A NOTIONAL APPROACH IN TEACHING ENGLISH

AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO MALAY-MEDIUM STUDENTS

by

MOHAMED ZAIN BIN MOHAMED ALI

B.A., Kansas State University, 1978

A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Speech

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY

Manhattan, Kansas

1978

Approved by:

Major Professor

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation by saying 'terima kasih' (thank you) to :

- my major professor--Dr. J.L. Armagost, for his enlightening advice and guidance during my studies at K.S.U.

- the members of the Advisory Committee--Dr. N. Bunton, Dr. R. Grindell and Dr. H. Ottenheimer, for their constructive criticisms and comments in the preparation of this thesis.

- my sponsor--Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, for the scholarship and study leave.

- my mentor--Dr. J.J. Augustin, for all his relentless encouragement and moral support from a distance.

- my loving wife--Asmah, for her understanding, patience and inspiration.

- my two adorable little girls--Azian and Azni, for their 'contribution' towards my knowledge and understanding about language.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

Universiti Pertanian Malaysia (U.P.M.) offers courses leading to a Diploma or a Degree in the basic sciences and various agriculture-related fields including Agribusiness and Resource Economics, Agriculture Engineering, Fisheries, Forestry, Veterinary and Animal Science, Home Economics, and Food Technology. English as a second language (ESL) is a requisite in the curriculum for all students. As of now, students entering the University are both from English and Malay-medium. English-medium students are those who attend primary and secondary schools through the medium of English. Malay-medium students are those from the national schools where the medium of instruction is Malay and English is taught as a second language. By 1982, when the New Language Policy will be fully implemented and Malay will be the sole medium of instruction at all levels of education, all the students entering U.P.M. and other similar institutions in Malaysia will be from the Malay-medium.

Obviously, at present there is a marked disparity in the English proficiency levels of U.P.M. students depending on whether they are from English or Malay-medium and also on such factors as whether they come from a rural or an urban background. To cater to the various levels of proficiency

of the in-coming students, three core courses are offered
plus a few elective courses for the advanced students. The
core courses are as follows (see also Appendix A):

    Stage I   : Fundamentals in English Usage

    Stage II : Intermediate English

    Stage III: General English Usage

The English courses that the students will be enrolled in
are determined by the test scores of a proficiency test
administered at the beginning of the academic year. Students
who are highly proficient will be asked to enroll in one of
the elective courses, while the majority of students, mostly
from the Malay-medium, will be enrolled in Stage I and
Stage II.

By and large, the course content of the present syllabus
for Stage I is centered around grammatical units and struc-
tures which are intended to be part of a remedial grammar
course. Even in Stages II and III, a portion of the syllabus
is still devoted to "Remedial work on grammar and structure".
The problem with remedial teaching is that the students are
given the same kind of practice in grammar that they have
gone through before and this repetition does not alleviate
the 'grammar fatigue' that they all have to endure at one
time or another.

I believe a notional approach could be effective in reorganizing the course content as opposed to the grammatical approach of the present syllabus. A notional approach allows a regrouping of the structures in a different way where emphasis is on functional meaning rather than grammatical form. It is hoped that relating the grammatical structures to meanings, uses and situations will add a desirable element of novelty to the students' activity and motivate their interest in learning the language as a tool for communication and not just for the purpose of passing examinations at the end of the semester.

1.0 RATIONALE

1.1 FORM AND FUNCTION

The proposal that a notional approach be adopted in the
planning of the ESL program at U.P.M. stems from the basic
premise that the Malay-medium students need more than just
'grammar'. It is a well-recognized fact that knowing a lan-
guage is not limited to an understanding of the grammatical
features and vocabulary of the language. It also includes
the ability to use the language in appropriate situations.
But in a second language situation where students are repeat-
edly making grammatical mistakes, teachers may tend to be so
preoccupied with the teaching of grammatical forms that they
lose sight of the communicative function of language.
Teachers need to be reminded that

> Before the learner of a language can be regarded
> as proficient, he must know not only the basic
> structural principles of the language (the code)
> but also how to use sentences in performing acts
> of communication, and how to combine them to
> create coherent passages of discourse (use of the
> code). In other words, in teaching grammar we
> must set ourselves two goals: we must (a) impart
> a knowledge of the basic structural principles
> and (b) ensure that our students know how to put
> their knowledge of these principles to practical
> use (Allen and Widdowson 1975:89).

The remedial approach adopted in the U.P.M. syllabus is

geared only towards goal (a) above. It involves re-teaching of particular grammatical units to fill up the 'gaps' in the students' grammatical knowledge of English, whereas the notional approach emphasizes goal (b), that is, the communicative use of language. It is based on a syllabus which incorporates notional categories and which attempts to teach the students to use language appropriately for the performance of a variety of communicative acts such as asking questions, making promises, giving orders, making assertions and so on. It is a syllabus based on language functions rather than grammatical units.

This emphasis on the teaching of communicative function also takes cognizance of the fact that the Malay-medium students have gone through at least eleven years of ESL instruction in the primary and secondary schools. Although their proficiency in the actual use of the language is below that of their English-medium counterparts, they have at least a 'dormant competence' (Allen and Widdowson 1974a:4) in the basic grammatical forms of English. What they need to be taught is how to relate these grammatical forms to communicative functions. If it is necessary to do any remedial teaching of a particular grammatical form in relation to the function that is being taught, it could be drilled within the functional unit itself, instead of isolating and

teaching it as a separate grammatical unit. The emphasis should still be on function rather than strictly on form. The impetus for this shift in emphasis is the general dissatisfaction with the grammatical/structural approach in ESL teaching as expressed by teachers and applied linguists alike.

1.2 GRAMMATICAL/STRUCTURAL SYLLABUS

The grammatical/structural syllabus is based on a 'synthetic' approach in syllabus design (Hill 1971:231; Wilkins 1976:2) where the linguistic units are 'synthesized', i.e. taught separately and step-by-step so that the acqui- sition of language is through the process of gradual accumu- lation. In the grammatical syllabus, the minimal teaching unit is the sentence. For example, the student first learns sentences using the various forms of 'be' (am, is, are), including questions and short answers--'It is big'; 'Is it big?'; 'Yes, it is'. He then goes on to the Simple Present tense using verbs other than 'be'--'He sleeps'; 'Does he sleep?'; 'Yes, he does'. This will be followed by the Present Continuous tense with the '-ing' form--'He's sleeping'; 'Is he sleeping?'; 'Yes, he is'. So, the syllabus gradually develops from the basic structure to more complex structures as the lesson progresses. The grammatical syllabus focusses

attention on the formal properties of language and aims at teaching the whole structure of the language by combining individual grammatical units. The syllabus is structured in such a way that the learners follow a linear progression through the syllabus. Hopefully, after going through the whole syllabus, they will have mastered the grammatical structure of the language. Of course this does not always happen the way it should--at least not in the case of Malay-medium students. Although such a syllabus may be suitable for the school system where it is possible to spread the syllabus over the whole time period in which the learners have to learn English, it is certainly not practical at the tertiary level where the Malay-medium students have to learn English in a much more limited time period. Further-more, the students are more interested in learning how to use the language for their academic and social needs than in learning more grammar. The grammatical syllabus has also been criticized as inappropriate for the purposes of ESL teaching because it focusses primarily on the teaching of form rather than the use of the form. The grammar that is learned in the classroom is not directly applicable to the situational needs outside the classroom. The learner may find that although he knows the structure of the language, he is not able to communicate effectively in situations that require the use of the language.

These criticisms have prompted alternatives in which
the grammatical syllabus is applied to situational teaching.
This is based on the view that language always occurs in a
social context and therefore it should always be taught in
this context. The structures are usually presented in the
form of dialogues which illustrate the kinds of situations
that the learners are expected to participate in. Learners
are familiarized with the structures through 'over-learning'
and repetition of sentences having similar structures.
Because the structures are somewhat restricted by the con-
straints of the situation, the dialogues generally do not
reflect normal language use. After going through the dia-
logues and drills, the learners may find that they still are
unable to use the appropriate forms in the context of real
situations. This is partly because structural drills involve
mainly the manipulation of syntactical elements and the
memorization of items. Very little, if any, emphasis is
given to meanings. Although it is advocated that the struct-
ures be presented through meaningful drills, this is easier
said than done.

In planning a syllabus around situations it is not
always possible to predict the kinds of situations and
related linguistic forms that the learners need to learn.
Wilkins argues that "it would be naive to think that the

speaker is somehow linguistically at the mercy of the
physical situation in which he finds himself" (1976:17).
He concludes that the situational syllabus may be useful in
certain circumstances, but "it does not offer a general
solution to problems of syllabus design" (1976:18). Basic-
ally, the situational syllabus is still 'synthetic' in its
approach; but by considering 'situations' as a take-off
point in the syllabus, it is a step closer towards teaching
the communicative use of language. However, it is still
short of the desired communicative capacity that is aimed
at in an effective ESL syllabus.

1.3 NOTIONAL SYLLABUS

Alternatively, the 'analytic' approach in syllabus
design seems to be more pragmatic for the purposes of ESL
teaching. It is based on an analysis of the learners' needs
by taking into account two practical considerations: "the
purposes for which people are learning language and the
kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet
those purposes" (Wilkins 1976:13). These considerations
are the basic criteria for the design and organization of a
notional syllabus. The syllabus essentially focusses on
the notions or functional meanings that the learners are
expected to be able to express through the target language.

It is organized in terms of content rather than form. The content primarily consists of notional categories instead of liguistic structures and lexical items normally included in the grammatical syllabus. From the content it will be possible to determine the forms or structures by which the relevant notions are expressed. But of course, there is no one-to-one relationship between grammatical structure and the notions they express. Therefore, it is inevitable that varied structures are included under the same notion. What is emphasized here is the functional meaning conveyed by the structure. Moreover, grouping together sentences with similar structures in a situational dialogue does not often reflect natural language use and does not necessarily contribute to appropriate use of language in real situations.

By teaching functional meaning, the notional approach attempts to help learners produce and understand utterances which express certain concepts, perform certain communicative acts, and in general use language to communicate. In an ESL course where priority is given to teaching the communicative use of language, the notional syllabus has an edge over the grammatical/structural syllabus. As Wilkins explains:

> The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight

of grammatical and situational factors. It is
potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus
because it will produce a communicative compet-
ence and because its evident concern with the
use of language will sustain the motivation of
the learners. It is superior to the situational
syllabus because it can ensure that the most
important grammatical forms are included and
because it can cover all kinds of language
functions, not only those that typically occur
in certain situations (1976:19).

2.0 PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS

2.1 COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

Part of the claim made by Wilkins is that the notional syllabus "will produce a communicative competence" in the learners. The significant implication of communicative competence in ESL teaching is its emphasis on the communicative function of language as opposed to the Chomskyan sense of linguistic competence which deals only with the grammatical knowledge of a language. By competence, Chomsky (1965) means the native speaker's abstract knowledge of the structure of the language that enables him to produce and understand novel sentences, to distinguish a grammatical from an ungrammatical sentence, and to recognize paraphrase relationships. However, it has been proposed that the Chomskyan sense of linguistic competence be extended to include also the ability to produce and understand sentences which are used in appropriate contexts and situations (Campbell and Wales 1970; Halliday 1970; Hymes 1972a). As Lyons summarizes, "the ability to use one's language correctly in a variety of socially determined situations is as much and as central a part of linguistic 'competence' as the ability to produce grammatically well-formed sentences" (1970:287). In other words, knowing a language is not only a matter of

linguistic competence but also of communicative competence.

In a sociolinguistic sense, communicative competence refers to the social rules of language use (Hymes 1972a, 1972b). According to Hymes (1972b:53), a theory of communicative competence must deal with the notion of "speech community, speech situation, speech event, speech act, fluent speaker, components of speech events, functions of speech, etc.". It also has to account for the competence acquired by the speaker "as when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes 1972a:277). This competence enables the speaker "to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishments by others" (Hymes 1972a:277).

Of course, the theory of communicative competence has not been pursued or formulated with the interests of language teachers in mind. But teachers certainly will benefit from its implications. The implications of this sociolinguistic concept in language teaching can be seen from the increasing interest lately in developing communicative activities and instructional materials directed towards teaching communicative competence to non-native speakers of English who are in English-speaking countries (Paulston 1974; Kettering 1975; Holmes and Brown 1976). It would seem that

the implications that can be drawn from the notions of communicative competence apply primarily to this type of situation where the learner is in the country of the target language (Paulston 1974:354). It is logical that in such a situation the learner has to familiarize himself with the social rules of language use in addition to the social and cultural values of the linguistic community, which will also determine the constraints on his language behavior. He also has to acquire a communicative competence comparable to that of the native speaker's because his linguistic proficiency will be measured according to his skill in manipulating the linguistic code as well as his ability to speak appropriately in different contexts. It is imperative, therefore, that he should always be aware of the social rules of communicative competence so that he will not be misinterpreted as rude, tactless, obnoxious or just simply funny. An amusing illustration of this point involves a foreigner who was invited to dinner by an American family. When the hostess urged a second helping on him, he replied in the politest form that he could think of, "My heart thanks you from the bottom, but I am totally fed up."

Hymes' sense of communicative competence obviously refers to the competence acquired by a native speaker for the purposes of communicating with other speakers who share

the same social rules of usage. But a pertinent question worth considering here is how much communicative competence should be taught to an ESL student who has to learn English in a situation far removed from the country of the target language? Stratton raised the same question when she pointed out:

> That a native speaker acquires a good deal more than linguistic competence is obvious, but what the substance of this "more" which has come to be called communicative competence is, is far from obvious. This lack of specification presents problems to a designer of a communicative syllabus (1977:135).

Wilkins advises that the first step in designing a syllabus is to define the objectives--based on an analysis of the needs of the learners--which "will be expressed in terms of the particular types of communication in which the learner will need to engage" (1976:55). In this case, perhaps an analysis of the needs of Malay-medium students will help determine the communicative competence that needs to be developed.

In trying to define the objectives of the syllabus, it is also necessary to take into consideration the context in which the students learn English as a second language. In the case of Malay-medium students, the social setting for

language interaction in English is entirely different from
that of the native country where English is spoken. The
social and cultural values are different. The conditions
governing the appropriateness of a speech act are also diff-
erent. From a pedagogical point of view, I believe that in
teaching communicative competence to Malay-medium students,
the emphasis should not be so much on the social rules of
language use but mainly on the communicative use of the
language. Specifically, the focus should be on the commun-
icative function of the language and the relation of ling-
uistic form to the functional meaning that is being commun-
icated.

It may have been implanted in the students through the
grammatical syllabus that there is a one-to-one relationship
between form and meaning. Interrogative sentences, for
example, are normally associated with questions and imper-
ative sentences are exclusively used for requests and comm-
ands. In communicative teaching based on the notional
approach, it could be pointed out that the interrogative
form could also be functionally used for requests as in
examples (1)--(5):

   (1) Will you open the door please?
   (2) Can you lend me a dollar please?

(3) Won't you have a seat please?

(4) Could you move over please?

(5) Do you want to set the table now?

The above sentences with the interrogative form are intended and understood not as questions or requests for information but as polite commands or requests for action. They have the same communicative function or 'illocutionary force' (Austin 1962) as the following corresponding imperative forms:

(6) Close the window please.

(7) Lend me a dollar please.

(8) Have a seat please.

(9) Move over please.

(10) Set the table now.

In trying to understand the meaning of an utterance, the student has to recognize the similar function in different forms as well as the similar form in different functions. Consider the following examples (Criper and Widdowson 1975:205):

(11) Go away.(Order/Command)

(12) Pass the salt, please. (Request)

    (13) Bake the pie in a hot oven. (Neutral Instruction)

    (14) Invest in premium bonds. (Advice)

    (15) Forgive us our trespasses. (Appeal)

    (16) Come to dinner tommorrow. (Invitation)

The above sentences serve to show that the imperative is not exclusively reserved for the communicative act of ordering or commanding but could also serve as other functions like those given in parentheses. Realizing the illocutionary force of an utterance will help the students to use the various forms to express certain communicative functions or interpret various speech acts. It will also help them to use appropriate speech act verbs in reported speech, which is an essential part of every day communication. In reporting (17), for instance, it would be very likely for a Malay-medium student to say (18) instead of (19). But it could be pointed out that (19) would be the more accurate form if the utterance in (17) is interpreted as an invitation instead of a question.

    (17) "Why don't you join us for dinner?"

    (18) He asked him why he didn't join them for dinner.

    (19) He invited him to join them for dinner.

In addition to the knowledge of the relationship between

form and meaning, the Malay-medium students also need to be
familiar with how linguistic forms operate in a text and
discourse. This is particularly necessary because a major
part of their communicative skills to meet their academic
needs involves the ability to read text-books and reference
materials written in English and comprehend lectures given
in English by native speakers. The ability to read and
listen efficiently demands a competence on the part of the
students in being able to correctly interpret contextual
meaning from deictic reference, and also from such cues as
sequence signals, linking signals and intonation.

It is also worth noting that there is a considerable
gap between a student's productive performance and his
receptive performance. He may understand more of the lang-
uage than what he himself is capable of producing. And he
needs to work harder at his receptive skills in order to
understand what he reads in English, to understand a lecture
or even to take part in a conversation with a native speaker.
Generally, it is not always possible to simplify a text or
discourse to the level that will ensure that it will be
understood by a non-native speaker. W.R. Lee notes that:

> On the whole native speakers of English will or
> cannot simplify what they say in order to be
> more intelligible to foreign speakers, who must

therefore get acquainted with so-called 'full'
English if they wish to understand native
speakers, although they may not need to use
'full' English themselves (1977:246).

In order to develop their receptive competence they
need to be exposed as much as possible to different kinds
of materials that they need to be familiar with. It is also
important that they get considerable practice in extracting
the meaning of what they read or listen to. The summary or
précis exercise could be a useful activity in the classroom
where the students could be guided to discover the meaning
of a text or discourse in relation to the forms that it is
being presented in. The ability to summarize or extract
the gist of a discourse will not only facilitate their
receptive skills but also their study skills such as note-
taking and rapid reading.

I also believe that grouping sentences with reference
to their functional meanings or 'notions' will help the
students to look beyond the surface forms of a passage and
focus on the way the meanings of the sentences contribute
to the main idea of the passage. In trying to teach the
students to arrive at the meaning, it may be necessary to
break down the passage and show the 'cohesive relation'
(Halliday and Hasan 1976) of the various constituents of a
text. In their reading, they should be able to differentiate

what is essential and what is trivial. They should be able
to identify the main ideas and supporting details of a piece
of discourse, and also make inferences and draw conclusions.
Their ability to understand the cohesion in a passage will
be of tremendous help in their understanding of a piece of
discourse as a whole instead of focussing their attention
on the surface forms of individual sentences.

2.2 COMMUNICATIVE SKILLS

In defining the objectives of the syllabus, consider-
ations should also be given to the kinds of communicative
skills that need to be developed. From the academic point
of view it was initially assumed that the Malay-medium
students need only reading and writing skills in order to
pass semester examinations and to fulfill the language
requirements for each Faculty. In response to a questionn-
aire survey conducted recently (Augustin et al. 1977),
members of the academic staff suggested that ESL courses at
U.P.M. should be directed at improving skills in reading,
writing, listening and speaking, in that order. This is in
contrast to the students' responses in the same survey,
where they listed the speaking skill (which was given the
least priority by the academic staff) as their first priority,
followed by writing, reading and listening.

In stressing the academic needs of ESL teaching at
U.P.M., attempts have been made to incorporate some form of
Scientific English into the ESL course, where the students
are exposed to a heavily science-based reading comprehension
course. This is based on the view that since the students
need to read Science books in English, instruction in this
specialized English will help them to follow scientific
discourse in the reading materials that are not available
in the vernacular. Although there is a plausible reason for
exposing the students to scientific discourse, limiting the
ESL course to the teaching of Scientific English will not
meet the communicative needs of the students. They need
more than just being able to read their text-books and
listen to lectures in English. They also would like to be
able to read the daily English newspaper, watch television
programs in English or just speak to their teachers and
friends in a second language. To be able to speak English
is a social asset and a psychological booster that should be
advantageously exploited to motivate students to learn Eng-
lish as a means of effective communication. As Elliott said:

> To maintain the view that the topic of discourse
> must be scientific in order to stimulate science
> students is to claim that only situations conn-
> ected with science will capture their interest.
> As human beings, science students are not exclu-
> sively interested in science. They share all
> the normal impulses which human beings have in

common. It simply is not true that they have
no interests outside of their academic studies,
no desire to learn, or indeed reason for learn-
ing English beyond their all-absorbing interest
in their subject (1976:33).

Furthermore, scientific discourse is something that
the students have to read in the text-books and reference
materials; and something that, I believe, they will event-
ually be familiar with, given enough time and exposure to
such materials. If they are well grounded in General Eng-
lish, it is really not necessary for them to be formally
instructed in Scientific English, Technical English or any
other specialized form of English. Once they have estab-
lished a foundation in the forms and functional meanings of
the language, they can apply the language to other contexts
and to different registers and make the necessary adjust-
ments. This is especially true in the case of English-
medium students who have reached a certain 'plateau' of
proficiency where they can progress on their own. As for
the Malay-medium students, what they need is a course in
General English aimed at developing communicative competence
in all the four skills.

2.3 INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

The skillful use of appropriate instructional materials

is an integral part of any language teaching program. And
when the objective of the program is to develop communicat-
ive competence in the integrated skills, it is more chall-
enging for teachers to come up with not only appropriate
but also interesting materials to motivate the students.
The teachers need to motivate the students to the highest
possible level in order to facilitate their teaching. A
highly motivated student will learn quickly no matter what.
The Malay-medium students are generally motivated to learn
English because they realize that being competent in English
will not only help them in their academic studies but also
will offer a wider range of career opportunities. But they
are somewhat disappointed when they cannot relate what they
learn in the classroom to their immediate needs outside the
classroom.

In order to sustain the students' motivation and
response, it is essential that the instructional materials
be relevant to their interest and have some immediate appeal
to them. But most important, the materials must be authentic,
wherever possible. At the tertiary level, where the students'
communicative needs are immediate, it is important that they
be exposed to authentic materials instead of something simp-
lified. The use of simplified materials will only delay
the contact that the students must have with the 'real'

language. The ultimate objective is to help them in their understanding of the authentic materials that they have to read or listen to. One of the reasons for using simplified texts is "to avoid syntactic complexity and idiosyncratic features of style which would be likely to confuse the students..." (Allen and Widdowson 1974a:4). But I would think that such 'complexity' and 'features' cannot and should not be shielded from the students because they are part of the real texts and discourse that the students have to read and understand. In fact, it would be to the advantage of the students if it could be shown how the 'complexity' and 'features' of the text relate to the communicative function that is being taught. On the use of authentic materials, I would concur with Reibel who noted that

> ... unedited texts of the target language contain in natural form the important, frequent and useful phonological, lexical and grammatical elements of the target language. The course designer's energies should be spent in making such texts usable as learning instruments, not in studying such texts for clues on how to build others like them (1969:292).

Although he was talking specifically about linguistic elements, I would infer that it also holds true for the occurrence of communicative function in genuine discourse, which could also be used as instructional materials.

Authentic written materials are readily available and
it is only up to the resourcefulness and ingenuity of the
teachers to choose the appropriate materials that can be
exploited in various ways to develop the communicative skills
of the students. The criteria for selecting the kinds of
materials will not be so much on linguistic simplicity as
on the interest and need of the students. As mentioned
earlier, they need not entirely be science-oriented but
they should be varied in levels of difficulty and content.
They may range from 'light' informal materials from popular
magazines and newspapers to the 'heavy' formal articles
from professional journals and chapters from text-books.
The students should be exposed to varieties of written as
well as spoken English that they are likely to encounter
outside the language class.

Authentic spoken materials for developing the listen-
ing skill may not be as easy to obtain as the written mater-
ials. Short of being exposed to live native speakers,
portable tape recorders and the language laboratory could
be advantageously used to provide the students with authen-
tic spoken materials. Although there are materials that are
commercially available, some may not be suitable for the
needs of the Malay-medium students. This means that teach-
ers have to select their own materials from various sources

such as radio and television programs, taped lectures, speeches and dialogues. Various exercises and activities could be devised around the taped materials such as dictation, listening comprehension, summary writing, note-taking, outlining and oral communication designed to help students develop certain communicative skills.

The pedagogic implications of a notional approach in teaching Malay-medium students could be briefly summarized as follows:

- while the notional approach emphasizes the acquisition of communicative competence, for Malay-medium students the teaching will focus on the communicative function of language use instead of the social rules of language use.

- the students should be made aware of the kinds of functions that can be expressed through a particular form and the various forms that can be used to express a particular function.

- in developing their receptive skills the students should be taught to focus beyond the surface meaning and they should try to understand the cohesion of a particular paragraph, passage and discourse as a whole.

- in devising exercises and activities, attention
  should be given to the development of all the four
  skills of language use.

- course materials should not be confined to topics
  related to science or the students' field of study.

- authentic instructional materials should be used as
  far as possible and the criteria for selection of
  materials will be the interest and needs of the
  students.

3.0 PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Finally, in this section I will briefly discuss the practical aspects of the notional approach--including the components of the notional syllabus, notional categories and their application to classroom methodology and techniques.

A notional syllabus is defined as any strategy of language teaching that derives the content of learning from an initial analysis of the learner's need to express three kinds of meaning that can be conveyed in the uttering of a sentence, namely, ideational meaning, modal meaning, and functional meaning (Wilkins 1976:21).

3.1 IDEATIONAL MEANING

Ideational meaning is usually related to the various grammatical forms that express the speaker's perception of states, events, processes and abstractions. It expresses the concepts that we all have about our experience of the world, which include meaning categories like 'number', 'amount', 'time', 'manner', 'degree'.

Most of these concepts have already been learned by Malay-medium students through the grammatical syllabus in

the secondary schools. But they probably learned them as grammatical forms that fit into certain slots in the sentence structure instead of concepts that are related to meaning categories. Although they may generally know how to use the basic forms to express these specialized concepts, they still make isolated mistakes in the use of prepositions, adverbs and tenses. This is partly due to the linear process of the grammatical syllabus which does not offer adequate opportunity for the students to fully assimilate the grammatical forms of the language. However, these grammatical errors could be taken care of as they arise and taught as part of a functional category instead of teaching them as separate remedial teaching units. Each form could be taught in context and in relation to its ideational meaning. The tense forms, for example, could be related to the concept of time in a text by identifying the time relations of a state or event--whether the form refers to a definite time in the past (e.g. 'saw') or to a period of time leading up to the present (e.g. 'has seen'). By making them aware of this relation, hopefully they will not apply the forms randomly but take into consideration the meaning that is conveyed through the use of the forms.

Another possibility would be to introduce 'spiralling' into the syllabus, where the same concepts are revisited or recycled to provide repeated practice in various contexts

(Martin 1978). The spiralling approach is supported by evidence from research on verbal behavior where recall of an item seems to be further strengthened if it is encountered in different, novel contexts each time it is practiced. However, simple repetition or review of grammar points in their original contexts will not contribute significantly to learning and will not improve recall (Martin 1978:153). For spiralling to be effective, the students should be given adequate opportunity to practice various forms in new contexts. Spiralling lends itself very well to the notional approach because the notional syllabus is oriented towards cyclic ordering rather than linear ordering. Linear ordering tends to impose a logical sequence of presentation of the syllabus content whereas cyclic ordering allows the students to have repeated experience of the same features of language in different contexts. This systematic repetition hopefully will enhance the students' mastery of the language.

Because Malay-medium students seem to have problems with meaning expressed through tense and aspect, it would be a good idea to apply spiralling in teaching the concept of time relations where the concept could be included as part of a functional category that is being dealt with. The difficulty that they have with tense and aspect is partly due to the differences in the way the concept of time relations is expressed in English and in their mother tongue. In Malay,

there are no tenses such as those found in English, and
Malay verbs are never inflected. But the confusion over
tenses is also due to the way the students initially learn
them through the grammatical syllabus, where the tenses are
taught separately and according to a certain sequence. For
example, Future time is taught first (20), followed by Pres-
ent Progressive (21), Present Perfect (22) and finally the
Past tense (23).

    (20) I shall/will open the door.

    (21) I am opening the door.

    (22) I have (just) opened the door.

    (23) I opened the door.

Although they can identify the various tenses, they
are not able to relate them to meanings that are implied
through the use of these tenses. The Past tense in (24),
for example, refers to a point of time in the past and
implies a gap between the time referred to and the present
moment. Whereas the Present Perfect in (25) implies a state
leading up to the present.

    (24) His sister <u>was</u> an invalid all her life.
        (i.e. she's now dead)

    (25) His sister <u>has been</u> an invalid all her life.
        (i.e. she's still alive)

The progressive aspect, on the other hand, refers to activity in progress, and therefore suggests not only that the activity is temporary but that it need not be complete, as in (26) and (28). If completion is implied, then the Past tense or the Present Perfect is used, as in (27) and (29).

(26) I've <u>been reading</u> your book.
    (i.e. I m still reading it)

(27) I've <u>read</u> your book.
    (i.e. I've finished it)

(28) He <u>was writing</u> a novel several years ago.
    (i.e. He may/may not have finished it)

(29) He wrote a novel several years ago.
    (i.e. He finished it)

The students should be made aware of such implied meaning conveyed through the use of tenses. They should be able to identify the meaning in context and be able to use the appropriate tenses for effective communication.

The students' incorrect generalization of a one-to-one relationship between form and meaning is often extended to the use of tense forms. In many students' eyes Past tense verbs, for instance, are related to past events (30), while the verb stems are usually used for habitual meaning (31), the '-ing' form are exclusively used for events that happen

at the moment of speaking (32) and the use of 'will/shall'
for talking about events in the future (33).

    (30) He <u>worked</u> yesterday.

    (31) He <u>works</u> every day

    (32) He <u>is working</u> now.

    (33) He <u>will work</u> tomorrow.

These may be the only forms that they will use when they
speak or write. And often they are confused when they
encounter the use of tenses that do not 'conform' to their
'neat' classification of usage. In authentic texts that
the students read they will no doubt come across a wide
range of meanings conveyed through tense and aspect. And
to write fluently using chronological order and time sequence
they require a mastery of tenses. So, to widen their comm-
unicative capacity they certainly need to be taught how these
ideational meanings are expressed through tense and aspect.
For example, it could be pointed out that the progressive
'-ing' form is not exclusively used for Present Continuous
tense but could also be used to express Past and Future time,
as in the following examples:

    <u>Present Time</u>

    (34) He'<u>s drinking</u> coffee. (Temporary present)

    (35) She'<u>s getting up</u> early nowadays. (Temporary habit)

Past Time

(36) I've been waiting for an hour.

    (Temporary state up to present time)

(37) He's been walking since he was eight months old.

    (Temporary habit up to present time)

(38) You've been smoking.

    (Temporary, with present result)

(39) We were watching TV.

    (Definite temporary)

Future Time

(40) Prices are going to rise.

    (Future time--arising from present time)

(41) We're moving next week.

    (Future time--arrangement/plan)

(42) I'll be seeing you.

    (Future time--as matter of course)

(43) The astronauts will be sleeping at 4:00 a.m.

    (Future time--temporary)

    In relation to the concept of time, I have also included in the syllabus the various forms that are used to express points of time, duration, frequency, and sequence. As explained earlier, the students are familiar with these forms and the concepts need not be taught as separate units. But sometimes a review is necessary and these forms, of course,

could be handled in conjunction with the teaching of functional meanings and taught in context.

Particular attention should be given to the forms denoting sequence, including linking signals and sequence signals, because the understanding of how these markers operate in discourse will facilitate the students' receptive skills in reading and listening. In reading a text or listening to a lecture, the students could be taught to be attentive to those signals and markers that may have the connecting function of:

- making a new start (Well, now,...)
- digression or changing the subject (By the way, incidentally, ...)
- enumeration (First, next, finally, ...)
- exemplification (For example, for instance, such as,)
- emphasis (Also, moreover, furthermore, ...)
- logical inference (Therefore, consequently, ...)
- summary or generalization (To sum up, in short, to summarize, ...)

Apart from the concept of time, I have also included the concepts of quantity and space as part of the ideational meaning that the students need to know. The concept of quantity that the students should be familiar with includes such forms as quantifiers, numerals and fractions, amount words

and scale of amount. And the concept of space includes forms
to express demensions such as distance, height, weight, temp-
erature, and also adverbs and prepositions to indicate locat-
ion, direction and motion. Generally, the students do not
have much difficulty in understanding these two concepts as
well as using the forms. It would not be too difficult to
handle any mistakes that may crop up here and there in the
use of adverbs and prepositions.

Another concept that needs the 'spiral' treatment is
deixis or deictic meaning. By deictic meaning is meant the
contextual reference of an utterance. This form of refer-
ence is a device of abbreviation that is used to substitute
the repeated element with a pronoun such as 'he' or 'she'
if it refers to a person that has already been mentioned in
the context. In linguistics literature it is referred to as
anaphoric reference where a repeated semantic content may be
omitted altogether (ellipsis) or may be replaced with a
pronoun such the adverb 'so' (substitution). In the follow-
ing conversation (Leech 1974:194) the deictic references are
substituted by the underlined words and the deictic meanings
are given in parentheses:

- They say that the match will be cancelled.
- Who said that? (i.e. ... that the match will be
  cancelled)

- Tom <u>did</u>. (i.e. ... said that the match will be cancelled)
- I don't believe <u>it</u>. (i.e. ... that the match will be cancelled)
- Well, <u>so</u> he said. (i.e. ... that the match will be cancelled)
- And <u>so</u> <u>did</u> Harry. (i.e. ... say that the match will be cancelled)

The deictic references could also be indicated by ellipsis, that is, the complete omission of understood elements:

- They say that the match will be cancelled.
- It can't be! (i.e. ... cancelled)
- How do you know? (i.e. ... that the match will be cancelled)
- Tom told me. (i.e. ... that the match will be cancelled)
- And Harry. (i.e. ... told me that the match will be cancelled)

The students should be familiar with such deictic reference which involve substitution and omission of repeated or under-stood elements. Such devices are not only encountered in formal texts but also in everyday conversation. It is part-icularly important for the students to understand, especially

in a lecture, the deictic meaning of such references as 'the
former reason ...' or '... but it is true in the _latter_
case'. At least when reading a text, the reader can recap-
itulate by re-reading the particular context to which the
reference is made. But in an on-going lecture, it will be
very frustrating for the student if he cannot mentally
follow such contextual reference.

3.2 MODAL MEANING

Modal meaning refers to the speaker's attitude when he
expresses his perception of states, events, etc., where the
ideational meaning is modified in some way. In expressing
the ideational meaning, a speaker can simultaneously express
the modal meaning by indicating the degree of validity or
likelihood that is attached to his statement (Wilkins 1976:21).
Modal meaning is related to such conditions as certainty,
obligation, necessity, possibility, and characterized by the
use of such modal auxiliaries as 'will', 'should', 'must',
'may'. In the suggested syllabus, I have arbitrarily categ-
orized modal meaning according to Scale of Certainty,
Volition, and Permission/Obligation.

The Scale of Certainty includes the expression of poss-
ibility (can, could, may), ability (can, able to, capable of),

logical necessity (have to, have got to), probability
(probably, is likely). Volition indicates the willingness
or intention of the speaker and includes forms like 'will',
'would', 'want', 'intend to', 'would like to', 'is going to'.
The strength of volition may be marked grammatically through
the use of certain forms or indicated phonologically by int-
onation and stress, as in the following examples:

>   (44) I want to do it. (Neutral volition)
>   (45) I will do it my<u>self</u>. (I insist on trying ...)
>   (46) I <u>won't</u> do it! (I am determined not to ...)

Modal meaning also includes expressions that indicate
permission (can, could, may), obligation (must, have to)
and prohibition (mustn't, shouldn't).

This grouping of modal meaning does not in any way
reflect the order in which modality should be taught nor
does it suggest that modal meaning should be taught as a
category by itself. There is a certain amount of overlapp-
ing--modality is related to ideational meaning as much as it
affects the functional meaning of an utterance. The express-
ion of Future time, for instance, is closely bound up with
modal meaning (will, shall) and so are functional categories
of command (must, have to) and requests (could you, ...).
Like ideational meaning, modality should be taught in context

and in relation to the functional category that is being
presented. As Wilkins rightly observes "... there is no way
in which a single element of meaning (concept or language
function) could be taught without other kinds of meaning
simultaneously being introduced"(1976:24).

3.3 FUNCTIONAL MEANING

The whole idea of a notional syllabus centers around
functional meaning which is organized according to functional
categories in the syllabus content. Functional meaning
refers to the social purpose of the utterance as a whole in
the larger context in which it occurs. The purpose conveyed
by an utterance may be to express one's emotional reaction
of approval, disappointment or the utterance may be spoken
with the intention of persuading, requesting, suggesting or
inviting. The ideational meaning expressed by the forms
within a sentence does not tell much about the communicative
function of the sentence. As noted earlier, the same forms
could be used to express different functions in different
contexts. Of course, the exact function of an utterance
cannot be determined without knowing the situational context
in which it was made. But by drawing the students' attention
to these functional categories, they will at least be aware
of how the language is used to convey the intended meaning
and hopefully, they will also be able to correctly interpret

the functional meaning of an utterance in real situations.

In categorizing the functional meaning I have used the categories suggested by Wilkins (1976) with certain simplif- ication and selection in the course content based on what I believe to be relevant to Malay-medium students. The funct- ional categories include the following:

- Personal Emotions: Categories which express the speaker's emotional reactions to events and people. They also include the notions of judgement and assessment.

- Suasion: Categories that are designed to affect the behavior of others.

- Argument: Categories which relate to the exchange of information and views.

- Rational Inquiry and Exposition: Categories which relate to the rational organization of thought and speech.

What I have attempted to outline here is a sort of ref- erence syllabus and not a teaching syllabus in the sense

that it does not lay out in detail what should be taught in
any particular class period from day to day. This could
also be considered as a pre-syllabus from which teachers
can choose the notional categories that need to be taught
or emphasized to cater to the needs and requirements of each
class, Faculty or group of students in particular disciplines.
This pre-syllabus will provide some sort of a framework
within which the teachers can plan their lessons.

The outline for the pre-syllabus is given below and
details of the syllabus content are given in Appendix B.

Pre-Syllabus Outline:

1.0 Concepts:
   1.1 Time: points of time, duration, frequency, tense
        and aspect, sequence.
   1.2 Quantity: quantifiers, numerals, amount words,
        scale of amount.
   1.3 Space: dimensions, location, direction, motion.
   1.4 Deixis: time, place, person.

2.0 Modality:
   2.1 Scale of Certainty.
   2.2 Volition.
   2.3 Permission and Obligation.

3.0 <u>Personal Emotions and Judgement</u>:

    3.1 Approval, disapproval.

    3.2 Like, dislike, preference.

    3.3 Hope, anticipation.

    3.4 Disappointment, regret.

    3.5 Surprise.

    3.6 Worry, concern.

4.0 <u>Suasion</u>:

    4,1 Commands.

    4.2 Requests.

    4.3 Advice, suggestions, invitations.

    4.4 Warnings, promises.

    4.5 Reported Commands, Advice, Requests, etc.

5.0 <u>Argument</u>:

    5.1 Affirmation, denial.

    5.2 Agreement, disagreement.

    5.3 Statements, questions, responses.

    5.4 Reported statements and questions.

6.0 <u>Rational Inquiry and Exposition</u>:

    6.1 Comparison.

    6.2 Cause, reason, purpose.

    6.3 Condition, contrast, concession.

3.4 COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

Although I am mainly concerned in this study with the
approach in teaching Malay-medium students, it would be
pertinent also to consider its effect on the methods and
techniques that will be applied in the classroom. Moreover,
the viability of an approach can only be gauged from its
potential applicability translated into classroom method-
ology and techniques. I will attempt to exemplify here how
a notional approach could possibly be applied in the class-
room by giving some examples of exercises and activities
designed to develop the communicative competence of the
students.

<u>Sample text:</u>

Deep in the Kampung Kerinchi squatter area four American
experts and a Federal Industrial Development Authority (FIDA)
consultant passed around a tray of ice cubes--'frozen' by the
sun.

5   The energy came from a solar-powered electrical system,
set up at the home of Encik Abdul Aziz bin Abdul Kadir.

Encik Abdul Aziz, 27, who works at the Registrar's
Department at the University of Malaya, has lived there for
five years, and has kerosene lamps for light, no refrigerator
10 and draws his water by bucket from a well.

Five years with no power and suddenly all this--electric
lights, a fridge and a television even.

For though he lives within sight of Angkasapuri, he has
never watched TV in his own home before.

15   "I go to my sister's house at the flats," he said.

Last night he didn't. And he had about a hundred people for company too.

When the solar panels were being set up villagers were already gathering to watch.

20 . The TV set was the star of the show, but after the initial excitement, the other appliances received some notice.

There were a pump to get water out of the well with no sweat, a small fan, a transistor radio and two fluorescent lamps.

25 The Americans, from Electro Oxide Corp. Florida, were in Malaysia at the invitation of FIDA to demonstrate their solar equipment.

The equipment has been at the rooftop of a hotel here since Saturday and yesterday they moved it all to Kampung 30 Kerinchi.

They had it set up in less than half an hour, and for the first time, the villagers were enjoying TV in their own kampung.

The American firm is leaving two of the 10 panels of 35 solar cells at the kampung when they go to demonstrate the process elsewhere.

The two panels will light up a fluorescent tube, free of charge, for 20 years.

Mr. Rocco Tarantino, president of Electro Oxide said: 40 "The equipment will need no maintenance, no fuel, will not make any sound and is non-polluting. And it is totally safe. A child can put his finger into the outlet socket and absolutely nothing will happen."

The equipment consists of two sealed glass panels about 45 five feet by three, housing crystal wafers that absorb the energy from the sun and pass it along a circuit through a connecting wire to the appliance.

A battery, about twice the size of a car battery, absorbs excess energy and stores it for night use. The battery can 50 hold 48 hours of energy. .

(Malaysia--A Monthly Review of Malaysian Affairs:Aug. 1978)

The above sample text is a news item of the sort that the students may often come across in the newspapers. The topic is current and informal and may be interesting enough to generate a discussion. But the students must first understand what they are reading. Any unfamiliar word, phrase or term should be explained or even translated if necessary. If a text is assigned before class period, the students should be encouraged to look up the meanings of difficult words in a dictionary. The use of the word 'solar' in the text provides a good opportunity to relate it to other words that are formed in the same way, such as 'lunar', 'polar', 'linear', 'nuclear'.

To help the students get a general idea of the text, the following exercise on comprehension and contextual reference could be done orally or assigned as a written exercise:

Comprehension:
- What is a solar-powered electrical system?
- How does the solar equipment work?
- What are some of the advantages of using the equipment?
- What is the function of the battery?
- Explain the phrase "'frozen' by the sun".
- Suggest a suitable title for the text.
- Briefly summarize the gist of the text.

- What do the underlined words refer to in the text?

  (Note: the number in parenthesis before the sentence
         refers to the line in the text on pages 45-46)

  (6) Encik Abdul Aziz ... has lived <u>there</u> for five
       years.

  (11) Five years with no power and suddenly all <u>this</u>

  (13) ... has never watched TV in his own <u>before</u>

  (35) ... when they go to demostrate <u>the process</u>
       elsewhere.

  (46) ... and pass <u>it</u> along a circuit through a
       connecting wire to the appliance

  (49) ... and stores <u>it</u> for night use

When the students have adequately understood the main
points about the text, the teacher then may want to focus
on particular teaching points. For example, the notion of
'concession' with the appropriate forms could be introduced
with examples based on the text:

Concession:

    Concession statements are used if two circumstances are
in contrast; it means that the one is <u>surprising</u> or <u>unexpected</u>
in view of the other.

Examples: - (13) ... <u>though</u> he lives within sight of Angka-
                 sapuri, he has never watched TV in his own home
                 before.

          - Encik Abdul Aziz has never watched TV in his own
            home before <u>even though</u> he lives near Angkasapuri.

          - <u>Although</u> the initial cost of the solar panels is

expensive, the cost of electricity is cheaper in the long run.

- The villagers don't understand how the solar panels work, <u>but</u> they enjoy watching TV <u>anyway</u>.

- Encik Aziz lived in Kampung Kerinchi for the last five years <u>in spite of</u> the fact that there was no electricity in his house.

Attention could also be drawn to the various forms that are used in the text to express the ideational meaning of Present, Past and Future time:

Present Time:

    (A) <u>Present 'habit'</u> (The Simple Present Tense)

        (7) Encik Abdul Aziz <u>works</u> at the Registrar's Department.

        (10) He <u>draws</u> his water by bucket from a well.

        (15) "I <u>go</u> to my sister's house at the flats."

    (B) <u>Present State</u> (The Simple Present Tense)

        (48) A battery <u>absorbs</u> energy and <u>stores</u> it for night use.

        This use of The Simple Present Tense also applies to a state that may stretch indefinitely into the past and future such as 'general truths' that are very common in scientific statements: e.g. Water <u>boils</u> at 100°C; Hot air <u>rises</u>.

    (C) <u>State leading up to the Present time</u>
       (The Present Perfect Tense)

        (8) He <u>has lived</u> there for five years.

        (28) The equipment <u>has been</u> at the rooftop of a hotel here since Saturday.

        (13) He <u>has never watched</u> TV in his own home before.

Past Time:

    (A) <u>Definite event</u> (The Simple Past Tense)

        (16) He <u>had</u> about a hundred people for company.

        (29) Yesterday they <u>moved</u> it all to Kampung Kerinchi.

    (B) <u>Definite temporary</u> (The Past Progressive)

        (18) When the solar panels <u>were being set up</u>, villagers <u>were already gathering</u>.

        (31) For the first time, the villagers <u>were enjoying</u> TV in their own kampung.

Future Time:

    (A) <u>Future Time--plan or arrangement</u> <u>(The Present Progressive)</u>

        (34) The American firm <u>is leaving</u> two of the 10 panels.

    (B) <u>Future Time--neutral</u> (will/shall)

        (37) The two panels <u>will</u> light up a fluorescent tube for 20 years.

Role-Playing

To get the students to practice the use of the tenses, exercises and activities could be devised around the text where the students could also develop their information-getting and reporting skills. Such activities usually involve some role-playing on the part of the students and if properly handled can be quite rewarding. The students generally enjoy role-playing where they can make up their own dialogues and focus on the meaning that is being communicated rather than being told what structures they have to use. The

students, for example, could carry out the following inst-
ructions for their role-playing:

- You are a reporter for The New Straits Times.
  Conduct an interview with Encik Aziz, Mr. Tarantino
  or the FIDA consultant.
- Imagine you are Encik Aziz. Tell about yourself
  and your experience with the solar equipment.
- Put yourself in the place of Mr. Tarantino. Explain
  the demonstration that you are carrying out in
  Kampung Kerinchi.

Discussion

When the students are more proficient and confident in
using the language, more formal activities such as oral
reports, discussion or debate could be organized. This may
require the students to do some reading or look up some
information in the library, but it is worth the effort
because it will give them an opportunity to actively use the
language to discuss topics such as the following:

- Potential sources of energy for developing countries
  like Malaysia.
- Is solar energy economical for a country like Malaysia?
- The Energy Crisis.

'Sharing'

Students are often nervous and uneasy if they are asked

to present oral reports or participate in a debate, even
when using their first language. But a spontaneous and less
'formidable' activity that could be carried out regularly in
the classroom is what I call 'sharing'. Students are encou-
raged to 'share' or tell about their everyday experience to
the class which could be anything from a joke, a funny inci-
dent, to an announcement or a suggestion. It could just be
a complaint about the food that they had in the cafeteria or
a formal announcement for a meeting. But what is important
is that the sharing be based on real communicative situations
where the students can practice their reporting skills. And
while a student is doing the reporting, other students can
practice their information-getting skills by asking for more
details about what is being reported.

Such informal activities will break the monotony and
'formality' of an English class and will encourage the stu-
dents to participate in a two-way communication. Another
useful 'technique' that could be utilized to add variety to
a language lesson as well as make it more interesting is to
distribute numbered cards with various instructions on them.
Each student gets a card and he has to communicate with ano-
ther student who has a matching card with the same number.
The instructions on the card may be something like this:

Giving-Receiving Instructions

Instructions for Player A:

- On your card you will find a diagram which your partner has to draw.

- Give instructions to your partner so that he will be able to draw the diagram on his card.

- After that, listen to the instructions given by your partner and you draw his diagram on your card.

- At the end of the round, compare your drawing with the original.

Instructions for Player B:

- On your card you will find a diagram and your partner has a different diagram on his card.

- Listen to the instructions given by your partner and draw his diagram on your card.

- After that, give instructions to your partner so that he will be able to draw your diagram on his card.

- At the end of the round, compare your drawing with the original.

Example:
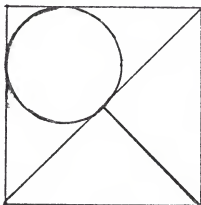
For the above diagram the instructions might be:

- Draw a square, each side measuring two inches long.

- There is a straight line going from the top right-hand corner to the bottom left-hand corner.

- A straight line is at right angles to the diagonal coming from the bottom right-hand corner.

- In the top half there is a circle which touches all the three sides of the top triangle.

The main objective of this activity is to improve the students' communicative ability. In carrying out the instructions, first the student has to understand what he has to do, and then he has to make himself understood by his partner as well as understand his partner's instructions. Sometimes, in order to get the correct information, he has to ask a lot of questions--What is a diagonal? Please repeat the last instruction again; Is it from left to right or right to left? etc.

The following example involves sharing of information and provides some practice in hypothesizing, making inferences and drawing conclusions:

Sharing Information

Instructions for Players A and B:

> On your card you have some statements about persons A, B, C, D, X, Y, Z. Your partner has also some statements about them. Share your information with your partner. Between the two of you, decide what subjects each of them are specializing in. However, one of them is a professor while the others are students. When you have decided, tick off the appropriate square.

Subjects	Miss A	Miss B	Mr. X	Mr. Y	Mrs. Z	Mrs. C	Mr. D
Home Science							
Geography							
Science							
Art							
Commerce							
Literature							
Professor							

Statements given to Player A:

- The Art student likes gaudy shirts and shares a room with Mr. X.

- If you want a good meal, ask Miss A's room-mate to cook you one.

- Mrs. C is a voracious reader and she has chosen the right subject.

- Mr. D is married.

Statements given to Player B:

- Her husband lets her help him in his firm's book-keeping now and then to give her some practice.

- The Geography student spends all his afternoons with his girl-friend who shares a room with Miss B.

- He hates grading examination papers, especially when his children make so much noise in the apartment.

Listening Materials

I have also included here samples of listening materials which are designed to develop certain communicative skills including:

- comprehension of aural instructions
- making deductions, comparison, etc. based on aural information
- understanding contextual reference
- listening for main idea.

Aural Instruction, Deduction, Condition, Comparison

Instruction to students:

In each of the following exercises you will hear some instructions. Each instruction will be repeated twice. Listen carefully and make your responses on the worksheet.

Exercise 1: (Aural Instructions)

- On your worksheet, print your name at the bottom right-hand corner of the page.
- In the middle of the page, draw a circle roughly 2 cm. in diameter.
- On the right and about 2 cm. away from it, draw a square with sides approximately 2 cm. long.
- On the left of the circle, and the same distance away, draw a triangle with sides 2 cm. long.
- To the left of the circle write a capital Q and to the right of the square a capital E.
- Between the circle and the square, write a capital W.

Exercise 2: (Condition)

- If five times five is less than five squared, put a
  line under the letter Q.

- If it is more, put a line under the letter E.

- If they are the same, put a line above the letter W.

Exercise 3: (Condition)

- In today's date multiply the number of the month by
  the day of the month.

- If the result is more than 300, write it inside the
  square.

- If 300 or less, write it inside the circle.

- Unless it is less than 50, when you should write it
  inside the triangle.

Exercise 4: (Deduction)

- John's birthday is on July 3rd.

- Exactly a week after his birthday he goes away for
  three weeks' holiday.

- Five days after he goes away, his uncle comes to
  stay at his house for two weeks.

- Give the following dates--when John begins his holi-
  day; when he returns from his holiday; when his uncle
  arrives; does he meet his uncle? If so, give the
  date.

Exercise 5: (Comparison--measurement)

On your worksheet is line A which is one inch long.
Draw the following lines and write down the length of
each line in figures:

- Line B, twice as long as A.
- Line C, over three times as long as A.
- Line D, half as long as B.
- Line E, double the length of B.
- Line F, almost a quarter of the length of E.

Contextual Reference:

Instructions to students:

In each of the following exercises you will hear a
short passage in which you have to identify the con-
textual reference of the words given on your work-
sheet, that is, what the words refer to in the passage.
Each passage will be read once through and then in
sections. After each section, there will be a short
pause for you to write down your answer.

Tapescript	Worksheet

Exercise 1:

After fertilization, the ovules develop in-
side the fruit chambers. Here they are pro-
tected from damage by rain. They are also
protected from winds which would absorb all
the moisture from them. Winds could cause
the ovules to dry up and die. Their force
could also damage the delicate structures
in the seeds.

Now listen to the passage again in sections:

1(a) After fertilization, the ovules deve-
     lop inside the fruit chamber. <u>Here</u>   1(a) Here
     they are protected from damage by rain.

1(b) The ovules are protected from damage by
     rain. <u>They</u> are also protected from   1(b) They
     winds which would absorb all the mois-
     ture from them.

1(c) Winds would cause the ovules to dry up
     and die. <u>Their force</u> could also damage   1(c) Their
     the delicate structures in the seed.   force

Exercise 2:

By Ohm's Law, voltage is directly propor-
tional to current if resistance remains con-
stant. The galvanometer has a very low
resistance. Therefore, if a high voltage is
applied across its terminals, a large cur-
rent flows through it. This might damage
the instrument.

Tapescript	Worksheet

Now listen to the passage in sections:

2(a) By Ohm's Law, voltage is directly pro-
     portional to current if resistance
     remains constant. The galvanometer has
     a very low resistance. Therefore, if a
     high voltage is applied across its ter-
     minals, a large current flows through
     <u>it</u>.   2(a) it

2(b) If a high voltage is applied across the
     galvanometer's terminals, a large cur-
     rent flows through it. <u>This</u> might   2(b) This
     damage the instrument.

Exercise 3:

It is common knowledge that a rise of tem-
perature causes objects to expand and a fall
of temperature causes contraction. The rule
applies to gases, liquids and solids but the
effect is much more marked in the case of
gases than in the case of the other two.

Now listen to the passage in sections:

3(a) It is common knowledge that a rise of
     temperature causes objects to expand
     and a fall of temperature causes con-
     traction. <u>The rule</u> applies to gases,   3(a) The rule
     liquids and solids.

3(b) The rule applies to gases, liquids and
     solids but the effect is much more
     marked in the case of gases than in the
     case of <u>the other two</u>.   3(b) the other
                                                          two

<u>Listening for Main Idea</u>:

Instructions to students:

    When listening to a lecture and taking notes it is
    important that you identify the main idea which usually

contains the important information. You also need to
distinguish the main idea from examples, digressions
and irrelevant details which you need not include in
your notes.

In the following exercises you will practice identi-
fying the main idea of short selections. Listen to
the selections and do the exercises in your worksheet.

Tapescript	Worksheet
Selection 1:	Exercise 1:

Selection 1 — Tapescript:

Chlorine, a poisonous gas,
often combines with other ele-
ments to make compounds. An
example of one of these com-
pounds is salt which is made
up of chlorine and sodium.

Exercise 1 — Worksheet:

Which of the following
statements best states the
main idea?

(a) ___ Chlorine is a poi-
sonous gas.

(b) ___ Chlorine often com-
bines with other
elements to make
compounds.

(c) ___ Salt is made up of
chlorine and sodium.

Selection 2 — Tapescript:

Mushrooms and truffles are
members of the fungus family.
The fungi are plants which
cannot make their own food but
must live on the decaying
remains of other living things.

Exercise 2 — Worksheet:

(a) ___ Fungi are the remains
of living things.

(b) ___ Mushrooms and truffles
are the only plants
which cannot make
their own food.

(c) ___ Fungi are plants which
cannot make their own
food but live off
decaying matter.

Selection 3 — Tapescript:

Today we are going to look at

Exercise 3 — Worksheet:

(a) ___ A new potential for

Tapescript	Worksheet
pesticides. I compare pesticides with other technological developments which may be more destructive than they are constructive. Consider for example the potential for destruction which was introduced to civilization with the development of atomic power. Now, pesticides are chemicals which were developed to protect plant life but actually they may be destroying plants and man.	destruction was introduced when atomic power was developed. (b) ___ Technological developments may be destructive. (c) ___ Pesticides may be destroying both plants and man. (d) ___ Pesticides are comparable to atomic power.
Selection 4:	Exercise 4:
Since oxygen exists to such a large extent in air, it is natural for attempts to be made to obtain it from this source. It is not easy to do this since nitrogen is an inert element and cannot readily combine with anything and this leave oxygen pure. By far the best process for obtaining oxygen industrially is from liquid air.	(a) ___ The best way to obtain oxygen for industrial purposes is from liquid air. (b) ___ Oxygen exists in air. (c) ___ Nitrogen is an inert element and cannot combine with anything and thus leave oxygen pure. (d) ___ The best way to obtain oxygen is from air.
Selection 5:	Exercise 5:
Gases have weight and will exert pressure as a result of this. The pressure of a gas is transmitted equally in all directions. As a result of this a gas will be forced to	(a) ___ The pressure of gases is transmitted equally (b) ___ The pressure of a gas is transmitted in all directions.

Tapescript	Worksheet
move from a high pressure region to a low pressure region.	(c) ___ A gas will move from a high pressure region to a low pressure region.
	(d) ___ Gases have weight and will exert pressure.

4.0 CONCLUSION

In this study I have attempted to make a preliminary proposal of adopting a notional approach in the planning of the ESL program at Universiti Pertanian Malaysia. Particular attention is drawn to the pedagogic implications and the practical aspects of applying the approach in the teaching of English as a second language to Malay-medium students. In planning the notional syllabus, priority should be given to the communicative needs of the students to use English for their academic purposes as well as for their everyday social interaction. The pre-syllabus content attempts to give some kind of framework for teachers to plan the teaching syllabus to meet the particular needs of their students. The communicative activities discussed in this thesis should give some idea of how the notional approach could be applied in the classroom. But teachers may want to try out innovative methods and techniques that may be appropriate for their own group of students. The challenge in language teaching is in trying to adapt the method to the situation and need of the students and not the other way around. However, the choice of approaches and methods should not be based solely on current trends but on how effective they are in fulfilling the ultimate objective of ESL teaching, that is, to help the students use English as an effective means of communication.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Allen, J.P.B. and S.P. Corder (eds.). 1974. The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics Vol III. London: Oxford University Press.

_____. 1975. The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics Vol. II. London: Oxford University Press.

Allen, J.P.B. and H.G. Widdowson. 1974a. 'Teaching the Communicative Use of English'. IRAL 12:1-21.

_____. 1974b. English in Physical Science. London: Oxford University Press.

_____. 1975. 'Grammar and Language Teaching'. In Allen and Corder (eds.). 1975.

Augustin, J.J. et al. 1977. The Status of English at Universiti Pertanian Malaysia. Unpublished Report. Serdang, Selangor.

Austin, J.L. 1962. How to Do Things With Words. Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Bolinger, D. 1972. 'The Influence of Linguistics: Plus and Minus'. TESOL Quarterly 6:107-120.

Campbell, R. and R. Wales. 1970. 'The Structure of Language Acquisition'. In Lyons (ed.) 242-260.

Chomsky, N. 1965. Aspects of the Theory of Syntax. Cambridge, Mass: M.I.T. Press.

Criper, C. and H.G. Widdowson. 1975. 'Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching'. In Allen and Corder (eds.). 1975.

Davison, W.F. 1976. Review of 'MMC: Developing Communicative Competence in English as a Foreign Language' by Mary Bruder. TESOL Quarterly 10:106-109.

Elliott, Colin R. 1976. 'Must Scientific English be Dull?'. English Language Teaching 31:29-34.

Esser, Jurgen. 1977. Review of 'A Communicative Grammar of English' by Leech and Svartvik. IRAL 15:347-350.

Farid, Anne. 1976. 'Communication in the Classroom: Student-Improvised Dialogues'. TESOL Quarterly 10:299-304.

Gumperz, J. and D. Hymes (eds.). 1972. Directions in Sociolinguistics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

Halliday, M.A.K. 1970. 'Language Structure and Language Function'. In Lyons (ed.) 140-165.

_____ and R. Hasan. 1976. Cohesion in English. London: Longman.

Hauptman, Philip C. 1971. 'A Structural Approach vs. a Situational Approach to Foreign-Language Learning'. Language Learning 21:235-244.

Hill, L.A. 1971. 'From Syntax to Semantics'. English Language Teaching 25:229-238.

Holmes, J. and D.F. Brown. 1976. 'Developing Sociolinguistic Competence in a Second Language'. TESOL Quarterly 10:423-431.

Howatt, Anthony. 1974. 'The Background to Course Design'. In Allen and Corder (eds.) 1974.

Hymes, Dell. 1972a. 'On Communicative Competence'. In Pride and Holmes (eds.) 269-293.

_____. 1972b. 'Models of the Interaction of Language and Social Life'. In Gumperz and Hymes (eds.).

Kettering, J.C. 1975. Developing Communicative Competence. Pittsburgh: The University Center for International Studies, University of Pittsburgh.

Lawrence, Mary S. 1972. Writing As a Thinking Process. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

Lee, W.R. 1977. 'What Type of Syllabus for the Teaching of English as a Foreign or Second Language'. IRAL 15: 246-249.

Leech, G. 1974. Semantics. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

_____ and J. Svartvik. 1975. A Communicative Grammar of English. London: Longman.

Lyons, John. (ed.) 1970. New Horizons in Linguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Martin, Marilyn A. 1978. 'The Application of Spiraling to the Teaching of Grammar'. TESOL Quarterly 12:151-161.

Paulston, Christine B. 1974. 'Linguistics and Communicative Competence'. TESOL Quarterly 8:347-362.

Pride, J.P. and J. Holmes (eds). 1972. Sociolinguistics. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Quirk, R. and S. Greenbaum. 1973. A Concise Grammar of Contemporary English. New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich.

Reibel, David A. 1969. 'Language Learning Analysis'. IRAL 7:283-294.

Rivers, Wilga. 1973. 'From Linguistic Competence to Communicative Competence'. TESOL Quarterly 7:25-34.

Savignon, Sandra J. 1972. Communicative Competence: An Experiment in Foreign-Language Teaching. Philadelphia: The Center for Curriculum Development, Inc.

Silva, Carmen. 1975. 'Recent Theories of Language Acquisition in Relation to a Semantic Approach in Second Language Teaching'. English Language Teaching 29:337-346.

Stratton, Florence. 1977. 'Putting the Communicative Syllabus in its Place'. TESOL Quarterly 11:131-141.

Valette, Rebecca M. 1973. 'Developing and Evaluating Communicative Skills in the Classroom'. TESOL Quarterly 7:407-424.

White, R.V. 1974. 'Communicative Competence, Registers and Second Language Teaching'. IRAL 12:127-141.

Widdowson, H.G. 1972. 'The Teaching of English as Communication'. English Language Teaching 27:15-19.

_____. 1974. 'An Approach to the Teaching of a Scientific English Discourse'. RELC Journal 5:27-40.

Wilkins, D.A. 1976. Notional Syllabuses. London: Oxford University Press.

Yee, Christine T.S. 1975. 'Sequence Signals in Technical English'. RELC Journal 6:63-101.

APPENDIX A

CORE COURSES

BB-051 (Stage I): Fundamentals in English Usage

Core/Pre-requisite for BB-151 (3 credit hours)

The course will comprise 2 contact hours and 3 hours in the laboratory (2 in the Language Laboratory, and 1 hour in the Reading Laboratory).

Course Content:

Understanding and mastering the fundamentals of English. Revision of the normal verb and its five forms, the use of the five forms including infinitive, gerunds, and participles; regular and irregular verbs, knowing and using all the irregular verbs, their forms, and meaning, the verb 'be'. Auxiliary verbs. All the basic tenses. The active and passive aspects of the basic tenses. The affirmative, negative and interrogative. The personal pronouns. The countable and uncountable nouns. The article. Simple and short comprehension passages for oral and written work. Criteria for choice of passages will be relevance to the Sciences and interest. Vocabulary extension via vocabulary substitution. Study of words and phrases in context--importance of context in determining meaning. The use of the dictionary, basic English sentence structures, pattern practice, rapid reading and comprehension, dictation, listening comprehension. Writing of simple paragraphs.

BB-151 (Stage II): Intermediate English

Core/Pre-requisite for BB-251 (2 credit hours)

The course will comprise 2 contact hours and 1 hour in the laboratory.

Course Content:

English usage in scientific writing. Particular attention and reference to structures and registers of scientific writing. Comprehension and written work. The main criterion for choice of passages will be relevance to the students' special field of study. Vocabulary extension via the study of words and phrases in context. Further practice in the use of the dictionary. Listening comprehension. Note-taking techniques and practice in note-taking. Making summaries from short passages. Practice in rapid reading and comprehension. Practice in definitions of scientific terms and describing processes in simple language. Paragraph writing. Dictation. Remedial work in grammar and structure.

BB-251 (Stage III): General English Usage

Core/Pre-requisite for BB-252, 253, 254, 255 (2 credit hours)
The course will comprise 2 contact hours and 1 hour in the
laboratory/tutorial.

Course Content:

The use of English for the science student, with particular
reference to expressing concepts in the pure and applied
sciences. Writing up experiments. Describing processes,
writing of expository composition. Remedial work in gram-
mar and structure. Eradication of common errors, use of
simple and concise language. Vocabulary extension via the
study of words and phrases in context. More advanced
comprehension work from scientific writing. Making summaries
and gists of involved scientific writing. Interpretation
of tables, figures, diagrams and flow diagrams through
expression in spoken and written forms. Practice in spoken
language by short talks and discussions. Practice in listen-
ing comprehension, note-taking and speed reading.

APPENDIX B

PRE-SYLLABUS CONTENT

1.0 CONCEPTS

  1.1 <u>Time</u>:

    1.1.1 Points of time:

- Time adverbials--yesterday, last week, on Sunday, three weeks ago, etc.

- Prepositions--at, on, in during, etc.

- Time relationships--before, after, by, in.

- Time-when adverbs--now, nowadays, then, recently, etc.

- Time-when conjunctions--when, once, as soon as, etc.

    1.1.2 Duration:

- for + NP--for a month/several years/two years.

- from ... to/till/through.

- while, since, until.

- adverbs/idioms of duration--for the moment, for a while, for ages, etc.

    1.1.3 Frequency:

- Indefinite frequency--from most frequent (always) to least frequent (never)

- Definite frequency--once a day, weekly, every other day, etc.

- Frequency phrases/expressions with quantifiers--some days, any time, most weekends, etc.

1.1.4 Tense and Aspect:

- Present time

- Past time

- The Present Perfect

- The Past Perfect

- The Progressive Aspect

- Future time

1.1.5 Sequence:

- Linking signals--will, now, by the way, incidentally, etc.

- Sequence signals--first, then, next, finally.

1.2 <u>Quantity</u>:

1.2.1 Quantifiers--all, some, a few, many, much, etc.

1.2.2 Numerals--cardinal numbers and fractions.

1.2.3 Amount words of inclusive meaning--all, both, every, each.

1.2.4 Scale of amount--all ... none.

1.3 <u>Space</u>:

1.3.1 Dimensions--distance, height, weight, etc.

1.3.2 Location--adverbs/prepositions of place

1.3.3 Motion--indicating passage (through, across, over), direction (up, down, along), motion (up and down, in and out).

1.4 <u>Deixis</u>:

1.4.1 Time--time adverbials (now, then, formerly ...)

1.4.2 Place--pointer words (this, that)

1.4.3 Person--pronouns (I, he, they, one, etc.)

2.0 MODALITY

    2.1 <u>Scale of Certainty</u>:

        2.1.1 Possibility--can, may, could, might

        2.1.2 Ability--can, be able to, is capable of

        2.1.3 Logical necessity--must, have to

        2.1.4 Probability--probably, is likely, very likely

        2.1.5 Certainty--know, certain, sure, obvious

        2.1.6 Doubt/Uncertainty--I doubt, I don't think,
             I'm not sure whether ...

        2.1.7 Belief, opinion, assumption--I believe, in my
             opinion, I presume, it seems/appears that ...

    2.2 <u>Volition</u>:

        2.2.1 Willingness--will, would, willingly/readily

        2.2.2 Wish--wish, want, would like

        2,2,3 Intention--be going to, will/shall

        2.2.4 Insistence--insists, be determined to,
             will/shall

    2.3 <u>Permission and Obligation</u>:

        2.3.1 Permission--can, may, allowed/permitted to

        2.3.2 Obligation/Compulsion--must, have (got) to

        2.3.3 Prohibition--can't, mustn't, shouldn't

3.0 PERSONAL EMOTIONS AND JUDGEMENT

    3.1 <u>Approval and Disapproval</u>:

        3.1.1 Approval:

            ·   - I (very much) approve of the plan.

               - I rather/sort of/kind of like the new teacher.

3.1.2 Disapproval:

- I don't like the way she dresses.
- Why did you do a thing like that?
- What did you do <u>that</u> for?

3.2 Like, Dislike, Preference:

3.2.1 Like/Dislike:

- like   { + to-infinitive (to give parties)
  love   + -ing clause (giving parties)
  hate   + NP (parties)

3.2.2 Preference:

- prefer ... + to-phrase (prefer trains to buses)
- prefer ... + rather than/instead of ...
  (prefer travelling by train rather than by bus)

3.3 Hope and Anticipation:

3.3.1 Hope:

- I sure(ly) hope ...
- I was hoping that ...
- Hopefully, ...

3.3.2 Anticipation:

- I'm looking forward to meeting ...
- I'm sure I'll enjoy meeting/going ...

3.4 Disappointment/Regret:

- I'm rather disappointed that ...
- It's a pity that ...
- I'm sorry to hear that ...
- It's too bad that ...

3.5 Surprise:

- It's rather surprising/amazing that ...
- Surprisingly/ Incredibly ...

3.6 Worry, Concern:

- I'm pretty worried/concerned about ...
- It's very disturbing/worrying that ...

4.0 SUASION

4.1 Command

4.1.1 Direct command:

- Shut the door.
- Follow me.

4.1.2 Negative command:

- Don't be late.
- Don't worry about me.

4.1.3 Abbreviated sentences:

- Here! This way!

4.1.4 Implying obligation and prohibition:

- You must/have to be careful.
- You mustn't/can't smoke.

4.1.5 Use of 'will':

- You will do exactly as I say.
- Will you be quiet!

4.1.6 Use of vocatives:

- Come here, John.
- Somebody open the door.

4.1.7 Polite commands:

- Please hurry up.
- Look after the children, won't you?
- Don't be late, will you?

4.2 Requests:

4.2.1 Polite forms:

- Will/would you pass the salt, please?
- Can/could you lend me your pen?
- Would you mind ...
- I wonder if you'd mind ...

4.2.2 Responses:

- Yes, certainly.
- No, I'm afraid not because ...

4.3 <u>Advice, Suggestions and Invitations</u>:

4.3.1 Advice:

- You ought to/should ...
- You'd better ...
- I'd advise you to ...
- If I were you ...

4.3.2 Suggestions:

- You can ... if you like.
- You could/might ...
- Why don't you ...?
- What about (having) a drink?
- How about a game of ping-pong?

4.3.3 Invitations:

- May I invite you to dinner next Saturday?
- How would you like to come and spend the week-end with us?
- Can you come to dinner ...?

4.3.4 Responses:

- Thank you very much, I'd love to.
- Well, that's very kind of you, but I'm afraid I have already promised to ...

4.4 <u>Warnings, Promises</u>:

4.4.1 Warnings:

- Watch your head!
- Look out! Be careful!
- If you're not careful, you'll ...

4.4.2 Promises:

- I'll let you know tomorrow.
- I promise (you) I'll bring it tomorrow.

4.5 <u>Reported Commands, Advice, Requests, etc</u>.

4.5.1 to-infinitive clause:

- He ordered them to put on their uniforms.
- He advised them to read the book.

- He asked me to help him with his homework.

4.5.2 Direct object construction:

- The doctor advised a rest.
- He begged our forgiveness.

4.5.3 that-clause:

- He suggested that we should play chess.
- The doctor recommends that you should take a rest.

5.0 ARGUMENT

5.1 Affirmation:

5.1.1 Use of stress, tone and 'do' to emphasize positive meaning:

- (But) I have had a bath.
- He can't drive a bus, but he can drive a car.
- So, you did finish your homework after all.

5.1.2 Short affirmations:

- Yes, it.
- Yes, he will.
- Yes, she does.

5.2 Denials:

5.2.1 Use of stress on negative operators:

- So, you haven't lost your keys.
- Well, actually he didn't pass the exam.
- No, I didn't take your pencil.

5.2.2 Short denials:

- No, I don't.
- No, I'm afraid I can't, etc.

5.2.3 Denial combined with affirmation (not ... but):

- I don't like Mathematics, but I do enjoy Biology.
- I don't agree with his principles, but at least he's sincere.

5.3 <u>Agreement and Disagreement</u>:

    5.3.1 Agreement:

        - Yes, I'm afraid it was.
        - Yes, absolutely.
        - You're absolutely right.
        - I agree.

    5.3.2 Disagreement:

        - I'm afraid I disagree with you ...
        - True, but ...
        - Do you think so? Actually, I find it ...
        - Yes, but ... don't you think?
        - Certainly it's true that ..., but on the
          other hand, ...

5.4 <u>Statements, Questions and Responses</u>:

    5.4.1 Alternative questions:

        - Would you like coffee or tea?
        - What would you like to drink? Coffee or tea?
        - Are you coming or not?

    5.4.2 Questions with positive/negative bias:

        - Did someone call last night?
          cf. Did anyone call last night? (neutral)
        - Has she gone to bed already?
          cf. Has she gone to bed? (neutral)

    5.4.3 Questions in statement form:

        - You got home safely then?
        - The guests didn't have anything to eat?

    5.4.4 Tag questions:

        - He likes his job, doesn't he?
        - They didn't steal the notes, did they?

    5.4.5 Polite questions:

        - What's your name please?
        - Would you mind telling me ...?
        - Please could I have your address?
        - May/could I ask you if you are driving to
          town?

5.4.6 Responses to statements (Attention Signals):

- Really?
- Well!
- Fancy that!
- Uh-uh.
- I see.

5.4.7 Short questions as responses:

- What/which house?
- What/who for?
- What about?
- With whom?
- Why not?

5.4.8 Requests for repetition (Echo questions):

- It cost how much?
- He's (a) what?
- (Sorry), have I ever been where?

5.4.9 General requests for repetition:

- I beg your pardon/Beg your pardon/Pardon?
- Excuse me?
- I'm sorry, I didn't quite hear/follow what you said.
- Sorry, I didn't quite get that.
- I'm very sorry, would you mind saying that again?

5.4.10 Reported Statements:

- "I need more money."
  He said that he needed more money.
- "Our team has won!"
  They claimed that their team had won.

5.4.11 Indirect questions:

- "Do you live here?"
  She asked him if/whether he lived there.
- "Which chair shall I sit in?"
  He wondered which chair he should sit in.

6.0 RATIONAL INQUIRY AND EXPOSITION

  6.1 <u>Comparison</u>:

    6.1.1 Comparative words/phrases:

        - ... taller, happier than ...
        - ... less/more careful than ...

    6.1.2 Equal comparison:

        - ... as tall as/as much as ...
        - ... not as much as/not so tall as ...

    6.1.3 Comparative and Superlative using 'of-phrase':

        - the smaller of the two
        - the largest of the three
        - the richest of the Asian countries
        - Of the two boys, John behave more politely.

    6.1.4 Comparison with a definite norm:

        - He's taller than that.
        - Is he that tall?
        - Foreign cars are becoming more popular
          (than they were).

    6.1.5 Indicating continuing change:

        - The world is changing more and more quickly.
        - Jill is getting lazier and lazier.

    6.1.6 Indicating 'sufficiency' and 'excess':
           (to-infinitive, for-phrase, enough/too)

        - He's rich enough to own a car.
        - The room is too noisy for us.
        - Is the coffee sweet enough?
        - The butter is too expensive.

  6.2 <u>Cause, Reason and Purpose</u>:

    6.2.1 Indicating cause:

        - The car crashed because the driver was
          careless.
        - He lost his job because of his age.

6.2.2 Cause as Subject/Result:

- The driver's carelessness caused the car
  to crash.
- His age caused him to lose his job.

6.2.3 Purpose:

- He left early to catch the last bus.
- He left early so that he could catch the
  last bus.
- He left early in order/so as to catch the
  last bus.

6.2.4 Reason and Consequence:

- As John was the oldest, he looked after the
  others.
- Since we live near the sea, we can often go
  swimming.
- I was angry with him for being late.
- He was praised/commended for his outspoken
  defense of free speech.

6.3 Condition, Contrast and Concession:

6.3.1 Open and hypothetical conditions:

- I'll lend Peter the money if he needs it.
- I'd lend Peter the money if he needed it.

6.3.2 Conjunctions as indicators of condition:

- in case, in case of, on condition that,
  provided that ...

6.3.3 Negative condition:

- Unless Peter improves his work he'll fail
  the exam.
- If Peter doesn't improve his work he'll
  fail the exam.

6.3.4 Contrast and Concession:

- Although/(even) though he hasn't eaten for
  days, he looked healthy.
- Mona is talkative, wheress her sister is ...
- We are enjoying ourselves in spite of ...
- Despite his great skill, he ...
- He has not eaten for days, but ...

A NOTIONAL APPROACH IN TEACHING ENGLISH
AS A SECOND LANGUAGE TO MALAY-MEDIUM STUDENTS

by

MOHAMED ZAIN BIN MOHAMED ALI
B.A., Kansas State University, 1978

————————————

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF ARTS

Department of Speech

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1978

ABSTRACT

This study is an attempt to take an alternative approach
in ESL teaching at Universiti Pertanian Malaysia, particularly
in syllabus design, course content and instructional materials
to meet the needs of Malay-medium students. The content of
the present U.P.M. syllabus is mainly centered around gram-
matical stuctures which are intended to be part of a remedial
grammar course. It has been realized, however, that a course
that aims at re-teaching particular grammatical points does
not adequately meet the communicative needs of the students.
The Malay-medium students have gone through at least eleven
years of ESL instruction in the primary and secondary schools
and have at least an understanding of the basic grammatical
forms. What they need to be taught is how to relate these
grammatical forms to communicative functions. A notional
approach seems practical in this case because it stresses the
teaching of 'communicative competence' as opposed to the
acquisition of 'linguistic competence' emphasized in the
grammatical/structural approach. A notional approach allows a
regrouping of structures where emphasis is on functional
meaning instead of grammatical form. It is hoped that rela-
ting grammatical structures to communicative functions will
motivate the students to learn English as an effective means
of communication. The study also discusses the pedagogic

implications of the approach and its practical aspects including examples of communicative activities designed to develop the communicative competence of the students.