She was one of the good students. Isn't it one of the results of the so-called unnecessary English teaching? I was shocked when I heard what the Department of Physics and Mathematics said. The last thing I did was to smile ruefully and lost all my wording.

One cannot judge something from one side only. When the English teacher asked those clever students and serious students whether English was necessary or not, whether they acquired something or not, she got the answer that this English was a great help for them. They did want to learn. When some parts of this thesis were tried out, the students directly felt the direct use of English. They felt they could understand more easily, because the reading passages concerned the subjects they were learning. They said that they could remember more readily the expressions, the structures and the meanings of the materials they were learning.

So far the unsatisfactory results in one point are caused by the lack of the direct use of the language taught and the subject they are learning.

When I talked about this with the expert in this education field, he said that the context helped a great deal. When the teacher teaches the materials separately, it is difficult for the students to see the usage of the things taught in the reading materials. They know the theory but their recognition is not good. In other words, they cannot apply what they have acquired to the reading materials. Sometimes they cannot recognize the items taught before and have once been understood. When they read and meet the same things, they fail to see them. They do not see the direct use of the items. If they are asked to translate it word by word, surely it often does not work. The difference between Indonesian and English is not small enough as to be ignored. For example, when a student find the construction child development and translate it as anak perkembangan or anak berkembang, he certainly has made the wrong understanding on the subject. This kind thing does occur. The students cannot put into practice what they have got in the English classes. This could be helped by giving them the materials concerning the subjects they are learning in the Department. This helps to give them some context, and some relationship that help them to remember longer. This is what the expert thinks and the students agree.

The problem is not that English is unnecessary and then becomes useless, but it is rather that the unsuitable

approach has been used so far. The students acquired something about the language but this knowledge does not help them in reading. The Department itself does not seem to encourage the students to learn to read. If the Department does not try to help the teacher to encourage them, it then gives the teacher a hindrance. If the Department demanded something from the students, it would at least make the students more serious.

The teachers themselves should not feel that they are superior and that their knowledge is the most complete and it is enough for the students to get it from them only. How many hours a day do they meet? How far can the teachers deliver their knowledge to them? Is that enough for university students? They have to read good books. Those rich students can have what they want translated. But what about the poor students?

There is a good way to reach a better result, namely, by grouping. But the trouble is that it needs more time and money. The institution does not want to carry this out. The institution wants the best results with a very limited means. I am sure it will not work out.

From my own experience in acquiring the data, I got the impression that the organizers of the English teaching in the non-English Departments are not very sympathetic towards it. There are no plans of what should be taught and what books should be used. They should have held some kind of meeting between teachers and the organizers and discussed things and problems that exist in the Departments. They let the English teachers go on by themselves. Of course it will be all right

for an experienced teacher, but what about a new one? He does not know what to teach. They should have the plans so that the teaching could go on smoothly. There is never any communication between the chief and the teachers. As a chief, he should know what is going on in his "House Hold".

The causes of the unsatisfactory results are rather complicated. There are no good organization, no suitable text-books available, sometimes no good teachers. However, the faults do not lie on the English itself. It is due to many causes. But the solution is certainly not by omitting English classes but rather by solving and improving the cooperation and making new plans.

I personally think that English is still necessary to teach. The reason is simple. They should know more than what has been explained by the teacher. The only thing is by much reading. They need to know English to do that. If only there were enough good books written in Indonesian, they would not have to learn English.

The new policy also plays a great role in the vanishing of English classes. The limited credit points do not allow English to exist. If they insist on the existence of English, the credit points will be more than twenty.

The discouraging data from the pre-tests and the post-tests which are held within one year time are in fact not very valid. They cannot see the results of the English teaching just within one year only. There should be some follow up before they hold the post-tests. One year is too short to achieve good reading. They should have held the post-tests at the end of the third year. The fact is that the third year

students now can read books required. This certainly shows that English teaching gives good results and is useful. The Departments give the students who have so little English eight months to be able to read books which are difficult enough. The first year students of the English Department whose English is supposed to be better still might not be able to read and understand it, much less the students of this Department. The goal is a bit too high. If they gave more time to hold the post-tests, they would see the more satisfying results. Talking about post-tests, there is something very funny. The English teachers do not know what pre and post-tests are like ! They do not know what those tests want to achieve ! I think even the organizer of English teaching in non-English Departments himself does not know what the tests are like, therefore the tests cannot be considered valid as they might test things which are not taught. So the English taught in classes might not include what the English teachers teach.

However, English itself is necessary. It is the system that should be reconsidered and thought of. It is a bit too quick to say that English teaching is useless and there are no results.

CHAPTER IV

SUGGESTIONS

Seeing how English is abolished in the Department of Education, I feel personally sorry because in this modern world where competition is sharper and where we are demanded more to develop ourselves, English is very important. What have we achieved in college, if we compare it with what we should know ?

The opinion that English teaching has done nothing to the benefits of the students is I think exaggerating. Some students do learn something. It is not fair if we do not give those good students an opportunity to learn English, while we know they can ! The main problem is that there is no coordination between the English teacher and the unity of compulsory subjects in the Department. If the English teaching is connected with the other subjects, it will give fruit. The other point is that English should be taught in at least three years in succession, even if it is only two periods a week. It is no use when it is only given in one semester. For the effectiveness of the teaching, a screening test can be given at the end of the second semester. Thus, only students who can develop their English are given the opportunity, because the others will just hinder their progress.

In brief, there are three points I would like to suggest for the success of the English teaching and for the sake of the students :

1. COORDINATING ENGLISH TEACHING AND OTHER COMPULSORY SUBJECTS

From the past experience, the students of the Education Department make the best progress during the making of their papers, in which they should translate a book,

in English, concerning their main subjects, such as Adolescent Development, or Child development, General Psychology etc. . Because they realize that it is their main subjects, they translate it with different motivation, do their best, and try hard to understand what they are supposed to read. They will often come to the English teacher to ask many questions on the parts they do not know for sure. After a month, usually they have mastered some constructions which would need to be taught in one semester in the usual English classes. So we see, that they learn much faster, and the teacher saves a lot of time.

The question is : Why don't we take any advantage from this fact ? Why don't we have a curriculum in which the students are forced to finish a paper per semester, and then, the English periods are used to guide the students to overcome the difficulties they face in making the thesis ? It is true that the teacher will have to work harder because there will be many questions from every individual. But it will work much better, and give satisfaction to both sides, the teacher and the students. Being given a task to translate and make a paper, the students will come to the English classes willingly, because they need them. So far it can be said that the English teacher of non-English Departments is the one who needs the students. Most students are reluctant to come to the English classes, and the teacher will have to persuade them to attend the classes. It is rather funny, in fact, but unfortunately that is the fact at present.

So, the Department should have a curriculum which makes the students translate. The function of the English lesson is then a bit " veiled ". The students will find that it is something to help them to do better in their academic work. I am sure that they will find it very helpful when they can read and understand English, since then they can enrich their knowledge by reading English books, if they have to.

2. CONTINUATION OF ENGLISH TEACHING AT LEAST FOR SIX SEMESTERS

In the curriculum this year, it was said that English should be taught for one semester. This is really ridiculous. What can the students learn in one semester ? What will still stay in their mind after that ? Nothing ! So, if the students are to get something about English, we also have to consider the time. While there are so many things to teach, English might only get two periods a week. This is enough if it is taught for six semesters and there is a coordination of English and other compulsory subjects. It is hoped that with the coordination and the continuation of English teaching, within six semesters they have learned much enough to be able to develop themselves. If possible, it will be very good if they can go on practising this for two more semesters, so that when they finish their study and get their Sarjana Pendidikan Degree, they are also equipped with good knowledge of English, good enough to read English books dealing with their subjects.

3. SCREENING TEST

In order to achieve good results in the end, the students should be given a screening test in the beginning of the third or fourth semesters. This way, those who are hopeless do not necessarily follow the English lesson. Thus the ones who follow are really the ones who are not terrible in English. We cannot hope good performance from every student, but we can hope something from those who pass the test.

This has been done in the Department of Education, and the third year students who follow the English classes now show good performance. This helps the English teacher too, because then she does not have to face hopeless and terrible students.

I do hope those can improve the students and help the students be better qualified teachers when they have begun to teach and realize the importance of keeping abreast with the current of knowledge, since most of the inventions and new findings are written in English. After all, what we have learned in college is only a small bit. Facing the present and future students who are more creative, who take English courses outside the school, realizing the importance of it, the teacher should be well equipped and keep on studying.

CHAPTER V

POINTS TO BE TAUGHT

This book is meant to be the follow up of Dra. BMG Sri Wulandari's " A Reading Programme ". Some items which have been mentioned in that book will not be repeated here. It is of course impossible to write all good items here, because then the text-book cannot be finished within a certain short period of time. So here I select only items which I think are necessary for the students in helping them to read books. The items will be applied directly. This means to say that they will not be taught separately or independently, but more dealing with the subjects they receive at college. If the items are taught separately, it is really difficult for the students to remember them. They consider these items too abstract. By teaching the items through the reading passages, we give them a context which certainly helps a lot. They will feel they directly use the items. Not only can they understand better and more easily, they can also remember the constructions and the meanings they express. This is what the students themselves said as I have had some of these reading passages tried out. The result is quite satisfactory.

This chapter deals with the items taught in this book. In order to reach the goal, namely, reading, there are two things the students should master. They are vocabulary and structure. Those two aspects work together intimately. A person possessing the knowledge of complete structure but who is very poor in vocabulary cannot do much. Meaning is very important. It will be one out of ten cases if there is somebody who is willing to open up a dictionary so often as one

reads one page. One soon will be bored and give up. This occurs if one possesses only so little vocabulary. This also takes place the other way around. Owing such rich vocabulary does not guarantee one's skill in reading. It would be unwise to translate word by word without taking the structures of the sentences into considerations. That would lead to the wrong understanding. As mentioned earlier, the Indonesian sentence structures and the English ones are very different. If word-to-word translation is applied, we can expect an upside down translation. Thus those two factors cannot be separated. Vocabulary and structure are equally important.

1. Vocabulary

The vocabulary meant here is the two thousand word list which will be included in the appendix and also the technical terms found in each reading passage. If only the difficult words in the reading passages are listed, the range of the vocabulary will be too limited. Therefore, I enclose the word list as an additional source to increase the vocabulary. The word list will be tested separately whereas the technical terms will be repeated as to make the students remember them. The latter is mentioned to give repetition. Those taken from the reading passages will be rewritten in the forms of :

- a. matching
- b. cloze test
- c. changing the parts of speech
- d. writing the synonyms

All of those are meant for repetition and also to check

whether the students have understood the passages or not.

Here are some examples of the forms of exercises.

a. matching :

- word to word

- | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| 1. eat | () depresi |
| 2. nerve | (() makan |
| 3. depressed | () saraf |
| 4. tense | () tegang, etc. |

- word and its definition

- | | |
|---------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. neuritis | treatment of mental illness |
| 2. psychiatry | inflammation of a nerve
etc. |

- multiple choice

i. independent word

- | | |
|--------|----------------|
| stress | a. tegang |
| | b. tertekan |
| | c. tidak tidur |
| | d. lupa |

ii. completion through multiple choice

The boy could not understand his advice,
because he is still

- | |
|---------------|
| a. immature |
| b. old |
| c. stubborn |
| d. suspicious |

iii. choosing the meaning of the underlined word.

I gave her a reward for her obedience.

- a. hukuman
- b. ganjaran
- c. makian
- d. buku

b. Cloze test

In the cloze test, the fifth or the sixth or the seventh word is taken out. The students must fill in the blanks by using their logic and the reading passages sometimes can help.

c. Synonyms

The paragraphs of the reading passage are numbered. The students should look for the synonyms of the given words in the paragraphs mentioned.

d. Part of speech

advise - advice
govern - government

e. Fractions

Most students do not know when the fractions are not written in figures, so there must be some exercises in this part.

1/5 =
1/10 =
2/3 =
4/7 =



2. Structure

As mentioned previously, wide range of vocabulary does not guarantee that the students would be able to translate and understand the passages given.

As it is known, some Indonesian sentence structures are so different from the English ones. These differences will most likely cause misunderstanding. Take the example of a noun group, Indonesian follows exactly the opposite rule. The phrase psychological disturbances cannot simply be translated or understood as psikologi gangguan. This would happen if one knows only vocabulary without realizing the differences in structure.

In this part I try to present the structures which I think most likely cause confusion.

- English active construction which means passive in Indonesian. Difficulties would arise from this kind of construction. If it is translate word by word, it will not make sense. Eventually they will change it according to their own liking.

For examples :

= The lesson is difficult to understand.

Pelajaran itu sulit dimengerti.

= The book is hard to get.

Buku itu sulit didapat.

Another construction is the one using TOO TO+ VERB

For example :

= The book is too easy to read.

Buku itu terlalu mudah dibaca.

= The table is too heavy to lift.

Meja itu terlalu berat untuk di-angkat.

- Passive Voice

It is one of the most difficult parts for the students to understand. Even the Indonesian passive is still considered difficult, more over English. The students often do not realize this construction and translate it as active. That is why I here repeat what has been mentioned in the students' previous schholing.

For example :

= The boy beats the dog every day.

The dog is beaten by the boy every day.

- " IF " clause

There are two kinds, possibility and supposition. If it is only a supposition, the event in fact does not take place. The students must understand this, if not they easily misunderstand the thing they read. In the reading passages they read, the students of the Education Department often meet this construction.

For examples :

= If it rains, I will not go. (possibility)

= If it rained, I would not go. (supposition)

= If it had rained, I would not have gone.

(supposition)

- " IT " construction

"It" has so many meanings that it often confuses the students. These meanings are :

a) "It" as an anticipatory subject

For example :

= It is a pleasure to teach him.

(To teach him is a pleasure).

b) "It" to give emphasis

For example :

= It was John who took my book.(It was John, not George who took my book).

c) "It" replacing a clause subject

For example :

= It does not matter what you do.

(What you do does not matter).

d) "It" replacing an idea

For example :

= It was a shame ! She could not come.

e) "It" as an empty subject

This is used to talk about date, time, weather,
or distance.

For example :

= It is seven o'clock.= It is about seven km.

f) "It" as a personal pronoun

For example :

= I got a cat yesterday and it ran away this
morning.

- The omittance of WHO / WHICH / THAT

This presents another kind of difficulties. Most students are confused when they meet this kind of construc-

tion. They cannot see that the relative pronouns have been omitted, so they understand it as a sentence and as a consequence they are wrong.

For example :

= The book needed is not here.

(The book which is needed is not here).

= The man standing there is John.

(The man who is standing there is John).

- Dependent Clause

There are many clauses which have various function as well.

This thing seldom occurs in Indonesian. That is why it is difficult for the students to understand.

a) Noun Clauses :

A noun clause may be the subject or complement of a verb, the object of a preposition, an appositive, or the subject after expletive it.

For examples :

= That he is lazy is awful.

subject

= The trouble is that we don't know him.

object

= We tried to do what we are told.

object

= She knows when to start.

object

b) Adjective Clauses

An adjective clause modifies a noun or a pronoun.

For examples:

= The boy who came here yesterday is John.

= He is the author whose books are often best sellers.

= She went back to the place where she spent her happy years.

c) Adverbial Clauses

An adverbial clause modifies a verb, and adjective or an adverb.

For examples :

= You may go when you have finished your work.

= He works hard as his friend does.

= He is more arrogant than we expected.

- Because - Because of

Because is followed by a clause.

Because of is followed by a noun phrase.

For examples :

= He did not come because he was ill.

= Because of his illness, he did not come.

- Although - In spite of

Although is followed by a clause.

In spite of is followed by a noun.

For examples :

= Although he has been very careful, he still makes mistakes.

= In spite of his care, he still makes mistakes.

- Whether or Not - Regardless of

Whether or not is followed by a clause.

Regardless of is followed by a noun phrase.

For examples :

= I wear a raincoat whether or not the weather is nice.

= I wear a raincoat regardless of the weather.

- The Comparative THE MORE THE MORE

This is difficult since the other phrase THE MORE is separated from the other one.

For examples :

= The more money he has, the more houses he built.

= The more stupid he is, the more ridiculously he does things.

- Relative Clause using WHOSE

This shows possession. The students often do not realize it and they think that it is just the same as WHO.

For examples :

= The man whose sister is my friend will marry my sister.

= The dog whose leg is limp is mine.

- Participial Phrase

A participial phrase modifies a noun or a pronoun.

The form is either V + ing (present participial)

or V + ed (past participle)

For examples :

= Feeling better, he begins his work again.

= Having been beaten, the dog ran away.

= Having finished, he turned in his paper.

= Being scolded, she became angry.

- Relative Clause - WHO, WHICH, THAT meaning YANG.

The students often do not know that the word who can mean yang and siapa. The word which can mean yang and yang mana and the word that can mean bahwa, yang and itu. Here this is repeated again.

For examples :

- = The man who stole my wallet has been captured.
- = The table that he bought yesterday is broken.
- = The tiger which has eaten three chickens is trapped.

- Noun Phrase modified by V + ed (past participle).

Sometimes the V + ed (past participle) expresses passive but sometimes it shows condition. If the students do not realize that, they treat the present participle and the passive as the same things.

For examples :

- = The beaten dog ran away.
- = The wounded soldier was taken to the hospital.

- The shortened form of clauses

For examples :

- = When asked about the money, he could not give the proper answer.
(When he was asked about the money, he could not give the proper answer).

- TOO and Either

The part that confuses the students most is the shorten-

ed part which the students think it is a word instead of a helping verb.

For examples :

= He went there and Mary did too.

(He went there and Mary also went there).

= They did not believe him and I did not either.

(They did not believe him and I did not believe him.)

- SO - begitu juga

The problem that arise from this construction is similar to the previous one except that this needs inversion which the students often ignore and thus they create their own translation.

For examples :

= Adults are individuals, so are children.

(Adults are individuals, and children are also individuals).

= I love my baby sister, so does John.

(I love my baby sister and John also loves my baby sister).

- SHOULD

COULD

MIGHT

MUST

} HAVE + PAST PARTICIPLE

This kind of construction is similar to the " IF " clause.

All refer to the past events which did not take place.

For examples :

= You should have gone to see the doctor.

(seharusnya pergi, tapi tidak)

= You could have done it better.

(seharusnya bisa, tetapi tidak)

= You must have forgotten.

(pasti)

= He might have lost the address.

(mungkin)

- Didn't need to = not necessary

Needn't have + V p.p. = not necessary

Both these two constructions refer to the past event.

The first construction did not take place whereas the second happened but the person found out later that actually it was not necessary to do it.

For examples :

= You did not need to do it.

(It was not necessary for you to do it, so you did not do it.)

= You needn't have done it.

(Actually it was not necessary for you to do it, but you did it.)

- Phrases

These kinds of constructions rarely occur in the Indonesian sentences, therefore they look strange to the students. If they are not introduced, they can be the causes of some difficulties. The students regard them as sentences instead of phrases.

A phrase in fact is a group of words acting as a noun and acting as a verb, made up of distinct parts of

speech and functioning in the sentence as if it were a single part of speech.

There are three kinds of phrases :

1. The appositive phrase

It functions as a noun.

For examples:

= My brother, the captain of the team, is going to the game.

= Pangandaran, the place we went last month, is beautiful.

2. The prepositional phrase

It can function either as an adjective or an adverb.

For examples :

= It is one of my book.

(functions as an adjective)

= Give it to me.

(functions as an adverb)

3. The verbal phrase

a) a gerund phrase

It is always functions as a noun.

For examples :

= Swimming in the pool is fun .

(subject)

= Swimming rapidly is a good exercise.

(subject)

= My favourite hobby is reading daily.

(predicate nominative)

= I enjoy reading aloud in competition.

(object)

= I spend two hours at my hobby, playing the piano. (appositive)

= Competitive singing is exciting.

(gerund modified by an adjective)

= I don't like the idea of going home alone.

(object of preposition)

b) a participial phrase

It functions as an adjective, modifying a noun or a pronoun.

For examples :

= Talking quickly, I failed to make him understand.

= Tired by hours of practice, the boys soon fell asleep.

= Having determined to go to college, I begin to save some money.

= The tree, broken by the storm, fell to the ground.

c) an infinitive phrase

It can function as a noun, an adjective and an adverb.

i. To infinitive functions as a noun

For examples :

= To read fluently is good.

(subject)

= My ambition is to speak fluently.

(predicate nominative)

= She has no plan except to go home.

(Object of preposition)

ii. To infinitive functions as an adjective.

For examples :

= His ambition to swim well was not achieved.

(adjective)

= It is time to go home.

(adjective)

iii. To infinitive functions as an adverb modifying a verb,
an adjective and an adverb.

For examples :

= He ran to escape from the prison.

(modifies the verb ran)

= You were unable to do it.

(modifies an adjective unable)

= The boy knew when to escape.

(modifies the adverb when)

- Verbals

It is meant to give the students the sensitivity towards English. Some constructions are not found in Indonesian, therefore they seem too abstract to them. Then they treat them as one thing.

There are three kind of verbals, they are :

a) Gerund

Gerund is the -ing form of a verb, (the present participial or perfect participial), functioning as a noun.

For examples :

= Having waited was a mistake

(perfect participial functioning as a subject)

= Her hobby, swimming, is a good exercise.

(present participial functioning as an appositive)

= Being appreciated is nice.

(present participial functioning as a subject)

= My hobby is singing.

(Present participial functioning as a predicate nominative)

b) Participle

Its forms are either V+ing (present participial) or V+ed (past participial). It functions as an adjective, modifying a noun or a pronoun.

For examples :

= The burning candle gave us light.

V+ing

= The wounded enemy died.

V+ed

= Having finished, he turned in his paper.

V+ing

= The boy being examined began to cry.

V+ing

= Having been waited, the girl ran quickly to dress.

V+ing

c) To infinitive

It functions as a noun, an adjective or an adverb.

i. to infinitive as a noun

For examples :

= To sing is fun.

(subject)

= She likes to dance.

(object)

= His ambition is to swim.

(predicate nominative)

= Her hobby, to sing, is good.

(appositive)

ii. to infinitive as an adjective

For examples :

= It is time to play.

(modifies time)

= Her desire to pass makes her study harder.

(modifies her desire)

iii. to infinitive as an adverb

For examples :

= I went to work.

(modifies the verb went)

= They are stupid to steal.

(modifies the adjective stupid)

= We read aloud to practise.

(modifies the adverb read)

- Pronouns

The classification of pronouns in Indonesian and English is not the same. This causes problems. Most students think that English pronoun they is used only for human being, not other things. So when they meet it, they do not understand what it refers to.

The pronouns are :

he - dia (untuk orang laki)
 she - dia (untuk orang perempuan)
 it - -
 we - kami (excluding the person spoken to)
 kita (including the person spoken to)
 they (refers to human beings) - mereka
 they (refers to animals, things and plants) - -

The demonstrative pronouns are :

this		these	
	singular		plural
that		those	

Besides that as a demonstrative pronoun, it also has other meanings as well. For examples :

- = The difficulties seem to increase. They could not be overcome by that method.
- = He said that he could not come.
- = That book is not interesting at all.
- = The man that came here yesterday is Jones.

From the examples above, we can see that the pronouns are difficult to remember. Just take the pronoun that, it has so many meanings, namely, itu, bahwa, and yang. The students cannot remember or recognize whether the word that there means yang or bahwa or itu. The pronoun they in the first example means kesulitan-kesulitan itu, but the students will just translate it as mereka thinking that it must refer to some people mentioned previously. They would not think that it can refer to other things as well.

Here is the end of the theory part of my thesis. Following this part is the text-book which also shows in detail the structure part as described in chapter V, "Points to be Taught", for the text-book contains of reading passages plus their exercises.

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A TEXT-BOOK

FOR

THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT

NOTE TO TEACHERS

As it has been mentioned in chapter V in the theory part of this thesis, this book is meant as the continuation of Dra. BMG Sri Wulandari's "Reading programme for the First Year of University Students". Thus it is clear that her book should be used first, probably, in the first two semesters (or less), and only by then the students are ready to use this book.

This book has reading passages and their exercises. The teacher can read the reading passage twice, first slowly and then in normal speed, and after that explains the difficult words and constructions. If the teacher wants the students to be able to read aloud well, of course then she can ask some students to read. After the explanation has been done, the exercises can be done either individually or in groups. In the latter case the teacher divides the class into some groups, but she must make sure that each group has a leader, a student who is good enough in his mastery of English and can help other students. (While trying out this book, the teacher often used this group-study and found it very successful).

While the students are doing the exercises, the teacher must go around to see if they have done correctly and must help those who need help. She must also make sure that every member of the group participates, not only depending on the leader. As exercises are taken primarily from the difficult constructions in the reading passage, it is best if the teacher explains them clearly after reading the passage, so that the students do not find the exercises too difficult when they do them in groups. This can give them pleasure because they feel good.

The writer hopes this book can help the teachers and the students.

NOTE TO STUDENTS

This book has been tried out to the third year students of the Education Department in 1980 and they had a very good time in doing it. The writer hopes that it will also help whoever uses this book.

The students must read the reading passages carefully before doing the exercises because they are mostly taken from the reading passages. Thus, while the teacher reads the reading passage, the students must follow her carefully, underlining the difficult words and constructions. The teacher will read the reading passage twice, so the students will have time to go through the lines. There will be time to ask questions,

The exercises can be done individually or in groups, but make sure that every member of the group takes part.

It is hoped that after finishing this book, the students have achieved sufficient knowledge of English reading, because the items given in this book are carefully picked up from those which create difficulties for the students who have Indonesian as their mother tongue.

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APPENDIX

- THE FIRST THOUSAND WORD LIST
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CHAPTER I

THE INTELLECT, THOUGHT, KNOWLEDGE

Some people think that only a very clever person can become a good student. This is not true. A sensible person who is not clever can be a good student and a very clever person who is foolish about the way he learns his work cannot be a good student. Here is some advice. There are some simple things to remember if you want to become a good student.

A good student uses his reason. He does not learn his work without thinking about it. He tries to understand what he learns. He uses his mind. As he reads a book, or listens to a lecture, he uses his reason to try to understand the argument. He tries to get it clear in his mind. A good student does not just guess the answer when he forgets something. He tries to use his reason to help him to find the answer.

A good student does not believe everything he reads or is taught. He doubts things which cannot be proved. He uses his judgement to help him decide what is right and what is wrong. He remembers that many important questions do not have simple answers. Often we cannot be sure that what people say about these things is true. We must listen to their arguments and think for ourselves. We must examine what we hear and judge the truth for ourselves. Even then, there are some things which we cannot know. We cannot be sure about these things. We must remember that what we believe about these things may not be true. We must keep our minds open to new ideas.

A good student of a foreign language remembers that he must repeat what he learns many times. No one can learn a new word or a new sentence by learning it once. He must repeat it many times before he can be sure he knows it. If he does not repeat it he will forget it. The first time he learns something it is interesting, but when he repeats it is dull. The good student remembers that he must repeat it even when it is not interesting. This is the way to learn a foreign language.

I advise you to remember these things while you are a student.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. Is it true that a clever person does not always become a good student? Why?
2. Who can become a good student?
3. What points must you remember if you want to be a good student?
4. What must we do if somebody tells us about other people?
5. How must you learn English as a foreign language?

II. True / False

1. Only a very clever person can become a good student.
2. Our reasons are important when we want to answer a question, because they will help us.
3. As good students, we must believe our teachers completely.
4. We must doubt things which cannot be proved.
5. Things which we believe are true must be true.
6. Learning a second language needs repetition.
7. Without repetition a good student will never forget what he has learned.
8. If the lesson is not interesting, we do not have to repeat it.

III. Choose the correct word

1. The lesson was very difficult. No-body (was understood, were understood, understand, understood) it.
2. After the accident, John (took, was taken, has taken, had taken) to the hospital because he fainted.
3. David (interesting, is interesting, interested, is interested) in the girl who is wearing the blue dress.
4. I do not like him. He (bores, is bored, boring, is boring).
I (am bored, bore, boring, am boring) with him.
5. I liked tennis, but now I don't. I (am tiring of, tired with, am tired of, tired of) playing it.

IV. Matching

1. When we read, we must use
thought.

2. The child is very naughty, I am!- doubted
with him. !
3. Last week I a test by my English!- divide
teacher. !
4. Learning is a process of !- was given
knowledge or skills. !
5. After knowing that he died, she !- logical
cried sadly. !
6. The will be examined by the !- accurate
doctor soon. !
7. I will the class into 2 groups, !-annoyed
group I and group II: !
8. My watch is not so I cannot !- acquiring
tell you the time. !
9. I the truth of his story because!- prove
I know he is a dishonest person. !
10. Now scientists can that the !- immediately
world is round. !

V. Cloze Test

When a sensible listens to a, he uses his
....He tries to the argument. When
is asked a by his teacher, will not just
..... the answer. He use his reason
help him the correct answer.

When wants to decide is right and what
..... wrong, he uses judgement. He will
believe every person. what people say not true.

VI. Noun Clause

A clause that can function as the subject or the object
of a sentence is called a noun clause. Many noun
clauses begin with "what" and "that" (bahwa).

e.g. He understands what he has learned.
a noun clause = OBJECT.

That he only guessed is very clear.
a noun clause = SUBJECT.

Complete :

1. makes his father happy.

2. We must remember
3. I do not believe
4. The student reads.....
5. is very important.
6. We must not believe
7. He knows
8. is considered a nonsense.
9. does not trouble me.
10. They proved

VII. Phrasal verb.

Check in the dictionary what the following expressions mean, and use them in sentences:

1. Look at the girl.
2. Look for the key.
3. Look after the baby .
4. Look up a word.
5. Look over the house.
6. Look about for a job.
7. Look away from the man.
8. Look down on the boss.
9. Look forward to seeing you.
10. Look out !

CHAPTER II

WHO SMOKES ?

Until the twentieth century, cigarettes were not an important threat to public health. Men used tobacco mainly in the form of cigars, chewing tobacco, pipe tobacco, and snuff. Most women did not use tobacco at all.

The cigarette industry began in the 1870s with the development of the cigarette manufacturing machine. This made it possible to produce great numbers of cigarettes very quickly, and it reduced the price.

Today cigarette smoking is a widespread habit. About forty-three percent of the adult men and thirty-one percent of the adult women in the United States smoke cigarettes regularly. It is encouraging to note, however, that millions of people have given up the smoking habit. Seventy-five percent of the male population and forty-six percent of the female population have smoked cigarettes at some time during their lives, but twenty-six percent of these men and eleven percent of the women have stopped smoking. The number of persons who have given up smoking is increasing.

Men as a group smoke more than women. Among both men and women the age group with the highest proportion of smokers is the age group 24 - 44 .

Income, education, and occupation all play a part in determining a person's smoking habits. City people smoke more than people living on farm. Well-educated men with high incomes are less likely to smoke cigarettes than men with fewer years of schooling and lower incomes. On the other hand, if a well-educated man with a higher income smokes at all, he is likely to smoke more packs of cigarettes per day.

The situation is somewhat different for women. There are slightly more smokers among women with higher family incomes and higher education than among the lower educational groups. These more highly educated women tend to smoke heavily.

Among teenagers the picture is similar. There are fewer teenaged smokers from upper income, well-educated families, and fewer from families living in farm areas. High school students who are preparing for college are less likely to smoke than those who do not plan to continue their education after high school. Children are most likely to start smoking if one or both parents smoke.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. Were cigarettes dangerous in the nineteenth century ? Why ?
2. When did the cigarette industry begin ?
3. Are there many adult people who smoke cigarettes regularly in the United States ?
4. Explain about the number of people who stopped smoking !
5. How old are the highest proportion of smokers ?
6. What factors play a part in determining a person's smoking habits ? Give a brief explanation.
7. Explain about woman smokers in connection with their incomes and education.
8. Explain about teenager smokers in connection with their incomes and education.
9. When are children most likely to start smoking ?
10. Do you think that the situation in the U S A is similar to the situation in Indonesia?

II. VOCABULARY

1. THREAT means :
 - a) something good people have
 - b) sign of coming danger
 - c) payment every month
2. MANUFACTURING means :
 - a) making goods by machinery
 - b) buying goods
 - c) making factories
3. GREAT NUMBER OF PEOPLE means :
 - a) people who are already old
 - b) many people
 - c) people with great positions
4. WIDE SPREAD HABIT means :
 - a) habit learned by everybody
 - b) habit owned by top positioned people
 - c) habit distributed over a large area
5. ENCOURAGING FACT means :
 - a) fact that disappoints people
 - b) fact that is important
 - c) fact that gives hope
6. POPULATION means :

- a) people living in a place or country
- b) city people
- c) well-educated men

7. GIVE UP means :

- a) make
- b) change
- c) stop

8. INCOME means :

- a) the time somebody comes
- b) money received during a given period
- c) the place where somebody comes from

9. LIKELY means :

- a) probably
- b) want
- c) hardly

10. SOMEWHAT means :

- a) very
- b) rather
- c) not at all

III. RELATIVE CLAUSE

The number of persons who have given up smoking is increasing

Jumlah orang - orang yang telah berhenti merokok

In English, the word yang can be translated into 3 words :

- a) Who = "yang" for person.
- b) Which = "yang" for things and animals.
- c) That = "yang" for persons, things and animals.

Combine the two sentences into one, using "who", "which", or "that".

1. The people smoke several packs of cigarettes per day.
The people have higher education and higher incomes.
2. The high school students do not smoke.
They plan to go to college.
3. The smoking habit is not good.
They have it.
4. Cigarettes are now dangerous.
Cigarettes were not an important threat to public health.
5. Income, education, and occupation are the factors.
The factors determine a person's smoking habit.

IV. SHORTENED FORM OF THE RELATIVE CLAUSE.

Example : City people smoke more than people who live on farms
yang hidup

is the same in meaning as :

City people smoke more than people living on farms.

"WHO" / "THAT" / "WHICH" is dropped, and the verb changes into verb + ing form.

Practice :

1. Women who smoke much usually come from rich families.
2. The students who prepare for college are less likely to smoke.
3. The industry which began in 1870 produced great numbers of cigarettes.
4. The threat which comes from tobacco should be overcome.
5. The number of persons who give up smoking is increasing.

V. FILL IN.

1. He likes to work in that cigarette factory !- slightly
because his is very good. !- male
2. This picture is to that one. !- irregularly
3. Seventy-five percent of the popula- !- likely
tion have smoked cigarettes. !- income
4. Don't ask him, he does not know anything !- determine
..... !- similar
5. The red book is more expensive. !- development
6. His parents smoke a lot. I think he is most !- at all
..... to start smoking very soon. !- increasing
7. We achieve much because of the !
of science.
8. He does not always smoke. He does it only !
.....
9. He studied hard. His marks are now !
10. You must what you want to do. !

VI. "THAT" AND "THOSE"

"That" and "those" can be used to avoid the repetition of a noun (singular & plural) mentioned before.

e.g. : High school students who want to go to college are more than those who do not.

"Those" here refers to "high school students" (plural)

e.g. : The student who sits under the mango tree is more clever than that sitting near the bench.

"That" here refers to "the student" (singular).

PRACTISE :

1. The shoes in this shop are much better than the shoes in the exhibition.
2. The habit of this man is not as strange as the habit of my neighbour.
3. The income he gets is greater than the income I get.
4. The situation you are in now is different from the situation they had last year. You can't compare them.
5. The education of the women is similar to the education of my mother.

CHAPTER III

BASIC CONSTRUCTION :VERBALS

Notice : Studying is important.

I want to eat.

Surprised by the news, he ran home.

In each sentence we have an acting verb : Is, want, and ran.

But we also have other verb forms : Studying, to eat, surprised, which function as other parts of speech.

They are called VERBALS. Verbals are divided into 3 classes :

- 1). The gerund (verbal noun)
- 2). The participle (verbal adjective)
- 3). The infinitive (verbal noun, verbal adjective, verbal adverb)

THE GERUND.

- FORMS : a). Verb + ing. e.g. : Swimming, reading.
- b). Having + V III e.g. : having waited, having cried.
- c). Having been + V III (passive) e.g. : having been waited.
- d). Being + V III (passive) e.g. : being wanted.

- FUNCTION : as a noun.

Reading is good. (subject).

Having cried was shameful. (subject).

My hobby is reading. (predicate nominative)

I like reading. (direct object).

By reading, one can enrich one's knowledge. (object of preposition "by").

He taught the child to like reading. (object of infinitive "to like").

He spent 2 hours at his hobby, reading. (appositive).

- POSITIONS :

- a). Subject
- b). Predicate nominative
- c). Direct object
- d). Object of preposition
- e). Object of infinitive
- d). Appositive

THE PARTICIPLE.

- FORMS : a). Verb + ing.
- b). V III (past participle)
- c). Having + V III (active)
- d). Having been + V III (passive)
- e). Being + V III (passive)
- FUNCTION : as an adjective, modifying a noun.

The torn book is mine.

Buku yang robek itu milikku.

The boy being tested is my friend.

Anak laki - laki yang sedang di test itu teman saya.

Having been tested, he went home.

Setelah di test, dia pulang.

Having finished, the student turned in the paper.

Setelah selesai, murid-itulah menyerahkan kertasnya.

THE INFINITIVE.

- FORM : TO + VERB.
- FUNCTIONS : as a noun, an adjective or an adverb.
- USED AS A NOUN :

To read is good (Subject).

To read and (to) read again made him understand the lesson perfectly (Co-ordinate Subject).

My hobby is to read (Predicate nominative).

I like to read . (Direct Object)

I dare (to) say that he is skillful (Direct object).

To learn to read is sometimes difficult (Object of infinitive "to learn").

I do not like to do anything except to read (Object of preposition "except").

At last I could spend some hours on my hobby, to read (Appositive).

He did nothing but (to) read (Object of preposition "but").

It is fun to read (Real subject after "it").

POSITIONS AS A NOUN:

- a) Subject.
- b) Coordinate Subject.

- c) Direct Object.
- d) Object of infinitive.
- e) Object of preposition.
- f) Appositive.
- g) Subject after "it".

Used as an adjective, modifying a noun.

His hobby to read annoys his father.

It is time to go

That is a game to play.

Used as an adverb, modifying a verb (intransitive), an adjective or and adverb.

He ran to escape (modifies a verb).

He lives to eat (modifies a verb).

She cried loudly to persuade (modifies a verb).

I was ready to leave (modifies an adjective).

He was not able to read (modifies an adjective).

She seemed excited to come (modifies an adjective).

I don't know when to go (modifies an adverb).

He asked me what to do (modifies an adverb).

They wondered where to turn (modifies an adverb).

EXERCISES.

1. Underline the gerund (s) in each sentence and write the name of it (them) .

- Position : - Subject
 - Direct object
 - Predicate **nominative**
 - Object of preposition

1. The child actually enjoys studying. !.....
2. Does listening function as an important aspect in learning ? !
3. We have learned nothing about swimming. !
4. Teaching is sometimes interesting. !
5. One important task of yours is typing. !
6. I do not like being interrupted. !
7. Understanding makes life easier. !

8. The art of painting spreads widely. !

II. Underline the participle(s) in each sentence and write the word which it modifies.

1. The Thomas Cup team, having lost, felt very disappointed. !
2. The gained skill is very useful. !
3. The broken chair should be repaired soon. !
4. Crying and shouting, the child ran home. !
5. Everybody rushed into the actor's dressing room, cheering and applauding. !
6. The barking dog looks fierce. !
7. The exciting baby moves its legs and arms. !
8. The dancing bar girl approached the interested man. !

III. Underline the infinitive(s) in each sentence, and write its function :

- Noun
- Adjective
- Adverb

1. You cannot do anything but to wait. !
2. To run will show that you are a coward. !
3. I will try to come. !
4. Try to avoid the punishment to come. !
5. We must stop at the next village to ask. !
6. The important thing to do is to understand. !
7. Do you know what to say ? !
8. This book is good to read. !

IV. In the following sentences underline verbals and identify each as gerund, participle or infinitive.

1. Before working, you must read your hand book. !
2. He went to bed after washing his feet. !
3. He having finished, returned my book. !
4. Going to that village might give you a lot of problems. !
5. This winding road will lead you to your destination. !
6. The shining cigarette lighter is meant for the graduated student. !

7. The doctor suggested hiking and fishing. !
8. Laughing at his own stupidity, John picked up !
the pointed book.

CHAPTER IV
DIFFERENT KINDS OF NAMES

GIVEN NAMES

These names are often called "first names" or "Christian names". They are given to children at the time of birth and are legally registered with their birth certificates. Once registered they cannot be changed except by legal actions. Usually given names are selected by parents, though occasionally other family members or friends may suggest the names to parents, who make the final decision about the matter.

FAMILY NAMES

Family names often called "surnames" or "last names", are names borne by all members of the same family. Like given names the family name is given to a child at birth and is registered on the birth certificate. Only with legal action, such as marriage or petition to the court for a change of name, can family names be changed. When children are legitimate, their family names are those of their fathers. Illegitimate children have the family name of the mother.

MIDDLE NAMES

Some children have one or more middle names - names between their given and their family names. Like given and family names, they are usually given to children at birth and are registered on their birth certificates. Should parents or children, for one reason or another, want to add a middle name later, this must be done with legal action to be valid. And, like given names or family names, middle names cannot be changed without legal action. Some people do not use their middle names except for legal documents.

NICKNAMES

Almost all children acquire nicknames when they begin to associate with peers. These often reflect the judgement of other children. They may be favorable, depending on how members of the social group judge the child. There are many ways in which nicknames are derived, the most common of which are: shortening of given names or family names, such as "Joe" for "Joseph" or "Beck" for "Beckman"; emphasis on some physical defect as "Fatso" or "Beanpole"; emphasis on personality defects as "Crybaby" or

"Pipsqueak"; names based on nationality or place of origin, such as "Dago" or "Frenchie"; names coming from animal, such as "Pig" or "Ass"; names derived from initials, such as "Hel" from "Helen Elisabeth Leonard", or names from family pet names, as "Junior" or "Sweetie".

PET NAMES

Pet names are bestowed upon children by family members. They are indications of endearment, as compared with ridicule, which is characteristic of nicknames. It is usually parents who give children their pet names though occasionally grandparents or older siblings have their own pet names for a child. It is not unusual for a child to have several pet names, each given by a different family members. A child, for example, may be called "Benny" by the mother, "Junior" by the father, and "Kid" by an older brother.

KINSHIP NAMES

Within a family, every member has a kinship name "mother," "father," "son," "daughter," "grandmother," etc.. These kinship names are not usually used as a form of address for children, though parents sometimes use them as pet names, calling a boy "son" or a girl "daughter". Some children refer to their sister as "sister" and their brother as "brother". However, given names, nicknames, or pet names are more frequently used for children within the family.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. What is meant by "given names" ? Give brief explanation.
2. What is meant by "family names" ? Give brief explanation.
3. What is meant by "middle names" ? Give brief explanation.
4. What is meant by "Nick names" ? Give brief explanation.
5. What is meant by "pet names" ? Give brief explanation.
6. What is meant by "kinship names" ? Give brief explanation.

II. TRUE / FALSE

1. Given names are always selected by parents.
2. It is easy to change family names.
3. Illegitimate children do not have a family name.

4. Middle names should be legal.
5. Nicknames sometimes have bad effects on the children who have them.
6. A child may have more than one pet name.

III. MATCHING.

1. The birth date of a child should be ! - legal actions
!
2. By the given name can be changed. ! - required
3. The members of a family have the same ! - certificate
!
4. John is, so his family name is the same as his father's. ! - defect
!
5. The mother kept the birth ! - registered
6. I do not use my middle name !
for legal documents. ! - characteristics
7. Nick names are when children begin to associate. !
! - legitimate
8. Pet names have some of nick names. !
! - except
9. His nickname is derived from his physical !
! - endearment
10. "Sweetie" is an indication of ! - surname

IV. CLOZE TEST.

John is a child. He is after his grandfather, after his father. has a middle but he does always use it, for documents. His like to tease, because he is short. They call "Fatso", and he cries. This gives another nickname, "crybaby". home he is by different names. really has many

V. NOTICE :

They use petnames for children within the family. (Active)
Mereka menggunakan "petname" untuk anak-anak dalam keluarga.

Petnames are used for children within the family (Passive).
When we have adverbs in the passive sentences, we put them between the finite & nonfinite verbs.

Petnames are usually used for children within the family.

Practice :

Change the voice, put the adverb in the sentence.

1. We derive the names from initials. (often)
2. People can change the middle names. (sometimes)
3. Almost all children acquire nicknames. (usually)
4. These reflect the judgement of other children. (often)
5. The friends may suggest the names to parents. (frequently)
6. They use kinship names as a form of address for children.
(usually)
7. The classmates call him "Pig". (seldom)
8. The parents give the given names at the time of birth.
(always)
9. They register the family name on the birth certificate.
(generally)
10. The man changed the name of the illegitimate child. (soon)

CHAPTER V

BRAILLE

Although Louis Braille died when he was only forty-three years old, he succeeded in devising a system of reading and writing for the blind which is now taught all over the world.

Braille lost his sight accidentally as a child. Nevertheless he was able to complete his education at a school for the blind in Paris and become a teacher. In his day, the few books that were available for the blind people were printed in big, raised type; the letters used were those of the ordinary alphabet. The reading of such books required immense effort. Not only that, writing was almost impossible, for a blind person was still restricted to an alphabet which was extraordinarily difficult to reproduce on paper. Braille's idea was to use raised dots instead of raised letters. He evolved a system which made use of only six dots in all. By various combinations of these dots, it not only proved possible to represent each letter in the alphabet, but punctuation marks, numbers, and musical notation as well. Reading and writing have thus been enormously simplified. The sensitive fingers of a blind person can travel rapidly over the dots; and there is a small machine, something like a typewriter, which enables the blind to write quickly and clearly.

Improvements are continually being made on the system, though basically it is the same as that contrived by Braille. Large raised dots, printed on one side of a page only, make many books for the blind cumbersome. A single book in ordinary print often runs into several volumes when it is transcribed into the dot-system. Furthermore, the books that are used in lending-libraries for the blind eventually become unreadable. The dots are subjected to a great deal of wear and tear, and finally disappear, so that a book becomes useless. A machine has now been invented which fires plastic dots on to paper, instead of just making depressions in the pages. These dots do not wear out at all, and there is no danger of their coming unstuck. Since it is possible, by this means, to make use of both sides of the page, books for the blind are now less bulky. This new way of 'dotting' pages can also be used for such things as the production of atlases with the outlines of countries clearly imprinted.

Though many modern inventions like the radio have brought the great benefits to the blind, Braille's system remains the greatest landmark of all. It has provided a simple means for producing

books, magazines, and even newspapers, and ensured that no blind person need spend life in ignorance as well as darkness.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. Why is Braille famous ?
2. Was Braille a blind man since he was born ?
3. What do you know about Braille's education ?
4. How was the writing system for the blind at that time ?
5. What was Braille's idea to improve the system ?
6. What was the weakness of the dot system when used in a book ?
7. How did they make the dots readable for a very long time ?
8. Why were books for the blind very thick ?
9. What do you know about Braille's dots & their use ?
10. What is the meaning of Braille's system to the blind ?

II. TRUE / FALSE

1. There have been some changes about writing & reading system for the blind since Braille's childhood.
2. It is possible for a blind person now to read music.
3. Now blind people have plastic dots.
4. To read a book printed in big, raised type using the ordinary alphabet needs less effort.
5. Braille was a teacher of non-physically retarded children.

III. SHORTENED FORM OF RELATIVE CLAUSES

Notice : The letters used were those of the ordinary alphabet.
Huruf-huruf yang digunakan adalah huruf-huruf dari alphabet biasa.

The complete construction "yang di" is :

The letters which were used were those of the
PASSIVE
ordinary alphabet.

So if the relative clause is passive, the relative pronoun (who/that/which) and the TO BE can be omitted.

The effort which was required was really great.
PASSIVE

Usaha yang diperlukan adalah benar-benar besar.
The effort required was really great.

VI. Change IN SPITE OF into ALTHOUGH

Example : In spite of Braille's blindness, people still consider him a great man.

Although Braille was blind, people still consider him a great man.

1. In spite of his age, he can do great things as an adult man can.
2. In spite of the price, we managed to buy it.
3. In spite of the difficulty, he still wants to read that thick book.
4. In spite of his father, he continued his study in college.
5. In spite of his weakness, he has strong will.

8. Alat - alat itu praktis dipakai.
9. Buku - buku Yuni menyenangkan untuk dibaca.
10. Api itu sukar dimatikan.

NOTE : VERBS : To practice - to explain - to put out - to drive
- to teach - to read - to accept - to use - to
produce - to educate.

CHAPTER VII

THE LIFE STYLE OF A ROCK STAR

- (1) Around the world young people are spending unbelievable sums of money to listen to rock music. Forbes claims that at least fifty rock stars have incomes of between two million and six million dollars per year.
- (2) "It doesn't make sense," says Johnny Mathis, one of the older music millionaires, who made a million dollars a year when he was most popular, in the 1950s. "Performers aren't worth this kind of money. In fact, nobody is."
- (3) But the rock stars' admirers seem to disagree. Those who love rock music spend about two billion dollars a year for records. They pay 150 million to see rock stars in person.
- (4) Some observers think the customers are buying more than music. According to one theory, rock music has a special appeal because no real training is needed to produce it. There is no gulf between the audience and the performer. Every boy and girl in the audience thinks, "I could sing like that." So rock has become a new kind of religion, a new form of worship. Young people are glad to pay to worship a rock star because it is a way of worshipping themselves.
- (5) Luck is a key word for explaining the success of many. In 1972 one of the luckiest was Don Mc Lean, who wrote and sang "American Pie." Mc Lean earned more than a million dollars from recordings of "American Pie." Then, too, like most performers, Mc Lean writes his own music, so he earns an additional two cents on every single record of the song.
- (6) Records provide only part of a star's income. Around the world young listeners soon want to see the star in movies, on television, and in person.
- (7) Neil Young, who performs in torn blue jeans, sometimes sings to an audience of 10,000, each of whom has paid at least five dollars for a ticket. After paying expenses, Young leaves with about \$ 18,000 in his blue jeans at the end of an evening.
- (8) How do the rock stars use their money? What do they do when the money starts pouring in like water? Most of the young stars simply throw the money around. England's

Elton John gave someone a \$ 38,000 Rolls-Royce automobile and bought himself a \$ 5,000 pair of eyeglasses that light up and spell E-L-T-O-N. He also bought himself two cars, "one for each foot."

- (9) Many rock stars live like Grace Slick and the Jefferson Airplane. Those performers return from a tour, pay their bills, and buy new toys. Then when they need money again they do another tour. They save no money, buy no stocks, and live from hand to mouth.
- (10) In the end the rock star's life is unrewarding. After two or three years riches and fame are gone. Left with his memories and his tax problem, the lonely performer spends his remaining years trying to impress strangers. New stars have arrived to take his place.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. Who is Johnny Mathis ?
2. What is Johnny Mathis's opinion about the incomes of popular rock stars ?
3. Why does rock music have a special appeal ? Explain the theory.
4. What is the key word for explaining the success of many rock stars ?
5. How did Don Mc Lean get rich in 1972 ?
6. What provide the income of a star ?
7. What do you know about Neil Young ?
8. How do the rock stars use their money ?
9. Many rock stars live like Grace Slick and the Jefferson Airplane. What is the meaning of that sentence ?
10. What is the end of a rock star like ?

II. Find The Words In The Reading Passage which have the same meanings as the words below. The number behind each word suggests the paragraph in which you can find it.

1. that cannot be believed (1)
2. earned (2)
3. having a certain value (2)
4. attraction (4)
5. gathering of persons for the purpose of hearing (4)
6. money used or need for something (7)
7. merely (8)
8. spend (8)

9. keep for future use (9)
10. wealth (10)

III. Matching

- | | | |
|--|---|----------------------|
| 1. They are very poor. They live from hand to | ! | leave |
| 2. He gave me a of 1000 rupiah. | ! | |
| 3. The sang in torn blue jeans. | ! | admirers |
| 4. When did he Yogya ? | ! | reward |
| 5. Rock has become a new form of | ! | popular |
| 6. When "King of Rock & Roll", Elvis Priestly died, his were very sad. | ! | mouth |
| 7. My friend has a new of expensive spectacles. | ! | most
worship |
| 8. His story does not make, so nobody believes him. | ! | sense
performers. |
| 9. The singer was very 10 years ago. | ! | |
| 10. singers do not write their own music, I think. | | |

IV. Possessive.

HEAD WORD

"The rock stars' admirers means" the admirers of the rock star."

Para pengagum bintang-bintang rock.

Change into the "OF" construction & translate.

1. Elton John's Rolls-Royce automobile.
2. The popular rock star's torn blue jeans.
3. Young listeners's idol star.
4. The older music millionaire's long record.
5. Some critical observers's strange theory.

V. Change into negative sentences.

1. Rock music has a special appeal.
2. Records provide only part of a star's income.
3. After paying expenses, he left with \$ 10,000 in his pocket.
4. The rock star's life is rewarding.
5. New stars have arrived to take his place.

VI. Complete these sentences properly

1. Every body thinks that
2. Most of them simply

3. This is a way of
4. They pay 10,000 rupiah to
5. When they need money

CHAPTER VIII

THE FUNCTIONS OF A TEACHER

A teacher has two special functions that make him different from other professional men, and from the business men and workers of his community. The first of these 1) is to show students how to apply the knowledge they gain in the classroom to their own lives. If students are allowed to think that a school or college is just a prison in which they are forced to spend a few years, they will profit nothing from their education. It 2) is difficult to show your students how the study of certain subjects will be useful in the future because they themselves do not know what the pattern of their adult lives will be. But they should be shown in as many ways as possible that what they learn in the classroom is closely connected with that 3) pattern.

There are several ways to make subjects seem important and useful to students. Some teachers of English use good current magazines to demonstrate clear, effective writing. Certainly every teacher of a foreign language ought to use the newspapers and films produced in that language. But unfortunately such 4) devices cannot be used in all subjects.

The teacher's energy and enthusiasm can do more to prove the value of learning a subject than anything else. If a student sees that his history teacher is wise, competent, and interesting, he will conclude that the study of history has helped make him so. And therefore, the student's desire to learn that subject will greatly increase.

It 5) is also the function of the teacher to explain adult life in such a way that pupils will see the connection between it and their own. To do this 6) a teacher must belong to both the world of young people and the world of adult men and women. Many teachers consider this very difficult to do. They are interested only in the affairs of the school and care nothing for anything else. At the other extreme, there are those 7) who care nothing at all for the activities of the young, who never open a college magazine nor attend any of the sports events of the school.

But it is possible for a good teacher to keep an even balance in matters. He will be able to understand the student's attitudes and at the same time keep his own point of view. He will try to remember the things that interested him in his youth and use them to illustrate his teaching.

The young are not deep thinkers, but they are quick to notice new things-unusual personalities in public life, peculiar rather than essential pieces of news-to a greater extent than adults. Therefore, if a teacher refers to such 8) things in his explanations, difficult discussions can often be made clearer.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. What is the first function of a teacher which makes him different from other professional men ?
2. Why is it difficult to show how the knowledge they get will be useful in the future ?
3. What will happen if the students think that their school is just a prison ?
4. What can a teacher do to demonstrate good writing ?
5. What is the most effective proof of the value of learning a subject ?
6. What is the second function of a teacher ?
7. Why is it very difficult for some teachers to carry out the second function ?
8. How can a teacher keep an even balance ?

II. Pronouns. 1)

1) These refers to

- a) businessmen
- b) functions
- c) workers

2) It refers to

- a) to show the students the value of a subject
- b) to spend a few years
- c) to know the pattern of their adult life

3) That refers to

- a) adult life
- b) classroom

4) Such refers to

- c) subject
- a) writing

5) It refers to

- b) teacher
- c) newspapers & films
- a) the connection of the pattern

6) This refers to

- b) to explain adult life
- c) the way pupils will see
- a) the explanation

10. If Lius Pongoh (play) better in the tournament in Hongkong last year, he (win) the game.
11. My brother (not fail) in his exam last month if he (study) harder.

IV. Passive

Active : The teacher should show the student how the system works.

Guru harus menunjukkan murid-murid bagaimana sistem itu bekerja.

Passive: The students should be shown (by the teacher) how the system works.

Kata-kata lain yang satu kelas dengan should ; (dalam penggunaan sebagai kalimat aktive selalu diikuti oleh verb bentuk pertama) :

will - would	= akan
can - could	= dapat
shall -	= akan (pasti) should = harus
must	= harus, pasti
may	= mungkin, boleh
might	= mungkin
has to/ have to	= harus, terpaksa
ought to	= sebaiknya, seandainya

Practice :

1. The teacher's energy and enthusiasm can help the beginners.
2. The pupils will see the connection between theory and practice.
3. Every teacher of foreign language ought to use them.
4. Many teachers might consider this very difficult to do.
5. He will remember the experiences in his youth.
6. We must show how the study of the subject will help them.
7. Teachers should not allow them to think that a school is a prison.
8. Those who are involved in teaching have to understand the student's attitudes.

CHAPTER IX

COLLEGE STUDENTS TODAY

In 1972 American Council on Education published forty pages of facts about college freshmen in the United States. The facts had been obtained from thousands of students in their first year of university study by asking such questions as these :

1. How old will you be on December 31 of this year ?
2. How many miles is this college from your parents' home ?
3. Where did you live while you were growing up ?
4. Are your parents still living, and are they still married to each other ?
5. How would you describe your present political views ?

The answers to these questions indicated that seventy-eight percent of the freshmen were eighteen years old, and fourteen were nineteen. It is quite unusual for a freshman to be younger than eighteen or older than nineteen.

More than half of the freshmen were studying in colleges far from their parents' home; only forty percent were within a distance of fifty miles from home.

The report indicates that most college students have grown up in or near cities. About one-fifth of the freshmen reported that they had been brought up in small towns ; only seven percent came from farm families.

Rather surprisingly, the report showed that comparatively few of the freshmen (eight percent) had parents who were divorced or separated. In most cases, both parents were still alive and still married to each other.

Politically, more than a third of the students described their views as " liberal ". Only sixteen percent considered themselves " conservative ". The largest group, however, were the forty-six percent who described their politics as " middle of the road ". Very few called their political views " far left " or " far right ".

When asked how they were paying for their education, almost a third of the freshmen said they had part-time jobs or were working during the summer vacation. For a few, scholarships were sources of support. However, fifty-six percent of the students depended upon their parents to pay their college bills.

For many of these families a college education was something

new. Less than half of the freshmen's fathers had ever attended college themselves.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. What did the American Council on Education publish in 1972 ?
2. What questions did the students have to answer ?
3. From the answer, what do we know about the age of the freshmen ?
4. Where did most freshmen live ?
5. Did most freshmen's parents still live together ?
6. What do you know about the freshmen's political point of view ?
7. How did they pay for their education ?
8. What can you say about their parents' educational background ?

II. LANGUAGE

Fill in

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| 1. He was clever, but he was poor. So the school gave him a | ! indicated |
| 2. A student at his first year at a college or university is called a | ! scholarship |
| 3. His parents do not live together. They a few months ago. | ! suprisingly |
| 4. It is not easy to the beauty of the panorama. | ! brought up |
| 5. The answer that he did not come from a happy family. | ! divorced |
| 6. It is for him to come late. | ! obtained |
| 7. He was in a small village. | ! describe |
| 8. At last they the information. | ! considered |
| 9., James failed in his exam. | ! freshman |
| 10. The students themselves "liberal". | ! unusual |

III. PREPOSITION

The reading passage may help you a lot.

1. one fifth of the students reported that they lived near here.
2. The answer the question is really simple.
3. The students who were studying universities mostly came the middle class.

4. He does not like the city life because he was brought
..... a small village.
5. most cases, they felt very happy.
6. The politics is described "middle of the road."
7. They were asked how they paid their books.
8. Some had scholarship as sources support.
9. I have no doubt that he depended his father.
10. The church is a distance of 4 miles our home.

IV. PRACTICE

1/5 = one fifth

- | | |
|-----------|------------|
| 1. 2/7 = | 6. 1/2 = |
| 2. 3/4 = | 7. 7/32 = |
| 3. 5/8 = | 8. 4/9 = |
| 4. 1/3 = | 9. 11/13 = |
| 5. 6/19 = | 10. 9/21 = |

V. CHANGE INTO ACTIVE VOICE

Example : The fact had been obtained (Past perfect tense).
Fakta itu telah diperoleh (oleh mereka).

Active : They had obtained the fact.

Mereka telah memperoleh fakta itu.

1. The students had been asked some questions.
2. They had been brought up in small towns.
3. Their views had been described as "Conservative".
4. The college had been attended by their fathers.
5. That most college students grew up in the city had been indicated by the report.

VI. SHORTENED FORM

Example : 1) When asked how they were paying for their education,

This underlined construction comes from :
When they were asked

- 2) When asking a question, you must be careful.
The underlined construction is the same as :
When you ask the question,
active

Notice that the tense must suit the whole sentence.

1. When seen by the guard, the thief immediately ran.
2. When attending the lecture, you must not make noise.
3. When examined, the child cried loudly.
4. When told how they should do it, the workers listened very carefully.
5. When giving the instruction, the man smiled encouragingly.

CHAPTER X

"IT" CONSTRUCTIONS & MEANINGS1) "IT" AS ANTICIPATORY SUBJECT

The subject of the sentence is in fact the noun that comes after the predicate. So the construction is :

IT - PREDICATE - SUBJECT.

Example : It is a pleasure to teach him.

= He is a pleasure to teach.

It is impossible to deal with him.

= He is impossible to deal with .

It is easy to beat them .

= They are easy to beat.

It is fun for us to be with Margaret.

= Margaret is fun for us to be with.

PRACTICE :

1. It is easy to drive a small car.
2. It is difficult to understand the lecture.
3. It is always interesting to learn a new language.
4. It is really unpleasant to hear an alarm clock at 4 o'clock in the morning.
5. It is not easy to be friends with Mary.
6. It is expensive to live in a luxurious house.
7. It is fun to play badminton in the morning.
8. It is a pleasure to visit foreign countries.
9. It is a pleasure to watch the science program.
10. It is interesting to listen to him.

2) "IT" CONSTRUCTION WHICH GIVES EMPHASIS

Example : John came here last night.

It was John who came here last night.

John-lah (bukan George) yang datang kemari tadi malam.

It was last night that John came.

Tadi malamlah (bukan kemarin malam) yang John datang.

PRACTICE. The emphasis should be on the underlined part.

1. The dancer wore his night shirt. (2 sentences)
2. My friend broke his left arm.

3. The new teacher lost her red book.
4. The professor had an accident in front of my house.
5. His younger brother bought a bicycle.
6. The old servant moved the table to the corner.
7. The tall boy likes the red colour.
8. The diligent student forgot his English book.
9. My second son saw "Godfather Part II"
10. Jane's father teaches Child Psychology.

III. " IT " REPLACING A CLAUSAL SUBJECT.

Example : It does not matter what you do.

= What you do does not matter.

PRACTICE :

1. It is said that he slipped arsenic into his tea.
2. It was a surprise that he failed his exam.
3. It is a mystery where he lives.
4. It was unknown when the famous writer died.
5. It was believed that the world was flat.
6. It surprised me to hear him say that.
7. It made me sad to know that he dropped out of school.
8. It disgusts me to see what he has done.
9. It is also his job to explain the role of young people in society.
10. It is really difficult to show him how to do it.

IV. EMPTY " IT " SUBJECT

" IT " is used when we talk about :

- time
- day
- date
- month
- year
- weather
- distance

- Example : Time : What time is it ? It's 7 o'clock
 Do we have much time ? Yes, it is early.
- Day : What day is it to day ? It's Wednesday.
- Date : What date is it to day ? It's October first.
- Month : What month is it ? It's December.
- Year : What year was it when he died ? It was 1974.
- Weather : How is the weather ? It is nice.
 How is the weather in winter ?
It is terrible. It snows everyday & it gets very cold.

V . "IT" AS A PERSONAL PRONOUN

- Example : We bought the book yesterday but we lost it this morning.
 Here "IT" refers to "the book" (NOUN).
 : She gave me a pen but I broke it.

VI . Say the functions of "IT" in the sentences below : the 5 groups mentioned here are :

- (1) as an anticipatory subject
 e.g.: It is a pleasure to teach him.
 = He is a pleasure to teach.
- (2) to give emphasis
 e.g.: It was John who came here.
- (3) to replace a clausal subject
 e.g.: It does not matter what you do
 = What you do does not matter.
- (4) as an empty subject
 e.g. : It is snowing today.
- (5) as a personal pronoun
 e.g. : We bought the book but we lost it.

Say to what group IT in the sentences below belong :

- (1) It is five o'clock p.m. now but it is already dark .
- (2) It is important for you to do your best .
- (3) He walked to and fro for an hour and it made me nervous.
- (4) It is nice to see the scenery.

- (5) Did you see my pen ? I lost it.
- (6) It was her sister that I loved .
- (7) It made me angry to hear that he didn't obey the teacher.
- (8) Do you want to find a taxi at this hour ? It is not a
easy you know.
- (9) It is pleasant to be with her family.
- (10) It is success he needs most.

CHAPTER XI

WE ALL HAVE PROBLEMS

You might be surprised to discover, if you were in the other person's shoes, that things aren't as rosy as they seem. You would probably find that the person you envy has his problems, too. His problems are just different from yours.

For example, Tom used to wish that his folks were like Larry's folks. Larry's mother never called him home to lunch right in the middle of a ball game. And Larry could go to a movie when-ever he wanted to, it seemed. He could stay on the playground after school as long as he wanted; he could stay up and see late television programs that Tom had to miss. Larry could do anything, Tom thought.

But Larry, with all the freedom he wanted, wasn't any happier than Tom. Larry's mother and father both worked in a factory. They were away from home all day during the week, and on the week end they had to buy groceries, pay the bills, clean the house, and do all of the things Larry's mother couldn't do during the week because she was working. Larry felt that his parents didn't care where he went or what he did all day, just as long as he stayed out of trouble. Larry secretly envied boys like Tom, who had to drop out of a ball game to lunch or leave the gang at the street corner to go some place with the family.

Larry's parents loved him. They worked hard to provide him with food and shelter, clothes, and a few extras. But Larry felt alone and neglected. He didn't want all the independence he was allowed.

Freedom and independence

How much independence should a twelve - or thirteen - year - old boy or girl be allowed? This is a problem in many families. If you ask the boy or girl you'll get one answer. But if you ask the mother or father, you'll probably get an entirely different answer. In Larry's case, his family gave him more freedom than he felt he could handle comfortably, but this is not the usual situation. More often a boy or girl wants more freedom than his family is willing to give him. In fact, many boys and girls think they want Larry's kind of freedom when, actually, they aren't yet ready for it. They want to feel independent of their families, yet

they still rely on them in many ways.

For example, Jackie thought she was old enough to select her own clothes and resented her mother's advice on what to buy. Yet she was very happy to have her mother's help in hemming a skirt she'd selected.

Bob had a paper route, and he felt that he didn't need his father's help or advice about making collections. But on icy, freezing mornings he was pleased to have his father take him around in the car.

Mary wanted to have a party and wanted to plan everything herself : whom to invite, what to serve, what to do at the party. But when it came time to prepare the refreshments, she welcomed her mother's help and advice.

Have you ever felt both independent and dependent on your family at the same time ? How ?

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. Must we envy other people ? Why ?
2. Did Tom like to be paid attention to ?
3. Why did Tom think that Larry could do anything ?
4. Did Larry feel happy with all the freedom he got ?
5. What is the difference between Tom's problem and Larry's problem ?
6. How did Larry feel having such a family ?
7. Why doesn't a boy or a girl like the parents' opinion about independence ?
8. When a boy wants to be free, is he really ready for it ? Explain !
9. Jacky was not ready for that kind of freedom. Why ?
10. Is it possible that we feel both independent & dependent at the same time ? Give an example.

II. Prepositions

1. They are not happy as you think.
2. Right the middle of a ball game he got an accident.
3. My problems are different yours.
4. I was away the week, so I could not see you.
5. I had to drop the game as I had to work.
6. my family, problems are always discussed together.

7. Don't rely your parents if you want to be really free.
8. I need your advice making a dress.

III. Complete the sentences.

1. He wants his parents to pay attention to him, but
2. The different opinions often
3. Larry envied boys like Tom, because
4. Every body has problems, only
5. Betty had parents who loved her, but

IV. Matching

- | | |
|------------------------------|--|
| 1. In the other person shoes | - feel interested |
| 2. rosy | - pay no attention to |
| 3. groceries | - stop |
| 4. care | - very cold |
| 5. stay out of trouble | - drinks |
| 6. drop out | - tea, sugar, butter, tinned food etc. |
| 7. entirely | - manage |
| 8. handle | - feel angry at |
| 9. rely | - bright |
| 10. neglect | - in the situation of that person. |
| 11. resent | - receive with pleasure |
| 12. freezing | - not to be in difficulties |
| 13. welcome | - depend upon with confidence |
| 14. refreshment | - not to go to bed |
| 15. stay up | - completely |

V. Questions with prepositions

Notice : They kissed under the tree.

What did they kiss under ? or

Under what did they kiss ?

Make questions about the underlined words

1. We were looking for the key when they came.
2. The boy looked at the good teacher.
3. That old professional man listened to the speech.
4. Her parents sat between John and Barbara.
5. The young girls are talking about freedom & independence.

VI. Omittance Of "Who/That/Which"

Notice : The boy was bored with the freedom he got.

The complete construction is :

The boy was bored with the freedom which he got.

Anak itu bosan dengan kebebasan yang dia miliki.

'who/that/which" can be omitted if the clause that follows has a subject of its own.

* Insert "Who/that/Which" into the appropriate place, and translate the whole sentence.

1. The man he met knows much about astronomy.
2. The young girl accepted the help her mother offered.
3. Did you see the book John gave me Yesterday ?
4. I could not understand the language she tried to speak.
5. They always think about the children they saw in Vietnam.
6. The problem they face is difficult.
7. I cannot see the bird you are pointing at.
8. I still remember the house you lived in.
9. Is this the family they stayed with last year ?
10. The dress my parents bought me last month is torn.

CHAPTER XII

CHEMIQUE : A FACTOR INFLUENCING THE SELF - CONCEPT

The "chemique," or glandular condition produced by hormones from the endocrine system, has a marked influence on personality. A hyperthyroid condition, for example, predisposes the individual to be nervous, irritable and ready to fly off the handle. Hypothyroidism, by contrast, is primarily responsible for the easygoing, lethargic, indolent personality.

Because of the upset in glandular homeostasis that normally accompanies the menstrual cycle, adolescent girls tend to be depressed and morbid for several days before as well as during the menstrual period. Attempted suicide is reported to be most common during those days. Much of the negative-phase behavior of both boys and girls during the early part of puberty can be traced to disturbances in glandular homeostasis. As the glandular condition becomes stabilized, the adolescent usually reverts to his former personality pattern.

Indirectly, endocrine glands also affect the personality. The anterior lobe of the pituitary determines whether the individual will be normal in stature or tend toward gigantism or dwarfism. Any marked deviation from the average will produce an unfavourable reaction in the social group, and this will affect the adolescent's attitude toward self. The more marked the deviation, the more damaging the effect on the self-concept.

While medical control of the endocrine system is still in an experimental stage, enough is known to be able to control some of the personality disturbances which accompany upsets in endocrine homeostasis. Thyroid treatment, for example, makes the lethargic hypothyroid adolescent more alert, physically and mentally, while estrogen treatment overcomes much of the moodiness and depression the adolescent girl suffers from at the time of her menstrual periods.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. What is meant by "chemique" ?
2. What is the relationship between chemique and personality ?
3. What is the effect of a hyperthyroid condition on the individual ?
4. What is the effect of a hypothyroid condition on the individual ?

5. Why do girls tend to be depressed and morbid for some days during and before the menstrual period ?
6. What is the effect of disturbances in glandular homeostasis on the early part of puberty ?
7. How do endocrine glands affect the personality ?
8. How is the medical control of the endocrine system ?
9. What is the effect of thyroid treatment ?
10. What is the effect of estrogen treatment ?

II. FILL IN

1. After the death of his wife, he took some !
years to to his former personality. !- endocrine
2. He has a very weak personality. Several !- elert
times he attempted to commit !
3. A person who is easily annoyed or made !- deviation
angry is called an person. !
4. He is always in answering questions !- suicide
so his teachers like him. !
5. Because of his marked from the !- hypothyroidism
average, he is always depressed. !
6. from the endocrine system produce !- stature
it. !
7. After some time, the condition !- glandular
becomes stabilized. !
8. The anterior lobe of the pituitary !- irritable
determines whether some one will be normal !
in or not. !- revert
9. Because of, he becomes an easy going!
person. !
10. The pituitary belongs to glands. !- hormones

III. BECAUSE - BECAUSE OF

e.g. Because you are ill, you must not go to school.
A SENTENCE

Karena kamu sakit, kamu harus tidak ke sekolah.

Because of your illness, you must not go to school.
A NOUN

Disebabkan oleh sakitmu, kamu harus tidak ke sekolah.

"BECAUSE OF" is always followed by a noun and

"BECAUSE" is always followed by a sentence.

CHANGE "BECAUSE" INTO "BECAUSE OF"

1. He becomes very tall because the endocrine glands do not work normally.
2. Because she often feels depressed, she is not liked by her friends.
3. She seems morbid because she is in the menstrual period.
4. Because his friends' attitude toward him is not favorable, he prefers to stay at home.
5. The adolescent suffers a lot because he is still in the early part of puberty.

IV. ALTHOUGH - IN SPIE OF

e.g. Although he attempted suicide several times, his
A SENTENCE

friends still accept him.

Walaupun dia telah mencoba bunuh diri beberapa kali,
teman - temannya masih menerima dia.

In spite of his attempted suicides, his

A NOUN

Tanpa memperdulikan percobaan bunuh dirinya,

Change "although" into "in spite of"

1. Although the grass was wet, we sat on the ground.
2. He decided to do it although there were many difficulties.
3. We went on studying although we heard a lot of noise.
4. Ann went on a picnic too although she felt moody.
5. John worked in that hospital although the salary was low.

V. WHETHER OR NOT - REGARDLESS OF

I will go whether or not it rains.

A SENTENCE

Saya akan pergi apakah hari hujan atau tidak.

I will go regardless of the rain.

A NOUN

Saya akan pergi tanpa peduli hujan.

"WHETHER OR NOT" is always followed by a sentence.

"REGARDLESS OF" is always followed by a noun.

Change "whether or not" into "regardless of"

1. I will always be friends with him whether he has money or not.

2. We will go in whether or not the reaction is favourable.
3. He will invite her to the party whether or not her sister likes it.
4. The student will study tonight whether his friends come or not.
5. She looks attractive whether she wears a new dress or not.

VI. Notice the construction of "the more the more....."
The more marked the deviation, the more damaging the effect on the self control.
Semakin besar kelainan, semakin merusak efeknya pada kontrol diri.

TRANSLATE.

1. The more we study, the more we feel stupid.
2. The better the preparation, the calmer we feel.
3. The closer we are to a person, the more we see his weakness.
4. The greater the differences, the more difficult the problem is.
5. The younger a person is, the easier it is for him to learn a second language.

CHAPTER XIII

BASIC CONSTRUCTION :DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Like the phrase, the dependent clause functions as a single part of speech. Unlike the phrase, the dependent clause contains a subject and a predicate.

He is a man of wealth (phrase, used as an adjective)

He is a man who is wealthy. (dependent clause used as an adjective)

I am leaving when I receive my instructions. (dependent clause used as an adverb)

That he was interested in his work makes us happy. (dependent clause used as a subject)

There are 3 kinds of dependent clauses:

I) NOUN CLAUSES

II) ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

III) ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

I) NOUN CLAUSES

A noun clause always functions as a noun.

That he is lazy is now recognized. (Subject)

The problem is that we do not have money. (Predicate nominative)

We know that the man has moved. (Object)

The announcement that he won the lottery surprised everybody. (Appositive)

It seems certain that he must go. (Subject after "it")

The connective words which are also frequently used besides "THAT" are "WHAT", "WHERE", "HOW", "WHEN", etc.

I do not understand what he told me. (object)

It is difficult to understand how he could be so stupid. (Subject after "it")

He wanted to know where the test would be held.

She knows when he will come.

But we must remember that it is the way a clause functions in the sentence, not the connective word, which determines whether it is a noun clause or not.

II. ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

An adjective clause always modifies a noun or a pronoun.

The connective words which are generally used to introduce an adjective clause are the relative pronouns "who", "whom", "whose", "which", and "that".

The boy who came here yesterday is John.

He is the author whose books are often best sellers.

The class which John likes best is Geography.

Other words may introduce adjective clauses.

He returned to the place where he lost his wallet.

There is time when every body realizes his foolishness.

Sometimes the relative pronoun is omitted :

The meeting (which) we attended was really important.

The man (that) we met is my cousin.

Not every body (whom) we love is good.

III. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

An adverbial clause is a clause which modifies a verb, an adjective, or an adverb.

When the alarm sounded, every body reported to his post.

(reported when ?)

The problem is more difficult than we expected.

(how much harder ?)

He works as hard as his friend does.

(how hard ?)

Sometimes we have elliptical adverbial clauses :

When in town, don't forget to visit the museum.

(When you are in town)

The smaller group performs better than the larger ones.

(..... than the larger ones perform)

Note that the same connective word may introduce clauses which function as different parts of speech :

The player who has won played extremely well.

(adjective clause)

Every body wants to know who has won.

(noun clause)

You may go when you have finished your work.

(adverbial clause)

Nobody knows when he will come.

(noun clause)

EXERCISES:

- Underline each dependent clause. Classify each clause according to its function in the sentence : -

- noun clause
- adjective clause
- adverbial clause

1. That he likes his work is clear.
2. He asked me what the workers were doing.
3. When I came, she was cooking dinner.
4. The man who called you is a bit mad.
5. Although the news was important, he ignored it.
6. The answer proved that we were right.
7. If you pay now, I will be very grateful.
8. This is a problem we must all consider.
9. I like teaching because it is challenging.
10. Whoever came first got the job.
11. I don't know what the answer will be.
12. We felt that some trouble would come.
13. The question he asked was really silly.
14. He did not understand what he had been told.
15. I know a good place where we can hold the meeting.
16. Because he was still young, he did not have many experiences.
17. He sang while his sister played the piano.
18. He wondered why he did not pass the exam.
19. After he left, she cried.
20. When they leave, we know that it is time to go.
21. The fact is that you are your own enemy when you behave like that.
22. Because it was very cold, they lived on a diet which was very different from yours.
23. One of the reasons that failed was that they did not work seriously.
24. Although there are many wild animals in the forest, people who enter it seldom see them.
25. What he was doing in that corner, nobody knew.

CHAPTER XIV

BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS IN SOCIAL SITUATIONS
DURING EARLY CHILDHOODSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Cooperation. Few children learn to play cooperatively with others until they are 4 years old. The more opportunities they have to do things together, the more quickly they will learn to do them in a cooperative way.

Rivalry. When rivalry acts as a spur to children to do their best, it adds^{to} their socialization. If, however, it is expressed in quarreling and boasting, it leads to poor socialization.

Generosity. Generosity, as shown in a willingness to share with others, increases as selfishness decreases and as children learn that generosity leads to social acceptance.

Desire for social approval. When the desire for approval is strong, it motivates children to conform to social expectations. Desire for adult approval usually comes earlier than desire for peer approval.

Sympathy. Young children are incapable of sympathetic behaviour until they have been in situations similar to those of a person in distress. They express their sympathy by trying to help or comfort a person in distress.

Empathy. Empathy is the ability to put oneself in the position of another and to experience what that person experiences. This develops only when children can understand the facial expressions and speech of others.

Dependency. Dependency on others for help, attention, and affection motivates children to behave in a socially approved way. Children who are independent lack this motivation.

Friandliness. Young children show their friendliness by

wanting to do things for and with others and by expressing their affection for them.

Unselfishness. Children who have opportunities and encouragement to share what they have and who are not constantly in the limelight of family attention learn to think of others and to do things for them rather than concentrating on their own interests and possessions.

Imitation. By imitating a person who is well accepted by the social group, children develop traits that add to their acceptance by the group.

Attachment behaviour. From foundations laid in babyhood when the baby developed a warm and loving attachment to the mother or mother substitute, young children transfer this pattern of behaviour to other people and learn to establish friendships with them.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. How do you make children develop their cooperation ?
2. When does rivalry do good to the children's socialization ?
3. When does generosity increase ?
4. What happens if the desire for approval is strong ?
5. When are young children able to have sympathetic behaviour ?
6. What is empathy ?
7. How do young children show their friendliness ?
8. How do we make children learn to think of others ?
9. What is the connection between imitation & acceptance ?
10. What is meant by attachment behaviour ?

II. TRUE / FALSE

1. Before the age of 4 children have learned to play or work cooperatively.
2. By quarreling often, children will understand more about socialization.
3. Generosity is a willingness to share with others.
4. We can help children behave well by giving them affection.
5. We must teach children to be independent.

CHAPTER XV

UNSOCIAL BEHAVIOUR PATTERNS

Negativism. Negativism is resistance to pressures from others to behave in a certain way. It usually begins during the second year of life and reaches a peak between 3 and 6 years. Physical expressions, similar to temper tantrums, gradually give way to verbal refusals to do what children have been asked or told to do.

Aggression. Aggression is an actual or threatened act of hostility, usually unprovoked by another person. Children may express their aggressiveness in physical or verbal attacks on another, usually a child smaller than they are.

Quarreling. Quarrels are angry disputes that generally start when a person makes an unprovoked attack on another. Quarreling differs from aggression, first, because it involves two or more people while aggression is an individual act and, second, because one of the people involved in a quarrel plays a defensive role, while, in aggression, the role is always aggressive.

Teasing and bullying. Teasing is a verbal attack on another, but in bullying, the attack is physical. In both cases, the attacker gains satisfaction from watching the victim's discomfort and attempts to retaliate.

Ascendant behaviour. Ascendant behaviour is the tendency to dominate others or to be "bossy". If properly directed, it can be a leadership trait, but it usually is not and, as a result, leads to rejection by the social group.

Egocentrism. Almost all young children are egocentric in that their tendency is to think and talk about themselves. Whether this tendency will wane, remain constant, or grow stronger will depend partly on whether children realize that it makes them unpopular and partly on how anxious they are to be popular.

Prejudice. The foundations of prejudice are laid in early childhood when children realize that some people are different in appearance and behavior from them and that these differences are regarded by the social group as signs of inferiority. It is unusual for young children to express prejudice by discriminating against those they recognize as different.

Sex antagonist. As an early childhood draws to a close, many boys are pressured by male relatives and peers to avoid associating with girls or playing "girls' games". They are also learning that the social group considers males superior to females. However, at this age, boys do not discriminate against girls, but they avoid them and shun activities regarded as girls' activities.

III. Answer in Indonesian.

1. What is meant by negativism ?
2. What replaces physical expression in children ?
3. What is aggression ?
4. How do children usually express their aggressiveness ?
5. What is the difference between quarrelling and aggression ?
6. What is the difference between teasing and bullying ?
7. What is ascendent behavior ?
8. What does the change of egocentrism depend on ?
9. When are the foundations of prejudice laid ?
10. What happens at the end of early childhood ?

IV True / False

1. Negativism begins when a child is 2 years old and ends when he is 3 to 6 years old.
2. Quarrels usually begin when a person attacks another deliberately.
3. The attacker will retaliate the victim.
4. Ascendant behavior can lead to leadership.
5. Young children usually have the tendency to think about themselves.

V. MULTIPLE CHOICE

1. These are regarded as signs of inferiority.
A. considered. B. made C. accepted D. shown
2. They are pressured by their peers.
A. children B. parents C. friends D. rivals
3. Children develop traits that add to their acceptance.
A. friendship B. unselfishness C. characteristics
D. behaviour.
4. They have a good opportunity to progress.
A. prejudice B. pattern C. foundation D. chance
5. The matter in dispute is the child's aggression.
A. transfer B. argument C. expression D. distress
6. Rivalry can act as a spur to children
A. leadership B. motive C. desire D. possession
7. Boasting leads to poor socialization.
A. bad B. cooperative C. friendly D. interesting
8. He wants to comfort his friend.
A. attack B. help C. motivate D. console
9. The little boy tried to establish friendship with his neighbour.
A. reach B. provoke C. start D. express.
10. She shuns activities regarded as "boyish".
A. wants. B. has C. develops D. avoids

CHAPTER XVI

CAUSES OF LACK OF RECOGNITION OF
INDIVIDUALITY

There are six common symbols of self by which children are judged by others. Acceptance of the judgments by others as a basis for self - judgments forms the basis on which children judge their individuality or lack of it. When children feel that these symbols of self lack distinctiveness and, as a result, they will be unnoticed and overlooked by others, it has a damaging effect on their self-concept.

The first symbol of self that contributes to individuality is appearance. Children who are neither attractive nor unattractive, neither tall nor short, fat or thin are likely to go unnoticed. They are so inconspicuous in appearance that they lack individuality.

Second, clothes that are nondescript or that have been worn by an older sibling make children feel that one of the important ways of making others notice them is denied them. Rebellion against wearing hand-me-down clothes from an older sibling and interest in ornamentation and newness as attention-getters show how important children regard clothes as symbols of their individuality.

Third, when children realize the important symbolic roles of names, they begin to feel that they lack individuality when their names are so common that several of their classmates have the same names as they do or when their names are the same as those of the parent of their sex. A girl whose name is the same as her mother's or a boy who is named for his father lacks the feeling of individuality that siblings with their own names have.

Being called by different names by different people likewise causes a child to feel a lack of individuality. Confusion of identity is well expressed in the old rhyme :

Mother calls me William
Auntie calls me Will
Sister calls me Willie
But Dad calls me Bill

Fourth, behavior patterns that conform strictly to social expectations may lead to social approval but, like inconspicuous clothing, they make the child seem nondescript. By contrast, doing something to attract attention, even if it is unfavorable attention, children soon discover, it puts them in the limelight of attention. The pleasure they derive from this attention makes them feel that they are individuals, even though the attention they get may not be favorable.

Fifth, like behavior, speech is a symbol of self. Much of the unconventional speech of children, whether it be slang, swearing, boasting, or derogatory comments, has attention value and gives children a feeling that they are individuals who are noticed and recognized as such.

Sixth, lack of originality or creativity leads to a lack of feeling of individuality. Children discover early in their play that if they make something that is different it attracts attention to them, but if they make something like a model, it goes unnoticed. Even if the attentions their creations attract are unfavourable, it is more satisfying to children than being unnoticed.

I. Answer in Indonesian

1. How many common symbols of self are there, by which children are judged by others?
2. When do they have damaged self concepts?
3. What is the first symbol of self? Give brief explanation!
4. What is the second symbol of self? Give brief explanation!
5. What is the third symbol of self? Give brief explanation!
6. What is the fourth symbol of self? Give brief explanation!
7. What is the fifth symbol of self? Give brief explanation!
8. What is the sixth symbol of self? Give brief explanation!

II. FILL IN

1. The of identity leads to feelings of lack of individuality. ! - overlooked
2. The shy girl tried to make herself as as possible. ! - attention-getters
3. These clothes are clothes. I got them from my older brothers. ! - confusion
4. Her behaviour won social ! - appearance

5. Every body likes to be !
6. I pity him. He is always unnoticed and !- inconspicuous
..... by others. !
7. I am happy in school because all my !- limelight
..... like me. !
8. is one of the factors, if you !- hand-me-down clothes
want to be noticed. !
9. His success puts him in the of !- classmates
attention. !
10. The strange clothes & ornamentation !- recognized
function as|..... !- approval

III. TRUE - FALSE

1. To be recognized, children will try to attract attention.
2. Children who are named after their parents feel prouder.
3. Children like to be nondescript.
4. In order to be noticed, children will not give derogatory comments.
5. Favourable attention is important to children.

IV. PREPOSITION

1. William is named his father.
2. The girl's name is the same my grandmother's .
3. There are some causes lack recognition
..... individuality.
4. My brother is called different names his
classmates.
5. The speech children is also a symbol self.

V. NOTICE

He came here and Jane did too.

Dia datang kemari dan Jane datang juga.

This sentence comes from : He came here.

Jane came here.

Practice :

1. Behaviour is a symbol of self.
Speech is a symbol of self.
2. My friend tried to create a new play.
His brother tried to create a new play.

3. They have made him feel that he is an individual.
You have made him feel that he is an individual.
4. My closest friend has the same name as her mother's.
Her cousin has the same name as her mother's.
5. My neighbour's children lack the feelings of individuality.
The doctor's children lack the feelings of individuality.

NOTICE : Adults are individuals (children)

So are children. Begitu juga anak - anak.

6. The confusion of identity leads to feelings of lack of individuality (common names.)
7. The boy tries to attract attention from the man (the girl).
8. They derive the pleasure from the attention (we).
9. Boasting gives them a great feeling (swearing).
10. The different names confuse Billy (the different attitudes).

VI. NOTICE :

He didn't come here. (Jane).

a) He didn't come here & Jane didn't either.

b) He didn't come here. Neither did Jane.

1. She cannot hide her feelings (her friend).
2. The child went unnoticed (the play).
3. My mother doesn't call me Willie (my auntie).
4. The confusion of identity is well expressed in the song.
(the lack of confidence).
5. They haven't given you anything (we).
6. The orphans were not recognized (the beggar).
7. Social approval is not very important to children (favourable attention).
8. Their behaviour did not attract their parents. (their game).
9. The child in red doesn't seem nondescript (the boy in blue).
10. The children will not be unnoticed and overlooked by others.
(your son).

CHAPTER XVII

BASIC CONSTRUCTION :

SHOULD HAVE
 COULD HAVE
 MIGHT HAVE
 MUST HAVE

+ p.p. (V III) → referring to the past

NOTICE :

X : "Bob did not pass this exam."

Y : "He should have studied harder."

X : He went to the cinema everynight.

Y : He should not have done that.

The meaning of "should have + p.p." is seharusnya
 (tetapi tidak)

"shouldn't have + p.p." is seharusnya tidak
 (tetapi sudah terlanjur)

I. PRACTICE : Using "should have + p.p."

1. James had a accident. (drive more carefully).
2. We were punished by the teacher. (behave better)
3. The child was very confused. (have one name only)
4. He didn't come. (tell us before)
5. He had a headache in class. (stay home)

II. PRACTICE : Using "Should not have + p.p."

1. He hurt his mother. (do that)
2. The child caught a cold this morning. (go out without a coat yesterday)
3. He failed his exam. (be lazy)
4. He lost his book. (put it carelessly)
5. He had an accident. (drive too fast)

NOTICE : They could have played tennis yesterday.

Sebenarnya mereka dapat bermain tennis kemarin,
 (tetapi mereka tidak bermain).

The meaning of "could have + p.p." is "sebenarnya bisa
 (tetapi tidak)".

III. PRACTICE :

Example : She had an appportunity to go with her aunt but

she didn't go.

She could have gone with her aunt.

1. He had an opportunity to borrow the truck from my father, but he didn't borrow.
2. The nurse had an opportunity to have a holiday yesterday, but she didn't take the opportunity.
3. The doctor had an opportunity to shop by phone but she didn't shop by phone.
4. The man had an opportunity to attend the wedding, but he didn't attend the wedding.
5. The football team had the capability to win but it didn't win.

NOTICE : The river is frozen. It must have been very cold last night.

Sungai itu membeku. Tadi malam pasti sangat dingin.

My friend didn't fetch me. I know he is very forgetful.

He must have forgotten.

Temanku tidak menjemputku. Aku tahu dia sangat pelupa.

Dia pasti lupa.

IV. PRACTICE:

Example : Did she hear me ? I conclude that she did.

She must have heard me.

1. Did you steal my watch ? I conclude that you did.
2. Did the adolescent cry when he heard the news ?
I conclude that he did.
3. Were you absent yesterday ? I conclude that you were.
4. Did the book cost much ? I conclude that it did.
5. Was your friend offended ? I conclude that she was.

NOTICE : Why didn't he come ? He might have forgotten.

Mengapa dia tidak datang ? Dia mungkin lupa.

or He might have gone back to his hometown.

atau Dia mungkin sudah kembali ke kotanya.

V. PRACTICE :

Example : Did she read that thick book ? I think it's possible.

She might have read that thick book.

1. Did she live with her cousin ? I think it's possible.
2. Did he forget to post the letter ? I think it's possible.
3. Did she finish the homework ? I think it's possible.
4. Were they sick ? I think it's possible.
5. Did his father attend the college ? I think it's possible.

BASIC CONSTRUCTION

DIDN'T NEED TO ... NEEDN'T HAVE +VIII
--

NOTICE : They didn't need to make it as it was not needed.
 Mereka tidak perlu membuatnya karena itu tidak diperlukan. (Jadi mereka tidak membuat).

They needn't have made it, and they were disappointed when they realized it later.
 Mereka tidak perlu membuatnya, (tapi sudah terlanjur membuat), dan mereka kecewa ketika mereka menyadarinya kemudian.

1. It was not necessary for me to send her a letter as she was going to come here herself.
2. It was not necessary for him to sell his antique things as he won a lottery soon after doing so.
3. It was not necessary for us to buy some lemonade and we were very disappointed when we discovered it later.
4. It was not necessary for you to bring so many clothes, I could have lent you mine.
5. It was not necessary for me to buy the book as our teacher was not going to use it.
6. It was not necessary for them to go to Tawangmangu as they could not swim there.
7. It was not necessary for us to buy more food as our friends were not hungry.
8. It was not necessary for him to do a research as there were already many who did it.
9. It was not necessary for our teacher to give us a test as he knew our capacities already.
10. It was not necessary for us to clean the car as it was very dirty when it was returned.

CHAPTER XIX

ESSENTIALS IN LEARNING MOTOR SKILLSREADINESS TO LEARN

When learning is correlated with readiness to learn, the skill is far superior to that (1) learned with equal time and effort by those (2) maturationally unready to learn.

OPPORTUNITY TO LEARN

Many children are deprived of opportunities to learn motor skills by parents who are afraid they (3) will hurt themselves or by living in an environment which does not provide learning opportunities.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PRACTICE

Children must be given as much time to practice as is needed to master^a skill. However, the quality of the practice is far more important than the quantity. If children practice in a hit-or-miss fashion, poor habits of performance and inefficient movements will develop.

GOOD MODELS

Because imitating a model plays such an important role in learning motor skills, if good skills are to be learned, (4) children must have good models to imitate.

GUIDANCE

Children need guidance if they are to imitate a model correctly. Guidance also helps them (5) to correct errors before they are so well learned that it (6) is difficult to correct them. (7)

MOTIVATION

Motivation to learn is essential to keep interest from lagging. Common sources of motivation to learn motor skills are the personal satisfaction children derive from the activity, the independence and prestige in the peer group motor skills give them, (8) and compensation for feelings of inadequacy in other areas, especially schoolwork.

EACH MOTOR SKILL MUST BE LEARNED INDIVIDUALLY

There is no such thing as a general hand skill or a general

leg skill. Instead each skill must be learned individually because it (9) differs in some respect from every other skill. Holding a spoon, for example, differs from holding a crayon for a drawing.

SKILLS SHOULD BE LEARNED ONE AT A TIME

Trying to learn several motor skills simultaneously, especially if they (10) use the same muscle teams, is confusing to children and results in poor skills and wasted time and effort. After one skill has been mastered, another skill then can be learned without confusion.

I. Read the reading passage carefully and answer these questions.

1. "That" refers to
2. "Those" refers to
3. "They" refers to
4. "Are to be" means
5. "Them" refers to
6. "It" refers to
7. "Them" refers to
8. "Them" refers to
9. "It" refers to
10. "They" refers to

II. Answer the questions in Indonesian.

1. How is the result of learning when it is associated with readiness to learn?
2. How is the result of learning when it is done by children who are not ready to learn?
3. Mention some reasons why children do not have opportunities to learn.
4. How can a children master a skill?
5. How do children develop habits?
6. Why do children need good models?
7. What is the function of guidance?
8. What are the common sources of motivation to learn motor skills?
9. Why must each motor skill be learned individually?
10. What are the reasons that skills should be learned one at a time?

III. Give the complete forms (who/that/which) of the sentences below which are taken from the reading passage.

1. to that learned with equal time and effort by those maturationally unready to learn.
2. the personal satisfaction children derive from the activity.
3. the independence and prestige in the peer group motor skills give them.

IV. NOTICE

- 1) This is done by immature children.
Ini dikerjakan oleh anak-anak yang belum matang.
- 2) He answers by smiling .
Dia menjawab dengan tersenyum.
"BY" yang berarti "dengan" kalau diikuti oleh kata kerja (verb) harus dalam bentuk Verb + -ing.
3. He sat by the window.
Dia duduk dekat jendela.

TRANSLATE

1. By practising often, those children mastered the skill which could not be learned by the other group.
2. I put the toy bought by my child on the table by the door.
3. His problems are caused by the feelings of inadequacy.
4. You can be successful by working hard.
5. The effort done by those educators yielded some important results.

V. MATCHING

1. Their youngest son is of oppor - !- waste
tunity to communicate with other children. !
because they never take him out. !- differs.
2. You are not better than your friends, so it !
is silly to feel to them. !- derive
3. If you teach them too many things at one !
time, you just your time and energy. !- simultaneously
4. The children feel happy doing it because !
they some satisfaction from that !- compensation
activity. !

5. You must not practise it in a !- master
fashion. !
6. His for feelings inferior is !- deprived
not good, because he boasts a lot. !
7. A hand skill from a leg skill, !- hit or miss
so each must be learned separately. !
8. You must practise it many times before !- environment
you can it. !
9. His does not allow him to !- superior
develop his motor skills. !
10. Do not teach your children several !
motor skills !

VI. (TO) BE TO + VERB

NOTICE : 1. He is to go at 7.

Dia harus pergi jam 7.

2. He is not to tell it to his friend.

Dia tidak boleh mengatakan itu pada temannya.

3. They are to be married in December.

Mereka akan menikah pada bulan Desember.

Translate these sentences :

1. You have to teach your children patiently if they are to master the skill.
2. I'm sorry they are to leave now because they have to attend the meeting.
3. The skill is not to be learned now; it is still too difficult for them.
4. The headmaster says you are not to punish that boy.
5. You must work hard if you are to succeed.

CHAPTER XX

VARIATIONS IN ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

Because of differences in aspirations, backgrounds, and many other factors, adolescents have markedly different attitudes toward education. They enter high school or college with either favorable or unfavorable attitudes and they change very little.

Ruthven maintains that there are three kinds of college students, each entering college with a characteristic, long established attitude. The first group he labels "The Noisy Ones" - those who are "determined to be heard. Posing as authorities on almost everything at home and abroad, they insist they should run the university..... . They usually claim to be liberals and boast of disrespect for authority". The second are "The Playboys and Girls" - those who go to college "only on the insistence of their parents or because it is 'the thing to do' and whose ambition is to get nothing more than to get a 'Gentleman's grade' or 'to get married". The third group Ruthven calls "The Dedicated Ones" - those who come to college "with their eyes firmly fixed on at least a general goal. They refuse to be discouraged by adversity or diverted from their course by college sideshows".

In spite of variations in attitudes, adolescents can be subdivided roughly into those who are satisfied with education and those who are dissatisfied. The satisfaction and dissatisfaction with education in varying degrees affects scholastic achievement and adolescent behavior in the academic milieu.

Below are the major factors that influence the adolescent's attitudes toward education in general and toward specific aspects, such as teachers and particular subjects.

1. Cultural values

While most Americans put a very high value on education, some subcultural groups do not, feeling that it will not help them to get ahead.

2. Social class values

In general, attitudes toward education become more favorable as one goes up the socioeconomic ladder.

3. Parental attitudes

Middle class parents, anxious to have their children rise in the world, encourage them to take part in academic and extra-curricular activities. Lower class parents, as a group, show

little interest in education and permit their children to drop out of school if they want to go to work.

4. Ordinal Position

Firstborns, especially in middle-and upper-class families, are likely to receive more encouragement and more educational advantages than later - born siblings.

5. Peer Group Attitudes

Boys tend to develop more favorable attitudes toward education when they recognize its value to their future. Girls' attitudes become less favorable after the high school sophomore year.

6. Sex Roles

Boys, as a group, think of education as preparation for their vocation, and girls as a group, for their home-making and social roles.

7. Vocational Plans

Adolescents who aspire to go into work that requires higher education have a more favorable attitude toward academic and extracurricular activities than those who aspire to do skilled labor.

8. Social and Academic Success

Success or failure in extracurricular activities is more important in determining attitudes toward school than success or failure in academic work.

9. Attitude toward Teachers

Even when an adolescent likes a teacher, his attitude toward school may be unfavorable if he dislikes the subject she teaches, if he does poorly in it, or if he feels it has no practical value for him.

10. Teaching Techniques

In contrast to the glamour and excitement of movies and television, teaching techniques seem boring and classroom work dull.

11. Antiwork Attitude

Adolescents who are used to having help from parents and teachers dislike subjects that require work. They may develop a general dislike for school.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. Why do adolescents not have the same attitude toward Education ?
2. According to Ruthven, how many groups can the college students be divided into?
3. Who belong to "the Noisy Ones" ?
4. Who belong to "The playboys and girls" ?
5. Who belong to "The dedicated Ones" ?
6. We can also subdivide roughly adolescents into two groups. What are they ?
7. How many factors affect attitudes toward Education ?
8. What are those factors ?

II. TRUE / FALSE.

1. The first child of the family usually has more encouragement and education advantages, compared with his younger brothers and sisters.
2. Education for boys is considered important because it will help their homemaking and social roles.
3. A student may dislike the school if he is not good in the subjects taught there.
4. If an adolescent usually gets the help of his parents or his teachers, he will not like the subjects that demand hard working.
5. An adolescent who wants to do skilled labor has a less favourable attitude.
6. After the second year of high school a girl has more favourable attitudes toward education compared to the first year.
7. If an adolescent succeeds in the academic work but fails in the extracurricular activities, his attitude toward the school become more favourable.
8. Even though there are movies and televisions, teaching techniques still seem interesting.
9. Some Americans consider that education is not important for their future.
10. Parents who pay attention to the education of their children usually come from the middle class.

III. FILL IN

1. The of the adolescent will !- insistence

- also determine his attitude toward education. !- authorities !
2. Because of the of their parents , they decided to continue their studies. !- long - established !
3. Because he likes the school, his attitudes toward education is !- discouraged !
4. Nobody likes John because he likes to !
5. They want to run the university because they are used to posing as at home. !- dedicates !
6. I do not know when they will go. They have not it yet. !- background !
7. They refuse to be by any trouble that may turn up. !- fixed !
8. The feeling the adolescent has towards the school his scholastic achievement. !- affects !
9. It is not easy to change a attitude. !- favourable !
10. The professor himself to science. !- boast !

IV. PREPOSITION

1. I cannot understand his attitude his parents.
2. The education is only a preparation his work in the future.
3. The girl does not have any interest mathematics.
4. He does not permit his son to drop school.
5. My father puts a high value what he has done.
6. The excitement movies makes the children lazy to do the homework.
7. That lazy boy is used cheating in class.
8. The adolescent has a dislike the school regulations.
9. It is not easy to go the socioeconomic ladder.
10. His satisfaction the achievement of his son makes him happy.

V. RELATIVE CLAUSE "WHOSE"

The playboys & girls are those whose ambition is to get married.

Playboy dan playgirl adalah mereka yang ambisinya adalah untuk menikah.

Combine the two sentences using "whose"

1. The teachers like the boy.
The boy's attitude toward the school is favourable.
2. For the adolescent, this failure is really a shock.
The adolescent's activities are mostly extracurricular.
3. The girl wants to drop out of school.
The girl's parents show little interest in education.
4. Everybody is offered a good job.
His education is high.
5. Nurses should be admired.
Their work demands a lot of time and energy.

VI. PARTICIPIAL PHRASE

The phrase functions as an adjective, modifying a noun.
The form can be verb + ing or past participle.

Example :

Broken by the storm, the tree fell to the ground.

Feeling very tired, she soon went to sleep.

Give the correct form of the verb and translate the whole sentence.

1. (Tire) by several hours of work, the adolescent went out to relax in the park.
2. (Have) more favourable attitudes, he studies harder.
3. (Interest) in the vocation, they prepared themselves for it.
4. (Permit) to go to the the movies, my younger brothers were excited.
5. (Teach) English in that school, she knows more about the attitudes of adolescents.

CHAPTER XXI

BASIC CONSTRUCTION :

PHRASES

A phrase is a group of words that lack a subject and an acting verb and that functions in a sentence as a single part of speech.

He is a man of wealth. (Group used as adjective)

In a hurry he came in. (Group used as adverb)

He likes to take a long walk. (Group used as noun)

OBJECT

There are 3 classes of phrases : 1) The appositive.
2) The prepositional phrase
3) The verbal phrase.

I. THE APPOSITIVE PHRASE.

An appositive is a word which renames or restates an already identified person, place or thing . If a group of words performs this function, the group is called an appositive phrase.

The president of Indonesia, Suharto, comes from Central Java. (Appositive).

Suharto, the President of Indonesia, comes from Central Java. (Appositive phrase)

The appositive and the appositive phrase always function as NOUNS.

e.g. Only three people left - John, Mary and Dick.

He is my friend, John Smith from New York.

He always quarrels with my neighbour, the one having a repair shop.

The new regulation will put them - Brown, Jones and Clare - into difficulties.

II. THE PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE.

The prepositional phrase is a group of words which consists of PREPOSITION + NOUN / NOUN CLUSTER.

Since the outbreak of war, his character has changed.

A prepositional phrase may be used in another phrase.

There are few compound prepositions, such as :

- as to
- because
- by means of
- from among
- in accordance with
- in regard to
- in respect to
- instead of
- in front of
- on account of
- out of

Because of his strong will, he passed his exam.

We used the black chair instead of the new one.

III. THE VERBAL PHRASE

The verbal phrase is a group of words which is composed of a verbal plus complements or modifiers or both.

A. The gerund phrase (always used a noun, like the gerund)

FORMS : 1) Gerund + prepositional phrase.

Swimming in the sea is fun.

2) Gerund + adverb.

Swimming rapidly is good sport.

3) Adjective + Gerund.

Competitive swimming is good for him.

POSITIONS :

1) Subject

Swimming in the sea is fun

2) Predicate nominative.

My hobby is swimming in the sea.

3) Direct object.

I enjoy swimming in the sea.

4) Object of infinitive

He told his son to learn swimming very slowly.

5) Object of preposition

He recovered by swimming every day.

6) Appositive

He spends 2 hours every day at his sport, swimming in the sea.

B. The participial phrase : (always used as an adjective, like the participle.)

Sleeping soundly, he couldn't hear the bell. (modifies he)

The tree, broken by the thunder, fell. (modifies the tree)

I save my money, having determined to study abroad.

(Modifies "I")

The particular type of participle phrase is the ABSOLUTE phrase.

It is made up of a noun and a participial modifier. The whole functions as a unit and is an independent element in the sentence.

The sun having set, we decided to go home.

NOUN PARTICIPLE

ABSOLUTE PHRASE

The old woman, her son being in the army, has moved.

NOUN PARTICIPLE

ABSOLUTE PHRASE

John went by train, the plane having been delayed by the fog

NOUN PARTICIPLE

ABSOLUTE PHRASE

C. The infinitive phrase : (just like an infinitive, it is used as a noun, an adjective or an adverb)

FORMS : - Infinitive plus adverb.

To swim well is necessary.

- Infinitive plus prepositional phrase.

To swim in the sea is fun

- Infinitive plus noun as object.

To read the book is easy.

POSITION AS A NOUN :

1. Subject

To swim well is fun.

2. Predicate nominative

My hobby is to swim in the sea.

3. Direct object

I like to swim regularly.

4. Object of infinitive

I begin to like to swim every morning.

5. Object of preposition.

I don't want to do anything but to swim in the sea.

6. Appositive.

Finally I achieved my ambition, to swim well.

7. Subject after "it".

It is impossible for him to swim in the river.

AS AN ADJECTIVE :

My ambition to swim well was finally achieved.

It is time to practise.

AS AN ADVERB :

I am ready to leave early. (modifying an adjective)

He was unable to swim well. (modifying an adjective)

They studied hard to pass the exam. (modifying a verb)

The boy ran fast to arrest the thief. (modifying a verb)

He was driving too fast to stop suddenly. (modifying an adverb)

EXERCISES.

Underline each phrase in these sentences and identify it as :

- prepositional phrase
- appositive phrase
- gerund phrase
- infinitive phrase or,
- absolute phrase.

1. A man ran across the street to meet the girl.
2. Planting orchids needs a lot of skills.
3. I will hire some painters to paint the house.
4. The meeting scheduled for next week has been postponed.
5. Mr. Smith, the father of the twins, will be the speaker.
6. A man carrying a big basket entered his house.
7. The house was empty, everybody having gone for a holiday.
8. George Washington, the first hero of America, is famous all over the world.
9. Waiting patiently under the tree stood a tall boy.
10. People visiting the island admire the panorama.
11. By hard work, he finally achieved his ambition, being the best student in class.
12. Called the Island of gods, Bali attracts thousands of tourists annually.
13. The decision having been drawn, we closed the meeting.

14. The teacher tried to read the passage slowly, stressing every important word.
15. Knowing the truth about that matter, I am not confused any more.
16. Driving to the north, you will arrive at your destination.
17. Time permitting, the manager stopped at the cafeteria.
18. In Jakarta, many modern buildings stand, contrasting sharply with the bamboo huts.
19. To mention all names will be impossible.
20. There is no need to explain the beauty of its scenes.

CHAPTER XXII

THE FIRST FOUR MINUTES

When do people decide whether or not they want to become friends? During their first four minutes together, according to a book by Dr. Leonard Zunin. In his book : Contact : The First Four Minutes, he offers this advice to anyone interested in starting new friendships : "Every time you meet someone in a social situation, give him your undivided attention for four minutes. A lot of people's whole lives would change if they did just that."

You may have noticed that the average person does not give his undivided attention to someone he has just met. He keeps looking over the other person's shoulder, as if hoping to find someone more interesting in another part of the room. If anyone has ever done this to you, you probably did not like him very much.

When we are introduced to new people, the author suggests, we should try to appear friendly and self-confident. In general, he says : "People like people who like themselves."

On the other hand, we should not make the other person think we are too sure of ourselves. It is important to appear interested and sympathetic, realizing that the person has his own needs, fears, and hopes.

Hearing such advice, one might say : "But I'm not a friendly, self-confident person. That's not my nature. It would be dishonest for me to act that way."

In reply, Dr. Zunin would claim that a little practice can help us feel comfortable about changing our social habits. We can become accustomed to any changes we choose to make in our personality. "It's like getting used to a new car. It may be unfamiliar at first, but it goes much better than the old one."

But isn't it dishonest to give the appearance of friendly self-confidence when we don't actually feel that way? Perhaps, but according to Dr. Zunin, "total honesty" is not always good for social relationships, especially during the first few minutes of contact. There is a time for everything, and a certain amount of play-acting may be best for the first minutes of contact with a stranger. That is not the time to complain about one's health or to mention faults one finds in other people. It is not the time to tell the whole truth about one's opinions and impressions.

Much of what has been said about stranger also applies to relationships with family members and friends. For a husband and wife or a parent and child, problems often arise during their first four minutes together after they have been apart. Dr. Zunin suggests that these first few minutes together be treated with care. If there are unpleasant matters to be discussed, they should be dealt with later.

The author declares that interpersonal relations should be taught as a required course in every school, along with reading, writing, and mathematics. In his opinion, success in life depends mainly on how we get along with other people. That is at least as important as how much we know.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. According to Dr. Leonard Zunin, when do people decide whether they want to be friends or not?
2. What must we keep in mind when we want to start new friendships?
3. What is the impression we get if somebody keeps looking over your shoulder while speaking to you?
4. How should you appear if somebody introduces us to new people?
5. What should a person who is not friendly and self-confident do?
6. Is "total honesty" good?
7. What should not we do during the first minutes of contact?
8. What is the importance of the first 4 minutes in the family life?
9. In the opinion of Dr. Leonard Zunin, how can we achieve success?
10. Do you think Indonesian students know about interpersonal relations? Why?

II. CHANGE THE PART OF SPEECH.

A. VERB	-	NOUN	B. ADJECTIVE	-	NOUN
1. Advise	-	1. dishonest	-
2. practise	-	2. comfortable	-
3. appear	-	3. interesting	-
4. impress	-	4. sympathetic	-
5. introduce	-	5. healthy	-

6. depend - 6. familiar -

II. TRUE / FALSE.

1. It is good if we appear too sure of ourselves.
2. Many people understand the importance of the first four minutes.
3. We can say that most people always give their divided attention in their first minutes of contact with somebody else.
4. If we like ourselves, other people will like us too, but if we don't like ourselves, other people will not like us.
5. We should not talk about unpleasant things in the first minutes of contact.

IV. FILL IN.

1. His makes her very happy, ! on the other hand
when she is with him. !
2. the doctor, he should be taken ! treated with
to the hospital !
3. Don't talk about it now. We will ! deal with
it later. !
4. He likes her very much,, his ! required course
brother hates her so. !
5. Don't be too honest. We need a lot of ! whole truth
..... in this matter. !
6. This subject should be given as a ! according to
..... in every school. !
7. The does not really care that ! undivided attention
smoking is very dangerous. !
8. People wanted to know the ! in reply
about the Watergate affair. !
9. He did not say anything. He just gave ! average person
me this to your letter. !
10. The first minutes should be care ! play acting.

CHAPTER XIII

PINNING AND ENGAGEMENT

Because of three very common factors, pinning and engagement are more likely to bring adolescents disillusionment and unhappiness than you prepare them (1) for a successful marriage. These (2) factors are romanticism, role playing, and sexual intimacies.

Romanticism, or the propensity to see the loved one and the marital state in idealized terms, has been heightened in the American culture by the influence of mass media of communication. Girls tend to fall victim to this romantic complex about courtship, and marriage more than boys. And because of their (3) greater romanticism, girls are likely to face greater disillusionment and disappointment when they make the transition from engagement to marriage. As one young bride said, "It is a step from the bridal veil to the garbage pail."

Romanticism accounts, in part, for the alarming increase in disillusionment and divorce among those (4) who marry early. Hobart has stated: Such prevalent disillusionment suggests the existence of important unrealism generating influences in the courtship process. The widespread emphasis on romanticism in the American culture- the so called romantic cult-which appears to be particularly associated with advanced courtship may in effect be preparing engaged couples for inevitable disillusionment in marriage.

Role playing during the pinning and engagement periods, or an attempt to behave in a manner considered appropriate for one's sex, is the second factor that makes the achievement of adult heterosexuality difficult. Adolescents become familiar with the stereotypes or the "perfect" wife and the "perfect" husband through the mass media. They then expect the person they (5) marry to conform to them (6). To fulfill the stereotype of the perfect lover, the adolescent boy may write romantic love letter to his (7) girl, bring her gifts, and try to satisfy her every wish. The girl, in turn, plays a role preparing special foods when her boy friend comes to her home for a meal and purring over every baby she (8) sees.

Once the engagement has been announced and the date for the wedding set, posing and role playing usually decrease and

the characteristic behavior and personalities of the individuals usually emerge. If romantic role playing were permanent, it would not endanger a marriage. But as it is generally only temporary, it is often a source of disillusionment. It (9) can jeopardize a marriage at any way.

I Answer in Indonesian.

1. What factors are more likely to make adolescents unhappy in their marriages ?
2. What is meant by "romanticism" ?
3. What makes romanticism popular in the American culture ?
4. Who are the victims of Romanticism, girls or boys ?
5. How different is an engagement from a marriage, as said by one young bride ?
6. How does the romantic cult make engaged couples disappointed ?
7. What is meant by "Role playing" ?
8. How do boys and girls usually play a role ?
9. When do posing and role playing usually stop ?
10. Is it good to go on playing a role after someone has married ?

II. Multiple Choice

1. It is not good to make the little girls
A. crying B. to cry C. has cried D. cry
2. Her on romanticism made her unhappy.
A. emphasize B. empasis C. emphasized D. emphasizes
3. The courtship made them understand each other more.
A. advanced B. advancing C. advance D. advances
4. I do not know the factor such a great influence.
A. geneate B. generating C. generated D. generates
5. The anger has been by the gossip in mass media.
A. heighten B. heightening C. heightened D. heightens

III. Matching

1. The from engagement to marriage !- conform is usually difficult.
2. The wrong decision this crisis. !- prevalent

3. That kind of behaviour is not !- decrease
4. He is a liar. He has a to tell!- accounts for
lies to every body. !- jeopardize
5. Jane & Bob often quarrel after a !- increase
year's so I think they are !
not going to be husband and wife. !- transition
6. Is malaria still in that !
country ? !- disillusionment
7. The manager will our salaries !
next month. !- permanent
8. I didn't want to face this problem. !
But the problem seemed, so !- inevitable
I had to face it. !
9. Every citizen must to the laws!- appropriate
10. Food, drinks, clothes & houses !
our needs. !- satisfy
11. Your hunger will as you eat. !
12. It was his position, not his !- propensity
temporary one. !
13. The atom bombs will surely our !- endanger
lives, so we must be careful. !
14. Tell him that his enemy is going to !- courtship
put him in
15. They had thought that the job was !
easy, they soon realized they were wrong!
This made them very ashamed. !

IV. Preposition

1. Without realizing it, he fell victim her sweet
words.
2. There are school rules & we must conform them.
3. The director gave emphasis the importance of the new
system.
4. His laziness accounts his failure.
5. His achievement maturity surprised everybody.
6. I didn't know the date the wedding.
7. He gave her some flowers & she, turn, bought him
some handkerchiefs.

8. Your problem,..... part, is caused by misunderstanding.

V. Pronoun

There are some pronouns in the reading passage. What do they refer to?

- 1) THEM ¹⁾ refers to : a) pinning and angagement
b) adolescents
c) factors
- 2) THESE ²⁾ refers to : a) factors which bring a successful marriage
b) factors which make adolescent like disillusionment & unhappiness
c) factors which bring adolescents disillusionment & unhappiness.
- 3) THEIR ³⁾ refers to : a) the boys' and girls'
b) the girls'
c) the marriages'
- 4) THOSE ⁴⁾ refers to : a) people
b) disillusionment & divorce
c) romanticisms
- 5) THEY ⁵⁾ refers to : a) stereotypes
b) wife and husband
c) adolescents
- 6) THEM ⁶⁾ refers to : a) people
b) adolescents
c) stereotypes
- 7) HIS ⁷⁾ refers to : a) the male lover's
b) any boy's
c) the husband's
- 8) SHE ⁸⁾ refers to : a) the female baby
b) the female lover
c) the wife
- 9) IT ⁹⁾ refers to : a) romanticism
b) role playing
c) sexual intimacies

VI. Passive Voice

Active : The influence of mass media has heightened
HAVE/HAS PAST PARTICIPLE
 romanticism.

Pengaruh mass media telah meningkatkan romantisme.

Passive : Romanticism has been heightened by the influence
HAVE/HAS BEEN+PAST PARTICIPLE
 of mass media.

Romantisme telah ditingkatkan oleh pengaruh
 mass media.

Give the correct form and change the voice :

1. The lovers have (write) romantic love letters to her.
2. She has (see) the marital state in idealized terms.
3. They have (make) the achievement of adult heterosexuality difficult.
4. The boy has (expect) me to conform to the stereotype.
5. The girls have (face) greater disillusionment & disappointment.

CHAPTER XXIV

LEARNING METHODS INVOLVED IN EMOTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Trial-and-error learning

Trial-and-error learning involves mainly the response aspect of the emotional pattern. Children learn in a trial-and-error way to express their emotions in forms of behaviour that give them the greatest satisfaction and to abandon those that give little or no satisfaction. This form of learning is commonly used in early childhood than later, but it is never completely abandoned.

Learning by imitation

Learning by imitation affects both the stimulus and the response aspects of the emotional pattern. From observing the things that arouse certain emotions in others, children react with similar emotions and in methods of expression similar to those of the person or persons observed. A disruptive child, for example, may become angry at a teacher's rebuke. If the child is popular with age-mates, they are likely to become angry at the teacher also.

Learning by identification

Learning by identification is similar to learning by imitation in that children copy the emotional reactions of another person and are emotionally aroused by a stimulus similar to that which arouses the emotion in the person imitated. It differs from imitation in two ways: first, children imitate only those they admire and have strong emotional attachments for; second, the motivation to copy the admired person is stronger than the motivation just to imitate anyone.

Conditioning

Conditioning means learning by association. In conditioning, objects and situations which, at first, fail to call forth emotional reactions come to do so later as a result of association. Conditioning is related to the stimulus aspect of the emotional pattern, not to the reaction it calls forth. Note the important role played by association. In time, emotions learned by conditioning may spread to objects and situations

that are similar to the one the child was conditioned to respond to emotionally. Conditioning occurs easily and quickly during the early years of life because young children lack both the reasoning ability and the experience to assess a situation critically and to recognize how irrational many of their emotional responses are. After early childhood, conditioning is increasingly limited to the development of likes and dislikes.

Training.

Training or learning under guidance and supervision, is limited to the response aspect of the emotional pattern. Children are taught the approved way of responding when a particular emotion is aroused. Through training children are stimulated to respond to stimuli that normally give rise to pleasant emotions and discouraged from responding emotionally to stimuli that give rise to the unpleasant emotions. This is done by control over the environment whenever possible.

I. Answer in Indonesian.

1. How do children learn to express their emotion ?
2. When is trial-and-error learning more frequently practised ?
3. What aspects are involved in learning by imitation ?
4. How do children learn by imitation ?
5. What is the similarity between learning by identification and learning by imitation ?
6. What are the differences between learning by identification and learning by imitation ?
7. What is conditioning related to ?
8. How does conditioning develop after early childhood ?
9. What is meant by training ?
10. What is the aim of training ?

II. TRUE / FALSE

1. Children do not use trial-and-error learning after some years of their lives.
2. A child usually imitates a person he admires or a popular friend.
3. Reasoning ability & experiences make young children easy to practise conditioning.
4. The response of the emotional pattern does not have anything

to do with trial - and - error learning.

5. We can say that there are three kinds of learning methods, i.e. Trial - and - error learning; learning by imitation; and learning by identification.

III. FILL IN

1. The word "that" is usually translated into
a) b) c)
2. The word "those" in "to abandon those that give little or no satisfaction" refers to
3. The word "those" in "similar to those of the person or persons observed" refers to
4. The word "those" in "imitate only those they admire and have strong emotional attachments for" refers to
5. The word "one" in "similar to the one the child was conditioned to respond to emotionally" refers to
6. The word "they" in "they are likely to become angry at the teacher also" refers to
7. The word "that" in "similar to that which arouses the emotion in the person imitated" refers to
8. The word "it" in "not to the reaction it calls forth" refers to

IV. MATCHING

1. I like to watch children because they certain emotions I enjoy. !- rebuke !
2. They will never that form of learning, although they will not use it very often anymore. !- lack !- discourage !
3. His made him angry. !
4. He has not found a way which can give him great !- arouse !
5. "Stimulus" is singular, while "....." is plural. !- stimuli !
6. He was not accepted because of his of experiences. !- occurred !
7. I don't like them. They like to gossips. !- satisfaction !
8. The processes easily and !

- quickly. ! - approved
9. Children must be taught the ! - abandon
way. !
10. She cannot make any progress because her ! - spread
parents always her so that !
she never dares to take a step forward. !

V. PREPOSITION

1. Your problem is similar John's mother's.
2. That can be learned imitation.
3. You need to learn guidance because you are
not experienced yet.
4. I think he is angry my words last time.
5. Those systems differ these ways.

VI. Change the voice (from Active to Passive and from Passive to Active).

1. Learning by imitation affects both the stimulus and the
response aspects of the emotional pattern.
2. Children are taught the approved way of responding when
a particular emotion is aroused.
3. Children abandon those that give little or no satisfaction.
4. Those things can arouse certain emotions in other people.
5. Through training children are stimulated to respond to
stimuli that normally give rise to pleasant emotions and
discouraged from responding emotionally to stimuli that
give rise to the unpleasant emotions.

A P P E N D I X

The first thousand word list

1. about /ə'baʊt/
2. add, -ed /æd, ɪd/
3. an address /ən ə'dres/
4. an afternoon /ən ɑ:ftənə:n/
5. again /ə'geɪn/
6. ago /ə'ɡəʊ/
7. air /eə/
8. almost /ɔ:lmoʊst/
9. alone /ə'ləʊn/
10. also /'ɔ:lsoʊ/
11. always /'ɔ:lweɪz/
12. angry /'æŋɡrɪ/
13. angrily /'æŋɡrɪli/
14. an animal /ən 'ænɪməl/
15. answer, -ed /'ɑ:nsə, d/
16. an answer /ən 'ɑ:nsə/
17. an arm /ən ɑ:m/
18. an army /ən 'ɑ:mɪ/
19. ask, -ed /ɑ:sk, t/
20. an aunt /ən ɑ:nt/
21. awake /ə'weɪk/
22. away /ə'weɪ/
23. a baby /ə'beɪbi/
24. the back of /ðə bæk ɒv/
25. back /bæk/
26. bad, badly /bəd, 'bædli/
27. a bag /ə bæg/
28. a ball /bɔ:l/
29. a banana /ə bə'nɑ:nə/
30. a bank /ə bæŋk/
31. a basket /ə 'bɑ:skɪt/
32. a bath /ə bɑ:θ/
33. to take /tu teɪk/
34. beautiful /'bjʊ:tɪfʊl/
35. beautifully /'bjʊ:tɪfʊli/
36. become, became /bi'kʌm, bi'keɪm/
37. become /bi'kʌm/
38. a bed /ə bed/
39. begin, began /bi'ɡɪn, bi'ɡɛn/
40. begun /bi'ɡʌn/
41. the beginning /ðə bi'ɡɪnɪŋ/
42. believe, -d /bi'li:v, d/
43. a bell /ə bel/
44. the best /ðə best/
45. better /'betə/
46. a bicycle /ə 'baɪsɪkl/
47. big /bɪɡ/
48. a bird /ə bɜ:d/
49. black /blæk/
50. a blanket /ə 'blæŋkɪt/
51. blue /blu:/
52. a body /ə 'bɒdi/
53. a book /ə bu:k/
54. a bottle /ə 'bɒtl/
55. the bottom /ðə bɒtəm/
56. a box /ə bɒks/
57. a boy /ə bɔɪ/
58. bread /bred/
59. break, broke, broken /breɪk, brəʊk, 'brəʊkən/
60. a bridge /ə brɪdʒ/
61. bring, brought /brɪŋ, brɔ:t/
62. a brother /ə 'brʌðə/
63. brown /braʊn/
64. brush, -ed /brʊʃ, t/
65. a bucket /ə 'bʌkɪt/
66. build, built /bɪld, t/
67. buy, bought /baɪ, bɔ:t/
68. call, -ed /kɔ:l, d/
69. a camera /ə 'kæmərə/
70. a car /ə kɑ:/
71. carry, carried /'kæri, 'kærid/
72. a cat /ə kæt/
73. catch, caught /kætʃ, kɔ:t/
74. cause, -d /kɔ:z, d/
75. a cause
76. a chair /ə tʃeə/
77. cheap /tʃi:p/
78. a chicken /ə 'tʃɪkən/
79. a child /ə tʃaɪld/
80. children /'tʃɪldrən/
81. a cigarette /ə sɪɡə'ret/
82. a city /ə 'sɪti/
83. a class /ə klɑ:s/
84. clean, -ed /kli:n, d/
85. climb, ed /klaɪm, d/
86. a clock /ə klɒk/
87. o'clock /ə'klɒk/

79. close, d /klouz,d/
80. clothes /klou'z/
81. a cloud /ə klaud/
82. a coat /ə kout/
83. coffee /'kɒfi/
84. cold /kould/
85. (a) colour /(ə) 'kʌlə /
86. come, came, come /kʌm, keim/
87. continue, d /kən'tinju:, d/
88. cook, ed /kuk, t/
 a cook / kuk/
89. cost, cost /kɔ:st/
90. a country /ə 'kʌntri/
91. (the) country /ðə 'kʌntri/
92. a course /ə kɔ:s/
93. cover, -ed /'kʌvə, d/
94. a cow /ə kau/
95. cry, cried /krai, kraid/
96. a cup /ə kʌp/
97. a cupboard /ə 'kʌbəd/
98. a curtain /ə 'kɜ:tn/
99. cut, cut /kʌt/
100. dark /da:k/
101. a date /ə deit/
102. a daughter /ə 'dɔ:tə /
103. a day /ə dei/
104. deep /di:p/
105. a desk /ə desk/
106. die, died /dai, daid/
107. different /'difrnt/
108. difficult /'difikəlt/
109. dirty /'dɜ:ti/
110. a dish /ə diʃ/
111. do, does, did, done /du, dʌz, did, dʌn/
112. a doctor /ə 'dɒktə /
113. a dog /ə dɒg/
114. a door /ə dɔ:/
115. down /daun/
116. draw, drew, drawn /drɔ:, dru:, drɔ:n/
 a drawing /ə 'drɔ:ɪŋ/
117. dress, ed /dres, t/
 a dress /ə dres/
118. drink, drank, drunk /drɪŋk, drʌŋk, drʌŋk/
119. drop, dropped /drɒp, t/
120. dry, dried /drai, draid/
121. an ear /ən iə /
122. early /'ɜ:li/
123. easy /'i:zi/
124. eat, ate, eaten /i:t; et; i:tn/
125. an egg /ən eg/
126. an elephant /ən 'eləfənt/
127. empty /'empti/
128. the end of /ði end əv/
129. enough /i'nʌf/
130. (an) evening /ən 'i:vnɪŋ/
131. expensive /ɪks'pensɪv/
132. an eye /ən ai/
133. a face /ə feɪs/
134. fall, fell, fallen /fɔ:l, fel, 'fɔ:lən/
135. a family /ə 'fæmili/
136. far, farther /fɑ:, fɑ:ðə /
137. fat /fæt/
138. a father /ə 'fɑ:ðə /
139. fear, ed /fiə, d/
140. feel, felt /fi:l, felt/
 a fooling /ə 'fi:lɪŋ/
141. a field /ə fi:ld/
142. fight, fought /fait, fɔ:t/
143. a fight /ə fait/
144. fill, ed /fil, d/
145. a film / film/
146. find, found /faɪnd, faʊnd/
147. (a) fire / (ə) fai /
148. a fish, fish or fishes /fɪʃ, 'fɪʃɪs/
149. a flag /ə flæɡ/
150. a floor /ə flɔ:/
151. a flower /ə 'flaʊə /
152. a fly /ə flai/
153. fly, flew, flown /flai, flu:, fləʊn/
154. follow, -ed /'fɒləʊ, d/
155. food /fu:d/
156. a foot, feet (pl) /fut, fi:t/
157. force, -d /fɔ:s, t/
 a force /ə fɔ:s/
158. a friend /ə frend/
159. the front (of) /ðə frʌnt əv/
160. (a) fruit /ə frut/
161. full (of) /ful əv/
162. funny /'fʌni/
163. a garden /ə 'gɑ:dn/

- 164. get, got /get, gɒt/
- 165. get up, got up /get ʌp, gɒt ʌp/
- 166. a girl /ə gɜ:l/
- 167. give, gave, given /giv, geiv, 'gɪvn/
- 168. (a) glass /glɑ:s/
- 169. go, goes, went, gone /gou, gouz, went, gɒn/
- 170. God, a god /gɒd/
- 171. good /gud/
- 172. (a) government /ə 'gʌvnmənt/
- 173. grass /grɑ:s/
- 174. great /greit/
- 175. green /gri:n/
- 176. grey /grei/
- 177. hair /heə /
- 178. a half, halves (pl) /hɑ:f, hɑ:vs/
- 179. a hand /ə hænd/
- 180. happen, -ed /'hæpən, d/
- 181. happy, unhappy /'hæpi, ʌn'hæpi/
- 182. hard (adj) /hɑ:d/
- 183. hard (adj) /hɑ:d/
- 184. a hat /ə hæʔ/
- 185. have, has, had /hæv, hæz, hæd/
- 186. a head /ə hed/
- 187. hear, heard /hiə/hə:d/
- 188. heavy /'hevi/
- 189. help, -ed /help/-t/
- 190. help (n) /help/
- 191. here /hiə /
- 192. high /hai /
- 193. hit, hit /hit/
- 194. hold, held /hould, held/
- 195. a hole /ə 'houl/
- 196. hope, -d /houp, t/
- 197. a horse /ə hɔ:s/
- 198. a hospital /ə 'hɒspɪtl/
- 199. hot /hɒt/
- 200. a hotel /ə hou'tel/
- 201. an hour /ən 'aʊə /
- 202. a house /ə haʊs/
- 203. hungry /'hʌŋgri/
- 204. hurt, hurt /hɜ:t/
- 205. husband /ə 'hʌzbənd/
- 206. ice /ais/
- 207. an idea /ən ai'diə /
- 208. ill /il/
- 209. important /im'pɔ:tənt/
- 209. ink /ɪŋk/
- 210. interesting /'ɪntrɪstɪŋ, 'ɪntərəstɪŋ/
- 211. an island /ən 'aɪlənd/
- 212. jump, -ed /dʒʌmp, t/
- 213. keep, kept /ki:p, kept/
- 214. a key /ə ki:/
- 215. kick, -ed /kɪk, -t/
- 216. kill, -ed /kɪl, d/
- 217. kind /kaɪnd/
- 218. unkind /ʌn -kaɪnd/
- 219. a king /ə kɪŋ/
- 220. a kitchen /ə 'kɪtʃɪn/
- 221. a knife /ə naɪf/
- 222. knives (pl) /naɪvz/
- 223. know, knew, /nou, nju:/
- 224. know /noun/
- 225. land /lənd/
- 226. large /lɑ:dʒ /
- 227. last /lɑ:st/
- 228. late /leɪt/
- 229. laugh, -ed /lɑ:f/-t/
- 230. a lavatory /ə 'lævətəri/
- 231. a law /ə lɔ: /
- 232. a leaf /ə li:f/
- 233. leaves (pl) /li:vz/
- 234. learn, learnt /lɜ:n, lɜ:nt/
- 235. or learned /lɜ:nd/
- 236. leave, left /li:v, left/
- 237. a leg /ə leg/
- 238. let, let /let/
- 239. a letter /ə 'letə /
- 240. lie, lay /lai, lei/
- 241. lain /leɪn/
- 242. a life /ə laɪf/
- 243. lives (pl) /laɪvz/
- 244. (a) light /ə laɪt/
- 245. like (adj) /laɪk/
- 246. like, -d /laɪk, t/
- 247. a line /ə laɪn/
- 248. a lion /ə 'laɪən/
- 249. listen (to) /'lɪsn tu/
- 250. listened (to) /'lɪsɪnd tu/
- 251. live, -d /lɪv, d/
- 252. long /lɒŋ/
- 253. look, -ed /lʊk, t/

246. look at /luk ʌt/
247. look for /luk fɔː/
248. love, -d /lʌv, d/
249. low /lou/
250. a magazine /ə, mægə'zi:n/
251. make, made /meik, meid/
252. a man, men (pl) /mæn, men/
253. mark, -ed /mɑ:k, t/
a mark /ə mɑ:k/
254. marry, married /'mæri, 'mærid/
255. a mat /ə mæt/
256. a match, -es /ə mætʃ, -ɪz/
257. mean, meant /mi:n, ment/
a meaning /mi:nɪŋ/
258. meat /mi:t/
259. meet, met /mi:t, met/
260. the middle (of) /'mɪdl ɔv/
261. milk /mɪlk/
262. a minute /ə 'mɪnɪt/
263. Miss /mɪs/
264. a mistake /ə mɪs'teɪk/
265. money /'mʌni/
266. a month /ə mʌnθ/
267. the moon /mu:n/
268. (a) morning /ə 'mɔːnɪŋ/
269. a mosque /ə mɒsk/
270. a mother /ə 'mʌðə/
271. a mountain /ə 'maʊntɪn/
272. a mouth /a maʊθ/
273. move, -d /mu:v, d/
274. Mr /'mɪstə/
275. Mrs /'mɪsɪz/
276. a name /ə neɪm/
277. national /'næʃənəl/
278. need, -ed /ni:d, ɪd/
a need /ə ni:d/
279. never /'nevə/
280. new /njuː/
281. a newspaper /ə 'njuːspəpə/
282. next /nekst/
283. (a) night /ə naɪt/
284. a nose /ə nouz/
285. now /nau/
286. a number /'nʌmbə/
287. a nurse /ə nɜːs/
288. an office /ən 'ɒfɪs/
289. often /'ɒ(ː)fn/
290. oil /ɔɪl/
291. old /ould/
292. once /wʌns/
293. only /'əʊnli/
294. open, -ed /'əʊpən/d/
open (adj) /'əʊpən/
295. an orange /ən 'rɪndʒ/
296. the outside of /ði 'aʊt'saɪd ɔv/
outside /'aʊt'saɪd/
297. a page /ə peɪdʒ/
298. paint, -ed /peɪnt, ɪd/
paint (n) /peɪnt/
299. paper /'peɪpə/
300. a parcel /ə 'pɑːsl/
301. (a) part (of) /ə pɑːt ɔv/
302. a party /ə 'pɑːti/
303. pass, -ed /pɑːs, t/
304. pay, paid /peɪ, peɪd/
305. a pen /ə pen/
306. a pencil /ə 'pensl/
307. perhaps /pə'hæps/
308. a person, -s (pl) /ə 'pɜːsn/, z/
309. people /'piːpl/
310. a piece (of) / piːs v/
311. a pillow /ə 'pɪləʊ/
312. a place /ə pleɪs/
313. a picture /ə 'pɪktʃə/
314. plan, -ned /plæn, d/
a plan /ə plæn/
315. plant, -ed /plɑːnt, ɪd/
316. a plate /ə pleɪt/
317. play, -ed /pleɪ, d/
play (n) /pleɪ/
318. a pocket /ə 'pɒkɪt/
319. point, -ed /pɔɪnt, ɪd/
320. a point /ə pɔɪnt/
321. policeman /pə'liːsmən/
policemen or /pə'liːsmən/
police /pə'liːs/
322. poor /puə/
323. possible /'pɒsɪbl/
impossible /ɪm'pɒsɪbl/
324. post, -ed /pəʊst, ɪd/
325. a pot /ə pɒt/

326. power /'paʊə /
327. a present /ə 'prezənt/ /pri'zent/ (v) run /rʌn/
328. present (adj) /'prezənt/
329. a president /ə 'prezɪdənt/
330. a price /ə praɪs/
331. produce, -d /'prɒdju:s/t/
332. public /'pʌblɪk/
333. pull, -ed /pʊl, -d/
334. a pupil /ə 'pju:pl/
335. push, -ed /puʃ, t/
336. put, put /put/
337. a quarter (of) /ə 'kwɔ:tə əv/
338. a question /ə 'kwestʃən/
339. quick /kwɪk/
 quickly /kwɪkli/
340. quite /kwaɪt/
341. (a) radio /ə 'reɪdiəʊ/
342. rain, -ed /reɪn, d/
343. rainy /'reɪni/
344. a rat /ə ræt/
345. reach, -ed /ri:tʃ, t/
346. read, read /ri:d, red/
347. real /riəl/
 really /riəli/
348. red /red/
349. remember /ri'membə/
350. rest, -ed /rest, ɪd/
 a rest /ə rest/
351. a result /ə 'ri:zʌlt/
352. rice /raɪs/
353. rich /rɪtʃ /
354. ride, rode, /raɪd, raʊd/
 ridden /'rɪdn/
355. right /raɪt/
356. the right /ðə raɪt/
 right /raɪt/
357. ring, rang /rɪŋ, rɒŋ, /
 rung /rʌŋ/
358. a river /ə 'rɪvə /
359. a road /ə raʊd/
360. roof, roofs (pl) /ru:f, s/
361. a room /ə ru:m/
362. a rope /ə raʊp/
363. round /raʊnd/
364. rubber /'rʌbə /
365. a ruler /ə 'ru:lə /
366. run, ran /rʌn, rʌn/
367. salt /sɔ:lt/
368. say, said /seɪ, sed/
369. a school /ə sku:l/
370. scissors /'sɪzəz/
371. (a) sea /ə si:/
372. a seat /ə si:t/
373. second /'sekənd/
374. sell, sold /sel, sould/
375. send, sent /send, sent/
376. a servant /ə 'sɜ:vənt/
377. a sheet /ə ʃi:t/
378. shine, shone /ʃaɪn, ʃɒn/
379. a shirt /ə ʃɜ:t/
380. a shoe /ə ʃu:/
381. a shop /ə ʃɒp/
382. short /ʃɔ:t/
383. shout, -ed /ʃaʊt, ɪd/
384. show, -ed /ʃəʊ, d/
385. a side /ə saɪd/
386. sing, sang /sɪŋ, sɒŋ /
 sung /sʌŋ/
387. Sir /sɜ:/ /
388. a sister /ə 'sɪstə /
389. sit, sat /sɪt, sɛt/
390. a size /ə saɪz/
391. small /smɔ:l/
392. the sky /ðə skai/
393. sleep, slept /sli:p, slept/
394. slow /sləʊ/
 slowly /sləʊli/
395. smile, -d /smaɪl, d/
 a smile / smaɪl/
396. smoke, -d /sməʊk, t/
 smoke (n) /sməʊk/
397. a soldier /ə 'səʊldɪə/
398. a son /ə sʌn/
399. soon /su:n/
400. a sound /ə saʊnd/
401. speak, spoke /spi:k, spəʊk/
 spoken /spəʊkn/
402. a spoon /ə spu:n/
403. stairs (pl. only) /steɪə /
404. a stamp /ə stæmp/
405. stand, stood /stænd, stʊd/

406. a star /ə sta:t/
407. start, -ed /stɑ:t, id/
408. a station /ə 'steɪʃn/
409. stay, -ed /steɪ, d/
410. a stick /ə stɪk/
411. still /stɪl/
412. (a) stone /ə stəʊn/
413. stop, -ped /stɒp, t/
414. a story /ə 'stɔ:ri/
415. a stove /ə stəʊv/
416. a street /ə stri:t/
417. strong /strɒŋ/
418. strongly /strɒŋli/
418. a student /ə 'stju:dənt/
419. sugar /'ʃʊɡə /
420. the sun /ðə sʌn/
421. sure, surely /ʃʊə, 'ʃʊəli/
422. sweet /swi:t/
423. swim, swam /swɪm, swɒm, /
swum /swʌm /
424. a table /ə 'teɪbl/
425. take, took teɪk, tʊk /
taken /teɪkən/
426. talk, -ed /tɔ:k, t /
427. tea /ti:/
428. a teacher /ə ti:tʃə/
429. telephone, -d /'telɪfəʊn, d/
a telephone /ə 'telɪfəʊn/
430. toll, told /tel, təʊld/
431. then /ðen/
432. there /ðeə/
433. a thief /ə θi:f/
thieves (pl) /θi:vz/
434. thin /θɪn/
435. a thing /ə θɪŋ/
436. think, thought /θɪŋk, θɔ:t/
437. thirsty /θɔ:sti/
438. throw, threw /θrəʊ, θru:/
thrown /θrəʊn/
439. (a) time, the time /ə taɪm, ðə /
440. (a) tin /ə tɪn/
441. tired /taɪəd/
442. today /tə'deɪ/
443. together /tə'geðə/
444. tomorrow /tə'mɔ:rəʊ/
445. tonight /tə'nait/
446. a tooth /ə tu:θ /
teeth (pl) /ti:θ/
447. the top /ðə tɒp/
448. a town /ə taʊn/
449. a train /ə treɪn/
450. a tree /ə tri:/
451. trousers (pl. only) /'traʊzəz/
452. true, untrue /tru:, ʌntru:/
453. try, tried /traɪ, traɪd/
454. turn, -ed /tɜ:n, d/
455. ugly /'ʌgli /
456. an umbrella /ʌm'brelə/
457. an uncle /ən 'ʌŋkl/
458. use, -d /ju:z, d/
a use /ə ju:s/
459. a vegetable /ə 'vedʒɪtəbl/
460. very /'veri/
461. a village /ə 'vɪlɪdʒ /
462. a voice /ə vɔɪs/
463. wait (for), -ed /weɪt fɔ:, -ɪd/
464. walk, -ed /wɔ:k, t /
a walk /ə wɔ:k/
465. a wall /ə wɔ:l/
466. want, -ed /wɒnt, ɪd/
467. (a) war /ə wɔ:/
468. warm /wɔ:m/
469. wash, -ed /wɒʃ, t/
470. a watch /ə wɒtʃ /
471. water /'wɔ:tə /
472. a way /ə weɪ/
473. weak /wi:k/
474. wear, wore /weə, wɔ:/
worn /wɔ:n/
475. a week /ə wi:k/
476. well (adv-j) /wel/
477. wet /wet/
478. a wheel /ə hwi:l/
479. white /hwaɪt/
480. whole /həʊl/
481. wide /waɪd/
482. wife, wives (pl) /waɪf, waɪvz/
483. wild /waɪld/
484. win, won /wɪn, wɒn/
485. windy /wɪndɪ/
486. a window /ə 'wɪndəʊ/
487. a window /ə 'wɪndəʊ/
488. (a) winter /ə 'wɪntə /

- 489. a woman /ə 'wʊmən/
women (pl) /'wɪmɪn/
 - 490. wood /wʊd/
 - 491. work, -ed /wɜ:k,t/
work (n) /wɜ:k/
 - 492. a worker /ə wɜ:kə /
 - 493. the world /ðə wɜ:ld/
 - 494. write, wrote /raɪt,rəʊt/
written /'rɪtɪn/
 - 495. wrong /rɒŋ/
wrongly /rɒŋli/
 - 496. a year /ə jɪə /
 - 497. yellow /'jeləʊ/
 - 498. yesterday /'jestədeɪ/
 - 499. young /jʌŋ/
 - 500. a zoo /zu:/
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- . an accident /ən 'æksɪdənt /
- . an action /ən 'ækʃən /
- . an advertisement /ən əd'vɜ:tɪsmənt /
- . advise, -d /əd'vaɪz/ -d /
- . (an) age /ən eɪdʒ/
- . an agreement /ən ə'grɪmənt /
- . allow, -ed /ə'laʊ, d /
- . an alphabet /ən 'ælfəbet /
- . an amount (of) /ən ə'maʊnt əv /
- . an area /ən 'eəri /
- . argue, -d /'ɑ:gju:/ -d /
- . arrive, -d /ə 'raɪv, -d /
- . association /ə'soʊsi'eɪʃən /
- . attack /ə'tæk /
- . attention /ə'tenʃən /
- . autumn /'ɔ:təm /
- (a) beer /bɪə/
- . behave, -d /bi'heɪv/d /
- . behaviour /bi'heɪvjə/
- . bend, bent /bend, bent /
- . a band /ə bænd /
- . a birth /ə bɜ:θ /
- . bite, bit /baɪ t, bɪt/
- . bitten /'bɪtn /
- . a bite /ə baɪt /
- . bitter /'bɪtə /
- . blood /blʌd /
- . blow, blew, /bləʊ, blu:/
- . blown /bləʊn /
- . a) board /ə bɔ:d /
- . a boat /ə bəʊt /
- . boil, -ed /bɔɪl,d/
- . bomb /ə bɒm /
- . a) bone /ə baʊn /
- . born /bɔ:n/ -- p.p. of bear /bɛə/
was born, etc. /wəz bɔ:n /
- . branch /ə bra:ntʃ/
- . brave, bravely /breɪv, li/
- . breathe, -d /bri:ʃ, -d /
- . bright /braɪt /
- . brightly /braɪtli /
- . Buddhist /ə'budɪst /
- . buddhist /budɪst /
- . building /ə'bildɪŋ /
- . burn, -ed or /bɜ:n,d/
- . burnt /bɜ:nt /
- 39. bury, buried /'berɪ, d/
- 40. a bus /ə bʌs/
- 41. (a) business /ə 'bɪznɪs /
- 42. busy /'bɪzi /
- 43. calm, calmly /kɑ:m, kɑ:nli /
- 44. a captain /ə 'kæptɪn /
- 45. a card /ə kɑ:d /
- 46. careful /'keəfʊl /
carefully /'keəfʊli /
- 47. careless /'keəlis/
- carelessly /'keəlisli /
- 48. a cart. /ə 'kɑ:t /
- 49. certain /'ɜ:tn /
- 50. (a) change /ə tʃeɪnʒ /
- 51. change, -d /tʃeɪndʒ,d /
- 52. a change /ə tʃeɪndʒ /
the change /ðə tʃeɪndʒ /
- 53. choose, chose /tʃu:z, tʃəʊz/
chosen /'tʃəʊzn /
- 54. a cheque /ə tʃek /
- 55. a Christian /ə 'krɪstjən /
Christian /'krɪstjən /
- 56. Christmas /'krɪsməs /
- 57. a chrusch /ə tʃə:tʃ /
- 58. a cinema /ə 'sɪnɪmə/mə: /
- 59. a circle /ə 'sɜ:kl /
- 60. clay /kleɪ /
- 61. clear /klɪə/
- 62. clearly /'kliəli/
- 63. clever /'klevə/
- 64. (a) cloth /ə klɒθ/
- 65. coal /kəʊl /
- 66. (a) cold /kəʊld /
- 67. a collection (a) /ə.kə'leɪʃən /
- 68. comfortable /'kɒmfətəbl /
uncomfortable /ʌn'kɒmfətəbl /
- 69. common /'kɒmən /
- 70. compare /kəm'peɪə /
- 71. a competition /ə kɒmpɪ'tɪʃən /
- 72. complete /kəm'pli:t / (v) / kəm'pli:t / (adj)
completely /kəm'pli:tli /
- 73. contain, -ed /kən'teɪn /
- 74. copy, copied /'kɒpi, kɒpɪd /
a copy /ə 'kɒpi /

75. a corner (of) /ə'kɔ:nə /
76. correct /kə'rekt /
77. correctly /kə'rektlɪ /
78. cotton /'kɒtn /
8. count, -ed /kaunt, ɪd /
9. a crop /ə krɒp /
10. a crowd /ə kraʊd /
11. cultivate, -d /'kʌltɪveɪt, ɪd /
cultivated (adj) /'kʌltɪveɪtɪd /
uncultivated (adj) /ʌn'kʌltɪveɪtɪd /
12. cure, -d /kjʊə, -d /
a cure /ə kjʊə /
13. a custom /ə 'kʌstəm /
14. damage, -d /'dæmɪdʒ, -d /
damage (n) /'dæmɪdʒ /
15. dance, -d /da:ns, t /
a dance /ə da:ns /
16. danger /'deɪndʒə /
17. dangerous /'deɪndʒərə /
18. dead /ded /
19. death (a...) /deθ /
20. decide, -d /dɪ'saɪd, ɪd /
21. dear /dɪə /
22. defeat, -ed /dɪ'fi:t, ɪd /
23. a degree /ə dɪ'ɡri: /
24. depth /depθ /
25. describe, -d /dɪ'skraɪb, d /
26. destroy, -ed /dɪ'strɔɪ, d /
a dictionary /ə 'dɪkʃənəri /
27. a difference /ə 'dɪfrəns /
28. (a) difficulty / (ə) 'dɪfɪkəlti /
29. dig, dug /dɪg, dʌg /
30. a direction /ə dɪ'rekʃən /
31. disappear, -ed /dɪsə'piə/d /
32. discover, -ed /dɪs'kʌvə/d /
33. a disease /ə dɪ'zi:z /
34. a distance /ə 'dɪstəns /
35. a district /ə 'dɪstrɪkt /
36. disturb, -ed /dɪ'stɜ:b/d /
37. divide, -d /dɪ'vaɪd/ɪd /
38. downstairs (adv-j) /'daʊn'stʃeɪz /
39. dream, dreamed /dri:m, dri:md /
or dreamt /dremt /
a dream /ə dri:m /
112. drive, drove /draɪv, draʊv /
driven /'drɪvn /
113. (a) duty / (ə) 'dju:ti /
114. earn, -ed /ɜ:n, d /
115. the earth /θɪ ə:θ /
116. (the) east /i:st /
117. (an) edge /ən edʒ /
118. (an) education /ən edju(:)'keɪʃən /
119. an effect /ən ɪ'fekt /
120. electric /ɪ'lektrɪk /
121. electricity /ɪlek'trɪsɪti /
122. an employer /ən ɪm'plɔɪə /
123. an enemy /ən 'enɪmi /
124. an engine /ən 'endʒɪn /
125. an engineer /ən 'endʒɪ'nɪə /
126. English /'ɪŋglɪʃ /
127. enjoy, -ed /ɪn'dʒɔɪ, d /
128. equal, equally /'i:kwəl, ɪ /
129. escape, -d /ɪs'keɪp, t /
130. even /'i:vən /
131. an event /ən ɪ'vent /
132. (an) evil / (ən) 'i:vl /
133. exact /ɪg'zækt /
134. an examination /ən ɪgzæ'mɪ'neɪʃən /
135. (an) example / (ən) ɪg'zɑ:mpəl /
136. excited, exciting /ɪk'saɪtɪd, ɪk'saɪtɪŋ /
137. an exercise /ən 'eksəsaɪz /
138. expect, -ed /ɪks'pekt, ɪd /
139. an experiment /ən ɪks'perɪmənt /
140. an experience /ən ɪks'pɪəriəns /
141. explain, -ed /ɪks'pleɪn, d /
142. an explanation /ən ɪksplə'neɪʃən /
143. extra /'ekstrə /
144. a fact /ə fækt /
145. a factory / 'fæktəri /
146. fail, -ed /feɪl, d /
147. fair, unfair /fɛə, ʌnfɛə /
148. fairly /fɛəli /
149. famous /'feɪməs /
150. a farm /ə fa:m /
151. a farmer /ə 'fɑ:mə /
152. a fault /ə fɔ:lt /
153. a feature /ə 'fi:tʃə /
154. a female /ə 'fi:meɪl /

155. a fence /ə fens /
156. a festival /ə 'festəvəl /
157. a finger /ə 'fɪŋgə /
158. finish, -ed /'fɪnɪʃ /t/
159. fit, fitted /fit, ɪd /
160. flat (adj) /flæt /
161. float /flaʊt /
162. flour /'flaʊə /
163. foreign /'fɔːrɪn /
164. (a) forest ((ə) 'fɔːrɪst /
165. forget, forgot /fə'get, fə'gɒt /
 forgotten fə'gɒtn /
166. forgive, forgave /fə'gɪv, fə'geɪv /
 forgiven /fə'gɪvn /
167. a fork /ə fɔːk /
168. form, -ed /fɔːm, d /
 a form /ə fɔːm /
169. free, freely /friː, friːli /
170. fresh /fref /
171. friendly /frendli /
172. frighten, -ed /'fraɪtn, d /
173. furniture /'fɜːnɪtʃə /
174. a game /ə geɪm /
175. (a) gas ((ə) gæs /
176. a gate /ə geɪt /
177. general (adj) /'dʒenərəl /
178. a goat /ə gəʊt /
179. gold /gəʊld /
180. govern, -ed /'gʌvən, d /
181. grand-(son, etc.) /grænd/sən /
182. the ground /ðə graʊnd /
183. a group /ə gruːp /
184. grow, grew /grou, gruː /
 grown /grəʊn /
185. guess, -ed /ges, t /
186. a gun /ə ɡʌn /
187. a habit /ə 'hæbɪt /
188. a handle /ə 'hændl /
189. hate, -d /heit, ɪd /
190. health /helθ /
191. healthy, unhealthy /'helθi, un- /
192. heat, -ed /hi:t, ɪd /
193. heat (n) /hi:t /
194. height /haɪt /
195. a hill /hɪl /
196. a Hindu /ə 'hɪn'duː /
 Hindu (adj) /'hɪn'duː /
197. (a) history /('ə) 'hɪstəri /
198. a holiday /ə 'hɒlɪdeɪ /
199. honest /'ɒnɪst /
200. a hotel /ə hou'tel /
201. human /'hju:mən /
202. imagine, -d /'ɪmədʒɪn, -d /
203. immediately /i'miːdʒətli /
204. include, -d /ɪn'kluːd/ɪd /
205. an insect /ən 'ɪnsekt /
206. the inside (of) /ði ɪn'saɪd (ɒv) /
 inside /ɪn'saɪd /
207. an instrument /ən 'ɪnstrəmənt /
208. interest, -ed /'ɪntərəst, ɪd /
209. (an) interest /(ən) 'ɪntrɪst /
210. invite, -d /ɪn'vaɪt, ɪd /
211. iron /'aɪən /
212. a job /ə dʒɒb /
213. join, -ed /dʒɔɪn, d /
214. a joke /ə dʒəʊk /
215. a journey /ə 'dʒɜːni /
216. judge, -d /dʒʌdʒ, d /
 a judge /ə dʒʌdʒ /
217. a jungle /ə 'dʒʌŋgl /
218. a kind (of) /ə kaɪnd (ɒv) /
219. kiss, -ed /'kɪs, t /
 a kiss /ə kɪs /
220. a knee /ə niː /
221. a lake /ə leɪk /
222. a language /'læŋgwɪdʒ /
223. the last /ðə la'st /
224. a lawyer /ə 'lɔːjə /
225. lazy /'leɪzi /
226. a leader /ə 'liːdə /
227. leather /'leðə /
228. the left /ðə left /
 left /left /
229. lend, lent /lend, lent /
230. (a) length /('ə) lenθ /
231. a lesson /ə 'lesn /
232. a letter /ə 'letə /
233. a library /ə 'laɪbrəri /
234. lift /lɪft /, -ɪd

233. little /'litl/
234. limit, -ed /'limit, id /
a limit /ə'limit/
235. a lip /ə lip/
236. (a) liquid /(ə) 'likwid/
237. a list /ə list/
238. a loaf, loaves (pl) /ə louf, louvz/
239. local /'loukəl /
240. look after, -ed after /luk'a:ftə,
lukt~/
241. lose, lost /lu:z, lɒst /
242. loud, loudly /laud, -li/
243. lucky, luckily /'lʌki, li/
244. a machine /ə məʃi:n/
245. mad /mæd /
246. a male /ə meil/
247. a manager /ə 'mænɪdʒə /
248. a map /ə mæp/
249. a market /ə 'mɑ:kɪt/
250. a material /ə mə'tiəriəl
251. mathematics /məθ i'mæθtiks/
252. a meal /ə mi:l/
253. measure, -d /'meʒə, d/
254. (a) measurement /(ə) 'meɪzəmənt/
255. (a) medicine /(ə) 'medsɪn /
256. a member /ə 'membə /
257. mend, -ed /mend, id/
258. a massage /ə 'mæsa:ʒ /
a message /ə 'mesɪdʒ /
259. (a) metal /(ə) 'metl/
260. (a) mind /ə maɪnd/
261. a mirror /ə 'mɪrə /
262. miss, -ed /mis, t/
263. mix, -ed /miks, t/
264. (a) mixture /ə 'mɪkstʃə /
265. modern /'mɒdən /
266. (a) movement /ə 'mu:vmənt /
267. music /'mju:zɪk/
268. musical /'mju:zɪkəl/
269. (a) Muslim /(ə) 'muslɪm/
270. narrow /'nærəʊ/
271. a nation /ə neɪʃən/
272. natural /'nætʃrəl/
273. necessary /'nesɪsəri/
274. unnecessary /ʌn'nesɪsəri/
275. a neck /ə nek/
276. a neighbour /ə 'neɪbə /
277. news /nju:z/
278. nice /naɪs/
279. (a) noise /(ə) nɔɪz/
280. noisy /'nɔɪzi/
281. normal /'nɔ:məl/
282. the north /ðə nɔ:θ /
north /nɔ:θ /
283. a note /ə nəʊt /
284. notice, -d /'nəʊtɪs/, t/
a notice /ə 'nəʊtɪs/
285. obey /ə 'beɪ/əʊbeɪ/
286. an officer /ən 'ɔ:fɪsə /
287. oil /ɔɪl/
288. an opinion /ən ə'pɪnjən /
289. opposite /'ɒpəzɪt/
290. order /'ɔ:də/
291. ordinary /'ɔ:dnəri// 'ɔ:dɪnəri/
292. organize, -d /'ɔ:gənəɪz/d/
293. own, -ed /əʊn, d/
294. (a) pain /(ə) peɪn/
295. a pair of /ə peəv/
296. pale /peɪl/
297. parents /'peərənts/
usually pl
298. a park /ə pɑ:k... /
299. a passage /ə 'pæsɪdʒ /
300. a passenger /ə 'pæsɪndʒə/
301. a path /ə pɑ:θ /
302. a patient /ə 'peɪʃənt/
303. a pattern /ə 'pætən /
304. peace /pi:s/
305. a period /ə 'piəriəd/
306. pick up, -ed up /pɪk ʌp, -tʌp/
307. a pig /ə pɪg/
308. a pile /ə paɪl/
309. pink /pɪŋk/
310. a plane /ə pleɪn/
311. plastic /'plæstɪk/
312. pleasant /'pleznt/
313. unpleasant /ʌn 'pleznt/
314. please, -d /pli:z, d/
315. pleased (adj) /pli:zd/
316. (a) poison /ə 'pɔɪzn/

315. polite, politely /pə'laɪt/ll/
316. political /pə'lɪtɪkəl/
317. politics /'pɒlɪtɪks/
318. a position /ə pə'zɪʃən/
319. a potato /ə pə'teɪtəʊ/
potatoes (pl) /pə'teɪtəʊz/
320. pour, -ed /pɔː/pəʊ/d/
321. practise, -d /præktɪs/t/
322. pray, -ed /preɪ,d/
323. prepare, -d /prɪ'peɪə,d/
324. pressure /'preʃə/
325. pretend, -ed /prɪ'tend,ɪd/
326. a priest /ə priːst/
327. a Prime Minister /ə praɪm 'mɪnɪstə /
a minister /ə 'mɪnɪstə /
328. print, -ed /prɪnt,ɪd/
329. a prison /ə 'prɪzn/
330. private /'praɪvɪt/
privately /'praɪvɪtli/
331. probably /'prɒbəbli/
332. a problem /ə 'prɒbləm /
333. (the) production /ðə prə'dʌkʃən/
334. promise, -d /prəmɪs,t/
a promise /ə prəmɪs/
335. proud, proudly /praʊd, praʊdli/
336. prove, -d /pruːv,d/
337. punish, -ed /'pʌnɪʃ,t/
338. pure /pjʊə /
339. a purpose /ə 'pɜːpsə/
340. (a) quality /ə 'kwɒləti/
341. quarrel, -ed /'kwɒrəl,d/
a quarrel /ə 'kwɒrəl/
342. a queen /ə kwiːn/
343. quiet, quietly /'kwaɪət,kwaɪətli/
344. a race /ə reɪs/
345. a railway /ə reɪlwei/
346. ready /'redi/
347. a reason /ə 'riːzn/
348. refer, referred /ri'fɜː,-d/
349. refuse, -d /ri'fjuːz,d/
350. regular /'regjʊlə /
regularly /'regjʊləli/
351. a relation /ə ri'leɪʃən/
(= a relative) /ə 'relatɪv/
352. a relation /ə 'rɪleɪʃən/
353. (a) religion /ə ri'lɪdʒən/
354. religious /ri'lɪdʒəs/
355. repeat, -ed /ri'pi:t,ɪd/
356. respect, -ed /rɪ'spekt,ɪd/
respect (n) /rɪ'spekt/
357. a restaurant /ə 'restərɒnt/
358. rise, rose, risen/raɪz,rəʊz,'rɪzn/
359. a rock /ə rɒk/
360. roll, a roll /ə rəʊl/
361. a root /ə ruːt/
362. rough (rʌf/
363. a row ¹/ə raʊ/ ²/ə rəʊ/
364. rubbish /'rʌbɪʃ /
365. a rule /ə ruːl/
366. sad, sadly /sæd, 'sædli/
367. safe, safely /seɪf, seɪfli/
368. save, -d /seɪv/,d/
369. (a) science /ə 'saɪəns/
370. scientific /saɪən'tɪfɪk/
371. search for /sɜːtʃ fɔː/
a search /ə sɜːtʃ /
372. a season /ə 'siːzn/
373. a seed /ə siːd/
374. seem, -ed /siːm,d/
375. sensible /'sensɪbl/
sensibly /'sensɪbli/
376. a sentence /ə 'sentəns/
377. sow, sowed /səʊ, -d/
p.p. or sown (səʊn/ sɔːn)(n)
378. shadow /'ʃædəʊ/
379. shake, shook /ʃeɪk, ʃʊk/
shaken /'ʃeɪkn/
380. a shape /ə ʃeɪp/
381. share /ʃeə/, ɪd
382. sharp /ʃɑːp/
383. shelf, shelves (pl)/ʃelf, ʃelvz/
384. a shell /ə ʃel/
385. shoot, shot /ʃuːt, ʃɒt/
386. sick /sɪk/
387. a sign /ə saɪn/
388. silk /sɪlk/
389. silver /'sɪlvə /
390. simple /'sɪmpl/
391. a situation /ə sɪtʃu'eɪʃən/
392. (a) skin /ə skɪn/
393. show /snəʊ/
394. smell, smelled /smel, smeld/

- or smelt /smelt/
a smell /ə smel/
395. smooth /smu:θ /
396. (a) society / (ə) sə'saiəti/
397. soft /sɔft/
398. soil /sɔil/
399. a solid /ə sɒlɪd/
solid (adj) /'sɒlɪd/
400. sometimes /'sʌmtaɪmz/
401. a song /ə sɔŋ/
402. sorry /'sɔri/
403. a soul /ə saʊl/
404. sour /'saʊə /
405. the south / (ə) saʊθ /
south (adj, adv) /saʊθ/
406. (a) space / (ə) speɪs/
407. special, specially /'speʃəl, i/
408. (a) speech / (ə) spi:tʃ /
409. (a) speed / (ə) spi:d/
410. spell, spelled /spel, d/
p.p. or spelt (spelt)
411. spend, spent /spend, spent/
412. a square /ə skwɛə /
413. square (adj) /skwɛə /
413. a state /ə steɪt/
414. steal, stole /sti:l, stəʊl/
stolen 'stəʊlən /
415. steam /sti:m/
416. steel /sti:l/
417. a step /ə step /
418. a stomach /ə 'stʌmək/
419. a storm /ə stɔ:m /
420. straight /streɪt/
421. strange /streɪndʒ /
422. (a) string / (ə) strɪŋ/
423. study, studied /stʌdi, d/
424. stupid, stupidly /'stju:pid/-li/
425. a subject /ə 'sʌbdʒɪkt/
426. a substance /ə 'sʌbstəns/
427. succeed, -ed /sək'si:d/ -id/
428. successful /sək'sesful/
429. successfully /sək'sesfuli/
430. sudden, suddenly /'sʌdn, li/
431. suffer, -ed /'sʌfə, d/
432. suit, -ed /sju:t, id/
432. suitable /'sju:təbl/
unsuitable /ʌn'sju:təbl/
suitably /'sju:təbli/
433. (a) summer / (ə) 'sʌmə /
434. a surface /ə 'sɜ:fɪs/
435. surprised /sə'praɪzd/
surprising /sə'praɪzɪŋ/
436. a system /ə 'sɪstəm /
437. tall /tɔ:l/
438. a tap /tæp/
439. taste, -d /teɪst/-id/
440. tax, -ed /tæks, t/
441. a taxi / 'tæksi/
442. teach, taught /ti:tʃ, tɔ:t/
443. tear, tore, /tɛə, tɔ:/
torn tɔ:n/ tear (tiə) (n)
444. a telegram / 'telɪgræm/
445. (a) television / (ə) 'telɪvɪʒən /
446. a term /ə tɜ:m/
447. terrible /'terɪbl/
448. a temperature /ə 'temprɪtʃə /
449. a temple /ə 'templ/
450. test, -ed /test, id/
a test /ə test/
451. thank, -ed /θæŋk, t/
452. thick /θɪk/
453. a ticket /ə 'tɪkɪt/
454. tidy, untidy /'taɪdi//ʌn-
455. tie, tied (up) /taɪ, d/ʌp/
456. a tool /ə tu:l/
457. touch, touched /tʌtʃ, t/
458. trade, -d /treɪd/id/
459. translate, -d /træns'leɪt/id/
460. travel, -led / 'trævl/.d/
461. (a) trouble / (ə) 'trʌbl/
462. trust, -ed /trʌst, id/
463. truth /tru:θ/
464. a tube /ə tju:b/
465. understand /ʌndə'stænd/
understood /ʌndə'stʊd/
466. a university /ə ju:ni'vɜ:sɪti/
467. a unit /ə 'ju:nɪt/
468. upstairs /ʌp'stɛəz/
469. useful, usefully /ju:sful//ju:sfuli/
470. usual, unusual /'ju:ʒuəl, ʌn'ju:ʒuəl/
usually /'ju:ʒuəli/

471. a valley /ə'veæli/
472. (a) value /('æ)'væljʊ:/
473. visit, -ed /'vɪzɪt,ɪd/
474. a visit /ə'vɪzɪt/
475. a visitor /ə'vɪzɪtə/
475. vote, -ed /vəʊt,ɪd/
476. waste, -d /weɪst,ɪd/
477. (a) waste /weɪst/
478. watch, -ed /wɒtʃ/d/
478. weather /'weðə/
479. a wedding /ə'wedɪŋ/
480. weigh, -ed /weɪ,d/
481. weight /weɪt/
482. welcome, -d /'welkəm,d/
a welcome /ə'welkəm/
483. well (adj) /wel/
484. a well /əwel/
485. the west /ðəwest/
west /west/
486. width /wɪðθ/
487. a wing /əwɪŋ/
488. (a) winter /(ə)'wɪntə/
489. (a) wire /(ə)'waɪə/
490. wish, -ed /wɪʃ,t/
491. a wish /əwɪʃ/
491. wool /wʊl/
492. a word /əwɜ:d/
493. worry, worried /'wʌrɪ/d/
494. (the) worst /(ðə)'wɜ:st/
495. a wound /əwu:nd/
wounded (adj) /wu:ndɪd/
496. a writer /ə'raɪtə/
497. a yard (=a length) /əjɑ:d/
498. a yard (=a place) /əjɑ:d/
499. yet (adj) /jet/
500. yield, -ed /ji:ld/ɪd/

THE SECOND THOUSAND WORD LIST

<u>Principal Word or Phrase</u>	<u>Related Words or Phrases</u>
1. able to (adj)	unable to, ability, inability enable (v) + n. + to
2. above (prep.)	
3. abroad (adv.)	
4. absence (n., C and U)	absent (l), in the absence of
5. absorb (v.) + n.	absorbent (adj.)
6. accept (v) + n.	acceptance, acceptable
7. accident (n., C and U)	accidental, accidentally, by accident
8. according to (preb. phrase)	in accordance with
9. on account of (prep. phrase)	
10. accurate (adj.)	accurately, accuracy
11. accustomed to (adj.)	custom (l), customary (adj.)
12. achieve (v.) + n.	achievement (n.)
13. act (v) (= behave or do)	action (l), activity
14. active (adj.)	actively, activity
15. actor (n., C)	act (v) (in a play)
16. actual (adj)	actually
17. addition (n. C and U)	add (l), in addition to
18. address (n. C) (for letters)	addressed to
19. admit (v)+n(=allow to enter)	admission
20. adopt (v)+n (=take into use)	adoption
21. advanced (adj)(=in front of other people in ideas, studied, etc)	advance (v), advance (n)
22. advantage (n,C)	disadvantage
23. advertisement (n, C)	advertise (v), advertised
24. advice (n,U)	advis ^e (l), advisable
25. affair (n, C)(often plural)	
26. afford to (v) + stem	
27. afraid of, afraid to (adj)	
28. afterwards (adv)	after (l)
29. agree to (v)	agreement
30. agriculture (n., U)	agricultural
31. ahead (of)(adv., adj)	
32. aid (n. U)	aid (v.)
33. aim (n.C)(=purpose, goal)	aim at (V.)
34. airport (N.,C)	air, port, airfield, etc.
35. alike (adj)	like (l), likeness
36. almost (adv)	
37. already (adv)	
38. alter (v)	alteration
39. although (conj.)	though (l)

40. ambitious (adj)	ambition
41. among (prep)	
42. amused, amusing (adj)	amuse (v), amusement
43. ancient (adj)	
44. anger (n., U)	angry (l), angry with
45. angle (n., C)	right-angle, triangle, rectangle, angular, triangular, rectangular
46. anxious (adj)(=worried)	anxiously, anxiety
47. anxious to (adj)(=eager to)	
48. appear (v)+adj.(eg. appeared)	appearance
49. appear to (V)(=seem to)	apparent (adj), apparently
50. appear (v)(= be or become present)	appearance
51. apply to (v)(=have reference to)	application, applicable (to)
52. apply for (v)(apply for a job, etc)	application
53. appoint (v)+ n	appointment
54. approach (v) + n	approach (n)
55. approve (v) + of + n	approval, disapprove of, dis- approval
56. approximate (adj)	approximately
57. area (n. C and U)(=measurement of a space)	
58. area (n.C)(=region or district)	
59. argue (v)	argue (v)+that ..., argument
60. arithmetic (n)	arithmetical
61. arrange to (v)(=plan decisively)	arrangement (=plan agreed to)
62. arrangement (n.C)(=order in which things are placed)	arrange (v)+n. (=put in order)
63. art (n,C and U)	artistic, artistically, artist
64. article (n.C)(in a newspaper)	
65. artificial (adj.)	artificially, art
66. as (prep)(eg. used as, employed as)	
67. ashamed (of) (adj.)	shame (n)
68. ask for (v) + n.	
69. asleep (adj)	sleep (v) (l) sleep (n)
70. aspect (n.,C)	
71. atmosphere, the (n)	atmospheric, sphere
72. atom (n.,C)	atomic
73. attached to (adj.)	attach, attachment
74. attack (n., C)	attack (v.) (l)
75. attempt to (v)	attempt (n)
76. attention (to) (n)	attend to (v), pay attention
77. attitude (n), C)	

78. attract (v) n.	attraction, attractive
79. audience (n., C)	
80. author (n., C)	
81. authority (n. C and U)	authorize, authoritative
82. autumn (n., C and U)	
83. available (adj.)	
84. average (adj)	average (n) average (v)
85. avoid (v) + n	avoidance, avoidable, unavoidable,
86. awake (adj)	wake (v) (1)
87. aware of (adj)	awareness
88. balance (n., C)(instrument)	balance (v), balanced, balance (n) (=condition of steadying)
89. bank (n, C)(of a river, etc)	
90. bar (n, C)(of g. d, etc)	
91. based on (adj)	base + n (on)(v), basis (n) basic, basically
92. battle (n, C)	
93. bear (v) +n. (bear pain, etc)	bore, borne
94. beat (v)+n (= overcome)	
95. beauty (n. C)	beautiful (1)
96. become (v)(+n. or adj), became	become
97. beggar (n., C)	beg (v), beg for (v)
98. behaviour (n., U)	behave (1)
99. belief (n., C and U)	believe (1)
100. below (prep)	
101. bend (v)	bend (v) + N, bent
102. beneath (prep)	
103. beside (prep)	
104. beyond (prep)	
105. bill (n, C)(=statement of amount owing)	
106. biology (n, U)	biological, biologist
107. birth (n., C and U)	born
108. a bit of	
109. bite (v) + n, bit, bitten	bite (n, C)
110. blame (v) + n(+ for)	blame (n)
111. block (n, C)	block (V)
112. blow (n, C)(=action or result of hitting, or of doing something which injures someone)	
113. bone (n, C)	
114. border (n, C)	
115. bored, boring (adjs.)	bore (v) boredom
116. borrow (v)(+n)	
117. boundary (n, C)	bounded by
118. brain (s)(n. C, usually plural)	
119. breathe (v)	breath

120. bring up (children)(v)+ n	well brought up etc
121. broad (adj)	broadly, breadth
122. broadcast (v) + n	broadcast (n, adj)
123. bubble (n. C)	
124. burst (v)	burst (adj)
125. bush (n, C and U)	
126. business (n. used indef. article but singular only)(=affair or responsibility)	
127. calculate (v) +n	calculation
128. calendar (n,C)	
129. calm (adj)	calmly, calmness
130. canal (n, C)	
131. capable of (adj)	incapable of, capably, capacity incapacity
132. capital (=money, property)(n)	capital goods, etc.
133. capture (v) + n	captivity, captive
134. care (n,U)(=carefulness)	careful (1), carefully (1) careless (1), carelessly (1) carelessness
135. career (n, C)	
136. carry out (work etc.)(v)+n.	
137. in case (conjunctive phrase)	
138. in that case, in some cases, etc. (conjunctive phrases)	
139. catalogue (n. C)	catalogue (v)
140. caution (n., U)	cautious, cautiously, precaution, (n., C)
141. cell (n.,C)(=living cell)	
142. cement (n., U)	cement (adj.)
143. central (adj.)	centre (1), centralized, centrad on
144. century (n., C)	
145. ceremony (n., C)	ceremonial
146. certainly (adv)	certain (1), certainty
147. chain (n., C)	
148. challenge (v) + n	challenge (n., C)
149. chapter (n., C)	
150. character (n., C and U)	characteristic, characterize
151. in charge of (prep. phrase)	
152. check (v)+ n.(examine a thing to see if it is correct)	
153. chemical (adj)	chemistry, chemist
154. cheque (n., C)	cheque - book
155. chief (adj)	chief (n), chiefly
156. childhood (n., U)	child (1), children
157. choice (n., C and U)	chose (1)

158. circuit (n., C)(electric circuit)
159. circular (adj) circle (1), circulate, circulation
160. circumstances (n., usually plural)
161. civilization (n., C and U) civilized, civilize, civil
162. claim (v) + n claim (n)
163. class (n., C)(=kind or short) classify, classification, middleclass, working-class, first-class
164. clear (adj) clearly, clarity, clarify
165. clerk (n., C) clerical
166. climate (n., C and U)
167. close to (prep. phrase) closely
168. coast (n., C) coastal, coast-line
169. collect (v)+ n collection, collector
170. colony (n., C) colonial, colonize
171. column (n., C)
172. combine (v) combine (v)+n. and n., or n. with n., combined, combination
173. command (v) + n. + to command (v)+ n., command (n), commander.
174. comment (n., C)(on) comment (v)(+on + n.), commentary
175. commercial (adj) commerce (n.)
176. commit (v)+ n.)+ n.(commit a crime)
177. committee (n., C)
178. common (adj) commonly
179. communicate (v) communicate (v)+n., or + with + n. communication
180. communist (n., C) communist (adj), communism
181. community (n., C)
182. company (n., C)(=business group)
183. compare (v)+ n+ plural compare (v)+ n + with + n. comparison, comparative, comparatively. compulsion, compulsory
184. compel (v) + to competition, competitive
185. compete with (v) + n. complain (v)+ of + n., complaint
186. complain (v) + that complexity
187. complex (adj) complication
188. complicated (adj) compose (v), composition, composer
189. composed of (adj) concern (v), concern (n)
190. concerned with (adj) condemnation, condemned
191. condemn (v) +n
192. condition (often plural, n., C)(=circumstance, state of a thing)
193. conference (n., C)
194. confident (adj) confidently, confidence
195. conflict (n., C) conflict with (v), conflicting
196. confused, confusing (adj) confuse (v), confusion
197. connected with or to (adj) connect (v), connection

198. consist of (v) + n.
199. consonant (n., C)
200. constant (adj)(=unchanging) constant (n), constantly
201. construct (v) + n. construction
202. consult (v) + n. consultation
203. contact (n., U) in contact with, contact (v)
204. context (n., C)
205. continent (n., C) continental (adj)
206. continue (v) continue to (v), continuous, continuously, continual, continually
207. contrast (n., C and U) contrast (v), contrasting
208. contribute (v) + n. + to contribution
209. control (v) + n control (n), controller
210. convenient (adj) conveniently, convenience, inconvenient, inconvenience
211. conversation (n. C and U)
212. convey (v) + n
213. cool (adj)(cool day, cool wind etc.) cool (v), coolness
214. co-operate (v)(+ with+n.) co-operation, co-operative, operate, operation
215. copper (n., U) copper (adj)
216. council (n., C)(city council, etc) councillor
217. country (n., U)(=countryside) country (adj), countryside
218. courage (n., U) courageous
219. cousin (n., C)
220. crack (v) crack (n), cracked
221. create (v) + n creation, creature, creative, creatively.
222. creep (v)
223. crime (n., C) criminal (n., adj)
224. criticize (v) + n critical, critic (n), criticism
225. crop (n., C often plural)
226. cruel (adj) cruelly, cruelty
227. cultivate (v) + n cultivated, cultivation
228. culture (n., C and U)(of a man or a society) cultured, cultural
229. cure (v) + n cure (n)
230. current (n., C)(electric current, current of a stream)
231. curved (adj) curve (v) curve (n)
232. customer (n., C)
233. danger (n., C and U) in danger, dangerous, dangerously endanger (v)

234. dare to (v)
235. darkness (n., U) dark (l)
236. date (n., C)(=day of the month) out-of-date, up-to-date
237. deal with (v) + n (= have
business or trading relations with) dealer (n)
238. debate (n., C and U) debate (v), debater
239. debt (n., C and U) in debt, debtor
240. deceive (v) + n (n) deceit, deceitful
241. decision (n., C) decide (l), decisive, decisively
242. decrease (v) decrease (n.), decreasing
243. defeat (v) + n defeat (n)
244. defend (v) + n defence, defender
245. define (v) + n definition
246. definite (adj) definitely, indefinite, indefinitely
247. degree (n., C)(of temperature, angle, latitude, longitude)
248. delay (n., C and U) delay (v), without delay
249. delighted (with)(adj) delight (n), delightfully
250. demand (v) + n demand (n)
251. democracy (n. C and U) democratic
252. demonstrate (v) + n demonstration (act of demonstrating) demonstration (political)
253. dense (adj) densely, density
254. department (n)
255. depend on (v) + n depending on, dependent, independent, independently, independence
256. derived from (adj) derive from (v), derivation
257. description (n., C) describe (l), describe (v)+ n.
258. desert (n., C) desert (adj)
259. deserve (v) + n
260. design (v) + n design (n), designer
261. desire (for)(n., C and U) desire (v), desirable
262. detail (n., C and U) detailed, in detail
263. determine (v) + n.(=be the fact which causes or fixes)
264. develop (v) develop (v) + n., development
265. devise (v) + n
266. diagram (n., C)
267. diameter (n., C)
268. diamond (n., C) diamond (adj)
269. digest (v.) + n digestion
270. direction (n., C) direct (adj.), indirect, directly indirectly, direct(v), director

271. dis - (prefix, = not)
272. disagree (with)(v) + n agree with (1) in agreement, reach agreement, disagreement
273. disappointing, disappointed (adj.) disappointment
274. discovery (n., C) discover (1)
275. discuss (v) + n discussion
276. dismiss (v) + n dismissal (n.)
277. dispute (n., c) dispute (v)
278. dissolve (v) dissolve (v)+ n., dissolved, soluble, solution (liquid)
279. distinct (adj) distinctly, distinction, distinguish between, distinguish + n. distribution
280. distribute (v) + n
281. district (n., C)
282. disturb (v) + n disturbance
283. division (n., C and U) divide (1)
284. do without (v) do (1), without (1)
285. doubt (n., C and U) doubt (v), doubtful, doubtfully
286. dozen (n., C)
287. drained (adj) drain (v) drain, (s) (n)
288. draw (v)+n. + from(a bank, etc) dreadfully
289. dreadful (adj) drive (1), driven by, driving (n)
290. driver (n., C) drown (v), drowning (n)
291. drop (n., C)(of liquid)
292. drowned (adj)
293. drug (n., C)
294. dull (adj)(=the opposite of bright, clever or interesting)
295. during (prep)
296. dust (n., U) dusty
297. eager (to) (adj) eagerly, eagerness
298. earthquake (n., C) earth (1)
299. the East (n) east (adj)(1), east coast, etc, eastern (religion, thought, etc) easterly
300. economic (adj) economics, economist, the economy of a country
301. education (n., U, used with 'a good', 'an expensive', etc. but not in the plural)
302. effect (n., C) effective, ineffective, effectively
303. efficient (adj) efficiently, efficiency, inefficiently, inefficiency
304. effort (n., C and U) effortless

305. elder, eldest (adj) the elder, the eldest
 306. elect (v) + n election
 307. else (adv) elsewhere, somewhere else, someone else, something else
 308. emotion (n., C and U) emotional, emotionally
 309. empire (n., C) imperial, imperialism, emperor
 310. employ (v.)+ n (=give work to someone for payment) employed, unemployed, employment
 311. enable (v)+ n+to + stem unemployment, employer, employee.
 312. encourage (v)+ n + to + stem able to, ability
 313. energy (n., U) encouragement, encouraging, discourage + n + from + -ing
 314. enormous (adj) energetic, energetically
 315. entertain (v) + n. entertainment, entertaining
 316. entire (adj) entirely
 317. environment (n., C and U)
 318. equally (adv) equal (adj) (1), equal (v)
 319. equipment (n., U) equality, equivalent
 320. error (n., C and U) equipped with, equip (v)
 321. especially (adv) special (1), specially, specialize
 322. essay (n., C) specialized, specialist
 323. essential (adj) essentially
 324. establish (v) + n establishment, established
 325. event (n., C)
 326. ever (adv)(used in questions)
 327. evidence (n., U) evident, evidently
 328. exact (adj) exactly
 329. example (n., C) for example, exemplify
 330. exception (n., C) exceptional
 331. in exchange for exchange (v), exchange (n)
 332. exert (v)(+n)(eg. force, pressure) exertion
 333. exist (v) existence, existing (adj)
 334. expand (v) expand (v)+n., expansion
 335. expense (n., C often plural, and U) expensive (1)
 336. experience (n., C and U) experience (v), experienced, inexperienced
 337. experiment (n., C) experiment (v), experimental
 338. expert (n., C) expert (adj)
 339. explode (v) explosion
 340. explore (v) + n. explorer, exploration
 341. export (v) + n. exports (n., pl.), exported, import,

342. exposed to (adj)	imports, imported
343. express (v)+ n (+ as)	expose (v)
344. extend (v) + n	expression
345. extremely (adv)	extend (v), extension, extent
346. face (v) + n	extreme (adj)
347. failure (n., usually U)	face (n)(1), facing (adj)
348. fair (adj)(=in accordance with justice or with the rules of a game)	fail (v)(1)
349. false (adj)	unfair, fairly, unfairly, fairness
350. fame (n., u)	unfairness
351. familiar (adj)	falsehood (n)
352. fare (n., C)(eg. railway fare)	famous (1)
353. fashion (n., C and U)	familiarity
354. fast (adj. and adv.)	fashionable, unfashionable, old-fashioned
355. fate (n., U)	fatal, fatally
356. favourite (adj.)	favourite (n.), favourable, unfavourable, in favour of
357. fear (n., C and U)	fear (v) (1)
358. feather (n., C)	female (n.), male (n., adj.)
359. feature (n., C)	fertility
360. female (adj.)	fiercely
361. fertile (adj)	figure (n., C)(=written number, eg. 8)
362. festival (n., C)	film (n., C)
363. fierce (adj.)	finally
364. figure (n., C)(=written number, eg. 8)	financially
365. film (n., C)	find out (v) + n.
366. final (adj.)	fine (adj.)(fine weather, a fine day)
367. financial (adj.)	firm (adj)
368. find out (v) + n.	firmly
369. fine (adj.)(fine weather, a fine day)	firm (n., C)
370. firm (adj)	flag (n., C)
371. firm (n., C)	flash (n., C)
372. flag (n., C)	flexible (adj)
373. flash (n., C)	flight (n., C and U)
374. flexible (adj)	float (v)
375. flight (n., C and U)	flood, floods, (n., C often plural)
376. float (v)	flow (v)
377. flood, floods, (n., C often plural)	floating (adj)
378. flow (v)	flood (v), flooded
379. fold (v) + n.	flowing (adj), flow (n., U)
380. foolish (adj)	fold (n.,C), folded
	fool (n., C), foolishness.

381. force (n., C and U)	force (v)+ n.+to, enforce (v)
382. foreign (adj)	foreigner (l)
383. forest (n., C and U)	
384. forgive (v.) + n.	forgave, forgiven, forgiveness
385. form (v)+ n.(form a group, form ice, form drops of water)	form (n.), formation (n.), formal , formally
386. fortunately (adv.)	fortune (n.), misfortune, un - fortunately, fortunate, unfortunate
387. foundation (n., C)	found (v), founded by
388. freedom (n., U)	free (adj.), (l), freely, free (v) set free
389. freeze (v)	frozen (adj), refrigerator, froze
390. frequent (adj.)	frequently, frequency
391. fresh(adj.)	freshly, freshness
392. frontier (n., C)	
393. fuel (n., usually uncountable)	
394. function (n., C)	function (v), functional
395. gain (v) +n.	gain (n.)
396. gap (n., C)	
397. general (adj.)	generally, in general, generalize, generalization
398. gentle (adj)	gently
399. genuine (adj.)	genuinely
400. geography (n., U)	geographical
401. geometry (n., U)	geometric
402. germ (n., C)	
403. get (v.)+ adj. (get well, get strong, get old, get rich, etc.)	
404. get onto, into, on, in, (get into a train, get on a horse, etc)	
405. get + n + to + stem (eg. get him to make it, get the machine to work)	
406. get to (=reach, eg. He get to Paris at 12 o'clock)	
407. gift (n., C)	give (l)
408. goal (n., C)	
409. goodness (n., U)	good (l)
410. goods (n., <u>plural only</u>)	goods train
411. gradual (adj)	gradually
412. grain (n., C and U)	
413. grant (v.) + n.	grant (n.)
414. grasp (v.) + n	grasp (n.)
415. grateful (adj.)	gratefully, gratitude
416. greedy (adj.)	greed (n.), greedily
417. grind (adj)	ground (adj.)

418. growth (n., U)	grow (l), grown-up, growing (adj.)
419. guest (n., C)	
420. guide (v.) - n.	guide (n.), guidance
421. guilty (adj.)	guilt (n.)
422. hammer (n., C)	hammer (v.)
423. handle (v.)	handle (n., l)
424. hang (v.), hung	hang (v) + n.
425. happiness (n., U)	happy (l), unhappiness happy
426. harbour (n., C)	
427. harm (n., U)	harm (v.), harmful, harmless
428. harvest (n., C and U)	harvest (v)
429. heap (n., C)	heaped (adj.)
430. heart (n., C)	heartless
431. heat (n., U)	heat (v.) + n.
432. help (n., U)	help(v.), helpful, unhelpful, helpless
433. hero (n., plural <u>heroes</u>)	heroine (n.), heroic
434. hesitate (v.)	hesitation
435. hide (v.) + n.	hid, hidden, hiding-place, hidden (adj.)
436. hire (v.) + n	on hire, hire-purchase (n. or adj.)
437. historical (adj)	history (l), historically, historian
438. hold (v)+n. (hold a meeting, hold a conference, etc)	held
439. hold (v)+n.(= contain, eg. hold 2 gallons, hold 60 people)	
440. hollow (adj)	hollow (n.)
441. honesty (n., U)	honest (l), honesty, dishonesty, dishonest, dishonestly
442. hook (n., C)	
443. hope (n., C and U)	hope (v.) (l, hopeful, hopefully hopeless
444. the horizon (n.)	horizontal, horizon ally
445. hostile (adj)	hostility, hostilities
446. household (n., C)	house (l), housewife, housekeeper
447. however (adj.)	
448. huge (adj)	
449. human (adj)	human being, humanity, inhuman
450. hunger (n., l)	hungry (l)
451. hunt (for)(v.) + n	hunt(v.), hunt (n.) hunting (n.) hunter
452. hurry (v.)	hurry (l), in a hurry
453. ideal (adj)	idea (l), ideal (n., idealistic, idealism

454. Ill (adj.)	illness
455. imagine (v.) + that	imagine (v.)+ n., imagination, imaginary
456. image (n., C)	imagine, imaginary
457. imitate (v.) + n.	imitation
458. import (v.) + n	imports (v), imported, export exports, exported
459. impression (n., C)	impress (v), impressive
460. improve (v)	improved (v) + improvement
461. incident (n., C)	incidental, incidentally
462. including (adj)	include (v), included (in) (adj.) inclusion, excluding, exclude
463. income (n., C)	in (1), come (1), income-tax
464. increase (v)	increase (v)+ n, increase, depend, dependent
465. independent (adj.)	
466. index (n., C., <u>plural indexes</u>)	
468. indicate (v) + n	indicate (v)+ that, indication
469. individual (n., C)	individual (adj.), individually
469. industry, (manufacturing)	industrial, industrially, industri- alizer, industrialize, industriali- ation, industrialized
470. influence (v) + n	influence (n), influential
471. information (n., U)	inform (v), well-informed
472. injure (v) + n	injury, injured
473. inner (adj.)	outer, in (1), inside, etc.
474. the inside (of)(n)	inside (prep.)(1), the outside
475. inspect (v) + n	inspection, inspector
476. in spite of (prep. phrase)	despite (prep)
477. for instance (adv. phrase)	instance (n.)
478. instruction (n., C and U)	instruct, instructor
479. intelligent (adj.)	intelligence, intelligently
480. intend (v.) + to + stem	intention
481. intense (adj.)	intensely, intensity
482. interest (n., C and U)(+ in) eg. an interest in music)	interesting (1), interested (1) interest (v)
483. interest (on capital)(n., U)	
484. interfere (with)(V) + n	interference
485. international (adj.)	international, nation, internationally
486. interrupt (v) + n	interruption
487. interval (n., C)	
488. introduce (v.) + n	introduction
489. invade (v) + n	invasion, invader
490. invent (v) + n	invention, inventor
491. invest (v.) + n. (+in)	investment, investor

492. investigate (v) + n investigation, investigator
 493. invite (v.) + n. invitation
 494. involving (adj.) involve (v), involved (in)
 495. irrigate (v.) + n. irrigation
 496. item (n., C)
 497. jealous (of) (adj.) jealously, jealousy
 498. jewel (n., C, often plural) jewelry
 499. journalist(N., C) journal, journalism
 500. judge (n., C) judge (v), judgement
 501. just (adv.)(eg. It is just 6 o'clock)
 502. just (adv.)(eg. He is just coming, he has just come)
 503. justice (v.U) just (adj.), unjust (adj.) justly, unjustly, injustice
 504. keep (v) + n.(Keep books in a cupboard, you can keep the money)
 505. keep (v) + n. (keep promises, rules etc.)
 506. key(n.C)(to a door, to a problem)
 507. knowledge (n., U) know (1)
 508. lack (v) + n lacking (adj)
 509. land (v)(eg. the plane landed) land (n.)
 510. land (n., U)(contrasted with sea) on land, by land
 511. last (v.) lasting (adj.)
 512. layer (n., C) lay (v.) + n.
 513. lead to (v.) + n
 514. lecture (n., C) lecture (v.), lecturer
 515. legal (adj.) legally, illegal, illegally, legislative, legitimate
 516. leisure (n., U)
 517. lens (n., C, plural lenses)
 518. letter (n., C)(of a word, eg. A. b. c.) literature, illiterature, literature, literal, literally
 519. level (n. C) level (adj.)
 520. lie (n., C)(He told a lie) tell lies, lie (v)
 521. light (adj.)(eg. light blue)
 522. like (= for example)
 523. likely (adj.) unlikely (adj.), likelihood
 524. limit (n., C) limit (v.), limited, limitation
 525. liquid (n., C and U) liquid (adj.)
 526. live on (v.) + n living (n.), earn one's living
 527. load (n., C) load (with)(v), loaded (with)
 528. local (adj.) locally, locality, locate, location, localize
 530. loan (n., C) loan (V.)(=lend)

531. lock (n., C)	lock (v), locked
532. logical (adj)	logically, logic (n.)
533. lonely (adj.)	loneliness
534. loose (adj.)	loosely
535. loss (n., C and U)	lose (1)
536. loyal (adj.)(+ to)	loyally, loyalty
537. luck (n., U)	lucky (1), luckily
538. luxury (n., C and U)	luxurious
539. machinery (n., U)	machine (1), mechanical, mechanism, mechanized
540. mad (adj.)	madness
541. magic (n., U)	magical (adj) magic (adj.)
542. magnet (n., C)	magnetic, magnetize
543. mainly (adv)	main (adj.)
544. maintain (v.) + n	maintenance
545. major (adj.)	majority
546. make up (a story, etc.)(v)+n	make (1)
547. male (adj.)	male (n.), female
548. manage (a business, a house, etc.)(v.) + n	manager (1), management
549. manage (v.) + to + stem	
550. manner (n., C, often plural)(eg. manners and customs, a rude manner)	
551. manufacture (v) + n.	manufacture (n), manufactured
552. mass (= large quantity)(., C)	a mass of, masses of
553. master (n., C)	master (v.), mastery (n.)
554. mathematics (n., U)	mathematical, mathematician
555. mean (v.) + to + stem (eg. He meant to do it)	mean
556. means (n., plural from only) (=method of carrying out a plan or obtaining a desired result)	
557. measurement (n., C and U)	measure (1)
558. medical (adj.)	medicine (1)
559. melt (v)	melt (v.) + n., melted, molten
560. member (n., C)	membership
561. memory (n., C and U)	remember (1), memorize
562. mental (adj.)	mentally, mentality
563. mention (v.) + n	mention (n.)
564. method (n., C)	methodical, methodically
565. military (n., C)	
566. mine (n., C)	mine (v.), miner mining (n.) mining (adj) mineral
567. minister (n., C)(of state)	Prime Minister (1), administer (v) administration

568. minus (math. operation or symbol)
569. missing (adj.) (=lost, not in its place) miss (v.) (1)
570. mixture (n., C) mix (1), mixed (adj.)
571. model (n., C) model (adj.)
572. monthly (adj.) month (adj.)
573. moral (adj.) morally, morality
574. motive (n., C) motivated (by)
575. movement (n., C and U) moving (adj.) motion (n.)
576. multiply (v.) + by or + n. + by multiplication
577. murder (v.) + n murder (n.)
578. muscle (n., C) muscular
579. musical (adj.) music (1)
580. nation (n., C) national, nationally, international, nationalize, nationalization
581. nature (n., U) (eg. worship nature, study nature) natural, naturally, unnatural
582. necessity (n., U) necessary (1), unnecessary
583. need (n., C, often plural) m. needs, a need for, need (v)
584. need (v) + to + stem don't need to (contradictory of must)
585. neglect (v) + n neglect (n), negligent (adj.)
négligé
586. nerve (n., C) nervous, nervous system, nervously
587. net (n., C) network (n.)
588. normal (adj.) normally, norm (n.)
589. note (s) (n., C, often plural) take notes, make a note of, note (v)
590. novel (n., C) novelist
591. nowadays (adv.) now (1), day (1)
592. obey (v) + n obedient, obedience, disobedient, disobedience
593. object (n., C) (=thing) objective (adj., objectively)
594. object (n., C) (=aim or goal) objective (n.)
595. object to (v) + n objection
596. obliged to (adj.) + stem obligation
597. observe (v) + n observation, observer
598. obvious (adj.) obviously
599. occasion (n., C) (on that occasion, the occasion of his wedding) occasional, occasionally
600. ocean (n., C)
601. occupation (n., C) (=type^{of} a job) occupy (oneself), occupy (one's time)
602. occupy (v) + n (occupy two rooms, occupy the country)

603. occur (v), occurred^F occurrence^F
604. offer (v) + n. offer (n), offering (n)
605. official (adj.) officially
606. operation (n., C)(job or process carried out technically) operate (v), operator, ir operation
607. opportunity (n., C)
608. opposed to (adj.) oppose (v), opposition, opponent
609. in order to
610. order (n., C and U)(alphabetical order, the order of the universe) in order
611. order (n., C)(=a command) order (v)+ n.+to, give orders (that)
612. organize (v) + n organization, organize, organized (adj.)
613. originally (adv.) origin (n), original (adj)
614. otherwise (adv)
615. ought to (v), ought to have +Ved
616. the outcome (of) (n.)
617. outer (adj.) out (1), inner
618. over (adv.)(fall over, push something over, etc.)
619. over (adj.)(=finished, eg. the meeting is over)
620. overcome (v) + n, overcome, overcome
621. owe (v) + n.+ n or + n. + to + n.
(eg. I owe him ten dollars, he owes his success to his father)
622. Own (adj.)(his own house) own (v), owner
623. owner (n., C) own (v) + n
624. paragraph (n., C)
625. parallel (to)(adj.)
626. parliament (n., C) parliamentary
627. particle (n., C)
628. particular (adj.) particularly
629. pass (v) + n. (=to pass) passage (n.)(of time, etc.)
630. passage (n., C)(in a book)
631. the past (n.)(=past time, past events)
632. patient (adj.) patience, patiently, impatience, impatient, impatiently
633. pattern (n., C)(repeated form, eg. the pattern of carpet, patterns of social behaviour, a sentence-pattern)
634. peaceful (adj.) peace (1), peacefully
635. peculiar (adj.) peculiarity
636. percent (phrase) percentage (n.)

637. perfect (adj.)	perfectly, perfection, imperfect
638. perform (an operation, etc.) (v) + n.	performance
639. period (n., C)	periodic
640. permanent (adj.)	permanently, permanence
641. permission (n., U)	permit (v), give permission, permission.
642. personal (adj.)	person (1), personally, personality, impersonal
643. persuade (v.) + n. + to + stem	persuasion
644. photograph (n., C)	photo (n), photograph (v) photographer, photo - (prefix)
645. physical (adj.)	physically, physics
646. physics (n., plural only)	physicist, physical sciences
647. pile (n., C)	pile up (v)
648. pilot (n., C)	pilot (v)
649. pipe (n., C) (water-pipe, etc.)	
650. pity (n., U)	pity
651. plain (adj.) (=clear, comprehensible)	plainly
652. plain (n., C, often plural)	
653. planet (n., C)	planetary
654. plastic (adj.)	elastic (n.)
655. play (n., C) (= a drama)	play a part
656. play (n., U) (contrasted with <u>work</u>)	play (v.) (1), at play
657. pleasure (n., C and U)	pleased (1)
658. plenty of (adj. phrase)	plentiful
659. plural (adj. or noun)	
660. plus (math. operation or symbol)	
661. poem (n., C)	poet, poetry, poetic
662. point (n., C) (mark of position)	point (v.) (1), pointer (n) stand point of view
663. poison (n., C and U)	poison (v), poisonous
664. policy (n., C)	
665. politics (n., plural only)	political (1), politically
666. popular (adj.)	popularity
667. population (n., C or U)	populated
668. port (=sea town) (n., C)	passport, airport
669. possession (n., C and U)	possess (v.) + n.
670. pour (v) + n. (+ in o)	
671. poverty (n., U)	poor (1)
672. powder (n., usually U)	
673. powerful (adj.)	power (1) powerfully
674. practice (n., C and U)	practise (v) (1), practical

675. predict (v) + n (or that), prediction, predictable, unpredictable
676. prefer (v)+ n.+ to + n. preference
677. preparation (n., C and U) prepare (v.)(1)
678. pressure (n., C and U) press (v.)(1), compressed, compressive
679. pretty (adj.)
680. prevent (v)+ n, pre + n.+from+ -ing prevention
681. previous (adj.) previously
682. pride (n., U) proud (1), proud of
683. primitive (adj.)
684. principle (n., C) on principle
685. prisoner (n., C) prison (1), imprison (v)
686. private (adj.) privately, privacy
687. prize (n., C) prize - winner
688. problem (n., C)
689. process (n., C) process (v.), processed (adj.)
690. procession (n., C)
691. production (n., 1) produce (1), producer, product
productive, productively
692. profession (n., usually 1) professional, professionally
693. profit (n., C., often plural) profit (v), profitable
694. programme (n., C) program v.)
695. progress (n., U) progress (v.), progressive
696. project (n., C)
697. proof (n., C) prove (v)
698. property (n., C and U)(= something owned)
699. proportion (n., C and U) proportional, proportionally,
in proportion to
700. propose (v.)+n., or that.... proposal, proposer
701. protect (v.) + n. protection
702. protest (v.)(+ that) protest (n.)
703. prove (v.)+ n. or that proof (n.)
704. provide (v.) provide (v.) + n. + with + n.,
provision (fo)
705. psychology (n., U) psychological, psychologically,
psychologist, psychiatrist
706. public (adj.) publicly, the public (n.)
707. publish (v.) + n. publisher, publication
708. pump (n., C) pump (v.) + n.
709. punishment (n., C and U) punish (1)
710. pure (adj.) purely, purify, purify, purified,
impure, impurities
711. puzzle (n., C) puzzled, puzzling (adj.)

712. quantity (n., C) quantitative
713. quite (adv.) (=completely, eg. quite finished, not quite full)
714. radius (n., C plural radii)
715. raise (v) + n.
716. range (n) range (v) from n. to n. mountain range, wide range of interests, etc.)
717. rapid (adj.) rapidly, rapidity
718. rare (adj.) rarely
719. rate (n., C) at a rate of
720. rather (adv.) (=quite, to some extent)
721. ray (n., C) rays, etc.
722. raw (adj.) raw materials
723. reaction (n., C and U) reaction (1), react to (v)
724. realize (v)+n. or + that.... realization
725. rebel (n., C) rebellion, rebellious
726. receive (v) + n. reception, receipt (n.)
727. recent (adj.) recently
728. record (n., C) record (v), recorded
729. recover (v) (=get better) recovery
730. rectangle rectangular, angle, triangle, etc.
731. reduce (v) + n. reduction
732. refer to (v) reference (to)
733. reflect (light, etc.)(v) + n. reflection, reflected
734. reform (n., C) reform (v)+ n., reformer
735. region (n., C) regional
736. regular (adj.) regularly, regularity, irregular, regulate, regulation
737. relationship (n., C) relation (1), related to to
738. release (v) + n. release (n.)
739. rely on (v) + n. reliable, unreliable, reliability
740. remain (V) (= be left) the remainder, the remains of
741. remain (v) (=stay in the same condition) eg. remain warm)
742. remedy (n., C) remedial (adj.)
743. remove (v) + n. removal, move (1)
744. rent (n., U) rent (v.), rented (adj.)
745. repairs (n., usually plural) repair (v) + n.
746. replace (v) + n. replace (v) + n - by + n.
747. reply (v) reply (v)+to+n., reply (n.)
748. report (n., C) report (v), reporter
749. represent (v) (be a symbol of or a picture of something)+ n.

750. request (v)+ n.+to+stem	r equest (n.)
751. require (v) + n	r equirement
752. resist (v) + n	r esistance, resistant (adj.) non- resistant
753. resources (n., plural)	
754. respond (v) + to + n.	r esponse, responsive
755. responsible (adj.)(for)	r esponsibility, irresponsible
756. revolution (n., C and U)	r evolutionary
757. reward (n., C)(+ for)	r eward (v + n + for
758. rhythm (n., C and U)	rhythmic
759. get rid of	
760. right, (n., C)(eg. human rights, the have a right to+n. or v.) (right to work)	r ight (adj.)(1), rightly
761. ring (n., C)(circular object with a hole in the centre)	
762. ripe (adj.)	r ipeness, ripen (v)
763. risk (n., C)	r isk (v)+ n., r isky (adj.)
764. roll (n., C)(of paper, of cloth, etc.)	r oll (v)
765. route (n., C)	
766. row (n., C)(a row of trees, of numbers, etc.	
767. royal (adj.)	r oyalty
768. rub (v.) + n	
769. rubber (n., C)	r ubber (adj.)
770. rubbish (n., U)	
771. rude (adj.)	r udely, ru eness
772. ruined (adj.)	r uin (v), r uins (n.)
773. rule (v.) + n.	r uler (n.)=person who rules, r ule
774. run (a business, etc.)(v.)+n.	
775. rust (n., U)	r ust (v), r usty
776. sacrifice (v.) + n	sacrifice (n.)
777. safety (n., U)	s afe (1), s afe
778. for the sake of	
779. salary (n., C)	salaried (adj.)
780. sale (n., C and U)	s ell (1), c a sale, for s ale
781. satisfied (with)(adj.)	s aatisfying adj.), s atisfy (v.) s aatisfactor, s aatisfaction
782. savings (n., plural)(money saved)	s ave (1), s aving (n., C)
783. scale (of units)(n., C)	
784. scarce (adj.)	s carcity
785. scarcely (adv.)	
786. scene (n., C)	s cenery
787. scattered (adj.)	s caater (v.)

788. scheme (n., C)
789. scientist (n., C) science (1), scientific, scientific search (n.)
790. search (v) + for search (n.)
791. secret (adj.) secret (n.), secretly, secrecy
792. secretary secretarial
793. section (n., C)(=part division) dissect (v), bisect (v), sector (n.)
794. secure (adj.) insecurely, insecurity
securely, security, secure (v)
insecure
795. select (v) + n selection, selected (adj.)
796. selfish (adj.) selfishly, selfishness, unselfish, unselfishly, unselfishness
797. sensation (n., S and U) sense (n.), sensitive (adj.)
798. sensitive (adj.) (+ to) sensation, sense (n.)
799. separate (adj.) separate (v), separately, separation
800. sequence (n., C and U) consecutive (adj.), consequence
801. series (n., C, plural series) serial (numbers)
802. serious (adj.) seriously, seriousness
803. serve as (v) + n. serve () + n., service, servant (1)
804. service (n., C or U, often plural) serve (), serve as, servant
805. set (n., C)(+ cf)(a tea-set, a set of chairs, etc.)
806. set (v)+n (set the table, set the clock, etc) set up (n.)
807. settle (v)(settle in the country, in New Zealand, etc.) settlement (n)(a place where people settle)
808. settle (v)+ n. (settle a dispute, etc.) settlement (n)(of a dispute, etc.)
809. severe (adj.)(=violent, extreme) severely, severity
810. sew (v)(+n.) sewed, sewn, sewing-machine
811. shake (v) shook, shaken, shake (v)+n
812. sheep (n., C., plural sheep) sheep-farm, shepherd
813. sheet (n., C)(of cloth, metal, etc)
814. shelter (n., U) shelter (v)(from), sheltered(adj.)
815. Shine (v), shone shining (adj.), sunshine
816. shock (n., C) shocked, shocking (adj.), shock (v)
817. shoot (v)(+n) shot, shooting (n)
818. shopkeeper (n., C) shop (1), keep (v)
819. shoulder (n., C)
820. shrink (v) shrunk
- shut (v) + n shut (adj.) (1)

822. sight (n., C and U) see (1)
823. sign (v) + n. signature
824. signal (n., C) signal (v)
825. significant (adj.) significantly, significance, insignificance, signify (v), sign (1)
826. silent (adj.) silently, silence
827. similar (adj.) similarly, similarity
828. simple (adj.) simply, simplicity, simplify
829. since (conj. of time)(eg. since January)
830. since (conj. of reason) sincerely, sincerity
831. sincere (adj.)
832. single (adj.) in the singular (form)
833. singular (adj.) sank
834. sink (v) situated, situation
835. site (n., C) situated
836. situation (n., C) skilled, unskilled
837. skill (n., C and U) slavery (n.)
838. slave (n., C) mightly
839. slight (adj.) slope (n), slope (v.)
840. sloping (adj.) smoothly, smoothness (n)
841. smooth (adj.) socialist (n), socialism
842. socialist (adj.) social, socially, sociable, unsociable
843. society (n., C and U) solid (n), solidity, solidify
844. solid (adj.) solution, insoluble
845. solve (v)+n.(a problem, etc.) sing (1), singer
846. song (n., C)
847. source (n., C) spatial (adj.), spaced
848. space (n., C)(leave some spaces) spatial, space-ship
849. space (n., U)(outer space, etc.) not enough space
850. spare (v.) + n. spare (adj.)
851. spark (n., C) sparking - plug
852. speech (n., C and U) speak (1), speaker
853. sphere (n., C) spherical, atmosphere
854. spin (v)(=go around fast) spinning (adj.)
855. spoil (v) + n. spoiled, spoilt
856. spot (n., C) spotted (adj.), sun-spot
857. spread (v)(+ over, etc.) spread (v)+n., widespread
858. spring (n., C and U) in spring, in the spring
859. staff (n., C, not often used in the plural) staff - room
860. stage (in a process)(n., C) in stages, at different stages, etc.

361. stairs (n., C, often plural)	upstairs (adv.), downstairs (adv.)
362. stand for (=represent)(v.)+n	stand (l)
363. standard (n., C)	standard (adj.), standardized
364. starving (adj.)	starve (v), star vation
365. state (=condition)(n., C)	
366. state (political)(n., C)	statesman
367. statement (n., C)	state (v)
368. steady (adj.)	steadily, steadiness
369. steep (adj.)	steeply, steepness
370. stem (n., C)	verb - stem
371. step (n., C)	step (v)
372. stick (v.)+ n. +to+n.	stick to (v), sticky
373. stir (v) +n., stirred	
374. store (v) + n.	store (n.), store - room
375. stranger (n., C)	strange (l), strangely
376. stream	
377. strength (n., U)	strong (l), strengthen (v) strongly
378. stretch (v) + n	stretch (v)
379. strike (of workers)(n., C)	on strike, striker (n.) strike (v)(past tense <u>struck</u>)
380. structure (n., C and U)	construct, construction, destroy destruction
381. struggle (n., C)	struggle (v.)
382. style (n., C and U)	
383. substance (n., C)	substantial
384. success (n., C and U)	successful, succeed (l)
385. suffer (v.)(+ from)	suffering (adj.) suffering (n.) sufferings (n.)
386. sufficient (adj.)	sufficiently
387. suggest (v)+ n. (or + that...)	suggestion
388. sum (problem in arithmetic) (n., C)	sum up (v)
389. summary (n., C)	summarize (v)
390. summer (n., C and U)	in summer, in the summer
391. supply (v.)+ n.	supply (v)(someone with something), supply(n., often plural)
392. support (v) + n	support (n.)
393. surely (adv.)	sure (l), ensure that
394. surface (n., C)	
395. surprise (n., C and U)	surprising, surprised (l) surprise (v)
396. surrounded by (adj.)	surroundings (n., plural)
397. survey (v) + n.	survey (n., C), surveyor
398. switch (on, off (v.))+ n.)	switch (n., C)

899. symbol (n., C) symbolic, symbolize
900. sympathise (with)(v.)+ n. sympathy (n), sympathetic
sympathetically, unsympathetic
901. system (n., C) systematic, systematically
902. take (time, 3 hours, etc.)(v.) + n.
903. take part in (v.) + n.
904. tap (for water, etc.)(n., C)
905. task (n., C)
906. tax (n., C) income-tax, taxation, tax-payer
907. team (n., C)
908. technical (adj.) technically, technician, technique,
technology
909. technique (n., C and U) technical, technically, etc.
910. temperature (n., C and U)
911. temporary (adj.)
912. tend to (v.) + stem tendency (to)(n.)
913. theatre (n., C) theatrical
914. theory (n., C) theoretical, theoretically
915. thoroughly (adv.) thorough (adj.)
916. thread (n., C and U)
917. threat (n., C) threaten (v)
918. title (n., C)
919. tide (n., C) tidal (adj.)
920. tight (adj.) tightly
921. tobacco (n., U)
922. tolerant (adj.) tolerance, tolerantly, intolerant
tolerate (v), toleration
923. topic (n., C) topical
924. too (=also)
925. total (adj.) total (n.)(1), totally
926. towards (prep.)
927. trace (n., C) trace (v.) +n.
928. tractor (n., C)
929. trade (n., C)(foreign trade, etc.) trade with (v), trader
930. tradition (n., C and U) traditional, traditionally
931. traffic
932. train (v) + n. trained (adj.), untrained, training
933. transfer (v) + n. transference
934. translate (v) + n. translation
935. transmit (v.) + n. transmission, transmitter
936. transparent (adj.) transparence
937. transport (n., U) transport (v) + n
938. travel (n., U) travel (v)(1), traveller

939. treat (v)+ n.+ adv.(treat someone well, etc.)	treatment
940. triangle (n., C)	triangular, angle, angular
941. tribe (n., C)	tribal
942. tropical (adj.)	tropics (n.)
943. tube (n., C)	
944. tune (n., C)	
945. twist (v.) + n	
946. type (= kind, sort)(n., C)	typical, typically
947. type (v.) +n.	typist, typewriter, type (n., U) (used in printing)
948. tyre (n., C)	
949 underground (adv.)	underground (adj.)
950. underneath (prep., adv.)	
951. undertake to (v.) + stem	undertaking (n.)
952. union (n., C)	trades union, Soviet Union, etc.
953. unite (v)	unite (v.) + n., unity united (adj.)
954. the universe	universal, universally
955. unless (conj.)	
956. upper (adj.)	up, (1)
957. upset (v.)+ n.	upset (adj.)
958. urgent (adj.)	urgently, urgency
959. use (n., C and U)	use (v.) (1), useful, useless user, usage, in use
960. use up (v.,) + n.	use (v.) (1)
961. valuable (adj.)	value (1., value (v), evaluate, devaluation
962. various (adj.)	vary (v), variety (n.), variation, varying (adj.)
963. vein (n., C)	
964. vertical (adj.)	vertically (adv.)
965. victim (n., C)	
966. victory (n., C and U)	victor, victorious, victim
967. view (=opinion)(n., U)	point of view
968. view (of a place)(n., C)	view (v.)
969. violent (adj.)	violently, violence
970. visible (adj.)	invisible, visibility, vision, visual, visualize, visa.
971. vital (adj.)	vitality, vitality
972. volcano (n., C)	volcanic
973. volume (measurement of space) (n., C and U)	
974. vote for (v.) + n.	vote (n.), voter

975. voyage (n., C)
976. vowel* (n., C)
977. wage, wages (n., often plural) wage - earner
978. -wards (adv. suffix) upwards, downwards, forward (s)
backward, inwards, outwards,
homewards, westward, eastwards,
merthwards, southwards,
warning (n.)
radio waves, light waves, etc.
weak (l), weaken
wealthy (adj.)
979. warn (v.) + n.
980. wave (n., C)
981. weakness (n., C and U)
982. wealth (n., U)
983. weapon (n., C)
984. wedding (n., C)
985. welfare (n., U)
986. the west (n.,)
987. whenever (conj.)
988. wicked (adj.)
989. widely (adv.)
990. willing
991. wind (up)(v) + n.
992. wing (n., C)
993. winter (n., C and U)
994. wise (adj.)
995. withdraw (v) + n.
996. wonder (v)(+ if, whether,
etc.)
997. worship (v) + n.
998. worth (adj.)
999. yield (v)(to pressure, to force, etc.)
1000. zero (adj. or uncountable noun)
- west (l), western
- wickedness (n)
- wide (l), width (l), widespread,
wide
- willingly, unwilling,
unwillingly, will (n.)
- wound, unwind, unwound (adj.)
- in winter
- wisely, wisdom
- withdrawal
- wonder (n.), wonderful
- worship (n), worshipper.
- worth (n.), worthy (of),
trustworthy