

A STUDY ON THE TEACHING OF
ENGLISH FOR READING PURPOSES
IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA
Departamento de Língua e Literatura Estrangeiras

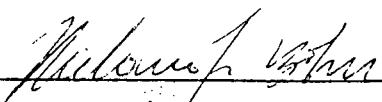
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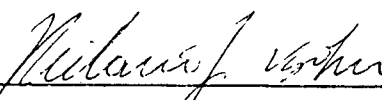
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ESTA DISSERTAÇÃO FOI JULGADA ADEQUADA PARA A OBTENÇÃO DO GRAU DE
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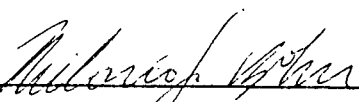


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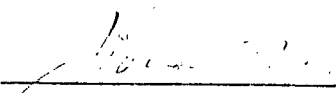
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RESUMO

Esta dissertação é um estudo sobre o ensino do inglês para a leitura na escola secundária. No Capítulo I, procura-se, através da análise da literatura específica, resolver a controvérsia histórica sobre a primazia da palavra escrita ou falada, com a conclusão de que o bom êxito ou o fracasso na aprendizagem da língua estrangeira não podem ser atribuídos a uma ênfase, quer na fala, quer na leitura, mas a outros fatores. Quais são esses fatores, as limitações que eles impõem na escolha das habilidades (ouvir, falar, ler e escrever) ou dos itens lingüísticos (vocabulário, estrutura) e como alguns desses fatores podem justificar uma ênfase na leitura é o que se analisa no Capítulo II. Finalmente, no Capítulo III, formula-se um modelo de leitura para avaliar a aprendizagem que se pode esperar do aluno dentro das limitações descritas no capítulo anterior. A conclusão é que, em princípio, o aluno da escola secundária, num curso de 180 horas, pode ler e compreender textos simplificados até o nível de 2.000 palavras e, às vezes, ler e compreender textos não simplificados.

ABSTRACT

The present dissertation is a study on the teaching of English for reading purposes in the secondary school. In Chapter I an attempt is made, through the analysis of specific literature, to settle the historical controversy over the primacy of either the printed or the spoken word, to conclude that success or failure in learning a foreign language cannot be attributed to an emphasis on either speech or reading, but to other factors. What these factors are, the limitations they may impose in the choice of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) and/or language items (vocabulary, structure), and how some of these factors can justify an emphasis on reading is analysed in Chapter II. Finally, in Chapter III, a reading model is formulated to evaluate what the student can be expected to achieve within the limitations described in the preceding chapter. The conclusion is that, in principle, the secondary school student in an 180-hour course can be led to read and understand vocabulary-controlled material up to the 2,000-word level and, sometimes, read and understand original unmodified texts.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this dissertation is to explore the feasibility of the teaching of English for reading purposes to secondary school students who are absolute beginners in the study of the foreign language. The problem which gave rise to this study is the situation of foreign language teaching in many public schools in Rio Grande do Sul, where the foreign language slice in the curriculum has been reduced over the last years. A student now in primary school (first eight grades) should be expected, on finishing secondary school (from the ninth to the eleventh grade), to have studied the language for about 180 hours in these schools - as against some 400 a decade ago. Results, which were poor in a 400-hour course, have become poorer in 180 hours, and foreign language teaching is now regarded by many as a waste of time.

There are basically three premises in the present dissertation. The first is that poor results are obtained not only because teaching time has been reduced but also because students have been taught a kind of language they can hardly be exposed to. Our second premise is that most students in Rio Grande do Sul will use the target language as their elders are using it now - mainly to read specific literature. The last one is that, theoretically, very little has been done and, practically, nothing, in foreign language teaching for this kind of student, who needs to read before he has the time to learn to speak. The proposition, considering these premises, is that only through a reading approach these students can be offered an opportunity to acquire a useful working knowledge of the foreign language. As reading courses are non-existent for the teaching of English to absolute beginners, a reading model should also be formulated.

There are three basic limitations in the present study. The first is set by the specific literature that is reviewed, which comprises books on methodology and specialized journals published after the twenties and unpublished materials obtained from some methodologists and organizations, with an emphasis on comparative studies and experimental projects. Conclusions are consequently limited by the studies analysed in this dissertation.

The second limitation concerns the student and his circumstances. The suggestions advanced here will be applicable only to students who are over 12 years of age, who have about 180 hours of foreign language instruction at school, and who will probably need the language for reading purposes.

The last limitation concerns the results themselves. We will not be measuring student's achievement, but what he may be able to achieve with a given body of language.

The present study is divided into three chapters and one appendix. In Chapter I, a historical and comparative review between oral and reading approaches will be made, to demonstrate that the listen-speak-read-and-write learning order, followed, to our knowledge, by all existing elementary textbooks, cannot be supported either by historical facts or by available findings in foreign language methodology. In Chapter II, we will make a study of the reasons and circumstances under which a reading, rather than an oral approach, can offer more to the student, besides a listing of facts from Linguistics, Psychology, Pedagogy and School Administration which can support an emphasis on reading. In Chapter III, a reading model for beginners is proposed, based mainly on a selection of a body of language, a listing of strategies for presenting it to the student, and an evaluation of what the student can be expected to achieve with it. The appendix will list the language items selected for the body of language.

I - THE SPEECH-VERSUS-READING CONTROVERSY

We will discuss in this chapter the controversy over the primacy of either speech or writing in the teaching of a foreign language. This discussion will be presented from a historical perspective, where it will be seen that the preference for either the written or the spoken word have always succeeded one another. There are historical reasons for this preference, and we will try to analyse some of them. We will end the chapter with a review of available comparative studies that have been carried out to test the efficiency of both oral and written approaches.

We understand by written approaches those approaches which put greater emphasis on the written language. In cases where the four skills are involved the order would be first listening and reading, for the "receptive skills", and speaking and writing for the productive skills. Often they mean a concentration on the reading skill alone, with some or no attention to pronunciation, but always with an emphasis on comprehension. Grammar is relevant only as far as it helps understanding.

Oral approaches, on the other hand, emphasize the spoken form of the language. They are sometimes holistic in orientation implying that language teaching involves not only the four skills but also a cultural component. The order in which language should be taught is listening, speaking, reading and writing, mainly because this is the way we learned our mother tongue. Reading and writing may be viewed as a secondary representation of the spoken language.

We will start from the assumption that there is a controversy over the primacy of either speech or writing in terms of language teaching. This controversy is caused by the con-

flict between the generally-accepted principle in linguistics of the primacy of speech over writing adopted by methodologists and textbook writers (GOMES DE MATOS, 1976), on one side, and the needs of many students, on the other. Although the controversy can be easily settled in theory, the fact is that in practice, nothing has been done yet.

A historical review of the controversy is offered. We believe this review is necessary due to the still widely-held belief that language teaching failed in the past because of a strong emphasis on the written language. The opposite argument, that language teaching failed because of a strong emphasis on the spoken language, can be equally defended, however.

It all depends on which historical facts are brought forth. We will bring facts from both sides, before reaching a conclusion.

1.1 - A historical review

1.1.1 - Antiquity and Middle Ages

Historically speech is the starting point for second language learning. When the Romans studied Greek, for example, they not only hired Greek tutors but also managed to have Greek-speaking servants, so that they could both hear and speak the language. Later, when the Romans expanded their empire, Latin was made the official language, and the conquered nations were forced to learn it. Here again the second language was learned mainly and almost exclusively through listening and speaking.

1.1.2 - From the Renaissance to Viëtor

The grammar-translation approach, with an emphasis on the written language, came with the Renaissance. This is also the first time a reaction against existing methods occurs (MACKEY, 1965, p.141). Montaigne's (1533-1592) description of

the way he learned Latin, used by many methodologists to prove the efficiency of the direct methods, can also be used to demonstrate that the grammar-translation method did not have such a widespread acceptance as it is often implied - not even in the Renaissance. Part of Montaigne's description (as quoted by GATENBY, 1972):

Being yet at nurse, and before the first loosing of my tongue, I was delivered to a Germane (...) he being then altogether ignorant of the French tongue, but exquisitely readie and skilful in the Latine. This man, whom my father had sent for of purpose (...) had me continually in his armes, and was my onely overseer. There were also joyned unto him two of his countrymen, but not so learned; whose charge was to attend, and now and then, to play with me; and all these together did never entertain me with other then the Latine tongue. As for others of his household, it was an inviolable rule, that neither himselfe, nor my mother, nor man, nor maid-servant, were suffered to speake one word in my companie, except such Latine words, as every one had learned to chat and prattle with me (...). And for my selfe, I was about six years old, and could understand no more French or Perigordine, than Arabike, and that without art, without books, rules or grammar, without whipping, or whining, I had gotten as pure a Latine tongue as my Master could speake; the rather because I could neither mingle or confound the same with other tongues (Florio's translation) (p.44).

A detail, however, which seems to have always been ignored by proponents of direct methods, and which we deem equally important, is Montaigne's complaint of the uselessness of his Latin in his later life: "Mon latin s'abâtardit incontinent, duquel depuis, par désaccoutumance j'ai perdu tout usage". (In LAGARDE AND MICHARD, 1965, p. 208).

After Montaigne and other important figures such as Comenius and John Locke, language teaching shifted back to an

emphasis on the written language. There were now two important currents: one which emphasized grammar and which was led by Karl Pißtz (1819-1881), and the other which emphasized comprehension, led by Claude Marcel whose work The Study of Languages Brought Back to its True Principles (1867) is regarded as a classic in language methodology. While Pißtz emphasized memorization of rules and paradigms to be followed by sentence translation into the foreign language, Marcel abolished translation and rules and advocated a method in which listening and reading was to be followed by speaking and writing.

Excepting Michael West's experiments in India, in the twenties, and what happened in America, in the thirties, Claude Marcel was the last proponent of a reading approach to language learning. Although respected by many defenders of oral methods for some of his ideas, Marcel has in the long run been rejected and ignored. Two of his ideas may have condemned him to this ostracism: first, by putting reading before speaking and, second, by stating that we "learn to read by reading":

Saltam aos olhos os inconvenientes do método de Claude Marcel, que se nos afigura autocontraditório desde o início, uma vez que, se "lendo é que se aprende a ler", conforme a sua premissa fundamental, ouvindo, falando e escrevendo é que também se aprende a ouvir, falar e escrever. A extensão é inevitável. (CHAGAS, 1957, p. 40).

Language teaching was again turning to an emphasis on speech. If we take the founding of the first Berlitz School in the United States in 1878 as the starting point of the new movement, we can see that this stress on the spoken language is more than a century old. For more than a hundred years, through a succession of many different methods, alternatively labeled as Natural, Psychological, Phonetic, Direct, Scientific, Mimicry - Memorization, to cite only the main ones, the emphasis on speech has been constant.

The authors are also many, and one of the most important is François Gouin. His book, L'Art de Enseigner et d'Etudier les Langues (1880) describes his Sequential Series System and the circumstances which led him to devise his method. After having studied German through the grammar-translation method, he went to Germany. Arriving there he was surprised to find out that he could not understand the spoken language. An attempt to memorize more grammar rules, irregular verbs, roots and even the dictionary also proved to be of little help. One night, in company of some French workmen, who had emigrated from France a few months earlier, Gouin was astonished to discover that they were able not only to speak the new language but also to understand it without difficulty. After pondering over it he wrote:

Concluí que era preciso voltar à linguagem usual, racional, através de um processo natural que outro não é senão o da própria natureza, onde tudo se encadeia e nada se deixa entregue à abstração (In CHAGAS, 1957, p. 44).

What is most characteristic of his method is the use of series. Each sentence in the general series gives rise to another series, whose individual sentences, in turn, lead to still other series, until the whole vocabulary of about 8.000 words is covered. Each sentence should also be acted out by the student while being uttered. His system, for its insistence on everyday activities and use of both the senses and the whole body, has had a strong influence on language teaching and may be said to be the basis not only for the Direct Method, but also for more recent methods like audio-visual courses and the Total Physical Response Method.

Linguistics, or what was then understood as such, mainly descriptive phonetics, was about to enter the field of language teaching. The contribution from phonetics, which had been hailed by many as a fruitful union between methodology and linguistics had nevertheless produced little more than a voluminous controversy. What has been regarded by many as a necessary con-

tribution was attacked by some as an unsolicited interference.

The movement, regarded by many as the first scientific attempt in language teaching, had started in Germany with Wilhelm Viëtor, and has usually been referred to as the Phonetic Method. In 1882, Viëtor published a pamphlet in which he preached that language teaching should turn back to the Middle Ages. He meant by it mainly an emphasis on the spoken language and the banning of translation. In spite of attacks, Viëtor's ideas found immediate support not only in Germany but in other countries. He is hailed by many as one of the most important figures in foreign language methodology :

Ainda hoje, quando a experiência escolar e a pesquisa científica trouxeram outros insuspeitados acrêscimos a tão importante setor, a sua leitura (Viëtor's pamphlet) é um passo obrigatório para todos os que desejam aperfeiçoar os seus conhecimentos dessa especialidade. Pode-se dizer mesmo, sem incorrer em grave exagero, que o ensino de línguas estrangeiras, na sua lenta e acidentada evolução, abrange duas fases claramente definidas, a saber: "antes de Viëtor" e "depois de Viëtor" (CHAGAS, 1957, p. 56).

1.1.3 - The Direct Method

Viëtor's ideas, however, have not survived alone. They were later combined with Gouin's principles to give rise to the Direct Method, which, in spite of Gouin's highly organized system, lacked organization in the beginning:

The sort of teaching engendered by the Direct Method was at first quite disorganized. The teacher took the place of the book, had no technique of teaching through actions, and on the whole, did whatever he pleased. Sometimes a native speaker of the language would be used as a sort of model or, as he might be called a half-century later, an informant (...). They (the teachers) were confused with the "natural method", in which the language was to be learned the same way as the child learns his mother tongue. If the learner understood only a fraction of what he heard,

it made little difference; the principle of "natural selection" would eventually give him what he needed. If he made nothing but mistakes when he spoke, he would at least gain a familiarity with the language and eventually identify and correct his own mistakes (MACKEY, 1965, p. 145).

The Direct Method was going to be one of the strongest movements in the history of language teaching, with the help of government support in many countries. Official decrees made it the only approved method in Belgium (1895), France (1902) and Germany (1902). In England, although not officially imposed, it was enthusiastically adopted at the turn of the century by Sweet and others, and remained there until Harold Palmer helped to develop it into the so-called Scientific Method.

But, in spite of all enthusiasm and official support, the Direct Method seems to have met unsurmountable obstacles, most of them related to difficulties with teacher's training. Many of them lacked the fluency and the energy to take the place of the book. As a result, a compromise with older methods occurred, mainly in terms of a systematic approach to grammar. Even translation was eventually included:

As it (the Direct Method) spread to the average school, however, its use began to decline because it demanded highly competent teachers willing to spend a great deal of time and energy on each lesson, for results which are not always worth the effort. The teachers gradually drifted back to some forms of the grammar-translation approach (MACKEY, 1965, p. 147).

1.1.4 - The Reading Method in the U.S.A.

No matter how much success the Direct Method might have claimed abroad, the Americans were always reluctant to adopt it. If skepticism may be said to be a feature of American pragmatism, what happened with foreign language methodology is certainly a good example of it. Instead of adopting it enthusiastically as

it was done in England, or imposing it officially as it was done in some other countries, American educational authorities received it coldly, and after a brief examination, ended by suggesting a reinforcement of the grammar-translation method. This happened in 1892 in what is known as the Report of the Committee of Twelve. Their conclusion was that:

The ability to converse should not be regarded as a thing of primary importance for its own sake but as an auxiliary to the higher ends of linguistic scholarship and literary culture (In MACKEY, 1965, p. 147).

There were of course individual attempts to adopt the Direct Method, but there always seemed to be general resistance to an emphasis on the spoken language, at least in secondary schools. On one side, there were the demands made on the teacher by oral approaches, on the other, the long tradition of the three R's (read, (w)rite and (a)rithmetics) as the primary aim of the school:

In making mastery of the spoken language the chief objective, the nature and function of the secondary schools were overlooked, because such an objective under the normal conditions of mass instruction was only attainable in a modest degree. The reform methods not only required a teacher who possessed a perfect mastery of the foreign language, but they made such claims on his nervous and physical energy as to entail premature exhaustion. The ability and ambitions of average pupils, not to mention those of the weaker ones, do not justify the demands made by the oral use of the language (MACKEY, 1965, p. 148).

What was still lacking however was scientific evidence to justify the adoption of one method over the other. To solve this problem, a vast project was undertaken in the twenties - The Modern Foreign Language Study (MFLS). It started in the United States in 1923 and ended in Canada in 1927, after investigating 647 colleges and 128 teacher's colleges, including

1980 foreign language departments. Its results were published between 1927 and 1932 in seventeen volumes, involving such aspects as enrollment, achievement, reading, testing, word frequency lists, idioms, new experiments, bibliography, etc. According to CHAGAS (1957):

Tudo, como se vê, foi feito pacientemente, objetivamente, estatisticamente, cientificamente, em suma. Nada, até onde possível, se deixou à mercê do acaso ou das soluções improvisadas, não raro personalíssimas, que haviam caracterizado a renovação didática dos idiomas estrangeiros nos últimos cinquenta anos (p. 75).

The findings of the MFLS were summarized by Algernon Coleman in the XII volume of the seventeen published, The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States (1929), and the method suggested was once again based on the printed word - this time, however, a reading approach, instead of the grammar-translation method:

Since reading ability is the one objective on which all agree, classroom efforts during the first two years should center primarily on developing the ability to understand the foreign language readily through the eye and through the ear. The goal must be to read the foreign language directly with a degree of understanding comparable to that possessed in reading the vernacular. In order that students may attain this goal, reading experience must be adequate and the results of all other types of class exercises must converge toward the same goal (In COLE, 1937, pp: 73-74).

Although the MFLS published no syllabus it provided many facts, both in terms of theory and practice. In terms of theory, it describes, for example, the experiments conducted by G.T. Buswell in his A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages (1927), in which a difference between translation and reading is made (deciphering X comprehension), and

a broader interpretation of the Direct Method is offered, applying it to reading.

Another experiment which is analysed in detail is the one carried out by Michael West in India, and published in his monograph Bilingualism in 1926. Like Coleman, West believed at the time that the initial stage should be devoted to reading, even in cases where the final aim was the mastery of all skills. His experiments included the preparation of texts based on frequency counts, with repetition of familiar words. New words were introduced at the rate of about six to the ordinary page, and the text was divided into small parts, preceded and followed by questions. Although oral work had a place in the experiment, it was there only to reinforce the reading ability.

In terms of practical steps the MFLS was also very specific, describing in detail the activities the students were expected to accomplish in a two-year course. They should, for example, learn how the sounds are made and pronounce them at least intelligibly, understand the language when spoken, write from dictation, distinguish commonest forms and syntactic constructions, read and answer questions on the text, do transformation exercises, and so on. Besides classroom reading, which should amount to 75 pages in the first semester, 125 in the second, 150 in the third and 200 in the fourth, students were also supposed to do the same amount of reading outside.

The conclusions of the MFLS, although not fully agreed on, had a great influence on language teaching in America between the two World Wars. Soon, reading courses spread all over the country. Methodologists, if not completely happy about it, seemed at least resigned, if we accept what Robert D. Cole wrote in the mid thirties as representative of the period:

Why pursue a chimera? The facts collected by the Study lead inevitably to the conclusion that if modern languages are to con-

tinue in a secondary-school curriculum based on the needs of the students not intending to continue their studies in college as well as on the needs of those who are, a change in the nature of the course is necessary. Except in the case of a very small number, the attainment of the four-fold aim of reading, speaking, writing and understanding seems impossible. The time is too limited; the quality of the teachers is too poor; the ability, interest and cooperation of the pupils are too uncertain. For a well-rounded course all four aims are important and under the most favorable conditions may be approximated. Under conditions actually obtaining, especially in smaller public schools, such a program is too ambitious, so long as two years continues to be the amount of time available. The course proposed by the study, then, seems suited to the average situation (author's emphasis) (COLE, 1937, p. 97).

This attitude, mainly for its emphasis on the written word, has cost America a lot of criticism from coeval oral proponents abroad. To quote from Carneiro de Leão:

O ensino das línguas vivas é a parte mais fraca do sistema norte-americano de educação. Não há um só educador, um só crítico de educação nos Estados Unidos que assim não pense. As escolas norte-americanas não deram ainda às línguas vivas a situação a que elas têm direito (LEÃO, 1935, p. 235).

Valnir Chagas sees in the adoption of the reading method the main cause for foreign language attrition in America:

No entanto, a causa do fenômeno (decreasing enrollments) estava patente: há uma interdependência tão íntima dos quatro aspectos instrumentais do ensino dos idiomas - ouvir, falar, ler e escrever - que nenhum deles poderá ser atingido isoladamente, sem que se dê o justo relevo aos demais. Treinados exclusivamente para a leitura, os escolares americanos terminaram por não aprender nem mesmo a ler. Não se altera impunemente a ordem natural das coisas (CHAGAS, 1957, p. 42).

1.1.5 - The Army Method

In terms of foreign language methodology it seems that one could build a plausible case by hypothesizing that Americans do not like to import ideas. They have ignored almost completely what other countries had been doing for more than half a century and only accepted the oral approach when they felt they had discovered it by themselves. This happened only in the forties, during the Second World War, when they had to send personnel abroad and discovered that they did not speak foreign languages. To solve the problem they devised intensive language courses under the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP), popularly known as the Army Method, and quoted by many methodologists as the best example of success in foreign language teaching.

Two points seem to be particularly relevant as far as the ASTP is concerned: conditions and techniques. In terms of conditions we know that nothing was spared; linguists were summoned, informants hired, groups were reduced to ideal size and time was given: nine hours a day for six to nine months. In terms of techniques, they seem to have been borrowed from the old Direct Method of Sweet, the Scientific Method of Palmer and the ideas of Jespersen. There was mainly contact with the oral language through a lot of imitation and oral drills:

The fact was that there was nothing really new in the ASTP techniques used in the military language schools. All of its main features had already been mentioned half a century earlier in the Report of the Committee of Twelve, which rejected them as inapplicable at the time; and all of them had been used in Europe during the latter part of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth (MACKEY, 1965, p. 150).

The Army Method, however, was supposed to have a secret of success and for many methodologists the secret was concentration on the spoken language. Their reasoning was very simple and could be summarized in the following syllogism:

The Army Method was successful;

The Army Method emphasized oral language;
Emphasizing oral language assures success.

This reasoning was supported not only by a behaviouristic approach in psychology but also and mainly by a corresponding mechanistic approach in linguistics. Sapir's old mentalistic view of language could still put speech on the same level as writing:

The ease with which speech symbolism can be transferred from one sense to another, from technique to technique, itself indicates that the mere sounds of speech are not the essential fact of language, which lies rather in the classification, in the formal patterning, and in the relating of concepts (SAPIR, 1921, p. 21).

but as concentration went from the abstract aspect of language to its physical manifestation, writing in general was considered at best a poor representation of language, when not simply discarded as an undesirable by-product. Bloomfield's view of writing in his Language was taken as a guideline for language teaching:

Writing is not language, but merely a way of recording language by means of visible marks. In some countries, such as China, Egypt, and Mesopotamia, writing was practised thousands of years ago, but to most of the languages that are spoken today it has been applied either in relatively recent times or not at all. Moreover, until the days of printing, literacy was confined to a very few people. All languages were spoken through nearly all of their history by people who did not read or write: the languages of such people are just as stable, regular, and rich as the languages of literate nations. A language is the same no matter what system of writing may be used to record it, just as a person is the same no matter how you take his picture. The Japanese have three systems of writing and are developing a fourth. When the Turks, in 1928, adopted the Latin alphabet in place of

the Arabic, they went on talking in just the same way as before (BLOOMFIELD, 1933, p. 21).

As there were linguists working in the ASTP course it was automatically assumed that the oral approach they had borrowed from earlier methodologists was in fact of their own, and the expression "linguistic method" was coined to identify the experiment. Linguistics and language teaching, which had already been united by Viñtor, now celebrated their golden wedding in America. "Many even acquired the habit that grew up among linguists of referring to language teaching as 'applied linguistics'" (PRATOR, 1976, p. 7).

The Army Method, because of its success and alliance with linguistics, not only revived language teaching in colleges and secondary schools but also made of it a respectable science. Foreign language enrollments, which were falling in the United States, had a sudden rise.

1.1.6 - The Audio-Lingual Approach

As time passed the Army Method was refined and developed into what is known as the Audio-Lingual Approach. If linguists in the ASTP lacked time to theorize about their experiment, audio-lingual methodologists took charge of that. The assumptions behind the method were not only clearly formulated but also made into a cohesive body of doctrine which has since dominated language teaching. These assumptions were summarized by William Moulton in 1961 in five famous slogans:

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. A language is a set of habits.
3. Teach the language, not about the language.
4. A language is what native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
5. Languages are different (In PRATOR, 1976, p. 3).

On the practical side this means once again that the teacher takes the place of the book and serves as a model for lan-

guage learning. Classroom activities are made up almost exclusively of oral repetition. The most important aspect is oral production and techniques have been devised to make the student speak more, mainly through choral repetition. Meaning may be more or less important and in extreme cases the students are supposed to speak the language before knowing what they are saying. Reading, in most cases, is to be introduced only after a fluent oral command of the language is attained. The teacher is usually the source of all learning and if the student fails to catch something during the class period, he has no chance of ever learning it. Learning is expected to occur only in front of the teacher, at exactly the same time for everybody.

What can be regarded as the most striking feature of audio-lingualism is its monolithic orientation. What is said by one methodologist is repeated with only stylistic variation by other methodologists.

As far as reading is concerned, although some methodologists could devote as much as a whole chapter to it, the basic principle was that, independent of objectives, the fundamental order had to be followed: listening, speaking, reading and writing (l-s-r-w).

The century-old principle had been reintroduced by Bloomfield and was later summarized by Charles Fries in one of the most widely quoted sentences of audio-lingualism: "Even if one wishes to learn the foreign language solely for reading, the most economical and most effective way of beginning is the oral approach" (In NORRIS, 1975, p. 201).

After Bloomfield and Fries the l-s-r-w order was viewed as a linguistic principle and was given scientific validation, as stated by NIDA (1950):

Listening, speaking, reading, then writing constitute the fundamental order in language learning (...) The scientifically valid procedure in language learning involves listen-

ing first, to be followed by speaking. Then comes reading, and finally, the writing of the language (p. 21).

The same idea was again expressed by CORNELIUS (1953), in his ten principles of foreign language learning. In the first two he not only sets the objectives of teaching but also reduces reading to a mere by-product of language learning:

- 1) The objective of the teacher of a foreign language is to expose students to the language as it is spoken.
- 2) The ability to read and write a language may come as a by-product of the process of learning the spoken language (p. 11).

The same order, regardless of objectives, is again repeated by LADO (1964), nineteen years after Fries' famous remark. Lado, however, is rather careful in claiming scientific evidence for the l-s-r-w order:

The principle (speech before writing) applies even when the goal is only to read. (...) Although more experimental evidence is needed to prove or disprove this claim, a tactical advantage supports this teaching principle. Students who have mastered the language orally can learn to read more or less readily by themselves or with limited help. Students who have learned to decipher script cannot as a rule learn to speak by themselves (p. 50).

Bloomfield, Fries, Nida, Cornelius and Lado are usually regarded as the mentors of the Audio-Lingual Approach. Other methodologists, some of them very influential in the profession, have, as a rule, only borrowed their ideas - sometimes to contribute, on their own, by adding more emphasis to these ideas. A good example is Professor E.V. Gatenby. The opening paragraph of his article "Conditions for Success in Language Learning":

If there were as much failure in the secondary schools of the world in the teaching of Mathematics, History or Science as there is in the teaching of living foreign languages, education as a whole might be said to have

broken down. There is certainly no other school subject in which more has been abandoned through despair. One cannot imagine an arithmetic teacher deciding to avoid multiplication and division on account of their difficulty, and to devote his attention to perfecting his pupils in addition and subtraction; yet a very similar procedure is adopted by the language teacher who, exasperated by the inability of his pupils to learn, or of himself to teach a foreign language as used by native speakers of it, cuts out hearing, speaking and writing and concentrates on reading only (GATENBY, 1972, p. 43).

He ends the article by listing seven governing factors of success, the second of which is concentration on speech:

There must be concentration on speech, and hearing and speaking must precede reading and writing, though where older children or adults are to some extent learning intellectually as well as imitatively the interval between the oral and visual form may be short (p. 48).

The main reason is the natural way we learn our mother tongue:

Nature does not teach the artificial process of reading and writing (p. 48).

Another methodologist who pledged allegiance to the Audio-Lingual Approach was Charles H. Hockett. After having stated in 1950 that:

The chemist can be permitted with perfect safety to make up his own set of speech sounds for the new language, provided he learns the vocabulary and grammatical structures as it is for the native speaker (p. 264).

he asserts in 1959 not only that language is not vocabulary but also that it is not writing either, repeating what Bloomfield had already said:

The human race was speaking for millenius before writing was invented. Every child learns to speak and understand before he learns to read and write. Some who learn to speak and understand never learn to read and write (p. 20).

A long-time defender of the Audio-Lingual Approach is the linguist and professor of German Freeman Twadell. As late as 1973 he would still publish an article in The Modern Language Journal to remind language teachers that writing should be completely avoided in the first classes. His argument is based on the poor results obtained through the use of print:

One pitiful attempt to make practical use of print as a model for speech is the emergency phrase-book for tourists. Any of us who have seen these will agree (1) that they look horrible to anyone who knows the authentic spelling system of the foreign language (of English, if the phrase-book has English as its target); (2) that the tourist sounds horrible to any native speaker of the language; and (3) that we therefore want nothing like this to happen to our students (p. 394).

Besides being the natural order and yielding better results the l-s-r-w sequence is also defended on grounds that it meets the preferences of the students. This is what HAMMERLY (1971) claims:

Giving equal weight to all four skills is an unfortunate trend that does not take into account the interest of the students. Several studies have shown that what language students most want is to learn to speak the language (author's emphasis) (p. 503).

The main reason, however, is that it is not possible to read without knowing the sounds of the language, which are not only always pronounced when somebody reads but also a necessary step to meaning. According to Mary Finocchiaro (1964):

In reading, and this happens in reading our

native language, too, we make sounds in our throat. We read faster, therefore, if we know how to make the sounds and if we don't stumble over them (p. 71).

Or BUMPASS (1966):

In order to learn to read with understanding, it is essential to master audio-lingually the oral counterpart of the material to be read (...) Through the perception of the visual forms via the eye, the student must establish a relationship of meaning based on auditory signals (p. 8).

There are two ways of defending the oral approach to language learning. One is by pledging allegiance to it and defend it dogmatically. According to this point of view both authority and evidence have already agreed so that it is not even necessary to invoke them. All the teacher has to do is to follow the prescription, sometimes a simple list of "Do's" and "Dont's". OLIVA's (1969) first criterion for textbook evaluation, for example, is typical:

Textbooks for the modern languages should be audiolingually oriented. Lessons should indicate some application of linguistic principles. Grammar should be presented in the form of pattern drills. Grammar rules per se should be minimized. Ample and frequent oral practice should be stressed (p. 234).

The other way is by invoking authority or general consensus, stating things indirectly by making others speak for oneself. Oliva, for example, in another part of his book uses this technique in defending the oral approach for cases in which the final aim is reading:

It is the considered judgement of many language teachers that students who have gone through an audio-lingual program do just as well or better in reading than those who have gone through a reading program (p. 147).

Or MOULTON (1965):

The leading language teachers of the country

have already made up their minds on this point. Our FL Steering Committee has agreed that the elementary language course "should concentrate at the beginning upon the learner's hearing and speaking the foreign tongue" and that more advanced instruction should provide "frequent opportunities for maintaining the hearing and the speaking skills thus early acquired". This point now seems generally accepted, and I shall not belabor it (author's emphasis) (p. 77).

M. A. K. Halliday et al. (1964) in The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching also apply the same technique when they support an oral approach to language learning:

Objective evidence on this subject is difficult to come by, but it is increasingly widely held that the total process of L2 learning is more rapid and effective if a command of the phonological system, and a good range of grammatical patterns and some basic lexical items all in the spoken medium, are taught before the learner is introduced to written forms (author's emphasis) (p. 258).

D. A. WILKINS (1972), in his Linguistics in Language Teaching, reasons that as long as "for the linguist speech is the primary manifestation of language and writing is both secondary and depended on it" (p. 7), it follows that teachers have to teach speech because speech is the language. This reasoning, again, is made by invoking the opinions of others:

The primacy of speech is of some importance to the language teacher. Many people have argued that since linguists have shown that "speech is the language", we must set out above all to teach speech even at the risk of excluding written language together. Not many people would go as far as that but it is characteristic of much modern teaching that the greatest emphasis is placed on speech (p. 8).

The greatest advantage of approaching a controversy indirectly is that, as no allegiance is pledged, it is easier to move from one side to another. These changes of position are not very common in language teaching, although examples of conversion do exist. If Freeman Twaddell, on one hand, has consistent-

ly defended the same principles, Robert Lado, on the other, has lately reviewed some of his early statements.

The result is that sometimes a methodologist may be quoted to support opposing sides, as is the case of Mary Finocchiaro and Wilga Rivers. Three quotations from Finocchiaro should illustrate the point:

In 1958:

It goes without saying of course, that certain aspects of methodology and that of instructional materials will be governed by the objectives that have been formulated by the language learning center. A program, for example, whose primary goal is the development of reading skill will provide for a minimum of aural-oral activities and a maximum of reading activities (author's emphasis) (p. 110).

In 1964:

Listening and speaking should always precede reading. It is only after students can say material with reasonable fluency that they should be permitted to see it (author's emphasis) (p. 70).

In 1972:

To my knowledge, no experiment has ever been performed that would justify a long rigidly-adhered-to time lag between the student's reasonably good oral production of an utterance and their seeing it in print. (...) A long aural-oral period has been found to create tension in students who find it difficult to retain a stream of speech in their minds and who cannot turn back to a printed word to verify a bit of language they may not have grasped the first time. Furthermore, it discounts the fact that in most countries the textbook carries prestige, the fact that individuals learn in different ways, and that some may learn best by using their eyes and ears at the same time (p. 35).

As to Wilga Rivers, an even stronger contradiction can

be found in her two main books. In The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher (1964) she states from experimentation that either a long or a short time lag makes little difference as far as interference is concerned. She not only holds that, in the early stages, writing could be presented simultaneously with speech (p. 113) but also sees many advantages in written materials:

The script can be of immense help in reducing the students' dependence on the teacher. It will give the student something to which to refer when his aural memory fails him, thus giving him greater confidence in his oral work (p. 160).

In Teaching Foreign Language Skills (1968), however, she presents an opposite view:

The principle to be established in the minds of both teacher and students is that in the early stages new foreign language material, must be learned orally to establish good habits of sound production and so to train the student to depend on his ear (p. 219).

Finocchiaro and Rivers are rather exceptions in a monolithic orientation. Other methodologists are usually better tuned in their assertions. Some further examples:

Reading should be taught only after the students have had a reasonable command of most of the basic structures of language (DACANAY, 1963, p. 241).

No reading or writing is ever presented until the teacher is convinced that students have thoroughly mastered the material phonetically (STACK, 1966, p. 169)

All new language material should be used first so that it is thoroughly familiar to the ear and is almost a piece of habitual behavior, before it is ever read in a book (BILLOWS, 1961, p. 55).

This (l-s-r-w) is the order in which the learner picks up his native tongue as a child and, later on, the way he approaches a foreign language (HUEBENER, 1959, p. 7)

Anyone familiar with the findings of applied linguistics knows that scientifically valid procedures in language learning involve listening first, followed by speaking. Then comes reading and finally the writing of the language (KOBAYASHY, 1975, p. 188).

It seems that one of the reasons behind this insistence on the primacy of the spoken language over writing was the need to fight against alleged wrong assumptions about language and language teaching. The popular idea that language was writing and mainly that it could be learned through writing was one of the greatest foes against which audio-lingualists waged constant war. It seems that one of the reasons why they had to fight so hard was that they had against them not only the general public but also some linguists, as might be the case of Robert A. Hall, Jr. and his popular Leave your Language Alone, first published in 1950. Contrary to the audio-lingual tenet that there was only one way to learn a language, the book clearly suggests the opposite:

There are various ways we can set about acquiring a foreign language. One way is to get somebody who talks the language, and work with them, imitating and learning the language from them; of course, the more like a native speaker that person is, the better. The other way is to get a book and sit down with it, alone or in a group, with more or less speaking of the foreign language, but trying to get it by reading rather than by speaking. The first is the way that comes most naturally to the ordinary person, and is the way that people have, since time immemorial, learned the languages of other peoples. The second is the way that a literate society (or an over-literate one, as ours rather tends to be) is likely to go about learning a foreign language; if we think that the "written language" is the real language and that writing is more important than speaking, and especially if we want to do more reading than talking in the end, we are very likely to start out by trying to read and write before - or instead of - hearing and talking (pp. 201-202).

1.1.7 - The foreign language crisis in the U.S.A.

A strong argument of the audio-lingual proponent in favor of his approach was the rise in enrollments, especially in the late fifties. In a few years, for example, Denver's 5,000 foreign language students went up to 15,000 (SHUMAN, 1971, p.22). The enthusiasm for language study was widespread, foreign language departments grew, and the audio-lingual approach was at its heyday.

Something, however, seemed to go wrong. First, it appeared that the enthusiasm was not exactly for the approach, but rather caused by the challenge of the Sputnik. Shocked by the realization that any country could be superior to them, the Americans would do anything to recover their lost ascendancy. There was a national craze for learning and books were published proving, for example, that complicated notions of Biology or Physics could be taught to kindergarten children. Neglected areas of study like foreign language teaching were thus revived:

(...) Sectional language courses multiply, electives grow in number and in variety, area studies are added to literature; FLES and secondary systems call for a greater number of majors, graduate programs spring up, double and triple in size; experiments and growth are encouraged; there is always money for anything new and bigger (ALTER, 1976, p. 156).

The audio-lingual approach, if not reason for this revival, had at least its greatest chance. If the Direct Method had met with official support in many countries in the past, the audio-lingual approach met with general approval. All it had to do was to prove its efficiency.

Americans, however, with or without contributions from foreign languages, managed to launch their own satellites and, by the time they reached the moon, foreign language instruction

was facing another crisis. Registrations in modern languages, which in 1960 were 17% of total college enrollments, dropped to 13.5% in 1970. In 1974 they made only 9.9% and still seem to be on the way down (BROD, 1976, p. 169).

Money has become tight, selective and practically non-existent for the FLs. Students are rebellious. (...) They know that all requirements must come down, including the FL. (...) They have little interest left for FL. In a couple of years the damage is done: requirements tumble everywhere, enrollments in FLs drop catastrophically. (...) Panic ensues. What went wrong? How to go back to the Golden Age? How to rekindle interest in FLs? We organized, lobbied, called for help from outside, with little success (ALTER, 1976, p. 156).

If we analyse the crisis the way the audio-lingual methodologists analysed and condemned the Reading Method, we could blame the oral approach for exactly the same reason: enrollments dropped because of the approach. It was found, for example, that, "After four years in the study of French, the student was often still unable to read a French newspaper and would have been paralysed if confronted with a genuine Frenchman" (MALCOLM, 1970, p. 6). The reasoning, like the one against the Reading Method, is certainly unfair, for there are many other factors responsible for the decrease in enrollments - although, of course, had the audio-lingual approach fulfilled its promises, the predicament might have been avoided.

1.1.8 - Reactions against the Audio-Lingual Approach

The foreign language crisis in the late sixties called for action in three different areas: community, language departments and teaching approaches. At the community level, a vigorous promotion of foreign language study was started, by emphasizing its advantages, fighting opposition, obtaining testimonials

from influential personalities, publishing articles in newspapers, trying, in short, to reach the wider public. At the department level new courses were offered, teacher-student relationship re-examined and quality control over teachers suggested. At the approach level the audio-lingual approach itself was questioned and new approaches were tried.

We will be concerned here specifically with the third level. There are two points to be considered: criticism against the audio-lingual approach and alternative solutions. The pendulum had completed another movement and, this time, the audio-lingual approach, in spite of its dominance and psychological support, had also to be judged and condemned.

The criticism started with the generative-transformational movement in linguistics. Each one of the audio-lingual slogans were examined and rejected: writing was thought of as a parallel form with speech; because of human capacity to generate novel sentences, language could not be a set of habits; what the native speakers say, with all the imperfections of actual speech, is not as important as the internalized rules; languages are not completely different but share important universal features (PRATOR, 1976, pp. 3-4).

Robin Lakoff in her article "Transformational Grammar and Language Teaching", was hypercritical of audio-lingualism, mainly for its use of pattern drills:

(...) Until recently it was considered heretical to suggest that people were in any interesting way different from rats. It was assumed that people learned languages, both native and second, as they and rats learned anything else: by repetition, by exercise, and by fitting new things into an old pattern already learned (...). It was assumed to be dangerous to let people think about sentences they were learning (...). He (the speaker) was just like the rat pushing a switch for food (LAKOFF, 1972, pp. 60-61).

BEDFORD (1969) questions the validity of an emphasis on speech for all students. He starts by stating that there may be a great difference between the spoken and the written forms of language, so that one may not lead automatically to the other. There are also administrative problems, mainly regarding teacher's preparation, either in terms of physical and psychological fitness:

Most teachers carrying too heavy teaching loads and frequently forced to spread themselves very thin over several teaching jobs to piece out a living, find the oral approach very taxing indeed, both physically and psychologically (p. 4).

or in terms of fluency:

Those of us who have taught overseas (...) are aware that the high level of teacher oral fluency demanded for successful implementation of the aural-oral approach can by no means be assumed (p. 3).

Another problem was lack of oral exposure to the foreign language in many countries:

It should be clear, that is, that no improvement in methods and materials can eliminate the need for continued reinforcement if fluency is to be maintained. And the simple fact is that in many places neither English teachers nor their students can hope to have opportunity for exposure to English adequate enough to serve as such reinforcement (p. 4).

After arguing that in many cases the student has really no need to speak the language, the author concludes:

For most people in the world, then, aural-oral fluency must be thought of as, at best, merely the means to acquisition of reading and writing fluency and not as a valid goal in itself. (...) If reading and writing facility in English can be efficiently acquired without the necessity of preliminary exposure to the aural-oral, then that would appear to be not

only desirable but a necessary substitute for the oral approach, which would seem to have little chance of producing lasting results (p. 5).

Although the main objectives of the audio-lingual approach was to make speakers of the language, critics pointed out that students were often unable to use the patterns productively in a new situation since they had only learned to parrot responses:

(...) This much-heralded method (audio-lingual); while focusing almost exclusively on speaking and listening ability, has been accused of the same crime as the older grammar-translation method: often students who seem to do quite well in the classroom prove to be disappointing in actual communication situations. Nor does the use of language laboratories and programmed instruction seem to have significantly altered this situation (GARNER AND SHUTZ, 1975, p. 126).

The problem is the inability of the audio-lingual approach to reach a communication level:

La méthode mécaniste (...) s'avère généralement incapable de monter un véritable compétence de communication chez les sujets qu'elle traite (la plupart d'entre eux ne peuvent même pas transposer dans des situations hors manuel les automatisme acquis en classe ou au laboratoire de langue (VAUCHIER, 1977, p. 80).

The reason, according to the same author, was the mechanistic approach of structural linguistics:

Autour des années 1930, c'est pour avoir mis l'étude du sens entre parenthèses (...) que Bloomfield et ses disciples on stérilisé pour trente ans la recherche en sémantique et en lexicologie (p. 93).

This de-emphasis on meaning had made some proponents of the audio-lingual approach claim that it was possible to teach a foreign language student to respond to stimuli without even understanding. According to POLITZER (1960):

It is entirely possible to teach the major patterns of a language without letting the student know what he is saying (...) As far as they (the students) are concerned, they would simply hear a stimulus (...) to which they are trained to respond automatically (pp. 27-28).

MORTON (1970) not only holds that it is possible but suggests that it is even desirable. He claims that in his Spanish programs students are able:

- 1 - to answer, with 95 per cent accuracy, all questions asked within Task III without the aid of lexical meaning;
- 2 - to formulate questions, with 90 per cent accuracy in response to the hearing of statements, (...) without the aid of lexical meaning;
- 3 - to manipulate (...) a finite and pre-specified number of syntactical and morphological structures without the aid of lexical meaning (p. 170).

This stress on manipulation is one of the aspects which has caused most criticism against the audio-lingual approach.

LAKOFF (1972), for example, commenting on Morton's course:

It is not clear just what it is the students trained by this project have been taught to do: certainly they have not learned to use a language in anything like the way a language is naturally used by native or non-native speakers (p. 61).

An important assumption of the approach was that patterns should be overlearned, until they became automatic. Lexical items were picked at random, regardless of their semantic content. In one lesson there could appear the word "red", for example, with no further suggestion as to whether or not the other colors should be learned by the students. The teacher would somehow find a way to create an interesting situation in which all the semantically discordant words of the same pattern drill could be presented and practiced by the students - or as RIVERS (1968)

puts it:

It has been objected that the techniques of memorization and drilling that this method (audio-lingual) implies can become intensely tedious and boring, causing fatigue and distaste on the part of the student. This is certainly true when the audio-lingual techniques are applied rigorously by an unimaginative teacher who is not sensitive to student reaction. A successful application of the audio-lingual method requires inventiveness and resourcefulness on the part of the teacher, who must be continually alert for opportunities to vary the presentation of materials and to force the students into interesting and intriguing situations where they will feel a spontaneous desire to express themselves through what they have learned (p. 46).

The audio-lingual approach, by de-emphasizing communication, had added an extra load on the teacher. This idea, taken up by Rivers, had already been criticized by Clifford Prator four years before:

The purpose of language is communication. Until it is used for communicating ideas, it is not language but only parroting; yet many of the textbooks written by some of America's most reputable linguists make little or no provision for communication. There are manipulation exercises galore, but the student is never allowed to have an idea he wishes to convey, to find within himself the necessary words and the grammatical devices, and to express his thought. Occasionally, at the end of the lesson, there is a suggestion such as "The ingenious teacher will know how to provide opportunities for his students to use in a conversational situation the constructions already learned". Needless to say, this amounts to abandoning the teacher precisely at the moment when he most needs help! (1965, p. 91).

Another criticism against the audio-lingual approach is for its adherence to the l-s-r-w order, on grounds that this is the way people learn their first language. According to David Eskey (1975):

It is true that most people learn to speak their own language before they learn to read and write it. But why should literate adults be forced to learn a foreign language this way? (author's emphasis) (p. 210).

Or WARDHAUGH (1975):

There is now considerable evidence that different people learn in different ways, and there is every reason to believe that such learning preferences are as important in second-language learning as they are anywhere else. Students learn through the eye as well as through the ear. (...) There is little reason to believe there is anything sacrosanct about the "learning order" (p. 11)

Insistence on speech was sometimes even seen as an obstacle to language learning. It lacked pedagogical advantages, overloaded the student's short-term memory and, worst of all, exposed the student to incorrect responses from his classmates. Experiments seem to have shown that insistence on speech in the beginning tended to retard aural comprehension, mainly by diverting student's attention from processing input to preoccupation with structure details. Speech was a much more complex process than the behavioristic approach could account for and might only be accepted as an end objective:

There are reasons to believe that oral production is an end result of complex and mostly covert processes which constitute linguistic competence. Skill in production of speech output is the most complex skill to be acquired, and, therefore, not a logical starting point (author's emphasis) (POSTOVSKY, 1975, p. 21).

The audio-lingual approach has also been accused of always defending a four-skills curriculum, independent of objectives or the situation in which a given student might use the language:

Pedagogical theory and practice on foreign languages have been for some time holistic in orientation, assuming that language is a phenomon

enon inseparable from the culture it carries, and that all aspects of language-use (command of phonological system, ability to comprehend spoken and written language, ability to produce comprehensible utterances in spoken and written form) are inseparable related to one another (...). Language classes today are mostly, to use the jargon of the trade, "four-skills classes" with a cultural component (BEATTIE, 1977, p. 410).

And yet this holistic orientation seems to be only apparent, because, in fact, it meant in many cases an emphasis on the oral language alone:

Unfortunately, in many English-as-a-second-or-foreign-language programs, especially intensive courses for adult students, the written language has been de-emphasized to the point of extinction. Some students seem never to be taught how to read English at all (author's emphasis) (NORRIS, 1975, p. 201).

The advocates of the aural-oral approach tell us that a student should learn actively all the structures and vocabulary items he encounters in reading. I don't believe this is necessary. It is enough for our students to read a word without pronouncing it and to understand a structure without producing it (LUTOSLAWSKA, 1975, p. 247).

What use to the majority of students are courses which do not even reach a reasonable level of reading skill? (DAVIES, 1976, p. 441).

Emphasis on any one skill may depend on what kind of language the learner will be exposed to and what behavior will then be expected from him. It seems to be generally agreed upon by most methodologists that this final behavior should generate the instructional strategies. PRATOR (1976):

The linguists have convinced most of us that speech is in some way more basic than writing: It would therefore seem to follow that the elements of language should be presented to students first in the oral form and only afterward in written form. But suppose we are teaching a group of pre-medical students whose prin-

cial objective is to learn to read their textbooks in English. Shall we insist that they must also learn to speak the language? (...) The objectives of the class seem to be in conflict with methodological principles. Despite the conflict we will, if we regard objectives as an overriding consideration spend most class time in having the pre-medical students actually read their textbooks. (...) What students actually do in class will be what they learn to do. It is unlikely that they can be effectively taught to do something outside of class by doing something quite different in class (p. 7).

PILLEUX (1976):

(In the cognitive approach) any of the four skills can be given predominance according to the aim the teacher has in mind, so it might be possible to learn to read and write a language without first learning to hear and speak it (p. 38).

ESKEY (1971):

Considering the objectives of many of our best students, we may think it strange indeed that specialists in the teaching of English as a second or foreign language have had so little to say about the teaching of reading. For the student in non-English-speaking environment, the only practical reason for studying English is to gain the ability to read journals and books in that language (...). A consideration of the real needs of university students, and of many others, suggests that a near-exclusive emphasis on speech is inappropriate (p. 210).

As far as the history of language teaching is concerned, these are the main facts about the reading-versus-speech controversy. The pattern to be drawn is that of a pendulum, in which an idea is always replaced by an opposite idea which, in turn, had already been favored and discarded in the past. It is possible that everything has already been tried out in terms of foreign language teaching, so that whenever anything new is proposed, we can always relate it to something done in the past. If this is the

case all a teacher has to do is to look at History and choose the method that best suits his preferences. As all methods have failed, at least according to their opponents, it follows that whatever method he chooses can be invalidated on that basis. We don't mean that language teaching is bankrupt. We simply mean that the argument usually expressed by the sentence "Oh, this has already been tried and it did not work" is applicable to either side of our controversy.

1.2 - Comparative studies

A general characteristic of the audio-lingual methodologist was to claim scientific validation for his assumptions. Gatenby's reprimand against teachers who insisted in ignoring the benefits of science towards their profession is typical:

The refusal of generations of teachers and educational administrators to benefit from the successful experiments and proved theories of the past is an example partly of human perversity: men will not choose the right or the best or what is good for them when it is pointed out. But the neglect of salvation is also partly due to sheer ignorance of the record of discovery; questionnaires are still sent out seeking evidence already available, and heated discussions take place on points of methodology which to a trained language teacher should be axiomatic. This flogging of dead horses remains a pastime of educational conferences. (GATENBY, 1972, p. 45).

Gatenby's point of view, for which he claimed scientific evidence, was that language teaching, to be effective, should concentrate on speech. The evidence, however, is not so easily available as the author implies, and he himself has not quoted any specific experiment that would favor his assumption. In fact, the only example he cites refers to Montaigne's experience.

There are, however, comparative studies between methods which emphasize the printed language and methods which emphasize speech. These studies can be usually divided into two categories: on one side are studies made on an individual or almost individual basis, involving a small sample of the population and published in article form in some of the specialized journals. On the other side are long-range studies, involving many schools over a period of two or three years and published in book form.

As far as the first studies are concerned, they can produce evidence to justify both sides of our controversy, in general terms. In favor of the speech side we have mainly the experiments carried out by ASHER (1969, 1972, 1974) and WINITZ et al. (1973, 1977). They differ from the oral approach by stressing not oral production but oral comprehension. In terms of reading, they claim that the results of their experiments show that once students are able to understand the language aurally, reading comes along automatically.

We will concentrate on the last article (WINITZ et al., 1977). This article describes an experiment in comprehension training followed by reading. The course lasted eight hours, the subjects were Americans and the language was German. It consisted of videotaped presentations, arranged in 14 lessons which started with single nouns (first five lessons) followed by phrases with adjectives and articles and finally (last six lessons) by sentences. The purpose was to test the possibility of transposition from aural comprehension to reading. The results, as expected, showed that reading transfer was high.

In face of the results, which according to the authors confirm psychological evidence which indicates "that the auditory rather than the visual channel is the primary processor of speech events" (p. 317) the following conclusions are advanced:

a) The concern for listening comprehension and speaking has very clearly pointed out the primacy of the spoken word. Reading can be effective only if there is a satisfactory transfer of sound (...) to the printed page (quoted from Lohnes) (p. 307);

b) The findings of this study suggest that skill in reading need not be emphasized in language courses from the outset when the student is in the process of mastering basic syntactic and phonological patterns - and before he has acquired 5,000 words. (...) Premature emphasis on that skill (reading) will impede language learning (pp. 315-316).

It should be added that, for the authors, language is primarily speech:

We reiterate here that it is pointless to teach a person to read a language he does not know and knowing a language means, in addition to whatever else, having competence in the phonological system of the language (p. 308).

The author's experiments, more for their emphasis on understanding than interpretation of the results, helped to develop an important trend in modern methodology and, a little ironically, provided the basis for a reading model as we will see in the next chapter.

In favor of the printed word we have, ironically again, an article by LADO (1972b) in which, after commenting on research carried out by himself and his students, he concludes that "the largest increase in recognition of vocabulary was achieved by reading and listening simultaneously" (p. 451). The results of his experiments would later be developed by Lado into one of his six practical principles of language teaching and learning:

The fourth principle is that of SIMULTANEOUS ORAL AND WRITTEN PRESENTATION so that the student may perceive mentally both the spoken and the written forms of new utterances and words at the same time. This principle marks a departure from the exclusively oral period of the pure audio-lingual method and from the initial oral only initial period of the direct methods, Community Language Learning, and even

Lozanov's Suggestopedia. Such a radical departure should not be undertaken lightly and without adequate evidence at hand. The argument against using the written form when new words and utterances are introduced are that the ear has to be trained to perceive speech, that the written form distorts pronunciation, and that writing is not language but an imperfect representation of language. My research on vocabulary learning, on the memorization of dialogues (1972b) in Spanish, and similar research by my students on French, German and English show that pronunciation is not worse when written forms are presented simultaneously with oral models. Some pronunciation distortions appear that could be attributed to spelling influence, but at the same time other pronunciation problems disappear, problems that are noticed when the written form is withheld. The net effect is a balance: the gains are equivalent to the losses. The main gain in the use of the written form simultaneously with the oral is in the amount learned and retained (...). In amount of material retained, the listen only mode in my experience produced the least learning (LADO, 1976, pp. 19-20).

Lado's research does not necessarily contradict Winitz' experiment. We could argue that, as far as both experiments are concerned, they refer to different things. Contradiction arises only when conclusions are advanced. It seems logical, as Winitz claims, that a command of the spoken word by literate students leads easily to reading competence. Does this, however, show that a "premature emphasis on reading will impede language learning" or that students should be exposed to the written form only after having a vocabulary of 5,000 words as conclusions imply? We don't think so. A distinction has to be made between results and interpretation. If we take into account only the results, the contradiction between Winitz and Lado disappears: reading competence in a second language is more easily acquired by somebody who already speaks the language, as shown by Winitz, and by presenting the written form simultaneously with the oral form, there is a gain in the amount learned and retained, as shown by Lado.

As far as long-range studies are concerned, comparing audio-lingual methods with an emphasis on speech with the so-called traditional methods with an emphasis on writing, we have to our knowledge, two studies: the Agard-Dunkel Report and the Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project.

1.2.1 - The Agard-Dunkel Report

The first investigation was conducted by Frederick Agard, from the University of Cornell, and Harold Dunkel, University of Chicago. The results of the study were published in two volumes: AGARD and DUNKEL's An Investigation of Second Language Teaching (1948) and DUNKEL's Second Language Learning (1948). Their purpose was to compare results obtained with the new experimental courses that had sprung from the ASTP against what they defined as conventional methods. Although it may be argued that the experimental courses at that time were somewhat different from later audio-lingual courses, the fact is that both shared essentially the same assumptions and suggested practically the same classroom activities. Both, for example, insisted on aural-oral training as the best and most economical way to any final objective, even if that objective was reading comprehension.

The authors are very careful in interpreting their findings, spending sometimes more time in pointing out the many shortcomings of the study than presenting the general results. Generalizations and confrontation of data are scarce for all the details that are offered in describing each one of the many groups that were tested. Comparative tables for easy interpretation are reduced to a minimum. Besides that, not all students were tested in all skills. Most of them (more than 8,000) were tested in aural comprehension but only part of them were submitted to oral production and reading comprehension tests. Both experimental and conventional courses are described from school to school, and

although the first can be considered as homogeneously applied, the second varied from grammar-translation to reading methods with more or less emphasis on the spoken language.

The oral comprehension test was applied with the help of a recorded disc accompanied by instructions about how it should be played, what equipment to be used, size of the room, etc. It is the only test whose total results are summarized in a table. The scores, as they are there, favor conventional courses, although not significantly. The author's interpretation:

A glance (...) at Table III shows that the average student in a current experimental course - a course in which he is trained through special methods to handle the spoken form of the language and can allegedly comprehend with complete facility familiar sequences of speech uttered by speakers who are also his teachers - is no more successful than the conventionally taught language student when confronted with an instrument designed to measure his aural ability in absolute terms (AGARD and DUNKEL, 1948, p. 93).

As to oral production, the authors have not reached any definite conclusion, firstly because the sample was too small (less than three hundred) and secondly because they were not really representative of the whole population, since in some cases there was strong reason to suspect that only the best students of a given group were tested. Even so the authors in the final conclusions of the investigation suggest that students in the experimental groups were superior to conventional students at least in terms of pronunciation.

The third ability in which the students were tested was reading. For this testing program the authors used the Standard Cooperative Tests, which had norms established for each part: reading comprehension, recognition vocabulary, and functional grammar. The sample is again smaller than it was with aural comprehension testing and there is no total confrontation of results. Each one of the fifteen colleges and four high-schools

covered by this testing program is further separated into individual groups and studied in detail. Sometimes when a college has both experimental and conventional groups they are compared, not in terms of accumulated hours but in years of study, although some experimental groups had as many as fifteen classes a week while no conventional group met more than five times a week. The authors' justification for their choice was that in conventional groups the students were given homework which, in the case of experimental groups, was done in class. Even so, the results of the comparative tables show that conventional students were significantly superior in reading to students in experimental programs. Authors' final conclusions:

As far as we were able to follow the experimental groups, i. e., mainly through the first and second years of study, the evidence from the tests indicates that superior reading skills were developed in those programs where reading received the greatest time and emphasis. The highest levels were reached in reading method courses which featured moderate amounts of classroom oral-aural practice directly related to the material read. On the other hand, experimental students whose oral-aural command was limited to the scope of their spoken-language textbooks were observed to be unable either to understand reading material presented to them "viva-voce", or to discuss in the language the content of their readings. As to the assumption made in some quarters that oral-aural competence automatically (authors' emphasis) creates reading ability and that consequently the latter need not be specifically taught, there is evidence "per contra" so far as the experiments observed are concerned (...). There (in experimental courses) only those who were carefully and expertly taught reading skill as an attainment distinct from that kind of oral-aural competence which proved to be teachable within the scope of the program, were able to demonstrate notable success in reading (AGARD and DUNKEL, 1948, pp. 291-292).

The Agard-Dunkel Report was not very encouraging to the advocates of the oral methods, especially those who felt that the

problems of language teaching had been solved once and for all (COCHRAN, 1952, pp. 4-5). They invalidated the experiment, mainly by claiming that the testing program did not really measure language ability. Agard and Dunkel are the first to admit that. Although they prepared the tests on thoroughly scientific principles, they confess they were not very sure about what was meant by language ability and achievement in a foreign language course.

1.2.2 - The Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project

The second large scale investigation was started 20 years later and has been known as The Pennsylvania Foreign Language Project. It was planned during 1963-64 and the main testing program carried out in the school years 1965-66 and 1966-67. The results of the study were published in 1970 by its Coordinator, Dr. Philip D. Smith, Jr., under the title of A Comparison of the Cognitive and Audio-Lingual Approaches to Foreign Language Instruction.

The study involved 2,171 students in the first year, with 64 classes doing French and 45 doing German. In the second year the investigation covered 24 of the original French classes and 25 of the original German classes, besides a replication study of 18 classes doing French I and 10 classes doing German I. There are also some data about third and fourth years. The students had begun to study the language in the 9th, 10th, or 11th grades.

The purpose of the investigation was to evaluate the efficiency of three different approaches to language teaching and the use of tape recorder and language laboratories. As our main concern here is the efficiency of the approaches investigated, we will limit ourselves to that part of the study.

The three methods are identified as:

- 1 - Traditional,

- 2 - Functional Skills,
- 3 - Functional Skills Plus Grammar.

Each one of them is carefully described by the study not only in terms of assumption and corollary but also in terms of their objectives and general criteria.

As far as the tests are concerned there were first the predictive tests. These predictive tests were the California Test of Mental Maturity - an intelligence test - and the Modern Language Aptitude Test by Carroll and Sapon. Of more relevance, however, are the attainment tests, of which there were three kinds:

- 1 - The Old MLA Cooperative Tests:
 - a - Reading
 - b - Grammar
 - c - Vocabulary
- 2 - The new MLA Cooperative Classroom Tests (developed for the audio-lingual method):
 - a - Listening
 - b - Reading
 - c - Writing
 - d - Speaking
- 3 - The Rebecca Vallete Tests (Especially developed for the Project):
 - a - Listening Discrimination Test
 - b - Speak Production Test

The results of all these tests, as they were applied, can be summarized as follows:

The old MLA Cooperative Tests were used for level I, the first year only. The Traditional classes did better than the other two methods in all skills.

The new MLA Cooperative Classroom Tests were used throughout the testing program. The results in the first year, level I, showed that Traditional classes did as well as the other classes on the Listening subtest, and better in Reading. Only

ten per cent of the students took the Speaking and Writing subtests. Traditional classes were again better in writing and did as well as the other classes in speaking (the Speaking test, however, was denied statistic validation by some members of the Project).

In the second year, level I (replicating classes) there were no significant differences between classes on the Listening and Reading subtests. Too few students took the other subtests for the results to be meaningful.

In the second year, level II, Traditional classes did as well as other classes on Listening, and were better on Reading. Only 62 students took the Speaking and Writing tests, and there was no significant difference between traditional classes and other methods.

Vallete's Listening Discrimination test was used only in the second year with the level I (replicating classes) and level II. In level I the results favor the Functional Skills Plus Grammar classes with French students. In German classes there were no difference. In level II no significant difference was found between classes. In terms of Speech Production, Functional Skills classes were better than Traditional classes.

The conclusion, as it was advanced by the Coordinator and substantiated by the investigation, was that students taught by "traditional methods were at least as good as students taught by the "functional skills" method (audio-lingual approach) in all language skills tested and superior in reading both years.

Commenting on the results, in the conference that was held to examine the experiment, John B. Carroll pointed out that though there were statistically significant differences between classes who had received different treatments, these differences were not so large as to be very important in practice. Students' achievement in general was poor, whatever method used. Even those who had been followed up for three years failed to attain a "limited working proficiency".

Once again the results of a comparative study did not favor the audio-lingual approach and were consequently rejected by the audiolinguists. The reasons alleged were mainly lack of control and insufficient preparation of the teachers who taught in the Program. They claimed they could not be sure whether or not the teachers had really used the audio-lingual techniques (HAMMERLY, 1971, 1975).

As far as comparative studies are concerned, the fundamental question is to find out what is really being tested. First, we would have to see what the experimenter understands by language and language learning. For some audiolinguists, for example, it is possible that reading a text silently and somehow understanding its content is an activity which has nothing to do with language because language is speech. On the other hand, for some cognitivists, making somebody produce a pattern with native-like pronunciation in response to a given stimulus may not be language either because language is not parroting.

There is also the possibility that language, as defined by linguistics, cannot be taught in the general classroom situation. We could speculate whether or not it would be possible to have what could be termed as a "pedagogical" definition of language: students would be taught language-related behaviors, to be specified according to a given situation or needs of the learners. The Agard-Dunkel Report was accused of not really measuring language achievement, but, judging from the high grades obtained by a group of war veterans who had been in France before, we might conclude that what it measured was not very different from language after all. The students might have been deceived by their teachers, who made them believe they were learning a language when they were learning a different ability, but not to a large extent. As far as they were able to read and understand they had a working knowledge of something at least related to language - possibly the only thing that could be taught in the classroom.

Although the results of the experiments were meaningful in many aspects, no consensus has been reached over which should be regarded as the best approach to language teaching. Our conclusion is that a choice between a reading or an oral approach has to be determined by factors which are beyond the virtues of each approach. What these factors are, and how important they are, will be dealt with in the next chapter.

1. 3 - Summary

We have collected in this chapter the main facts about the reading-versus-speech controversy.

We have seen them in a historical perspective, when it was shown that a preference for either reading or speech have always succeeded one another; from an emphasis on speech in Antiquity and Middle Ages, we shifted to an emphasis on writing in the Renaissance; with Comenius we turned back to speech until Plötz changed the emphasis again to writing, and, finally by the end of the nineteenth century, back once more to speech.

We have also seen that in the twentieth century, while other nations had adopted an oral approach, the United States developed a reading method up to the Second World War, when they shifted to an oral approach, which was later developed into what is known as the audio-lingual approach. For more than twenty years that approach dominated language teaching as no other approach seems to have dominated before. Lately, however, like previous methods, it has also been challenged.

Some comparative studies, testing the efficiency of both speaking and reading have also been summarized. Results in general favored a reading approach but they were questioned by many methodologists. They argued that a clear definition of language was lacking and that many variables were out of control. Our final

conclusion was that success or failure in learning a foreign language should be explained by other factors than the value of a given approach alone.

II - REASONS FOR AN EMPHASIS ON READING

We will analyse in this chapter, first, the conditions which should govern the choice between an oral and a written approach. We will concentrate on conditions that ask for an emphasis on reading and list the advantages of a reading approach. We will end the chapter by describing three reading models that have been tried in America.

2.1 - Differences between TESL and TEFL

Success in language learning seems to depend more on conditions surrounding the student than on the intrinsic qualities of any method. Methods seem to have two congenital defects. On one side, there is no agreement yet about what should be taught to the student, as WARDHAUGH (1972) puts it:

Most linguists will admit that they really do not know much at all about exactly what must be learned in second language teaching (abstract rules, habits, general principles?) or specific items (sentences) (p. 10).

On the other side, no method can offer the student all the language content he may need:

For the past few years I have been saying that even a foreign language student acquired one hundred per cent of the subject matter taught by any known method - traditional or audio-lingual - he would get no further than he is now: on a plateau that leads nowhere (BELASCO, 1971, pp. 3.4).

Humboldt's conclusion (In CHOMSKY, 1965, p. 51) that nobody can really teach a language but only present the conditions under which it is spontaneously developed by the learners, should settle the question of conditions versus methods.

The fundamental question, it seems, is to find out what can be done with available conditions. No matter how desirable an overall command of the language might be, we have to limit ourselves to what can be really accomplished. Earl Stevick's comment on Charles Fries's definition of what should be meant by having learned a language could bring more comfort than discouragement:

Referring once more to Fries's famous definition, we may question whether in fact "to have learned a foreign language" is in itself a serious goal for many adults except a few professional linguists and other language nuts (STEVICK, 1972, p. 120).

Every student of course is a special case and his conditions are different from everybody else's. If we place an emphasis on conditions and feel too strong about them, we will have to take into account individual cases and devise a program for each student. But this, of course, like ignoring conditions altogether, is an extreme position and, although desirable, is usually unfeasible as far as secondary school students and teachers are concerned.

Students, however, can be divided in groups which share similar conditions. Of course the larger such a group gets, the more individual circumstances are disregarded - and the more economical it is to prepare a course. Gains on one side mean losses on the other, but not necessarily on a one-to-one basis. There are stages in which greater gains on one side do not correspond to an equivalent loss on the other, and vice-versa. Two points are particularly critical.

The first is whether or not the student's native language can be taken into consideration. It is obvious that a group of students who share the same native language offer many pedagogical advantages over a group made up of students from different languages. Difficulties can be much more easily predicted either through contrastive or error analysis, and attention can be con-

centrated on those difficulties.

The second turning point is whether the target language is studied as a foreign or second language. Conditions in a foreign language learning situation are different from a second language one. As students' needs are different, because of the kind of language they will be exposed to, the objectives and teaching strategies should also be different.

In terms of English teaching the acronyms TEFL (The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language) and TESL (The Teaching of English as a Second Language) have been referred to for a long time. The trouble is that these two acronyms have been used interchangeably, usually encompassing both situations. Very few methodologists have ever felt the need to distinguish them and when eventually somehow pressed to use more precise terms, they created the all-inclusive TESOL (The Teaching of English to Speakers of Other Languages), and the first two acronyms were more or less discarded.

On the very few occasions these methodologists had touched on the subject, they did it mainly to criticize a too strong emphasis on writing in TESL, mainly in some African countries where students were taught to read through primers originally designed for English native students - a situation which has certainly been solved by now. There has always been more preoccupation with TESL. Dr. Marckwardt's remark, first made in 1970, should be regarded as most condescending to TEFL:

English as a second language, for the most part, demands the ability to speak and comprehend: English as a foreign language may opt for reading as the principia aim (MARCKWARDT, 1975, p. 42).

TESL and TEFL can be characterized by contrasting one with the other. There are many intermediate positions between them but a criterion for dividing them into only two cases can

be easily established. Some teachers consider the TESL to be only the case of imigrant students, but we will also include here those cases where English is used as a medium of instruction in secondary schools, although in some places this is the only situation in which the students are exposed to the language. On the TEFL side there is also the case of countries like Sweden, the only example to our knowledge, where English, although not a medium of instruction, is studied from the third grade on. Typically, however, TEFL involves only secondary school students. In Latin America, for example, only Puerto Rico has English taught in the primary schools (GAGE and OHANNESSIAN, 1977).

The differences between TESL and TEFL are significant and can be analysed from many different angles.

The main difference is exposure to the language outside the language class: the SL student is not limited to his English class for exposure to the language. Although in some cases he may not use the target language to buy a magazine at the newsstand, the magazine itself is usually written in English, as are all his textbooks at school. Opportunities to use the target language, if not present everywhere, are at least frequent. One third of the population, on the average, has a fluent command of the language.

In TEFL situation none of these opportunities of exposure exist. Everything outside the language class comes to the student in his native language. Any chance of using the language is usually confined to the reading of books and magazines imported from English-speaking countries, or has to be artificially created.

In TESL English is one of the most important subjects in the school curriculum. It may not only have more classes than other subjects but may also be the first to get facilities when money is available. Success in many school activities may depend on competence in English and teachers of other subjects may even take into account correctness of English in their own testing.

In TEFL English is a minor subject. Sometimes it is on an optional basis and may be offered only as far as teachers and rooms are available. It may be on and off the curriculum according to variations in educational policy.

In TESL, learning always starts in the primary school, usually in the first grade. This means that students start learning the language not only from a very young age but also before they can read in any language - two circumstances which may be extremely important for devising classroom strategies.

In TEFL, instruction in the language usually starts in the secondary school. There are exceptions, of course, but the average FL student starts studying English after the age of twelve. Being already literate, he is used to receiving language both through the ear and through the eye.

This difference in starting studying the language implies also a difference in time devoted to language learning both in hours per week and in years of study. In TESL it is not difficult to find students who may have studied the language for as long as fifteen years. Going to school means studying English, year after year, both in primary and in secondary schools. If he is transferred from one school to another he will find a similar situation, because his new classmates will have probably studied the language as long as he did.

In TEFL, time is much more limited. In Brazil, for example, where foreign language teaching is optional, a student may even finish secondary school without having studied English at all. If we take into account students who are already at the university, the average should be around five years. These students, however, are an elite, which means that they have not only been through private schools, where foreign language may receive a greater emphasis, but also attended some of the many foreign language centers. If we take into account only the public schools, however, the average should be lower. We have not been able to

collect statistical data about this point, but personal observation in primary and secondary schools in the Greater Porto Alegre can allow us to estimate that the average should be around three years. It might not sound so bad after all, were it not for an important fact which is usually overlooked: in these three years the student will be taught the language about two hours a week, which means 180 hours, with holidays in-between.

If we compare these 180 hours with what an immigrant student is exposed to, we can better see the difference between extreme cases of TEFL and TESL. While the foreign student gets two hours a week, the immigrant student should get about 14 hours a day. This means, in other words, that what takes three years for a FL student, a SL student could accomplish in less than two weeks. The difference is so great that it is even absurd to compare them: one year for an immigrant student is something like 78 years for the foreign student.

Summarizing, then, we have seen that students' circumstances play a more important role in language learning than intrinsic qualities of any method. This means that these circumstances have to be taken into account in describing the final behavior expected from the students. We have also suggested that a common native language and the study of the target language as either second or foreign play an important role in grouping the conditions under which learning is attempted. These conditions can be divided into two big groups: TESL and TEFL. Some of the differences are:

In TESL:

- (1) Exposure to the target language outside the language class;
- (2) One of the most important subjects in the curriculum, permanent in the school system;

In TEFL:

- (1) No exposure to the target language outside the language class;
- (2) A minor subject, sometimes on and off, and not in all schools;

- | | |
|---|---|
| (3) Language learning starts in the first grades, before students know how to read; | (3) It starts in later stages, after students have learned reading; |
| (4) More time available in hours per week and in years of study. | (4) Less time, both in hours per week and in years of study. |

2.2 - Reading as an aim in TEFL

It seems that the greatest problem in TEFL is to predict in exactly which way FL students will use the language. Some methodologists have argued that we live in a global village that is getting smaller and smaller through communications and jet planes, so that present-day English students will have in the near future more chances to enter into contact with foreigners and consequently speak their language. The problem is that similar predictions made in the past have failed to come true: only a minority can enjoy air travel and the chances of meeting foreigners do not seem to have increased very much, at least in Brazil. We believe that the majority of present-day secondary students will probably use English in the same way as their older colleagues at the university are using it now: mainly to read specific literature.

Another important issue is to decide what should be taught, mainly because there is much more to leave out than to take in. Long-cherished things in language teaching like native-like command, language as spoken by the English speaker, or learning the language in its entirety - may have to be discarded. Students will learn, at best, what classroom conditions allow them to learn: a language in-between their native and target languages, usually described as interlanguage.

The question, then, is what to do in a 180-hour course with adolescent students, the majority of whom, if ever required

to use a language, will probably use it for getting information out of written materials. The solution offered up to now is to submit the student to a global course, usually designed from experiments with immigrant students. The approach can be either structural, situational or notional: in all of them the learner is introduced to oral forms more or less clearly related to concepts of time, place, quantity, relations; or to social interactions like greeting people, apologizing, requesting things, etc.

We know that a student of average aptitude would need from 1,000 to 1,200 hours to obtain a minimum proficiency level in a four-skills course (DILLER, 1971, p. 103). In an 180-hour course that would mean covering less than the fifth part of the total course. The student, in other words, is abandoned at the beginning of his journey. It is as starting to build a four-lane paved road, and then suddenly stopping in the middle of nowhere. A better solution, given the same amount of time and money, would be to build a simpler road and finish it.

The question is whether such a shortcut is possible in terms of foreign language teaching. We believe it is, if we reduce the language skills to be taught. Instead of teaching a given notion in each one of the skills, we can concentrate on a given skill and teach four different notions. If we choose reading, attention will not be diluted on such intrinsically different abilities as speaking, writing and listening. Up to now, because equal emphasis has been given to all skills, the FL student in a 180-hour course is left in a Kafkanian interlanguage situation in which he has nobody to either talk or write to, or to read and listen from. We believe that, under such circumstances, a better solution would be concentration on the reading skill.

It should be emphasized that three facts are carefully being taken into consideration when we propose a reading approach: the first is students' needs which, in the group we have selected,

will probably involve written materials, at least for most of them; the second is their age, all of them over twelve; and, thirdly, the limited time available which might allow them, at most, competence in only one skill.

2.3 - Advantages of reading

Methodologists have usually complained that when the emphasis is on reading, the oral part of the language does not get enough attention. Pronunciation might be neglected and important things like intonation, rhythm, stress, liaison, juncture, etc., are not adequately treated. As if that was not enough, the learner could still superimpose his native language sounds upon the written word in the target language. It would never occur to the learner that the FL sounds are different not only for their strange combinations, but mainly for themselves. His ears have to be reeducated to discriminate articulatory differences, a task which is not seriously undertaken in a reading approach.

Besides this criticism, on a rather linguistic level, reading is also attacked on pedagogical grounds. Reading classes, as they do not stress conversation, lack vivacity; they are stultifying for the teacher who has little to do in a reading class; and they are finally unsatisfactory for the student, who wants to speak the language.

These objections against reading are for languages in general. In the case of English, there is still the poor fit between sound and spelling, a subject which not only methodologists but everybody else seems to be particularly concerned with.

There are two points to be made regarding these objections. One is that any approach, either oral or written, has both advantages and disadvantages. The other is that both advantages

and disadvantages can be valued differently according to students' needs. One of the most serious problems in TEFL is that objectives are usually derived from a theory of language. If intonation, for example, is regarded as an important feature of language, then all language students should learn intonation. But, on the other hand, if objectives are drawn from students' needs, many features of pronunciation, although intrinsically important, may be totally irrelevant for students whose aim is to look for information in the written language.

As to the pedagogical objections it seems that the reverse is rather true, since it is the oral approach that is in more danger of being monotonous to a big group of adolescent students. A language class does not necessarily have to be noisy to be motivating. Involving the students in a learning activity is certainly important, and there is no reason to suppose that it cannot be done in a reading class.

As to the third objection, the poor fit between sound and spelling in English, it might first be argued that it would be, at most, a problem to both oral and written approaches, if not to oral approaches alone. On the other hand, an important trend in modern linguistics claims that the relations between sound and spelling in English are not so chaotic after all. The famous remark of Bernard Shaw's that "fish" could be spelled "ghoti" ("gh" as in "laugh", "o" as in "women", and "ti" as in "nation") cannot be sustained, since no native speaker of English would ever read "ghoti" as "fish". There is even the possibility of teaching the learner a set of correspondences between some spellings and their respective pronunciation, and so lead him to read correctly many new words. This is a possibility, however, that would rather benefit oral approaches again.

We do not claim, of course, that by teaching students to read the FL, we have only gains and no losses. It would be kind of an early specialization in the FL, and like all early special-

izations it might cause a distortion. But we have to make a choice. There are four abilities involved and we lose three to get one. Our only argument is that it is better to gain one skill than to lose four.

Concentration on reading may not be as bad as many methodologists believe. There are, on the contrary, some undeniable advantages in adopting it. Michael West's words might still deserve more than curious historical attention:

The easiest ability to acquire in a language is Reading; the ability that can most readily be enjoyed in a foreign language is Reading; the ability that can most easily be improved in solitude without the help of a teacher is Reading. And the child who leaves school earliest is the least likely ever to need more than Reading ability in a foreign language (In SCHMIDT, 1935, p. 117).

Even present-day proponents of oral methods, like Robert Dixon, for example, sometimes recognize the advantages of a reading approach:

Despite the present world-wide importance of English, there are still places where students have no actual contact with oral English in any form. These students have no occasion to speak English at any time or even to hear English spoken. In such classe, it is almost foolish to spend time teaching the students the more difficult arts of speaking and understanding English (our emphasis). It is simpler and more practical just to teach these students how to read. The average student, learning to speak English, acquires an active or speaking vocabulary of some five or six hundred words only after long months of continuous practice and drill. Within the same period a student, concentrating only on reading, can acquire a passive or reading vocabulary of twice this size - or well over a thousand words. Grammar forms, when a student must use them orally in speaking English must be drilled and drilled over long periods of time. In reading, the student need have merely a recognition know-

ledge of the forms (DIXON, 1960, p. 61).

We could develop some of these ideas and try to find out how much could really be gained by adopting a reading approach. These gains should relate to four important areas in FL teaching: Linguistics, Psychology, Pedagogy, and an area which is usually neglected, School Administration. In proposing a reading approach we would have first to discover what facts each one of these areas could offer, that are of advantage to a reading course.

In making an inventory of the possible advantages of reading, we are trying to select and order some facts which seem to be relevant to the issue. We are not claiming, however, that this inventory is a complete taxonomy. No mention is made about the relative greater importance of some facts over the others, some items may not be clearly defined, and overlapping should be expected, mainly between linguistics and psychology. The purpose is rather to make an inventory of the items than to categorize them.

2.3.1 - Linguistic advantages

We mean by linguistic advantages in a reading approach some features of language which make it easier for the student to acquire a reading competence in the foreign language. These advantages spring from the fact that written English is not the same as spoken English: there are differences both in vocabulary and in structure and many notions and functions are much more frequent in one medium than in the other. From the many linguistic features which should make reading easier than both speaking and aural comprehension, we could select the following:

1. Languages are more similar in their written than in their oral form.

For a Portuguese-speaking student learning English, a word like "module", for example, although easily recognized in print, might not be understood aurally. Many English words ("animal", "local", "altar", "artificial", "civil") are written the same way as in Portuguese but none is pronounced alike.

There are, of course, two main kinds of written language, which could be defined as literary (personal) and scientific (institutional). In terms of what concerns us here we could characterize literary language as individual creation, usually concerned with form, with how things are expressed, and consequently varying from one writer to another. Institutional language, on the contrary, is turned to content, to what is expressed, and follows preset patterns which are sometimes common to many languages.

As far as literary language is concerned, the differences between two languages might be as great as their oral expressions. Even native speakers are not usually prepared to understand a literary text for all its underlying implications, double meanings and sound combinations. Something as simple as "love it or leave it" implies more than the message it carries. Consequently, having the student read literary texts before he is ready for it, as was the practice in the grammar-translation method is creating trouble for him.

But if we expose the student to institutional language instead, we might be making things much easier for him. Art and science are both held as universal manifestations of knowledge, but in terms of language, this universality belongs to science. Not only its methods but also its vocabulary are the same in all languages.

Scientific language may be hardly realized in colloquial speech. No one would probably be asked to define "water" in a cocktail party, for example. If someone were forced to define it, he might say something like "I'm thirsty", "I can't drink liquor", "I just don't feel like drinking anything else", presup-

posing a lot in each one of these statements. In written language, however, we could only find something as universal as the "liquid composed of two atoms of hydrogen and one of oxygen", making it extremely easy for any beginning Portuguese-speaking student to understand.

2. Authentic language material is more easily obtained in written than in oral form.

Oral courses, although preoccupied with presenting real language to the student, in its authentic spoken form, usually end up by presenting an idealized and artificial version of the language. Spoken language depends so much on extralinguistic factors, that it only might be taught, if at all, through such technological devices as television, video-cassettes or film projectors - tape-recorders are not enough, since:

useful as these are, they lack the visual element that is often a feature of spoken language situations and which provides the learner with valuable support in the form of clear contextualization and the presence of many paralinguistic features which help to make the language meaningful (WILKINS, 1976, p. 80).

This excludes the possibility of offering authentic spoken language to FL students in the near future at least. Even if we wanted to teach them how to behave correctly in the social environment of the foreign country, we would not have the means to start with. Too many things are involved in a real life situation and the individual would have to be left alone too early in the learning process.

Authentic written materials, on the other hand, can be relatively easy to be presented to the students. Books, magazines and even newspapers are available in any big city. When university students are involved they may even be forced to such an exposure in some of their courses, which seems to make authentic written materials even more authentic - the language is no

longer used for its own sake, but as a means to something else.

3. The same spelling is used for many different dialects.

Variations in spelling are minor in English and can be of only two kinds: British and American. In terms of understanding it offers the student no difficulty at all, so that spelling can be thought of as the most uniform area of the language. Besides these two wide divisions (The United States on one side and all other English-speaking countries on the other) no other variation is found in spelling, in spite of the many regional variations in pronunciation.

This would confirm the audio-lingual tenet that writing is a poor representation of language since it seems to leave out much more than it includes. Orthography is a crude, incomplete system that fails to represent not only regional variations but more meaningful facts like stress, rhythm, intonation, etc. According to CHOMSKY and HALLE (1968):

Orthography is a system designed for readers who know the language, who understand sentences and therefore know the surface structure of sentences. Such readers can produce the correct phonetic forms, given the orthographic representations and the surface structure, by means of rules that they employ in producing and interpreting speech (p. 49).

Commenting on these observations, CRONNELL (1972) concluded:

If Chomsky and Halle are correct that English orthography is appropriate for "readers who know the language, who understand sentences and therefore know the surface structure of sentences," then it appears that early emphasis on aural-oral instruction is best for eventually learning to read and write. Unless the learner is familiar with English pronun-

ciation, morphology and syntax, he will be unable to make effective use of the richness of English orthography. Just how much of this knowledge is necessary before learning to read and write cannot be determined from purely linguistic investigation. However when such knowledge is acquired, it can be used to interpret the orthography, which can be employed to determine the pronunciation of words in English (pp. 21-22).

It is obvious that Cronnell is more concerned with making the students sound the written words than understand them. Our argument is that since a written sentence can be pronounced in as many different regional dialects as the English language encompasses all over the world, the more important conclusion to be drawn, as far as a reading approach is concerned, is that a sentence can be equally understood by superimposing a foreign accent on it. Since a written sentence has so many different phonetic realizations, understanding will not be impaired by adding another use.

CHOMSKY and HALLE (1968) themselves had already noted that the writing system goes beyond dialect boundaries: "Thus a conventional orthography may have a very long useful life, for a wide range of phonetically divergent dialects" (p. 47). A foreign accent could be regarded, at least in terms of TEFL, as a kind of dialect and consequently benefit with other dialects from the common spelling. There is no reason to suppose that a foreign language student has first to speak English like a Bostonian, a Texan or an Australian so that he can understand a written sentence. Even if he reduced English vowels to five sounds - something that does not necessarily have to happen in a reading course - he could still be able to understand the written language.

4 . Writing is permanent.

Written language unfolds in a spatial dimension and is

permanently fixed on paper (transient examples of written materials as appears on television, for example, are again irrelevant for FL students). The reader can proceed as fast as he is able to process the incoming data. If his short-term memory is still too limited, he can read the sentence again before trying to transfer it to the long-term memory. At new words he can stop and try to get out the meaning with the help of the surrounding context. Syntactical constructions can be analysed to correct previous predictions that had not been fulfilled. If necessary, the dictionary can be consulted.

Speech, on the contrary, occurs in a time dimension. A piece of language exists only as long as we can remember it - if memory fails there is nowhere to turn to. If a word is not understood, there is no time to ponder over it, simply because the flow of language will continue. As WHITE (1978) puts it:

Speaking and listening take place in real time, which means that the listener has to process incoming information in a continuous stream which cannot be halted. This places a considerable burden on the learner's short-term memory which is brief in duration and limited in capacity. Items which are to be retained must quickly be transferred to long-term memory; but it is very difficult for the learner to process incoming information and to store it in pieces that can readily be retrieved (p. 42).

5. Many grammatical items are redundant.

Many difficult grammar topics like the use of prepositions, position of adverbs, usage of definite and indefinite articles, pairs like "shall-will", "what-which", "as-like", "do-make", "who-whom", countable-uncountable, to name only a few, can be perfectly dispensable when the emphasis is on reading. Other grammatical items are often made dispensable by context. The verbal endings in sentences like "He speak- Chinese," "He play- yesterday",

"He is play- at this moment" are so redundant that, if deleted, the meaning of each sentence can still be guessed with total safety.

6. Structure patterns in writing are more limited than in speech.

It depends again on whether we are dealing with literary or scientific language. In literary language the above claim cannot be made - it might even be the opposite, since many authors, not satisfied with existing structures, sometimes create their own. But in scientific language the reduction in structure, as compared to colloquial language, may be palpable. As WEINBERGER (1956) had already noted:

Scientific English has no use for a number of constructions common in general English such as question -tags, have got, future progressive, expressions of wish, requests for permission, imaginative use of the past tense, to mention only a few items listed in "Guide to Patterns"; nor does it make use of a host of colloquial constructions used in everyday speech (p. 138).

To be confirmed by NORRIS (1975):

Expository writing makes use of a more limited range of sentence types than speech. Statements predominate; questions are rarer, especially the yes-no type; and short answers and reduced forms are uncommon. Further, the sentence fragments, redundancies, false starts, gaps, and hesitations so common in informal speech are almost entirely lacking. In other words, edited written English is more regular and "correct", employs complete and well-formed sentences, and is free of grammatical errors and misspellings (p. 203).

7. More information can be obtained through writing than through speech.

We are not concerned here with information theory and quantifying problems, although it might be an interesting issue. We are referring to the fact that much more data can be retrieved through the written form than through speech. Schools have often been criticized for offering the student a bookish culture, but there seems to be no other way through which more could be offered to the student. This is especially true of the learning we get via language, both in our native and, most of all, in the foreign language.

It is easier to get what we want in a library than by talking to people, even specialists. If we attend a lecture we have to adapt ourselves to the lecturer; we cannot make him speak faster or slower according to our interests; if we happen to know what he is saying we have to hear through the end; we cannot focus or review a point which might sound vital to us; we are somehow taken along with the others, at the lecturer's will.

8. Writing provides for more discrimination

We know that in speech language sounds come in a continuum and consequently many words, inflections, junctures, etc., may not be properly distinguished by the listener, especially if he cannot have enough exposure to the language. Combinations like "miss time", "a nice house", or words like "son", "seed", etc., might be very difficult in listening, since the learner could confuse them with "missed time", "an ice house", "sun" or "cede" respectively. After hearing the words, he has to raise more than one prediction and resort to context to find out which one of his predictions is correct. And while all

this is happening in his mind, new words keep coming, and in a continuum, loading his memory beyond its capacity.

And yet we are supposing that the student has a perfect hearing, that there is no noise and, that the teacher has an excellent diction. In fact, mainly in a classroom situation, the student is usually unable to discriminate all the sounds he is supposed to hear, simply because sometimes they are not even pronounced. It is a well-known fact that language sounds are arranged in certain patterns. As the listener knows the patterns, he provides for the sounds he misses, filling the blanks himself - he does not have to hear everything to get the message. We can thus raise serious doubts whether, in a classroom, all students can hear and discriminate all the sounds, either from the teacher or from a tape-recorder. Should we ask the student to write from dictation nonsense words, we would get different transcriptions, even if the words were pronounced in their own native language. In a foreign language the sounds are not only arranged in different combinations but are basically different.

In writing, however, the letters are all there, printed in their fulness, grouped in words that are systematically separated by a blank space. "Sun" can never be confused with "son", as can neither "nitrate" with "night rate" or "I played tennis" with "I play tennis". Many of the fast, noisy, unintelligible sounds of the spoken language are clearly represented on the page, comfortably amplified, stretched and fixed. If many features of the spoken language, mainly supra-segmental phonemes, [X] are not represented in writing, it seems that segmental phonemes [Y] at least are richly represented, usually distorted for clarity sake.

9. The gap between the reading ability that can be learned in a classroom and fluent reading is not so wide as the gap between a corresponding speaking ability and oral fluency.

If any of the language skills should be of any use to the student, a certain degree of development has first to be reached. If we could manage to give the student a minimum working proficiency in either reading or speaking, he would more easily go from that point to full competence in reading than in speaking. Examples of students who have managed for themselves to learn how to read the foreign language can be more easily found than of students who managed to speak the language for themselves. Furthermore, it can be seriously doubted that such students could ever be equally competent in their respective abilities: it is much easier for a student to read the foreign language like a native than to speak it like one.

10. The student can concentrate on understanding.

In an oral dialogue a student has to divide his attention between what he is hearing and what he is going to answer, if suddenly obliged to speak. This elaborate mental activity may be further disturbed by external and internal factors; the learner may be surrounded by unfavorable circumstances (a party where everybody is talking and loud music is playing) or doing something he cannot stop doing (he may be driving a car on a busy street and has to pay attention to people, traffic signs, etc.). Internal factors may be even more inhibiting (the learner might feel uncomfortable in the presence of some people).

In reading, however, the student can be devoted solely to understanding - the book will never disturb him by requiring a verbal response.

2.3.2 - Psychological advantages

As far as psychology is concerned we will concentrate

exclusively on the reading-versus-speech dichotomy and its relations to the learning process. It seems that our senses play an important role in learning and that some senses are more important than others, as might be the case of hearing and seeing. Of the two it seems that seeing is more important since we get more through the eye than through the ear, although these are complicated matters when analysed in some depth - there is information we get only through the eye and many others only through the ear so that it is not very easy to quantify and compare them. Furthermore, a conclusion has still to be drawn about how much of what we know has really come through our senses - many things may be created by ourselves in our minds.

But apart from some theoretical aspects which can be controversial on very abstract levels, it has been observed that, on more practical grounds, we learn more easily when things are presented to us through the eye than through the ear, even in terms of language. According to CARROLL (1966a):

Other things being equal, materials presented visually are more easily learned than comparable materials presented aurally. Even though the objectives of teaching may be the attainment of mastery over the auditory and spoken components of language learning, an adequate theory of language learning should take account of how the student handles visual counterparts of the auditory elements he is learning and help to prescribe the optimal utilization of these counterparts, such as printed words, phonetic transcriptions and other visual symbol systems (p. 104).

The visual element in language teaching, however, has been used only to convey meaning, as is especially the case of audio-visual courses. As far as we understand there should be some confusion here, since, by presenting the students with the picture of a given concept, we are not exactly making the language visual; we are rather showing him something he already knows. If a picture is worth a thousand words, so much the worse

for the confused student: which of the thousand words is it standing for? A picture, although a great pedagogical aid, has very little to do with language proper, even if it makes the concept clear; if it really works, the student will probably retain the picture or the concept in his mind but not the language form that represents it. What we need to make clear at the moment is that a picture is not the "visual counterpart of the auditory element" as Carroll puts it. We will come back to it later on.

It seems that Carroll's claim can be corroborated by many comparative studies in language teaching. Among the most important were the ones carried out at the University College of Wales. These experiments, described by Professor C. J. Dodson in his book Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method, showed that by exposing the students to printed sentences before repetition had a definite positive influence on language learning even at the primary school level. With the aid of the printed word it took the primary students less than half the time to learn and consolidate the sentences than without it (DODSON, 1967, p. 18).

By withholding the printed word, it was observed that the children had great difficulty in retaining the longer sentences. Mispronunciation was frequent: some sounds were inverted, others wrongly placed or not pronounced, especially at the end of the words. As students were encouraged to practice the sentence as a unit, they were unable to distinguish the words, which seemed to make things more difficult for them; the picture only gave them the meaning of the sentence or of some of its elements. All that required a lot of practice before a sentence could be pronounced fluently and accurately; which consequently made the whole process boring to the student:

The average learner is not able to practise any one sentence for more than a few minutes before boredom sets in. Yet some sen-

tences required a total of seventy stimuli, seventy individual responses and seventeen chorus responses before a satisfactory level of consolidation was reached. To avoid boredom, it becomes necessary in this situation to move on to other sentences before returning to the original ones in a later session, but the learner's awareness that he has not mastered any of the sentences at this stage leads to a sense of insecurity which is to be deplored as it affects his performance during future lessons (DODSON, 1967, p. 19).

In the other experiment, with the aid of the printed word, it was observed that responses were usually fluent and complete. Students were more confident. After having glanced at the sentence they were able to respond to the oral stimulus without reading the sentence again. Ability to speak the sentence almost immediately made it possible to pay more attention to good pronunciation and achieve a high level of consolidation. It never became necessary, because of boredom, to move on to another sentence without having learned the previous one. Interference from mother tongue spelling was practically non-existent or only temporary. Everything seemed to be learned better and faster, without the need of repeating everything again as sometimes happened in the first experiment. All seemed to be done within the limits of the short-term memory:

An accurate sound image of intonation, stressing, speed of delivery, correct pronunciation and the total sound patterns of a sentence spoken by the teacher can be retained for five to ten seconds before fading. If by that time the learner cannot respond with the complete sentence, all previous work on the sentence has mainly been in vain, and the learning process has to start again at the beginning. The presence of the printed word as a point of reference enables the response to be made in that period so that the learner can make far greater use of his powers of mimicry (pp. 19-20).

It was also noticed that the students felt the need to convert the spoken sentence into some kind of spatial relationships, either by inventing their own spelling or by trying to follow any other indication. When the teacher made arm movements to indicate separate words the students' responses improved dramatically. It seems that by discriminating words students are in a better position to organize what they are hearing and repeating.

There is again some controversy here since some methodologists do not accept this mental spelling by the student. To quote WINITZ, REEDS and GARCIA (1977):

Further, when psychologists talk of imagery they do not mean a "mental picture", but a conceptual reproduction (L. A. Reid, 1974, "Toward a Grammar of the Image", Psychological Bulletin 81, 319-324). It is unlikely that listeners impose visual concepts on speech strings, specially at rates often as high as 20 phonemes per second (A. M. Liberman and others, 1974, "Perception of the Speech Code", Psychological Review 74, 431-461) (p. 317).

WINITZ et al. may be confusing, but what they are claiming is that imagery refers to concepts and not to "visual counterparts of the auditory elements" as it was defined by Carroll. They are consequently bringing something different into the controversy. Furthermore, no claim has been made, to our knowledge, that people who understand language at the rate of 20 phonemes per second, need to impose a mental spelling on what they are saying. There is a difference between listening comprehension and learning listening comprehension followed by oral production as is specifically the case here.

It should be finally pointed out that Professor Dodson is not proposing anything like a reading approach. He is concerned with a full four-skills course and his first aim is to make the students speak the language. The printed word was just found to be

an aid that helped to achieve that aim more effectively.

2.3.3 - Pedagogical advantages

We mean by pedagogical advantages the use of more meaningful strategies in the classroom, even from the beginning. Language behavior varies in complexity from automatic activities to free communication. When the emphasis is on speaking, although the final objective is always free communication, the truth is that students never seem to go beyond the mechanical phases, especially in a TEFL situation where time is extremely limited. Very little can be expected from the students then; usually no more than repetition of models, imitation of the teacher and memorization of some basic sentences.

Language behavior, however, can be graded into categories of different educational value. In a taxonomy of educational objectives, things like repeating, imitating or reciting dialogues are not so valuable as the more elaborate behaviors of deducing, supplying background information or identifying cultural stereotypes. Reading, in terms of educational objectives, seems to be the ability that can more easily lead the student to these higher aims of learning. Hence the main pedagogical advantages of a reading course:

1. Less rote repetition

Repetition can be, at best, a necessary evil in language teaching. If well-conducted, its low educational value can be somehow disguised; if ill-conducted it gets ridiculous. Choral repetition, especially, has been attacked even by some proponents of oral courses, as is the case of the authors of the American-English by the Audio-Visual Method:

Choral repetition serves no purpose in this methodology (...). Intonation and rhythm are

lost. It is difficult for a student to develop respect for, interest in, and a sense of reality about language that does not serve as a personal means of expression. A student who is not "held responsible" for his individual scholastic effort tends to lower his expectations and standards (WASHINGTON, 1969, pp. 40-41).

The situation is further complicated because the students are usually not asked to memorize words but whole sentences. These sentences may be formulas, of little communication value, or common everyday sentences, of high communication value but practically infinite in number. What the student learns in one sentence may be of little avail in learning another, especially in the beginning. After the student has memorized something like "Hi! How are you?", there is nothing he can do but memorize something like "Fine, thanks - and you?", where excepting "you" everything else is unknown again. This high intake of new words puts an extra burden on the students' memory and calls for more and more repetition to have the sentences consolidated - sometimes as many repetitions as seventy.

In reading, however, instead of making the student repeat seventy times the same sentence, he is rather made to read seventy sentences once. The stress is not on sentence production but on comprehension.

2. Problem-solving activities

A reading course can be more easily planned to lead the student to more elaborate behaviors. Even at the beginning a student can be more easily introduced to decision-making activities where they would be expected - and given the chance - to make correct predictions, raising hypotheses and testing them by themselves, possibly through such strategies as choosing the right answer in a multiple choice set, matching words or sentences for their synonymy, translating from the target language

into their mother tongue, manipulating cloze sentences, judging grammaticality or semantic anomaly, answering questions, deducing, etc. Concentration is rather on the end product of learning, on the objectives, than on the means of getting them. Students would not be asked to repeat something like "Los Angeles is a city" but they would rather be asked to decide whether Los Angeles is a city, a state or a country, for example, after being simply offered the means to find out what city, state or country are. They might be further led to infer and discover things by themselves. Any Portuguese-speaking student can safely discover the meaning of such statements as "Television is an important means of communication", "America was discovered by Columbus in 1492", "An element is a substance which cannot be decomposed into other substances".

3. Group work feasibility

When the stress is on reading it seems to be easier to use student-centered activities like individualized instruction and group work. Language teaching has been reluctant in adopting these learning strategies, possibly because of its emphasis on the spoken language. The language class has been supposed to be a different kind of class in the school curriculum.

There have been some attempts to use group work in the audio-lingual approach, however. The need to teach large classes has always challenged the teacher to devise more efficient strategies than the choral repetition technique unflinchingly suggested by methodologists to handle such situations. A typical example is offered by Professor Regis Ivan Berthi from the Universidade de Caxias do Sul.

Berthi proposes that instead of using what he calls the bipolar strategy, in which the teacher is on one side and the

students on the other, with a close relation between teacher's activity and language learning, the class should rather be divided into presentation (20%) and practice (80%). Presentation is done in the usual bipolar system, but for practice the class is divided into groups of three to four students. The textbook is organized in such a way, with instructions in the native language, that students work by themselves. Instruction eleven in lesson one, for example, tells the student to:

Reúna-se com os colegas e ensaie um rodízio de perguntas e respostas na forma do ítem anterior. Dois poderão responder afirmativamente e os demais negativamente.

Exemplo:

A: Is this a coat?

B: Yes, it is.

B: Is that a house?

C: No, it is not.

C: Is this a shirt?

D: Yes, it is.

D: Is that a door?

A: No, it's not (BERTHI, 1969, p. 4).

As far as oral methods and the structure of the language are concerned, the strategy seems to work; the students are at least more deeply involved than in the bipolar system. The main criticism we have is against the content of the course which was originally meant for university students who needed to read technical books. Once again it was assumed that it is impossible to teach how to read without first stressing speaking skills.

Group work with oral methods has been rare, however. As far as the basis of the method is to imitate a model, it would work only if a model could be provided for each group. Without a model to imitate pronunciation would certainly be poor.

When the stress is on reading, however, it is at least easier to organize a lesson in terms of group or pair work without jeopardizing the aims of the course; the student in the classroom may be even doing the same thing he will be doing later in real life.

4. Individualized instruction

The most striking thing in oral methods is that the whole class is supposed to learn exactly the same thing at exactly the same time. If the teacher times his teaching according to the brightest students, the others will not be able to follow; if he slows down to catch the slow-learners, the fast ones will be idling away; if he keeps to the average, a third of the class will not be able to keep up and another third will have to wait.

By contrast, in a reading course, there would be chance of demanding more from the brightest and less from the slowest, even using the same teaching material; understanding could be demanded from everybody, but some production - either oral or written - could be easily demanded, in addition to understanding, from the brightest. Slow but interested students could also prepare their lessons in advance. Learning would occur not only in the classroom but also outside, when the student is alone at home. Not only a high score in the language aptitude test would ensure learning but also other factors as interest, application or persistence, even where a high degree of intelligence may be lacking.

5. Independence from the teacher

Language teaching was, for a long time, regarded as something different from general teaching methodology. Classroom strategies have always been centered on the teacher, who, alone, had at least fifty per cent of the total classroom talking time, commanding the whole class like a drill sergeant. Language learning was supposed to occur only after blind obedience

was assured from the students.

In reading the text is the starting point. The bright student can go beyond what is taught in class, and the slow one can review at home what he may have missed. The classroom can be rather the place where things are discussed and ideas are exchanged. The teacher may act more like an adviser whose help may be asked from time to time, than a self-appointed model of correct sentences. As SANDBERG (1973) puts it:

The role of the teacher thus changes. He is no longer there as the purger of the linguistic stables, nor as a drillmaster, nor as a critic or judge. Without abdicating his role as leader, he gives up the stance of superior-inferior, and in the Socratic tradition responds to his interlocutors and helps them to see where their ideas lead. The classroom ceases to be entirely the place where errors are corrected and becomes instead the place where people talk about and express what they have read (p. 6).

6. Evaluation more easily done.

In oral courses applied at schools, although students spend most of their time repeating sentences and reciting dialogues, when it comes to evaluation they are usually given a sheet of paper with written questions on it to be equally answered through writing. Direct observation of students' oral performance is usually not taken into account in grading them, mainly because more tangible evidence has to be given of their achievement than teacher's subjective aural impressions can provide.

Oral tests could be prepared of course besides having the students write from dictation, which still seems to be the most ubiquitous aural test, and which certainly has its value as far as listening comprehension is concerned. But oral tests, where oral production is involved, cannot be easily done; they

sometimes may require nothing less than recording facilities, which simply means banning it from most schools. Even where language laboratories are available, oral production tests, to our knowledge, are not very common, mainly because of the amount of planning and time it involves.

In reading it seems easier to assess whether or not the objectives have been attained and to what extent. Tests can be more objectively organized and achievement more sharply analysed and defined, since there seems to be fewer interfering variables. The whole class can be submitted to the same test at the same time, there are no problems of more or less empathy between examiner and a given learner, nervousness may not be so acute, so that the answers given by the student might reflect with more precision what he had really learned, as separated from other features of his personality.

2.3.4 - Administrative advantages

Foreign language teaching has caused so many problems to administrators that they have gradually almost abolished it. Every time a new educational law is passed in Brazil, the foreign language slice in the curriculum is reduced. In the fifties, for example, a student, before entering university, would have studied French and Latin for seven years, English for six years and Spanish for one year. In the sixties he might still have studied English; French or some other modern language, but no more than two of them and not for so many years. In the seventies foreign language was made optional, to be taught "por acréscimo" and only if the school had the necessary conditions. Foreign language teaching is now practically limited to English and time has been drastically reduced. As it is optional a student may finish secondary school without having ever studied it.

The reasons for this decline are many and it is out of the scope of this dissertation to examine them. But there are

two points which deserve closer attention. One is students' interest, which is usually high, and the other are the results obtained, which are usually poor. Administrators, it seems, have been more impressed with results.

This strange combination of high interest with poor results might be explained through the methods which were introduced in schools. The emphasis on speaking, and consequently on the teacher rather than on the book, made it more difficult for both teacher and student. The textbook was entirely written in the foreign language, sometimes with more or less self-defining illustrations, but never clear enough to define all the elements of the sentence. No matter how interested the student might have been, he could not go beyond the minimum that was taught in a class to a large group of heterogeneous students with varying degrees of interest. The more interested the student, the more disappointed and frustrated he would be.

This emphasis on the teacher again as the sole mediator between the language and the student, reducing the opportunities of learning to teacher's presence, would either raise the cost of teaching or reduce general achievement. The further claim that language could be taught only to small groups demanded not only more teachers but also more space and facilities, making language teaching even more expensive. As administrators, of course, are not willing to invest money where returns are not at least compensatory, foreign language teaching was finally made optional, which, if a desirable thing in theory, can backfire in practice, mainly by conditioning language teaching to school conditions. In other words, if a given school does not have a foreign language teacher it is automatically exempted from offering the foreign language and need not bother to hire a new teacher.

An emphasis on the spoken language makes it difficult for the student, the teacher and the administrator. The gains con-

sequently have to be very great to compensate for all the trouble. If they are not, and if the administrator is offered no other choice, it should not be surprising that he would try to eliminate foreign languages from the curriculum.

There are three main advantages in a reading approach from the administrative point of view:

The first is that reading can be done with either a big or a small group of students. Learning to read a foreign language is a mental skill that can be acquired with less close assistance from the teacher. There is no need for an almost private instructor to provide constant practice so that the habit may be formed. Reading, unlike speaking, has not so much to do with riding bicycles, swimming or playing musical instruments. In reading, the mind works more than the body and the concentration is more on the text than on the teacher. It is also easier to give each student a book to read from than a teacher to talk to.

The second advantage is that reading materials are cheaper than recorded materials. A book can be directly used by the student in exactly the same way as it is used by a native speaker in his own country. A recorded tape or disc needs a playing machine, which makes it not only more expensive but also less available. Again, these machines are rather listening devices. If the purpose is to make the student talk, a more elaborate device will be needed.

A third advantage concerns the teacher himself. As far as reading makes group and pair work easier, it lessens the demands on teacher's physical and psychological fitness. Terminal behaviors in a given course can be also more accurately predicted, since the teacher, although still an important element, is no longer the sole variable to be accounted for either success or failure.

If writing is a poor representation of language where many important things of speech like intonation, rhythm, stress, gestures, etc., are not duly represented, it could also be argued

that reading has, on the other hand, many advantages. We have listed and discussed some of these advantages, taking into account facts from four different disciplines: Linguistics, Psychology, Pedagogy and School Administration. It was suggested that an emphasis on printed materials does not seem to be as harmful and undesirable as it has been assumed by many methodologists. Such an emphasis, on the contrary, could bring many advantages, especially in some TEFL situations.

2.4 - Three reading models

Reading courses for beginners, to our knowledge, are nonexistent in terms of either TEFL or TESL. All the three courses described below were planned for English-speaking students, two for the teaching of German and one for the teaching of French. They will be here simply referred to as models: The Bruce Beatie Model, The Karl Sandberg Model and the University of Texas Model.

2.4.1 - The Bruce Beatie Model (BEATIE, 1977)

Beatie's reading program at the Cleveland State University was specially prepared to meet the needs of those students interested in acquiring only a reading knowledge of the foreign language. In its final format the program was divided into two parts: the pre-course and the course proper.

The pre-course part of the project aimed at a review of grammar terms, identification of German-English cognates, and an introduction to lexico-grammatical problems in German.

The course proper aimed at reading a given book. The time available for both parts of the program were two quarters, but some students went beyond into some self-chosen reading materials.

What concerns us most here is the method used by Professor Beatie and which could be defined as a self-tutorial package method. The task was reading a book, which was divided into reading assignments, carefully graded in terms of length, increasing by about 25 per cent with each new assignment. The purpose was to gradually force the student from "decoding" (looking up new words in a dictionary) to reading (deducing the core meaning of a sentence). A recording of the text was also prepared, chiefly to prevent the student from stopping at unknown words.

After each assignment the student took a self-checking quiz. If he failed he should review the assignment and take another quiz. If he failed again he should contact the instructor - something which, according to the author, had never happened.

Along with the assignments there was a set of instructions, divided into ten steps which could be summarized as follows:

- Step 1: Students listen to the recording of the text, following the page with their fingers, and silently speaking the sentences along with the recording;
- Step 2: Students listen to the text again and note the words or phrases they do not understand at all;
- Step 3: Students look up the words but do not write the meaning;
- Step 4: They analyse the most difficult sentences;
- Step 5: They repeat step 1;
- Step 6: If there are still words and phrases which they do not understand they should repeat 2, 3 and 4;
- Step 7: They repeat step 1;
- Step 8: They write five questions and answer them;

Step 9: They take Unit-quiz Form I;

Step 10: If they score less than 80 per cent they repeat steps 1 - 8 and take Unit-quiz Form II. If they still score less than 80 per cent they must go and talk with the instructor.

Besides these steps, which students could follow as best suited their schedule, they had also to submit a "journal of study time", at least weekly, which was the main communication medium between student and instructor. To supplement the learning package there were midterm and final examination.

The emphasis on reading is practically exclusive. The other skills are either absent (speaking) or, if present, only to reinforce reading (listening and writing). Instruction is extremely individualized so that students can work at their own pace, although at the same time, under control from the instructor, who seems to possess the means to keep them working steadily. It might be questioned even so whether the students, once on their own, would faithfully follow the steps and not try shortcuts, especially in the listening part.

This might be a minor question, however, as far as the results were satisfactory: each student could have not only his own pace but his own method as well. As far as its applicability is concerned it seems to be easily adaptable to varying situations, even in cases where there are no recording facilities. The only objection we have is that it is too time-consuming to the teacher if he has to prepare the packages himself.

2.4.2 - The Karl Sandberg Model (SANDBERG, 1973, 74, 76, 78)

Sandberg's approach toward reading is based on his experiments at the Macalester College in Saint Paul, Minnesota, where he is the chairman of the French Department and Coordi-

nator of Linguistics. The approach differs from Beatie's mainly in its aim, which is not only to provide a reading ability but a full command of all language skills. What makes it relevant to a reading course is, in the first place, the order in which the abilities should be taught: the first is reading, to be followed by aural comprehension; then comes conversation, and finally writing. In the second place, the special treatment given to the reading process, both in terms of theory and practice.

Sandberg starts his reading approach by first providing a concept of language, which, according to him, is habit and something else. Being a habit implies that it is automatic, but "automatic" in the sense of "self-moving", not in the sense of "involuntary". The "something else" part of language is extremely important and implies that language is cognitive, novel, semantic motivated, purposive and rule governed.

Teaching a foreign language is basically making the learner pair known concepts with new forms, forms which can be either written or spoken. As reading seems to be a faster means of filling what the author defines as the student's "cognitive bin", it is suggested that foreign language learning should start with reading. This way, when the student starts speaking he already possesses many language forms. Normal language use proceeds from wealth, not from poverty.

Sandberg defines reading as the way by which we reduce uncertainty, a concept he borrowed from Frank Smith. It means, in other words, that reading is more than a mere process of word identification, and certainly not a passive activity. The brain does not only receive information from the eye, but mainly tells the eye what to look for.

It seems that there are many pedagogical possibilities from this triple approach to language, language learning and reading, and the author himself has offered more than one.

The first job is to establish linguistic priorities. It seems that function words, structures and the most easily taught vocabulary should come first, with an emphasis on comprehension.

As far as vocabulary items are concerned there are three aspects to be taken into account in ordering them. They should be distinguished as being tangible, cognate and familiar, which should form the first category of words to be taught. In the beginning, these individual words would be vital to elucidate the meaning of sentences, but students should soon be led to look for whole thoughts and context.

The approach can be implemented through a six-step strategy, summarized in the slogans:

1. Start by developing the ability to do informational reading;
2. Develop the ability to read rapidly and set the student to read widely;
3. Teach phonics;
4. Use reading and phonics as the basis for aural comprehension;
5. Develop conversation through natural stages using reading and aural comprehension as the base;
6. Use reading, aural comprehension, and conversation to develop writing (SANDBERG, 1976).

It is not very easy to give an accurate idea of Professor Sandberg's model, mainly because he is not very explicit in describing his strategy. We cannot have a clear idea of what exactly happens in the classroom. This makes it difficult to assess the applicability of the model. The way the author describes it, from an initial emphasis on reading to a final command of the four skills, it seems that it could be used not only in TEFL but in TESL situations as well. The student would first be taught to read and then, if time and conditions allowed, he would go on to develop

listening, speaking and writing. Whereas other methodologists suggest an emphasis on reading for special purposes only, Sandberg defends it for all-purpose courses.

2.4.3 - The University of Texas Model (SWAFFAR and WOODRUFF, 1978)

The reading course developed by the Department of Germanic Languages at the University of Texas at Austin can be analysed in three different aspects: the reasons for its implementation, the strategies used and the results obtained.

The main reason for implementing the reading course was the need to develop a program which would improve students' attitude towards foreign language. It is well-known that, in the United States, enrollments in foreign language study have been decreasing in a five to ten per cent basis yearly. But a more serious problem is student's attrition from the first to the second semester; at the University of Texas at Austin, it was noticed, for example, that between 1970 and 1975 an average of 45 per cent of students dropped German after finishing their first semester. It seems that the main complaint of the students was that they would be spending more time with the foreign language than with courses which were more important to them. To lessen this negative attitude, seven professors from the Department developed a program with an emphasis on listening and reading comprehension.

The listening part of the course was based mainly on Asher's Total Physical Response Approach with later contributions from Winitz, Reeds and Postovsky, among others, all in the line of an emphasis on aural comprehension. In the first four weeks students were asked, through commands, to perform a lot of actions. These commands were very simple in the beginning, but they would become more and more elaborate through the end, sometimes involving more than three clauses. Eventually the

students were expected to say something, mainly through one-word responses. To a command like "Sit on the ceiling", for example, they should answer that it was impossible. Speaking, however, was always voluntary.

The transition to the reading part of the course was made in the fifth week. The main emphasis was on global meaning, but there is also some preoccupation with the function of the word in a sentence. The strategies were thus divided into two categories: those for the Identification of Important information and guessing at meaning, and those for the identification of the function of the word in the sentence.

For both categories problem-solving activities and guessing were encouraged. Some examples:

1. Drawing pictures of characters or scenes (a map of the city after a dialogue on directions);
2. Inserting quotation marks to identify the speakers;
3. Writing a timetable and listing events in a chronological order;
4. Selection of sentences that pinpoint the main events;
5. Matching words in the story with synonyms;
6. Cloze reading;
7. Identifying a particular theme and listing the words that refer to them;
8. Selecting words that fit into meaningful categories (all the ways in which a character refuses to cooperate; all the negative adjectives applied to another; concrete and abstract adjectives; subjective and objective statements; verbs describing actions and thoughts; phrases that are typical or not typical for a fairy tale; what one character does on Sunday versus what another does; what someone must do against what he would like to do; life in U.S. versus life in Germany).

9. Identification of the function of the words (past tense verbs in a short text; who, whose, what, how phrases; pronoun reference; whether a verb form is functioning as a noun, adjective or verb; word order that contrasts with English usage).

Grammar, however, was treated in only those aspects that were considered assential for reading and listening comprehension. Students were asked to identify rather than memorize person or tense of verbs, complex word order, noun cases, etc.

On evaluating students' achievement the important criterion was the communication value of the attempt. If what was written down by the student could be immediately understood, mistakes in morphology were considere secondary.

The results of the program were evaluated in three different areas: enrollment, student attitude and student achievement.

As far as enrollment was concerned, the major objective was to decrease attrition between the first and the second semester, which in the old program was around 45 per cent. This objective was achieved, since in the new program only 28 per cent of the first semester students left the program in the first year. In the second year the attrition rate decreased even more: from 28 per cent to 22 per cent.

To assess students' attitude toward the new program a questionnaire was prepared for them. The vital question, it seems, was whether the way the course was taught had increased their interest in Germany and in the German language; a question which 84 per cent of the students in the first semester and 76 per cent in the second answered affirmatively. The results, although the items cannot be directly compared, reflect at least a better attitude than Jakobovits' findings in 1968, in which it was discovered that 40 per cent of the students felt that foreign language study had been detrimental to them (JAKOBOVITS, 1969, p. 448).

Finally, concerning student achievement, it was found that, by the end of the second semester, 78 per cent of the students felt that they could read German and grasp the main ideas most or almost all the time. This positive self-assessment was confirmed by the results obtained in the Modern Language Association listening and reading comprehension tests. At the end of one year, the median score for University of Texas students was well above the national norm (50 per cent): they obtained 70 per cent for listening comprehension and 68 per cent for reading comprehension.

Beatie's model, with a sole emphasis on reading; Sandberg's with an initial concentration on reading but an eventual stress on all skills; and the University of Texas course, with an equal emphasis on reading and listening - do not represent of course a general trend in modern language methodology toward an emphasis on reading. They are rather exceptions of a general orientation where the emphasis has always been on speaking, regardless of the real needs of the students.

They might not be very original in defending students' interests and needs, since many other methodologists before them had already used the same argument to justify their techniques, but they do seem to be more careful not only in their interpretation of the needs but also in assessing their own results. Furthermore, they have an edge over some other methodologists by being of the same nationality as their students. This may not be an important variable if the emphasis is on language; but if the emphasis is on the student and his needs, a teacher who is closer to him is certainly in a better position to sense these needs than a foreigner who usually has to speak in very general, worldwide terms.

2.5 - Summary

Success in language learning seems to depend more on conditions surrounding the student than on the intrinsic quali-

ties of a syllabus. It has been noticed that even if a student learned a hundred per cent of a long-range course he would still be a long way from a real command of the language.

Language learning is thus conditioned by circumstances. These circumstances can be divided into two broad cases: TESL and TEFL.

Three fundamental points in TEFL are the age of the students (usually over twelve), the amount of time available for learning (around three years) and the needs of the students (usually getting information from written materials). Consideration of these three aspects seem to recommend reading as the necessary option for TEFL.

Contrary to what has been preached by many oral method proponents, there are many advantages in a reading approach, not only from a pedagogical or administrative point of view but from linguistics and psychology as well. Reading models have appeared, if not for the teaching of English to speakers of other languages, at least for the teaching of other languages to speakers of English. Three of these models were analysed in detail: Sandberg's, Beatie's and the University of Texas course.

III - IMPLEMENTING A READING COURSE

The purpose of this chapter is to determine what can be taught in an 180-hour reading course. It will be developed in three steps: first, a body of language will be selected; next, strategies will be offered to make this body of language learnable; and, finally, an evaluation will be made of how useful this body of language can be to the student.

3.1 - Selection

One of the governing factors in our selection is the time available for the study of the language. The basic issue is to establish how much of the language the student can be expected to learn in an 180-hour course.

It has been claimed that adolescent students can learn to recognize twenty-five words a day with little difficulty (TERRELL, 1977). This means fifty words a week for students who study two hours a week. We will reduce that amount to twenty words, however, making an allowance for what we can define as the unaccounted-for component. In an 180-hour course, given ten new items per class hour, the student should be able to acquire a recognition vocabulary of 1,800 items.

This is 200 words short of what is considered, in terms of vocabulary, as the minimum to be learned by the student to reach a useful level (BRIGHT, 1970, pp. 14-15). However, as more than 10% of the first 2,000 words are cognates, and supposedly much easier to be recognized, we can assume that the 2,000-word plateau can be managed after all.

In selecting a body of language the first problem is determining what should be selected. Even if the purpose, level and duration of the course is known, the question of what that body of language should consist of still remains.

Traditionally, selection has been restricted to vocabulary items, with little or no attention to its semantic content, and based mainly on frequency counts of words. This approach has been criticized by some linguists (HALLIDAY et al., 1964), mainly because a word is difficult to be defined.

The strongest criticism, however, is that word selection attaches too much importance to the word itself, confusing language with vocabulary. To quote Charles Fries:

Many people naively assume that the 'words' of diverse languages are simply different sets of symbols for the same things. Many people assume not only that a language consists solely of words that can be recorded and defined in a dictionary, but also that each word refers to some fact of reality about which every individual has had essentially the same experience. From this point of view all that is necessary for the mastery of a second language is to learn a new name for each particular item. If one could only memorize these names he would, they believe, have at once an ability of expression in the second language equivalent to that which he has in his native language (In CORDER, 1966, p. 24).

Fries seems to be talking about "mastery" and "ability of expression", to use his own words. As far as speaking is concerned, and if correctness is demanded from the learner, Fries is certainly right. If our emphasis is on comprehension, however, his point of view may be challenged. We can demonstrate this by translating the first sentence of his own quotation into Portuguese. If we provide an equivalent Portuguese word for each English word, without even changing the order, we will have something like:

Many	people	naively	assume	that	
Muitas	pessoas	ingenuamente	pressupõem	que	
the	'words'	of	diverse	languages	
as	"palavras"	de	diferentes	línguas	
are	simply		different	sets	of
são	simplesmente		diferentes	conjuntos	de
symbols	for	the	same	things.	
símbolos	para	as	mesmas	coisas.	

As far as the right equivalent is given - as "defined in a dictionary" - the sentence is perfectly understandable in portuguese. This is not saying structures is not important. Our point is that, in terms of reading comprehension, vocabulary is more important than structure. We can support our claim with the conclusions of some linguists who dealt with the problem:

SCHLESINGER (1968):

Syntactic structure is to a large extent redundant. There is nothing novel about this. It has been known that a sentence may be correctly understood when only its "content words" are supplied (CHERRY, 1957, p. 119; WISSEMAN, 1960) (pp. 123-124).

BOLINGER (1970):

The quantity of information in the lexicon far outweighs that in any other part of the language, and if there is anything to the notion of redundancy it should be easier to reconstruct a message containing just the words than one containing just the syntactic relations. The significant fact is the subordinate role of grammar. The most important thing is to get the words in (p. 78).

TERRELL (1977):

Syntactic differences are noticed only in so far as they differ drastically from Li, and even these differences cause little problem for comprehension if the major lexical items of the sentence are known, and if the sentence is uttered in a meaningful context (p. 326).

The body of language selected here, however, is not restricted to words. There are, in fact, three selections: a) a vocabulary selection, including function words, bound morphemes and a few idioms; b) a semantic selection; and c) a selection of what we consider the most different English patterns for Portuguese-speaking students.

3.1.1 - Vocabulary and semantic selection

Frequency counts of vocabulary items have been done according to many criteria and there is hardly anything new to add to it. Our contribution is in approaching the subject from a bilingual point of view. Many English and Portuguese words are cognates, and as far as recognition is concerned, they can be very easily taught (LADO, 1972a, p. 282; SANDBERG, 1973, p. 4). As to the meaning of the words which are not cognates, they are treated through the student's native language. Some words, in both languages, may share a wide range of different meanings, while others may have only one meaning in common, and special provision has to be done for that: English words like "know" and "ask", for example, correspond to more than one meaning in Portuguese and receive double entry in our selection. A word like "present", on the other hand, has three main acceptations, both in English and in Portuguese (gift, not past, not absent) and consequently does not need more than one entry.

The criteria for our vocabulary selection are, first, frequency of occurrence in general written texts. We will use for it THORNDIKE's A Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words (1931), and BARNARD's Advanced English Vocabulary (1971). Our second criterion is frequency of occurrence in scientific language, for which we will use Ewer's word list of scientific terms (EWER and LATORRE, 1969). Our third criterion is coverage, based on C.K. OGDEN's The Basic Words: A Detailed Account of Their Uses (1943). From these sources a basic list is produced, which is then compared to RIEWALD's first thousand list and WEST's General Service List (1953) for some additions. The most common prefixes and suffixes were also included, as far as their meaning did not correspond to Portuguese. Function words, although not always necessary for getting the basic meaning of a sentence, have been kept for two reasons: they are very few and have high frequency of occurrence.

As to the amount of words to be selected, we took into consideration not the words themselves but the meanings they express in relation to Portuguese words. Our decision as to which meaning or meanings should be taken into consideration was based mainly on West's and Barnard's semantic hints. We have also tried to provide for the grammatical content of the word. An item like "set", for example, may be not only a noun or a verb but also a verb in the past tense and in the past participle, and consequently gets four entries.

Further remarks about our vocabulary and semantic selection:

- 1 - The semantic content of each item is recorded through Portuguese translation;
- 2 - Cognates are listed apart;
- 3 - Some 50 words in the first and second thousand lists have been discarded. This happened when: a) the words were considered household terms (kettle, socks, barn); b) they were names of trees (oak, pine); c) they had many different acceptations, none of them very frequent (slip).
- 4 - Other words beyond the 2,000 level have been added, mainly when they were: a) part of a set which could not be broken down (some numbers); b) past forms of irregular verbs whose present form is in the 2,000 list; c) teaching terms (fill in, chalk, blanks, blackboard).
- 5 - Ordinal numbers, with the exception of "first", "third" and "fifth", are not included;
- 6 - Words with different grammatical functions, although expressing a related concept, were sometimes given double entry (paint, own, early, land); usually, however, students were expected to "jump" from one acceptation to the other and a single entry was made (end, research, delight, double, doubt, dream, dress, kiss).

The final list amounts to 3,262 items, 1,543 of which are cognates and 1,719 are non-cognates (for a detailed description of the items, their semantic content and position in the original lists, see appendix).

LIST OF NON-COGNATES INCLUDING PREFIXES, SUFFIXES, IDIOMS AND STRUCTURAL WORDS:

a, able, about, above, absent, according to, account, account for, on account of, ache, across, act, actual, A. D., add, address, advance, in advance, advertise, advise, affair, afford, afraid, after, afternoon, afterwards, again, against, age, -age, ago, agree, ahead, aid, aim, air, -al, alike, alive, all, at all, allot, allow, allow for, almost, alone, along, already, also, although, always, am, among, amount, amusement, an, ancient, and, anger, another, answer, any, anybody, anyone, anything, anywhere, appear, apple, apply, appoint, approach, are, arm, army, around, arrive, arrow, as, ashamed, ask, asleep, assemble, assess, assist, assume, assumption, as well, at, ate, attach, attain, attempt, attend, aunt, available, average, avoid, awake, away, axe, baby, back, background, bad, bag, balance, ball, band, bank, bare, basket, bath, battle, bay, B.C., be, beach, beam, bean, bear, beast, beat, beautiful, became, because, become, bed, bee, been, before, beg, began, begin, begun, behave, behavior, behind, being, belief, believe, bell, belong, below, belt, bend, beneath, bent, beside, besides, best, better, between, beyond, big, bill, bind, bird, birth, birthday, bit, bite, bitten, bitter, black, blackboard, blade, blame, blank, blind, block, blood, blew, blow, blown, blue, board, boat, body, boil, bold, bond, bone, book, boot, border, born, borrow, both, both...and, bottle, bottom, bought, bound, bow, box, boy, brain, brake, branch, bread, break, breakfast, breath, breathe, brick, bridge, bright, bring, broad, broke, broken, brother, brought, brown, brush, bucket, build, building, built, burn, burst, bury, bus, business, busy, but, butter, button, buy, by, by-product, cake, call, came, can, cap, card, cards, care, carry, carry out, cart, castle, cat, catch, caught, cave, century, chain, chair, chalk, change, charge, in charge, cheap, check, cheer, cheese, chest, chicken, chief, child, children, chimney, choice, choose, chose, chosen, church, city,

claim, class, classroom, clay, clean, clear, clerk, clever, climb, clock, o'clock, close, cloth, clothes, cloud, coal, coast, coat, coin, cold, collar, comb, come, committee, complain, concern, conquer, cook, cool, copper, cork, corn, corner, cost, cotton, cough, could, count, country, of course, court, cousin, cover, cow, crack, cream, crop, cross, crowd, crown, crush, cry, cup, cut, cushion, damage, damp, danger, dare, dark, date, data, daughter, day, de-, dead, deaf, deal, a great deal, dear, death, debt, decrease, deed, deep, degree, delay, delight, deliver, depth, deserve, design, desire, desk, develop, device, did, die, dig, dinner, dip, dirty, disease, dish, disturb, do, do without, does, dog, -dom, done, door, dot, double, doubt, down, dozen, drain, drank, draw, dread, dream, dress, drew, drink, drive, driven, drop, drove, drunk, dry, due, dug, during, dust, duty, each, eager, ear, early, earn, earth, east, easy, eat, eaten, -ed, edge, -ee, egg, eight, eighteen, eighty, either, eleven, else, employ, empty, en-, -en, end, engine, English, enjoy, enough, environment, -er, -est, even, evening, event, ever, -ever, every, everybody, everyone, everything, everywhere, evil, exchange, exert, expect, expensive, expert, eye, fail, faint, fair, factory, faith, fall, fallen, far, fare, farm, farther, farthest, fashion, fast, fasten, fat, father, fault, fear, feather, feature, fed, feed, feel, feeling, feet, fell, fellow, felt, female, fence, fever, few, a few, field, fierce, fifteen, fifth, fifty, fight, fill, fill in, find, find out, fine, finger, finish, fire, first, at first, fish, fit, five, flag, flat, flew, flight, float, flood, floor, flour, flow, flower, flown, fly, fold, follow, food, fool, fond, foot, for, forbade, forbid, forbidden, fore-. foreign, forgave, forget, forgive, forgiven, forgot, forgotten, fork, former, forth, forty, forwards, fought, found, four, fourteen, frame, free, freeze, Friday, friend, fright, from, front, froze, frozen, -ful, full, fun, furniture, further, furthest, furthermore, gain, game, gap, garden, gate, gather, gave, get, get up, girl, give, given, give off, give up, glad, glass, glove, go, God, gold, gone, good, goods, go on, good bye, got, have got, grain, grammar, grant, grass, gray, great, green, greet, grew, ground, grow, growth, grown, guess, guest, guide, gun, had, hair, half, hammer, hand, handle, hammer, hall, hand, happen, happy, harbor, har, hardly,

harm, harvest, has, haste, hat, hate, have, he,
head, health, hear, heard, heart, by heart,
heat, heaven, heavy, height, held, help, her,
here, hers, herself, hid, hide, hidden, high,
hill, him, himself, hire, his, hit, hold, hole,
holiday, hollow, home, honey, -hood, hook, hope,
horn, horse, hot, hour, house, how, how do you do?,
however, huge, hundred, hung, hungry, hunt, hurry,
hurt, husband, I, ice, idle, if, ill, ill-, imply,
improve, in, inch, increase, indeed, -ing, ink,
inner, input, inside, instance, instead, intend,
interest, into, invite, iron, is, -ish, island,
it, its, jewel, job, join, joint, joke, journey,
joy, judge, jump, just, keep, kept, kick, kill,
kind, king, kiss, kitchen, knee, knew, knife,
knock, knot, know, knowledge, known, labor, lack,
lady, lag, laid, lain, lake, lamp, land, language,
large, last, at last, late, lately, latter, laugh,
law, lawyer, lay, lazy, layer, lead, lead to,
leaf, learn, least, at least, leather, leave,
led, left, leg, lend, length, less, -less, lesson,
let, letter, let us, level, library, lie, life,
lift, light, like, -like, likely, limb, link, lip,
listen, little, live, load, lock, lodge, lonely,
long, look, look at, look for, loose, lose, loss,
lost, lot, loud, love, low, lower, luck, -ly,
lying, mad, made, main, make, make up, male, man,
manage, many, March, marry, match, May, may, me,
meal, mean, mean, meant, means, measure, meat,
medium, meet, melt, men, mend, met, middle, might,
milk, mind, mine, mirror, mis-, miss, mistake,
Monday, money, monkey, month, moon, more, more-
over, morning, good morning, most, mother, motion,
mouse, mouth, much, mud, must, my, myself, nail,
name, narrow, near, nearly, neck, need, needle,
neglect, neighbor, neither, -ness, nest, net,
never, nevertheless, new, news, newspaper, next,
nice, night, nine, nineteen, ninety, no, no,
nobody, noise, none, noon, nor, north, nose, not,
note, nothing, notice, now, nowhere, number,
nurse, nut, obey, oblige, of, off, offer, office,
often, oil, old, on, once, at once, one, only,
open, or, orange, in order to, other, ought, our,
ours, out, out-, outcome, outline, output,
outside, outstanding, over, over-, owe, own, pack,
page, paid, pain, paint, pair, pan, paper, parcel,
parents, party, past, path, pattern, pay, peace,
pearl, pencil, people, perform, perhaps, pick up,
picture, piece, pig, pile, pin, pink, pipe, pity,
place, plain, plate, play, pleasant, please,
pleasure, plus, pocket, poison, poor, post, pound,
pour, power, praise, pray, press, pretty, prevent,

price, priest, print, private, prize, procedure,
profit, promise, proof, proud, prove, provide,
pull, pump, punish, pupil, purpose, push, put,
put on, quarrel, queen, quick, quite, quote, rail,
rain, raise, ran, random, range, rate, rather,
would rather, ray, reach, read, ready, receipt,
record, red, regard, relate, release, rely,
remain, rent, repair, reply, request, research,
resource, rest, reward, rice, rich, ride, ridden,
right, ring, rise, risen, river, road, rock, rode,
role, play, roll, roof, room, root, rope, rose,
rough, round, row, rub, rubber, rule, ruler, run,
rush, sad, safe, safety, said, sail, sake of,
sale, salt, same, sample, sand, sat, Saturday,
save, saw, say, scatter, school, sea, search,
season, seat, see, seed, seem, seen, seize, sel-
dom, self, self-, sell, send, sense, sensible,
sent, set, settle, seven, seventeen, seventy,
several, shade, shadow, shake, shake hands,
shall, shame, shape, share, sharp, she, shed,
sheep, sheet, shelter, shift, shine, ship, -ship,
shirt, shoe, shone, shook, shaken, shoot, shop,
shore, short, shot, should, shoulder, shout,
show, shut, sick side, sight, sign, silk, silver,
since, sing, single, sir, sister, sit, sit down,
sitting, six, sixteen, sixty, size, skill, skin,
skirt, sky, slave, sleep, slept, slight, slope,
slow, small, smell, smile, smoke, smooth, snake,
snow, so, soap, so far, so that, soft, soil, sold,
soldier, some, somebody, someone, something,
somewhere, son, song, soon, sore, sorry, I am
sorry, sort, soul, sound, soup, sour, source,
south, spare, speak, speech, speed, spell, spend,
spent, spite, spoil, spoke, spoken, spoon, spot,
spread, spring, square, stamp, stand, stand up,
standing, star, start, state, stay, steal, steam,
steel, steep, step, stick, still, stole, stolen,
stole, stood, stop, store, storm, straight,
strange, stranger, stream, street, strenght,
stretch, strike, string, stoke, strong, struck,
study, subject, such, sudden, suffer, sugar,
suit, suitable, sum, summer, sun, Sunday, sung,
supply, support, sure, surplus, swallow, swam,
sweet, swim, swum, table, tail, take, take out,
taken, talk, tall, taste, taught, tax, tea, teach,
teacher, tear, teeth, tell, ten, -th, than, thank,
thank you, that, the, their, theirs, them, them-
selves, then, there, therefore, these, they, thick,
thin, thing, think, third, thirteen, thirty,
thirsty, this, thorough, those, though, thought,
thousand, three, threw, throat, through,
throughout, thrown, thunder, Thursday, thus tide,

tie, tight, till, time, tiny, tire, title, to, today, together, told, tomorrow, tongue, tonight, too, took, tool, tooth, top, tore, torn, touch, towards, tower, town, toy, track, trade, train, travel, treasure, treat, tree, tremble, trend, trial, trick, trip, trouble, true, trust, try, Thursday, turn, turn off, turn on, twelve, twenty, twice, twist, two, ugly, umbrella, un-, uncle, under, under-, undergo, understand, understood, unit, unless, until, up, upon, upper, upright, upside down, us, value, very, vessel, view, village, virtue, voice, waist, wait, wake, walk, wall, want, war, -ward, warm, was, wash, waste, watch, water, wave, wax, way, we, weak, wear, weather, Wednesday, week, weigh, weight, welcome, well, went, were, west, wet, what, wheat, wheel, when, where, whether, which, while, whistle, white, who, whole, whom, whose, why, wide, width, wife, wild, will, win, wind, window, wine, wing, winter, wire, wisdom, wise, -wise, wish, with, within, without, woman, women, won, wonder, wood, wool, word, wore, work, world, worn, worry, worse, worst, worth, is worth, would, wound, write, written, wrong, wrote, -y, yard, year, yield, yellow, yes, yesterday, yet, you, young, your, yours, yourself.

3.1.2 - Selection of structures

Structures, like words, can also be approached by dividing them into different and similar. Our assumption is that similar structures do not have to be taught when the emphasis is on comprehension. Attention is rather focused on the different ones.

In our inventory of the different structures - based mainly on Hornby's sentence patterns (HORNBY, 1961), English 900 (1964), the Yāzigi course (1964), Alexander's First Things First (1967) and Projeto de Roteiro de Orientação da Cadeira de Inglês (1966) - we found that differences in structures between English and Portuguese can be due to changes in a) word order, b) word function, c) word number, d) verb form (voice, tense, aspect) and e) reference (pro-forms).

The purpose here is not to be exhaustive but to produce the shortest possible list of the most difficult English sentence patterns for Portuguese-speaking students. A final list of 50 patterns is suggested.

The criterion for judging the difficulty of a pattern is based on the differences. If there is more than one difference in a given pattern, the sentence is regarded as more difficult. An English pattern like "she had her car washed", when compared to the Portuguese "Ela mandou lavar o carro", is different in word order, verbal form and reference, and consequently is, according to our criterion, three times as difficult as a pattern like "She has a red car", where there is only one difference - in word order. If the criterion can be questioned (TERRELL, 1977), it is only of advantage to the learner: he is offered more than he really needs to understand a given sentence.

A necessary remark to be made is that some English suffixes, like "-er" and "-est", added to adjectives, and the possessive morpheme "-'s", added to nouns, are treated here as words. The reason is that they are separate words in Portuguese.

LIST OF THE DIFFERENT STRUCTURES:

A - Differences due to word-order change. It can be a single change:

- 1 - Mary has a blue dress.
She is not American.
Tell her not to go.
- 2 - This is a highly-regarded newspaper.
- 3 - Tell me what your opinion is.
What a hot day it is.
What a lot of oranges there are.
- 4 - Where are you from?
What is the house like?
Who does this book belong to?
- 5 - Peter is older than John.

6 - Everest is the highest mountain in the world.

7 - The boys like to play with one another.

Sometimes there is what could be defined as a compound word-order change:

8 - It was such a lovely day.

9 - Peter's car is big.

10 - Whose car is big?

B - Differences due to word function change:

11 - John is ten years old.
The street is eleven meters wide.
The mountain is 5,000 meters high.

12 - How old is John?
How wide is the street?
How high is the mountain?

13 - Open the door wide.

14 - I do speak Japanese.
I did go there.
He does live in Acapulco.

15 - He goes to Rio every other week.

16 - I danced with her.
It was important for him.
The book was written by her.

17 - I will do the talking.

18 - It was a tiring game

19 - The weather is getting hotter and hotter.

20 - The more I see you, the more I want you.

21 - Excuse my being late.

C- Changes in word number. The number of words in a sentence can vary either by addition or by deletion. By addition:

22 - There is an airport there.
There was a city here.
There were five students in the class.

- 23 - It is important.
It is raining.
It is Monday.
- 24 - I need to study.
- 25 - I do not work.
He does not study.
They did not go.
- 26 - Do you play the piano?
Does he want money?
Did she stay there?
- 27 - I prefer the green one.
Here is another one.
I want this one.
- 28 - John and Mary love each other.
- 29 - How many books are blue?
How much is it?
He works so much.
They are so many.
She does not work as much as he does.

By deletion:

- 30 - He () needs no money.
- 31 - I think () you will enjoy the party.
This is the car () I like.
I am afraid () he went.
- 32 - Before () you go, read the newspaper.
- 33 - He's German.
I'd like to stay.
He'd gone.
I'm here.
They're there.
He won't go.
They don't work.

D - Changes in verb form:

- 34 - He is sitting.
He is lying.
He is standing.
- 35 - I wish I had money.

- 36 - I want you to go there.
It is likely to rain.
- 37 - You are wanted on the telephone.
He was flown to Spain.
Trains are run on Sundays.
- 38 - I was born in Rio.
- 39 - I like swimming.
They went fishing.
I don't mind walking.
- 40 - Smoking is harmful.
- 41 - After reading the article he was shocked.
- 42 - The soup smells delicious.
This material feels soft.
They shared a room.
It feels good.

E - Changes in reference:

- 43 - His name is Tom and hers is Mary.
- 44 - He works and so do I.
She works, doesn't she?
They had gone, hadn't they?
He doesn't study but I do.
Who plays soccer? I do.
Did you work? Yes, I did.

Sometimes these differences may be combined:

F - Changes in word-order and word number:

- 45 - Mary had a nylon dress.
He was a seven-year-old boy.
He made a long distance call.
- 46 - It takes him ten minutes to shave.

G- Changes in word-order and verb function:

- 47 - Jane has a dish-washing machine.
- 48 - We live in a rapidly-changing world.

49 - I had my house painted.
I heard my name called.

H - Changes in word function and word number:

50 - I believe () him () wrong.

3.2 - Presentation

There are two points to consider in making a body of language learnable: the first is how to present the items to the student, and, the second, how to make the student practice the items, so as to consolidate them. As these two processes are closely related they will both be discussed under "presentation"

The pedagogical possibilities of the selected material are many. The simplest is by presenting the words one after the other, using simple sentences. An example for absolute beginners:

is: é	Robert Redford <u>is</u> American
he: ele	<u>He</u> is famous
a: um	He is <u>a</u> famous actor.
too: também	Sophia Loren is famous <u>too</u> .
she: ela	<u>She</u> is Italian.
man: homem	Robert is a <u>man</u> .
woman: mulher	Sophia is a <u>woman</u> .
beautiful: bonito	She is a <u>beautiful</u> woman
are: são	Robert and Sophia <u>are</u> actors.
they: eles	<u>They</u> are famous.

A refinement could be added by inserting reading passages. Assuming that the ten words on the left are the items to be taught, the following text, taken from a Physical Science textbook (BRANDWEIN et al., 1968, p. 536), could be used (all the words are either cognates or belong to the 1,719-word list, and no change was made on the original text).

<p>same: mesmo amount: quantidade charge: carga that: que lose: perder gain: ganhar</p>	<p>The atom is an electrical system. A neutral atom has the same amount of negative charge as its positive charge. An atom that loses electrons is a positive ion. An atom that gains electrons is a negative ion.</p>
<p>very: muito most: a maior parte all: todo now: agora</p>	<p>The atomic nucleus occupies a very small portion of the volume of the entire atom, but most of the mass is concentrated in the nucleus. Practically all the volume of the atom is occupied by electrons revolving very rapidly in different orbits. We now have an atom based on the concept of particles and electric charges</p>

Programmed instruction can also be used. Within programmed instruction itself there are also many possibilities, from the linear to the branching type, with a compromise between the two. A sample of the compromise type:

INSTRUCTIONS: Write, on a separate piece of paper what you think is the right answer, along with the number that comes before it. The number indicates the box where the right answer should be found. If your answer matches with what is written there, your

answer is correct. Go on from there. If it does not match, your answer is wrong; you have to come back and try again. Use your piece of paper as a guideline.

1 -	There are 7 days in a week. In three weeks there are 21 _____.	8 - years 4 - months 2 - week 3 - days
2 - terça-feira	After Sunday comes Monday; after Tuesday comes Wednesday. Wednesday means _____.	8 - semana 3 - domingo 4 - quarta-feira 1 - segunda-feira
3 - days	In a month there are four _____.	4 - years 2 - hours 6 - days 7 - weeks
4 - quarta-feira	Sunday, Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday are the first four days of the week; the fifth is Thursday. Thursday means _____.	7 - dia 2 - quarta-feira 5 - quinta-feira 1 - domingo
5 - quinta-feira	THE END	
6 - segunda-feira	The first three days of the week are Sunday, Monday and Tuesday means _____.	8 - segunda-feira 2 - terça-feira 5 - semana 4 - dia
7 - weeks	The first day of the week is Sunday. Sunday means _____.	2 - segunda-feira 8 - domingo 5 - sábado 3 - sexta-feira
8 - domingo	After Sunday comes Monday. Monday means _____.	1 - domingo 2 - semana 5 - terça-feira 6 - segunda-feira

These are individualized instruction techniques. For classroom other variations could also be used.

If we take a 45- or 50-minute class, we could divide the lesson into three parts: 1)pre-reading activities, 2)reading, and 3)follow-up activities.

3.2.1 - Pre-reading activities

We mean by pre-reading activities mainly the translation of words whose meaning cannot be inferred through context and the phonetic transcription of all the words. Before reading a sentence or group of sentences, students are first introduced to the words that make up the sentences. The evidence we have for supporting this approach is based on WINITZ, REEDS and GARCIA's experiment (1977), as discussed in Chapter I, where students were first exposed to single words, and on DODSON's experiments (1967), as discussed in Chapter II, where it was seen that students' responses improved dramatically when they were shown the separate words.

Phonetic transcription is used only as a hint to pronunciation. It is meant to be complemented by the teacher. The reason for inserting transcription is that it might be useful to some students, either because of interfering noises between him and the teacher, especially in big rooms, or because the student himself might prefer to trust his eyes rather than his ears.

Translation of isolated words is used only as a hint to the meaning of the sentence. The assumption behind this process is that the linguistic knowledge already possessed by the student can be counted on. In very simplistic terms, the rules behind the translation of isolated words can be exemplified as follows (sample sentence: "The capital of Brazil is Brasílie"):

Where you see "the" read "o";
Where you see "of" read "de";
Where you see "is" read "é";

Make the necessary arrangements;
Try to guess the meaning.

When the structure is different and supposedly difficult for the student to grasp the meaning, translation of the structure involved is added. Example (sample sentence: "She has a black cat"):

black: preto

cat: gato

black cat: gato preto

It is assumed that once the different words are translated, and the different structures, if any, equally explained, students will jump to the meaning of the sentence without further help. Familiar context and selective restrictions of his own language would be usually enough to elucidate the meaning.

A larger assumption behind translation as a teaching aid is that the foreign language is learned through the native language, regardless of the method used in studying it (HARDYCK, 1978).

3.2.2 - Reading

The text should be as self-defining as possible so that students would not feel the need to go back to the individual words to find out the meaning. This can be done mainly by using cognates and familiar context, taking care, of course, so as not to make the text artificial; the format of the text should help to make it possible.

As far as absolute beginners are concerned, some oral activity could be introduced, mainly by answering simple questions or even asking them.

In order to shorten the gap between the presentation of new words and their reading in a sentence, the lesson can be broken down into small parts.

It should be understood that the kind of reading suggested here is a preparation activity for real reading, that should be introduced gradually.

The reading experience should, in the end, equip the student with two important abilities: the ability to make predictions and the ability to infer.

We understand by prediction the process through which the mind helps the eye, telling the eye what to look for (SMITH, 1971). What is absorbed is processed, and a direction is established. On seeing a word like "when" at the beginning of a sentence the mind can hypothesize, for example, that the sentence is a question. On reading on, however, it is found that what comes next is "West German":

When West German...

The prediction has to be corrected: it is not a question but, probably, the subordinate clause of a larger sentence. Next item will probably be a noun:

When West German counterintelligence...

Prediction apparently correct; a verb is then expected. On reading on, however, the prediction has to be corrected because what looked like a noun is in fact a modifier:

When West German counterintelligence agents...

This is where short-term memory is very important because when a prediction is corrected some items have to be re-labeled, and, for that, they need to be still present in the memory.

Predictions are not made one at a time but all of them more or less simultaneously. Looking again at the beginning of our sentence:

When West German counterintelligence agents...

we can see that we have at least three predictions working simultaneously:

- a - The next word is probably a verb;
- b - Depending on the verb an object will follow;
- c - After that the second clause will probably start.

Learning to read a foreign language is, essentially, being able to keep a long enough string of words in the short-term memory so that the predictions can be made and confirmed or disconfirmed when necessary.

Another important aspect is inferencing, here understood as literally guessing at meanings. It can be done through cognates, context and known words. The underlined words in the following sentence, for example, can be guessed with approximation, once the other words are known:

When West German counterintelligence agents swooped down on 16 East German spy suspects one night 18 months ago, the mass roundup was cheered as evidence that Bonn had finally found ways to ferret out the myriad espionage agents in its midst and plug the embarrassing flow of government secrets to the East (Time Magazine, Dec., 26, 1977, p. 9).

A final aspect concerns the language itself. While in speaking the language is often used for doing things - performative function - in reading, the language is rather used in its referential aspect - we usually read about something.

The pedagogical implication is mainly the format of the text. As concentration is more on the topic than on either speaker or listener, dialogues are not very common in a reading course. Instead of a fictitious incident, a reading lesson should cover a specific portion of reality. In a beginner's course, language, it seems, would be used mainly to define things, but we feel that more research is needed here. Traditional topics (Days of the Week, Meals, The Classroom) might serve the purpose for the time being. The criticism usually made against them, does not seem

to apply to reading, mainly because in reading there will not be two characters talking in a classroom, for example, but the classroom itself is directly referred to.

The following 30 topics, as offered by OGDEN (1943), might serve as a starting point:

1 - The Body	11 - The Machine	21 - Invention
2 - Food	12 - Business	22 - Feeling
3 - Work	13 - Money	23 - Art
4 - The Weather	14 - Noise	24 - Trade
5 - The Family	15 - News	25 - Transport
6 - A Building	16 - Amusements	26 - Peace
7 - Fire	17 - Education	27 - Language
8 - The Country	18 - Reading	28 - Society
9 - The Sea	19 - The Earth	29 - Government
10 - Time	20 - History	30 - Science

In principle, it is possible to allot a given amount of vocabulary and structure to a given topic, but we cannot follow Ogden's suggestion to the letter, mainly because of two reasons: 1) unlike Ogden, we are not concerned with production but comprehension and 2) by knowing student's language we can draw on cognates. Our assumption is that a given body of language can be realized in many different situations and consequently more appealing topics to adolescent students can be chosen. More research is needed here, including research into students' interests.

3.2.3 - Follow-up activities

We understand by follow-up activities not only the exercises that usually follow a passage and that are intended mainly to refer the student back to the passage to find the answers, but also exercises related to a given topic developed from the passage.

The purpose here is to select types of exercises that can be more suitably used in a reading course. There is no intention of either making a complete inventory or offering a careful taxonomy.

There are basically two criteria in our selection. The first is that only short answers should be demanded from the student: at most a word at a time. The second is that every exercise should ask for a decision on the part of the student.

Our sources were mainly DACANAY (1963), MACKEY (1965), LEE (1973) and SWAFFAR et al. (1978). An attempt was also made to order these exercises according to the behaviors they elicit from the student, from a simple remembering of facts to the more elaborate abilities of judging and deducing. These exercises should lead the student to:

- (a) Associate words of the same grammatical category;
- (b) Relate pro-forms to the words, phrases or sentences they refer to;
- (c) Identify agrammatical sentences;
- (d) Associate structural synonymy;
- (e) Associate lexical synonymy;
- (f) Identify semantically anomalous sentences;
- (g) Identify the right translation to a word or phrase in context;
- (h) Specify whether or not a given sentence is true; according to the factual information it carries;
- (i) Supply words in cloze sentences;
- (j) Insert quotation marks, commas and question marks;
- (k) Draw maps and diagrams based on text;
- (l) Number events in their chronological order;
- (m) Relate cause and effect;
- (n) Identify the topic sentence in a paragraph;
- (o) Number the sentences of a paragraph in their logical order;

- (p) Define low-frequency words in a given context;
- (q) Infer emotion by providing the right adjective.

3.3 - Evaluation

The purpose here is to measure what the student can accomplish with the previous body of language, in terms of understanding. The "understandability" of a given text will be measured in terms of the acceptations and different structures previously selected. We will assume that 1) if 97.5% of the words, idioms, prefixes and suffixes of the text are known, and 2) if the different structures have been accounted for, the text will be operationally understandable. It has already been established that 1 new word for every 40 running words (97.5%) can be regarded as acceptable for reading purposes (BRIGHT, 1970, p. 20). Fine shades of meaning are ignored; we assume that there is no reason to suppose why a beginner should get everything from a given text when it can be argued that even competent readers are unable to do that in their own language.

Our first claim is that the selected body of language should enable the student to read vocabulary-controlled material up to the 2,000-word plateau, from either the United States or from England, and understand that material most of the time. We will try to prove this claim by examining four simplified readers, opened at random. For easy evaluation of the degree of understandability in each passage, we will use the following words: high (understandability above 99.0%); fair (between 98.0% and 98.9%); low (between 97.0% and 97.9%); and unacceptable (below 97.0%). The results of our research:

- a) Title: Roads to Far Places (ANDREWS, 1966, pp. 113-137).

Number of words surveyed: 1,000

Unrecognizable words: 05

Understandability: 99.5% (high)

- b) Title: Leader of the People: Andrew Jackson (COIT, 1968, pp. 47-50).
Number of words surveyed: 1,000
Unrecognizable words: 07
Understandability: 99.3% (high)
- c) Title: The People Act (MCKEE, 1971, pp. 106-111)
Number of words surveyed: 1,000
Unrecognizable words: 12
Understandability: 98,8% (fair)
- d) Title: Reading for Adults (LEWIS, 1971, pp. 33-34 and 39-41)
Number of words surveyed: 1,350
Unrecognizable words: 06
Understandability: 99,6% (high)

We believe it is safe to conclude that the selected body of language can enable the student to understand simplified texts most of the time. Up to the 2,000-word level, there are no restrictions either in terms of topics or in terms of national varieties.

Our second claim is that the selected body of language should enable the student to, sometimes, read and understand unsimplified language. We will verify this claim through the Encyclopedia International, chosen for its high school level approach and for its language: midway between a highly technical text - usually easy for foreigners because of the high frequency of cognates - and colloquial language - usually more difficult.

Ten general topics were pre-selected: Art, Biology, Business Administration, Chemistry, Ecology, Geography, Government, History, Mathematics and Physics. The criterion for their choice was their close relation to subjects usually studied at school. After this pre-selection a given entry was picked up at

random, under each general topic, and its structures and words were analysed and compared to our body of language. If the proportion of the recognizable words and cognates over the whole text was less than 97.5%, another entry was chosen under the same general topic. If the results were still unsatisfactory, two more attempts were made, and the best of the four entries was selected. The results were the following, from the most to the least understandable passages:

- a) Chemistry
 - Entry: "Chemical Reactions" (Vol. 4, pp. 288-290).
 - Number of attempts: 1
 - Whole entry: 500 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 01
 - Understandability: 99.8% (high)
- b) Mathematics
 - Entry: "Theory of Sets" (Vol. 16, pp. 368-369)
 - Number of attempts: 1
 - Whole entry: 750 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 07
 - Understandability: 99.1% (high)
- c) Geography
 - Entry: "Economic Development of South America"
(Vol. 17, p. 56)
 - Number of attempts: 3
 - Whole entry: 500 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 06
 - Understandability: 98.8% (fair)
- d) Physics
 - Entry: "Electromagnetism" (Vol. 6, p. 377)
 - Number of attempts; 1
 - Whole entry: 800 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 11
 - Understandability: 98.7% (fair)

- e) Biology
 - Entry: "The Life Sciences" (Vol. 3, pp. 24-26)
 - Number of attempts: 1
 - Whole entry: 1,100 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 16
 - understandability: 98.6% (fair)

- f) Ecology
 - Entry: "Interactions Between Populations (Vol. 6, pp. 206-207)
 - Number of attempts: 2
 - Whole entry: 380 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 06
 - Understandability: 98.4% (fair)

- g) Government
 - Entry: "Democracy in Ancient Greece" (Vol. 5, pp. 522-523)
 - Number of attempts: 3
 - Whole entry: 1,000 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 25
 - Understandability: 97.5% (low)

- h) Business Administration
 - Entry: "Introduction to Business Administration" (Vol. 3, p. 425)
 - Number of attempts: 4
 - Whole entry: 480 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 13
 - Understandability: 97.3% (low)

- i) Art
 - Entry: "Baroque Painting" (Vol. 13, pp. 562-563)
 - Number of attempts: 4
 - Whole Entry: 600 words
 - Unrecognizable words: 18
 - Understandability: 97.0% (low)

j) History

Entry: "The Moderate Phase of the French Revolution"
(Vol. 7, pp. 371-372)

Number of attempts: 4

Whole Entry: 600 words

Unrecognizable words: 24

Understandability: 96.0% (unacceptable)

It seems that in terms of real, unsimplified language, understandability can be achieved only in certain areas of knowledge, mainly in Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics and Biology. In these areas, the selected body of language seems to be able to capacitate the student to read and understand most of the time. In other areas, however, as we seem to move from the physical to the social sciences, understandability can be expected to occur only sometimes, and hardly ever in specific subjects such as Art and History.

A third use for the selected body of language, besides being an instrument for the reading of simplified and unsimplified English, should be its application in the so-called "supletivo" (examination for high school certificate) and "vestibular" (university entrance examination), mainly because this is the immediate need of many secondary school students. Part of these examinations, however, sometimes demand a productive knowledge from the student, so that a supplementation, mainly in terms of structures, might be necessary. As far as comprehension is concerned, we obtained the following results:

- a) English test in the "Supletivo" examination, held in Porto Alegre in December, 1977:
Five reading passages: 403 words
Unrecognizable words: 09
Understandability: 97.8% (low)

- b) English test in the "Vestibular" examination (Concurso Vestibular Unificado), held in January, 1978:
Ten reading passages: 489 words
Unrecognizable words: 13
Understandability: 97.4% (low)

As far as these examinations are concerned, it should be pointed out that the results obtained here, in terms of our selected body of language, are not to be confused with possible student achievement. We are, in fact, evaluating the instrument that is offered to the student: not what he can do with that instrument - upon which he can add his personal experience and intelligence. We can illustrate our point by transcribing a passage from the "Vestibular" examination:

It was style as much as the songs he sang that made Elvis Presley such an immediate, and irreplaceable phenomenon - the sensuous movements, the low lids, the lip that curled up, the husky voice and its distinct throb.

The author believes that

- (A) there will never be any one quite like Elvis Presley;
- (B) Elvis Presley had too many mannerisms to be a good singer.
- (C) Elvis Presley was more appreciated for how he sang than for what he sang;
- (D) Elvis Presley electrified his audience every time he appeared on stage.
- (E) Elvis Presley's voice was a rare phenomenon (CVU, 1978).

Even if the student cannot grasp the meaning of the words "lids", "curled", "husky" and "throb", he still has all the elements to find the right answer. All he has to do is associate Elvis Presley with "irreplaceable phenomenon". In short, what would be graded as unacceptable in terms of understandability, might be feasible in practice, depending on the learner's resourcefulness.

Another point that should be emphasized is that, although students were encouraged to guess at meanings in the present reading model, no guessing was taken into account in our evaluation. The following underlined words, for example, were graded as "unrecognizable", although we believe their exact meaning could be grasped through context:

Money for the expedition was coming in too slowly (ANDREWS, 1966, p. 133)

If the number of elements is some whole number, the set is a finite set, otherwise it is an infinite set (ENCYCLOPEDIA INTERNATIONAL, Vol. 6, p. 368).

This relationship can be demonstrated by allowing a compass needle to rest in its natural north-south alignment (ENCYCLOPEDIA INTERNATIONAL, Vol. 6, p. 377).

Sometimes, although the exact meaning cannot be grasped the reader can have at least an approximate idea, so that understandability is not seriously affected. We believe the following examples could illustrate the point:

In summer they (the Eskimos) moved away from the sea and lived in sealskin tents (LEWIS, 1971, p. 34).

His rough texture, warm color, and strong contrasts of light and dark create an emotional and monumental art (ENCYCLOPEDIA INTERNATIONAL, Vol. 13, p. 562).

It is clear that, in the first example, "sealskin tent" is at least a place where Eskimos live in in summer. In the second, "rough" is probably a quality that restricts "texture" to a certain type.

Finally, as far as unrecognizable structures are concerned, it should be pointed out that they were not listed in our evaluation because, to our judgement, they were not encountered. We believe there are structures, besides the fifty we

have selected, that would impede the student from grasping the meaning of the sentence even if the words were known, but we have not found them in the passages we have analysed.

The conclusion, as to the possibilities of the reading model we have proposed, is that it can serve as an instrument not only to introduce the student to vocabulary-controlled material but also to unsimplified written language.

3.4 - Summary

We have presented in this chapter a tentative model to a reading course. First, a body of language was selected, based mainly on vocabulary and on an inventory of the most different English structures; in terms of vocabulary, a distinction was made between cognates and non-cognates.

Next, strategies were selected to present that body of language to the student. Presentation would involve three phases: a) pre-reading activities, consisting of phonetic transcription of all new words and translation of different words and structures; b) reading activities, by breaking down the text and trying to develop the ability to predict and guess the meanings; mainly through cognates and familiar context; c) follow-up activities, in which the student is presented with exercises to further consolidate the new items.

Finally, an evaluation was made on the potential of the selected body of language, where it was seen that, although limited, it could offer the student a promising outlook.

CONCLUSIONS

Our conclusions are limited, in the first place, by the studies analysed in this dissertation. Secondly, they are applicable to a very specific kind of student, that is, a student who is over 12 years of age, who has about 180 hours of English language instruction at school and who will probably use English for reading purposes. Finally, these conclusions are based on results which were obtained with a tentative body of language, presumably learnable by that student.

There are basically three questions to be answered: how valid, how advisable and how useful a reading approach can be to the student.

The first question was answered in Chapter I. It was seen that in absolute terms, results obtained with an emphasis on reading were at least as satisfactory as results obtained with an emphasis on speech. This means that, in terms of general student achievement, a reading approach is at least as valid as an oral approach.

As to the advisability of an emphasis on reading there are basically three factors to be taken into consideration: needs of the students, age, and time available for the study of the language. In cases where older students have little time to study a language they will probably need for reading purposes, an emphasis on reading is highly advisable. This was demonstrated in Chapter II.

A body of language to be useful to the student should cover a minimum of 2,000 words. Under prevailing circumstances in many public schools in Rio Grande do Sul, only

through a reading approach the student can be offered conditions to reach that 2,000-word level. What items to choose, how to present them to the student and an evaluation of what could be achieved with them were discussed in Chapter III. It was seen that, in an 180-hour reading course, the student can be offered conditions to:

(a) understand simplified written language up to the 2,000-word level most of the time, with no restrictions on subject matter;

(b) understand unsimplified written language most of the time in certain areas of knowledge, such as Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics and Biology;

(c) sometimes, understand unsimplified written language in areas such as Geography, Administration and Art;

(d) answer correctly most questions related to reading comprehension in the "Supletivo" and "Vestibular" examinations.

It should be added, finally, that this study does not answer many of the questions it poses. The data we used were obtained mainly from experiments carried out in other countries, with students whose conditions, both external and internal, may vary widely from the specific student we are concerned with. Further research, involving the Brazilian student, should then be suggested.

Other topics in which we felt more research was needed were the following:

(a) Which are exactly the gains and losses of a reading course? How do these gains and losses relate to the needs of secondary school students in Brazil?

(b) Which form of the language are Brazilian students more interested in? Are young children more interested in

speaking and adults in writing? What factors might contribute to these preferences?

(c) Which topics are more appealing to secondary school students in Brazil? How should these topics be approached?

(d) How long does it take a student to read a foreign language without resorting to mother tongue translation? Are there trouble spots? If so, which are they?

(e) Which structures are more difficult for Portuguese-speaking students? How far does the grammatical complexity of a sentence affect understanding in foreign language learning? Are the most different structures the most difficult too?

(f) How far can the meaning of an English word be stretched without affecting understandability? What conditions would have to be met? What makes a cognate understandable?

This study is only a first step in the area of teaching English for reading purposes to Brazilian secondary school students.

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APPENDIX

List of non-cognates, including prefixes, suffixes, idioms and structural words (1,719 items).

NOTE: The letters after each word stand for lists in which they were taken from: T (Thorndike), B (Barnard), G (General Service List), B (Ogden's Basic Words), R (Riewald) and S (Ewer's scientific list). T (Thorndike) and B (Barnard) are always followed by a number, which shows the position of the word in the original lists.

a: um T1, G, B, R
 a: por T1, G, B, R
 able: capaz T1, B2, G, B
 about: sobre T1, B1, G, B, R
 about: aproximadamente T1, B1, G, B, R
 above: acima T1, B2, G, R
 absent: ausente T3, B1, G, R, S
 according to: de acordo com B2, G, R, S
 account: conta T1, G, B, S
 account: relato T1, B, S
 account for: explicar G, S
 on account of: por causa de B2
 ache: dor T3, G
 across: através T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 act: agir T1, B2, G, B, R
 act : ato T1, G, R
 actual: verdadeiro T2, B2, G
 A. D. : depois de Cristo G
 add: somar T1, B1, G, S
 address: endereço T2, B2, G, R
 advance: adiantar T2, B2, G
 in advance: adiantado S
 advertise: anunciar T7, B2, G, B
 advise: aconselhar T2, B1, G
 affair: negocio T2, B2, G
 afford: ter recursos para T3, G
 afraid: com medo T1, B2, G, R
 after: depois T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 afternoon : tarde T1, B1, G, R
 afterwards: depois T2, B2, G, R, S
 again: novamente T1, B1, G, B, R
 against: contra T1, G, B, R, S
 age: idade T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 -age: (suf.) -agem, -ato, -ado, etc.
 ago: atrás (no tempo) T1, B1, G, R
 agree: concordar T2, B1, G, R
 ahead: adiante T3, B2, G
 aid: ajuda T2, B
 aim: objetivo T2, B2, G, S
 air: ar T1, B1, G, B, R
 -al: (suf.) -ada, -açã, etc.
 alike: semelhante T2, B2, G
 alive: vivo T2, B1, G
 all: todo T1, B1, G, B, R
 at all: nada G
 allot: distribuir T8, S
 allow: permitir T1, B1, G, R, S
 allow for: levar em conta S
 almost: quase T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 alone: so T1, B1, G, R
 along: ao longo T1, B1, G, R, S
 already: ja T1, B2, G, R

also: também T1, B1, G, R, S
 although: embora T1, B2, G
 always: sempre T1, B1, G, R, S
 am: sou T1
 am: estou T1
 among: entre T1, B2, G, B, R
 amount: quantidade T1, B1, G, R, S
 amusement: diversão T5, B2, B
 an: um T1, G
 ancient: antigo T2, B2, G
 and: e T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 anger: raiva T2, B2, G
 another: um outro T1, B1, G
 answer: resposta T1, B1, G, B, R
 any: qualquer T1, B1, G, B
 any: nenhum T1, B1, G, B
 anybody: qualquer pessoa T3, B1, G
 anybody: ninguém T3, B1, G
 anyone: qualquer um T3, B1
 anyone: ninguém T3, B1
 anything: qualquer coisa T1, B1, G
 anything: nada T1, B1, G
 anywhere: qualquer lugar T4, B1, G
 anywhere: nenhum lugar T4, B1, G
 appear: parecer T1, B2, G, R
 appear: aparecer T1, B2, G, R
 apple: maçã T1, B1, G, B, R
 apply: aplicar T2, B2, G
 appoint: nomear T2, B2, G
 approach: aproximar T2, B2, S
 approach: abordagem T2, B2, S
 are: ser T1
 are: estar T1
 arm: braço T1, B1, G, B, R
 army: exército T1, B1, G, B
 around: ao redor T1, G, S
 arrive: chegar T1, B1, G, B, R
 arrow: flecha T2, G
 as: tão T1, B1, G, B, R
 as: como T1, B1, G, B, R
 as: enquanto T1, B1, G, B, R
 ashamed: com vergonha T2, B2, G
 ask: perguntar T1, B1, G, R
 ask: pedir T1, B1, G, R
 asleep: a dormir T2, B2, G
 assemble: montar T3, S
 assess: avaliar T11, S
 assist: ajudar T2, S
 assume: pressupor T3, S
 assumption: suposição T8, S
 as well: também G
 at: em T1, B1, G, B, R, S

ate: comeu T2
 attach: atribuir T2, S
 attach: atar T2, B2, S
 attain: alcançar T3, S
 attempt: tentativa T2, B2, G, B, S
 attend: assistir T1, G
 aunt: tia T2, B1, G, R
 available: disponível T8, B2, S
 average: média T3, B2, G, S
 avoid: evitar T2, B2, G, S
 awake: despertar T2, B2, G, B
 away: longe T1, B1, G, R
 axe: machado T2, G
 baby: bebê T1, B1, G, B, R
 back: atrás T1, B1, G, B, R
 background: formação T8, G
 bad: mau T1, B1, G, B, R
 bag: saco T1, B1, G, B
 balance: equilíbrio T2, B2, G, B
 ball: bola T1, G, B
 band: banda T1, G, B
 bank: banco T1, B1, G
 bare: nu T2, G
 basket: cesto T1, G, B
 bath: banho T3, B1, G, B
 battle: batalha T1, B2, G
 bay: baía T1, G
 B. C.: antes de Cristo G
 be: ser T1, G, B, R
 be: estar T1, G, B, R
 beach: praia T2
 beam: raio T2, G, S
 bean: feijão T2, G
 bear: suportar T1, B2, G, R
 beast: besta T1, G
 beat: batida T1, G, R
 beautiful: belo T1, B1, G, B, R
 became: tornou-se T2, B2, G
 because: porque T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 become: tornar-se T1, B2, G, R, S
 become: tornado T1, B2, G, R, S
 bed: cama T1, B1, B, R
 bee: abelha T1, B, R
 been: sido T1
 been: estado T1
 before: antes T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 before: na frente T1, B1, G, G, R, S
 beg: implorar T1, G, R
 began: começou T1, B1
 begin: começar T1, B1, G, R
 begun: começado T2, B1
 behave: comportar-se T4, B1, G, S
 behavior: comportamento T7, B2, G, B, S

behind: atras T1, B1, G, R
 being: sendo T1
 being: estando T1
 being: ser (ente) T1
 belief: fe T3, B2, G, B
 believe: crer T1, B1, G, R
 bell: sino T1, B1, G, B
 belong: pertencer T1, B1, G, R
 below: abaixo T2, B2, G, R
 belt: cinto T2, G
 bend: curvar T2, B2, G, S
 beneath: abaixo T2, B2, G, S
 bent: curvou T2, B2, S
 bent: curvado T2, B2, S
 beside: ao lado T1, B2, G, R, S
 besides: além de T4, G, R, S
 best: melhor T4, B1, G, S
 better: melhor T1, B1, G
 between: entre T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 beyond: além T2, B2, G, B, R, S
 big: grande T1, B1, G
 bill: conta T1, B2, G
 bind: atar T2, G, S
 bird: passaro T1, B1, G, B, R
 birth: nascimento T2, B2, G, B, R
 birthday: aniversario T2, G
 bit: pedaço T1, B2, G, B, R
 bit: mordeu T1, B2, G, R, S
 bite: morder T2, B2, G, R, S
 bitten: mordido T2, B2, G, R, S
 bitter: amargo T2, G
 black: preto T1, B1, G, B, R
 blackboard: quadro-negro T4, B1, G
 blade: lâmina T2, G, B
 blame: censurar T2, B2, G
 blank: lacuna T4
 blind: cego T1, G, R
 block: bloco T2, G
 block: bloquear T2, G, S
 blood: sangue T1, B1, G, B, R
 blow: soprar T1, B1, G, R
 blown: soprado T4, B1, G, R
 blew: soprou T3, B1, G, R
 blue: azul T1, B1, G, B, S
 board: banca T1, G, R, B
 boat: bote T1, B1, G, B, R
 body: corpo T1, B1, G, B, R
 boil: ferver T2, B1, G, R, S
 bold: ousado T2, G
 bond: laço T3, S
 bone: osso T1, B2, G, B
 book: livro T1, B1, G, B, R
 boot: bota T2, B

border: fronteira T2, B2, G
born: nascido T1, B1, G
borrow: emprestar T3, B2, G, R
both: ambos T1, B1, G, R
both...and: tanto...quanto
bottle: garrafa T2, B1, G, B
bottom: fundo T1, B1, G, R, S
bought: comprou T1, B1, G, R
bought: comprado T1, B1, G, R
bound: atou T2, G, S
bound: atado T2, G, S
bow: arco T1, G
box; caixa T1, B1, G, B
boy: menino T1, B1, G, B, R
brain: cerebro T3, B2, G, B
brake: freio T3, B
branch: ramo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
bread: pao T1, B1, G, B, R
break: quebrar T1, B1, G, R
break: interrupçao T1, G, R, S
breakfast: café da manha T1, B1, G, R
breath: respiraçao T2, G, B
breathe: respirar T2, B2, G
brick: tijolo T2, B1, G, B
bridge: ponte T1, B1, G, B, R
bright: brilhante T1, B1, G, B, R, S
bring: trazer T1, B1, G, R, S
broad: amplo T1, B2, G
broke: quebrou T2, B1, G, R
broken: quebrado T1, B1, G, B, R
brother: irmao T1, B1, G, B, R
brought; trouxe T1, B1, G, R, S
brought; trazido T1, B1, G, R, S
brown: marrom T1, B1, G, B, S
brush; escova T2, B1, G, B
bucket: balde T4, G, B
build: construir T1, B1, G, R
building: construçao T1, B1, G, B
built: construiu T1, B1, G, B
built: construido T1, B1, G, B
burn: queimar T1, B1, G, B, R
burst: estourar T2, B2, G, B
bury: enterrar T2, B1, G
bus; ônibus T9, B1, G, R
business: negocio T1, B1, G, B, R
busy: ocupado T1, B1, G, R
but: mas T1, B1, G, B, R, S
butter: manteiga T1, G, B, R
button: botao T2, G, B
buy: comprar T1, B1, G, R
by: por T1, B1, G, B, S
by-product: subproduto S

cake: bolo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 call: chamar T1, B1, G, R
 came: veio T1, B1, G, B, R
 can: poder T1, G, R
 can: lata T1, G, R
 cap: bone T1, G, R
 card: cartão T2, G, R
 cards: cartas T2, G, R
 care: cuidado T1, B2, G, B, R
 carry: carregar T1, B1, G, R
 carry out: executar B2
 cart: carroça T3, B1, G, B
 castle: castelo T2, G
 cat: gato T2, B1, G, B, R
 catch: pegar T1, B1, G, R
 caught: pegou T2, B1, G, R
 caught: pego T2, B1, G, R
 cave: caverna T2, G
 century: século T2, B2, G
 chain: corrente T1, B2, G, B, S
 chair: cadeira T1, B1, G
 chalk: giz T4, B1, G, B
 change: mudar T1, B1, G, B
 charge: carregar T1, G, S
 in charge: encarregado B2
 cheap: barato T2, B1, G, B, R
 check: verificar T1, B2, G, S
 cheer: animar T2, G, R
 cheese: queijo T2, G, B
 chest: peito T2, G, B
 chicken: frango T2, B1, G
 chief: principal T1, B2, G, B, R
 child: criança T1, B1, G
 children: crianças T1, B1, G
 chimney: chamine T2, G
 choice: escolha T2, B2, S
 choose: escolher T1, B1, G
 chose: escolheu T2, B1, G
 chosen: escolhido T2, B1, G
 church: igreja T1, B1, G, B
 city: cidade T1, B1
 claim: sustentar T2, B2, G
 class: aula T1, B1, G, R
 classroom: sala de aula T16, B1, G
 clay: argila T2, G
 clean: limpo T1, B1, G, B
 clear: claro T1, B2, G, B, R
 clerk: balconista T2, B2, G
 clever: esperto T4, B1, G, R
 climb: subir T2, B1, G, R
 clock: relógio T1, B1, G, B
 o'clock: hora T2
 close: íntimo T1, B2, G, R, S

close: próximo T1, B2, G, R, S
 close: fechar T1, B1, G, R, S
 clcth: pano T1, B1, G, B
 clothes: roupas T1, B1, G, R
 cloud: nuvem T1, B1, G, B
 coal: carvão T1, G, B, R
 coast: costa T1, B2, G, R
 coat: casaco T1, B1, G, B, R
 coin: moeda T2, G
 cold: frio T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 collar: colarinho T2, G, B
 comb: pente T4, G, B
 come: vir T1, B1, G, B, R
 come: vindo T1, B1, G, B, R
 committee: comissão T3, G, B
 complain: queixar-se T2, B2, G, R
 concern: interessar T2, B2, G, S
 conquer: conquistar T2, B1, G
 cook: cozinhar T1, B1, G, R
 cool: fresco T1, B2, G, R
 copper: cobre T2, B2, G, B
 cork: rolha T5, G, B
 corn: grão T1, G, R
 corner: canto T1, B1, G
 corner: esquina T1, B1, G
 cost: custar T1, B1, G, R
 cotton: algodão T2, B1, G, B
 cough: tosse T4, G, B
 could: podia T1, R
 count: contar T1, B1, G, R, S
 country: país T1, B1, G, B, R
 country: região T1, B1, G, B, R
 country: campo T1, B1, G, B, R
 of course: certamente B1
 court: tribunal T1, G, R
 cousin: primo T2, B2, G
 cover: cobrir T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 cow: vaca T1, B1, G, B, R
 crack: rachar T2, B2, G, B
 cream: creme T2, G
 crop: safra T2, B2, G, S
 cross: cruzar T1, B1, G, R, S
 crowd: multidão T1, B1, G, R
 crown: coroa T1, G
 crush: esmagar T2, G, B
 cry: chorar T1, B1, G, B, R
 cry: gritar T1, B1, G, B, R
 cup: xícara T1, B1, G, B
 cut: cortar T1, B1, G, R
 cut: cortou T1, B1, G, R
 cut: cortado T1, B1, G, R
 cushion: almofada T3, G, B
 damage: dano T3, G, B, S

damp: umido T3, G, S
 danger: perigo T2, B2, B, R
 dare: ousar T1, B2, G, R
 dark: escuro T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 date: data T1, B2, G, R
 data: dados T14, S
 daughter: filha T1, B1, G, B, R
 day: dia T1, B1, G, B
 de-: (pref.) des-
 dead: morto T1, B1, G, B
 deaf: surdo T3, G
 deal: negócio T1, R, G
 deal: tratar T1, R, G
 dealt: tratou T1, R, G
 dealt: tratado T1, R, G
 a great deal: muito S
 dear: caro T1, B1, G, B, R
 death: morte T1, B1, G, B
 debt: dívida T2, B2, G, B
 decrease: diminuir T4, B2, G, S
 deed: ato T1, G
 deep: fundo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 degree: grau T2, B2, G, B, R, S
 delay: atraso T2, B2, G, S
 delight: prazer T1, G, R
 deliver: entregar T2, G
 depth: profundidade T3, B1, S
 deserve: merecer T2, B2, G
 design: planejamento T3, B, S
 desire: desejo T1, G, B
 desk: balcao T2, B1, G, R
 develop: desenvolver T3, B2, G, S
 device: dispositivo T4, B2, S
 did: fez T1
 die: morrer T1, B1, G, R
 dig: cavar T2, B1, G
 dinner: janta T1, G, R
 dip: mergulhar T3, S
 dirty: sujo T3, G, B, R
 disease: doença T2, B1, G
 dish: prato T2, B1, G
 disturb: perturbar T3, B2, G, S
 do: fazer T1, B1, G, B, R
 do without: passar sem B2
 does: faz T1
 dog: cachorro T1, B1, G, B, R
 - dom: (suf.) -dade, -ado, etc.
 done: feito T1
 door: porta T1, B1, G, B, R
 dot:ponto T2, G
 double: dobro T1, G, R, S
 doubt: dúvida T1, G, B, R

down: (para)baixo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 dozen: duzia T2, G, R
 drain: drenar T2, B2, B
 drank: bebeu T4, B1, G, R
 draw: tirar T1, B1, G,, R
 dread: horror T2, B2
 dream: sonho T1, B1, G, R
 dress: vestido T1, B1, G, B, R
 drew: tirou T2, B1, G, R
 drink: beber T1, B1, G, R
 drive: dirigir T1, B1, R, S
 driven: dirigido T13, B1, R, S
 drop: deixar cair T1, B1, R, S
 drop: gota T1, B1, G, S
 drove: dirigiu T2, B1, R, S
 drunk: bebido T4, B1, G, R
 dry: seco T1, R
 due: devido T2, G, S
 dug: cavou T3, B1, G
 dug: cavado Tw, B1, G
 during: durante T1, R
 dust: po T1, B2, G, B, R
 duty: dever T1, R
 each: cada T1, B1, G, R
 eager: ansioso T2, B2, G
 ear: ouvido T1, B1, G, B, R
 early: cedo T1, B1, G, R
 early: adiantado T1, B1, G, R
 earn: ganhar T1, B1, G, R
 earth: terra T1, B1, G, B, R
 east: leste T1, B1, G, B, R
 easy: facil T1, B1, G, R, S
 eat: comer T1, B1, G, R
 eaten: comido T1, B1, G, R
 -ed: (suf.) forma preterito
 -ed: (suf.) forma participio passado
 -ed: (suf.) "de" (eared)
 edge: fio T1, B1, G
 edge: beira T1, G, B, S
 -ee: (suf.) -ado, etc. (employee)
 egg: ovo T1, B1, G, B, R
 eight: oito T1, G
 eighteen: dezoito T2
 eithty: oitenta T3
 either: ou T1, B1, G, R
 either: um ou outro T1, B1, G, R
 eleven: onze T2, G
 else: mais T1, B2, G, R
 employ: empregar T2, B2, G
 empty: vazio T2, G, R, S
 en- : (pref.) en-, etc. (enrich)
 -en : (suf.) en- , etc. (shorten)
 end: fim T1, B1, G, B, S

engine: motor T2, B1, G, B
 English: inglês G, B1
 enjoy: gostar T1, B1, G
 enough: suficiente T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 environment: ambiente T7, B2
 -er: (suf.) -tor, -dor, -eiro, etc. (writer)
 -er: (suf.) mais (older)
 -est: (suf.) mais (oldest)
 even: mesmo T1, B1, G, B, R
 even: nem T1, B1, G, B, R
 evening: noite T1, B1, G, R
 event: acontecimento T2, G, B
 ever: já T1, B2, G, B, R
 ever: sempre T1, G, R
 -ever: "quer que" (wherever)
 every : todo T1, G, B, R
 every: cada T1, B1, G, B, R
 everybody: todas as pessoas T2, B1, G
 everyone: todas as pessoas T4, B1, G
 everything: T1, B1,
 everywhere: em todo lugar T3, B1
 evil: mal T2, B1, G
 exchange: trocar T2, B2, G, B
 exert: exercer T8, B2, S
 expect: esperar T1, B1, G, R
 expensive: caro T4, B1, G
 expert: perito T4, B2, B
 eye: olho T1, B1, G, B, R
 fail: não conseguir T2, B1, G, R, S
 faint: desmaiar T2, G
 fair: razoável T1, B2, G, R, S
 factory: fábrica T3, B1, G
 faith: fé T2, G, R
 fall: cair T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fallen: caído T3, B1, G, B, R, S
 far: longe T1, B1, G, B
 fare: passagem T2, B2
 farm: fazenda T1, B1, G, B, R
 farther: mais longe T2, G
 farthest: mais longe T5, G
 fashion: moda T2, B2, G
 fast: rápido T1, B2, G, R
 fasten: amarrar T2, G
 fat: gordo T1, G, B, R
 fat: gordura T1, B1, G
 father: pai T1, B1, G, B, R
 fault: fault T2, B1, G, R
 fear: medo T1, B1, G, B, R
 feather: pena T2, B2, G, B
 feature: traço T2, S
 fed: alimentou T2, G

fed: alimentado T2, G
 feed: alimentar T1, G
 feel: sentir T1, B1, G, R
 feeling: sentimento T2, B1, G
 feet: pes T1
 fell: caiu T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fellow: camarada T1, G, R
 felt: sentiu T1, B1, G, R
 felt: sentido T1, B1, G, R
 female: do sexo feminino T3, B2, G, B, S
 fence: cerca T2, B1, G
 fever: febre T2, G
 few: poucos T1, B1, G, R
 a few: alguns T1, B1, G, R, S
 field: campo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fierce: feroz T2, B2, G
 fifteen: quinze T2
 fifth: quinto T2
 fifty: cinquenta T2
 fight: lutar T1, B1, G, B, R
 fill: encher T1, B1, G, S
 fill in: preencher
 find: achar T1, B1, G, R, S
 find out: achar B2, G
 fine: bom T1, G, R
 finger: dedo T1, B1, G, B, R
 finish: findar T1, B1, G, R
 fire: fogo T1, B1, G, B, R
 first: primeiro T1, B1, G, B, R
 at first: primeiramente S
 fish: peixe T1, B1, G, B, R
 fish: pescar T1, B1, G, B, R
 fit: servir T1, B1, G, R, S
 fit: adequado T1, R, S
 five: cinco T1, G
 flag: bandeira T2, B2, G, B
 flat: chato T2, B1, B, R, S
 flew: voou T2, B1, G, B, R, S
 flight: voo T2, B2, B, S
 float: flutuar T2, B2, G
 flood: enchente T2, B2, G
 floor: chão T1, B1, G, B, R
 flour: farinha T2, B1, G
 flow: fluir T1, B2, G, S
 flower: flor T1, B1, G, B
 flown: voado T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fly: voar T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fold: dobrar T2, B2, G, B
 follow: seguir T1, B1, R, S
 food: alimento T1, B1, G, B, R
 fool: idiota T2, G, R
 fond: aficionado T2, G, R

foot: pe T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 for: por T1, B1, G, R, S
 for: para T1, B1, G, R, S
 for: pois T1
 forbade: proibiu T8, G
 forbid: proibir T2, G
 forbidden: proibido T4, G
 fore- : (pref.) pre- (forsee)
 foreign: estrangeiro T2, B2, G, R
 forgave: perdoou T9, B1, G
 forget: esquecer T1, G, R
 forgive: perdoar T3, B1, G
 forgiven: perdoado B1, G
 forgot: esqueceu T2, G, R
 forgotten: esquecido T2, G, R
 fork: garfo T2, B1, G, B
 former: anterior T1, G, S
 forth: adiante T1, G
 forty: quarenta T1
 forwards: para frente T1, B, R, S
 fought: lutou T2, B1, G, B, R
 fought: lutado T2, B1, G, B, R
 found: achou T1, B1, G, R, S
 found: achado T1, B1, G, R, S
 four: quatro T1, B1, G
 fourteen: quatorze T3
 frame: armação T2, G, B
 free: livre T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 freeze: congelar T2, B2, G, S
 Friday: sexta-feira G
 friend: amigo T1, B1, G, B, R
 fright: susto T2, G, R
 from: de T1, B1, G, B, R
 front: frente T2, B1, G, B, R
 froze: congelou T7, B2, G, S
 frozen: congelado T2, B2, G, S
 -ful: (suf.) "cheio de"
 full: cheio T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 fun: divertimento T2, G, R
 furniture: mobília T2, B1, G
 further: ulterior T2, B1, G
 furthest: o mais longe T19, G
 furthermore: além disso T6, S
 gain: ganhar T1, B2
 game: jogo T1, B1, G, R
 gap: espaço T4, B2, G, S
 garden: jardim T1, B1, G, B, R
 gate: portão T1, G
 gather: reunir T1, G
 gave: deu T1, B1, G, B, R
 get: conseguir T1, B1, G, B
 get: chegar T1, B2, B, R

get: tornar-se T1, B1, B, R
 get up: levantar-se B, B1
 girl:: menina T1, B1, G, B, R
 give: dar T1, B1, G, B, R
 give off: emitir S
 given: dado T1, B1, G, B, R
 give up: desistir G
 glad: contente T1, G, R
 glass: vidro T1, B1, G, B, R
 glass: copo T1, B1, G, B, R
 glove: luva T2, B
 go: ir T1, B1, G, B, R
 God: Deus B1, G, R
 gold: ouro T1, B1, G, B, R
 gone: ido T1, B1, G, B, R
 good: bom T1, B1, G, B, R
 good bye: até logo G
 goods: mercadorias B2, G
 go on: continuar G, B1, S
 got: conseguiu T1, B1, G, B
 got: chegou T1, B2, B, R
 got: tornou-se T1, B1, B, R
 got: conseguido T1, B1, G, B
 got: chegou T1, B2, G, R
 got: tornado T1, B1, B, R
 grain: grao T1, G, B
 (have) got: ter
 grammar: gramatica T5, G
 grant: conceder T1, B2, G
 grass: T1, B1, G, B, R
 gray: cinzento T1, B1, G, S
 great: grande T1, B1, G, B, R
 green: verde T1, B1, G, B, S
 greet: cumprimentar T2, G
 grew: cresceu T1, B1, G, R
 grew: cultivou T1, B1, R
 ground: chao T1, B1, G, R
 grow: crescer T1, B1, G, R
 grow: cultivar T1, B1, R
 growth: crescimento T3, B2, B, S
 grown: crescido T1, B1, G, R
 grown: cultivado T1, B1, R
 guess: adivinhar T1, B1, G
 guest: convidade T2, B2, G
 guide: guia T1, B2, G, B
 gun: arma T2, B2, G, B
 had: teve T1, B1, G, B, R
 had: comeu T1, B1, G, B
 had: bebeu T1, B1, G, B
 had: mandou T1, B1, G, B
 had: tido T1, B1, G, B, R
 had: comido T1, B1, G, B
 had: bebido T1, B1, G, B

hair: cabelo T1, B1, G, B, R
 half: metade T1, B1, G, R, S
 hall: corredor T1, G
 hammer: martelo T2, B2, G, B
 hand: mao T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 handle: cabo T2, G, B
 handle: manejar T2, B2, G
 hang: pendurar T1, B2, G, R
 happen: acontecer T1, B1, G, R
 happy: feliz T1, B1, G, B, R
 harbor: porto T2, B2, G, B
 hard: duro T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 hardly: mal T1, G, R, S
 harm: dano T2, B2, G, S
 harvest: colheita T2, B2, G
 has: tem T1, B1, G, B, R
 has: come T1, B1, G, B
 has: bebe T1, B1, G, B
 has: manda T1, B1, G, B
 haste:: pressa T2, G, R
 hat: chapau T1, B1, G, B, R
 hate: odio T2, B1, G, B, R
 have: ter T1, B1, G, B, R
 have: comer T1, B1, G, B
 have: beber T1, B1, G, B
 have: mandar T1, B1, G, B
 he: ele T1, G, B
 head: cabeça T1, B1, G, R, S
 health: saúde T1, B1, G, R
 hear: ouvir T1, B1, G, R
 heard: ouvi T1, B1, G, R
 heard: ouvido T1, B1, G, R
 heart: coração T1, B2, G, B, R
 by heart: de cor B1
 heat: calor T1, G, B, S
 heaven: ceu T1, G, R
 heavy: pesado T1, B1, G, R, S
 height: altura T1, B1, G, S
 held: segurar T1, B1, G
 held: segurado T1, B1, G
 help: ajudar T1, B1, G, B, R
 her: dela T1, G
 her: "ela" T1, G (I saw her)
 here: aqui T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 hers: dela T1, G
 herself: ela mesma T1
 hid: escondeu T2, B2, G, R
 hide: esconder T1, B2, G, R
 hidden: escondido T4, B2, G, R
 high: alto T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 hill: colina T1, B1, G, R
 him: "ele" T1 (I saw him)
 himself: ele mesmo T1
 hire: contratar T2, B2, G

his: dele T1, G
 hit: bater T1, B1, G, R
 hit: bateu T1, B1, G, R
 hit: batido T1, B1, G, R
 hold: segurar T1, B1, G, R
 hole: buraco T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 holiday: feriado T2, B1, G, R
 hollow: oco T2, G, S
 home: lar T1, B1, G, R
 honey; mel T2, G
 -hood: (suf.) -dade, -ância, etc.
 hook: gancho T2, B2, G, B
 hope: esperar T1, B1, G, B, R
 horn: chifre T2, G, B
 horse: cavalo T1, B1, G, B, R
 hot: quente T1, B1, G, R, S
 hour: hora T1, B1, G, B, R
 house: casa T1, B1, G, B, R
 how: como T1, G, B, R, S
 how: quao T1, G, B, R, S
 how do you do? "prazer"
 however: entretanto T1, B2
 huge: enorme T2, B2, S
 hundred: centena T1, G
 hung: pendurou T2, B2, G, R
 hung: pendurado T2, B2, G, R
 hungry: com fome T2, B1, G, R
 hunt: caçar T1, B2, G
 hurry: pressa T1, B2, G, R
 hurt: ferir T1, B1, G, R
 hurt: feriu T1, B1, G, R
 hurt: ferido T1, B1, G, R
 husband: marido T1, B1, G, R
 I: eu T1, B
 ice: gelo T1, B1, G, B, R
 idle: ocioso T2, G
 if: se T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 ill: doente T1, B2, G, B, R
 ill-: (elemento de composicao) mal (ill-informed)
 imply: implicar T8, S
 improve: melhorar T2, B2, G, S
 in: em T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 inch: polegada T1, G
 increase: aumentar T1, B2, G, B, S
 indeed: deveras T1, G, R, S
 -ing: (suf.) -ando, -endo, -indo (he is eating)
 -ing; (suf.) -ante, -ente, -or, -ivo, etc. (singing
 bird)
 -ing; (suf.) "que" (a fast-growing city)
 -ing: (suf.) "que" (a washing machine)
 -ing: (suf.) -cao, -mento, -ura, etc. (the talking)
 ink: tinta T3, B1, G, B
 inner: interno T4, B2, S

input: entrada S
 inside: lado de dentro T2, B1, G, S
 inside out: de dentro para fora S
 instance: exemplo T3, B2, S
 instead: em vez de T1, B1, G, R
 intend: pretender T2, B2, G, R, S
 interest: juro T1, B2, G, B
 into: em T1, B1, G, R, S
 invite: convidar T2, B2, G, R
 iron: ferro T1, B1, G, B, R
 is: e T1
 is: está T1
 -ish: (suf.) "ado", "um tanto" (whitish)
 -ish: (suf.) -ês, etc. (Polish)
 island: ilha (ilha) T1, B1, G, B, R
 it: "isso" T1, G
 its: seu T1, G
 jewel: joia T3, B2, G, B
 job: trabalho T1, B1, S
 join: unir T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 joint:: junta T3, G, S
 joke: T3, B1, G, R
 journey: jornada T1, B1, B, R
 joy: alegria T1, G, R
 judge:: juiz T1, B2, G, B, R
 judge:: julgar T1, B2, G, B, R
 jump: saltar T2, B1, G, B, R, S
 just: apenas T1, B2, G, R
 just: recém T1, B2, G, R
 keep: manter T1, B1, G, B, R
 kept: manteve T1, B1, G, B, R
 kept:: mantido T1, B1, G, B, R
 kick: chute T2, G, B
 kill: matar T1, G, R
 kind: bondoso T1, B1, G, R
 kind: espécie T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 king: rei T1, B1, G, R
 kiss: beijo T1, B1, G, B, R
 kitchen: cozinha T2, B1, G, R
 knee: joelho T2, G, B, R
 knew: soube T1, B1, G, R
 knew: conheceu T1, B1, G, R
 knife: faca T2, B1, G, B
 knock: bater T2, G, R
 knot: nó T3, G, B
 know: saber T1, B1, G, R
 know:: conhecer T1, B1, G
 knowledge:: conhecimento T2, B2
 known: sabido T1, B1, G, R
 known: conhecido T1, B1, G, R
 labor:: trabalho T1, G
 lack:: falta T2, B2, G, S
 lady: dama T1, G, R

lag: atraso T5, S
 laid: pos T1, B1, G
 laid: posto T1, B1, G
 lain: deitado T1, G, R
 lake: lago T1, B1, G, R
 lamp: lâmpada T2, B1, G
 land: terra T1, B1, G, B, R
 land: aterrisar T1, B2, R
 language: lingua T2, B1, G, B, R
 large: grande T1, B1, G, R, S
 last: durar T1, B2
 last: ultimo T1, B1, G, B
 last: passado T1, B1, G, B
 at last: finalmente G
 late: atrasado T1, B1, G, B, R
 late: "no fim" T1, B1, G, B, R
 lately: ultimamente T7, G
 latter: o ultimo T2, G
 laugh: rir T1, B1, B, R
 law: lei T1, B1, G, B, R
 lawyer: advogado T3, B1, G
 lay: por T1, G
 lay: deitou T1, G, R
 lazy: preguiçoso T2, B1, G, R
 layer: camada T5, B2
 lead: liderar T1, B2, G, B, R
 lead to: levar a B2
 leaf: folha T5, B1, G
 learn: aprender T1, B1, G
 least: minimo T1, G, S
 at least: no minimo B1, G, S
 leather: couro B1, G, B
 leave: deixar T1, B1, G, R
 led: liderou T1, B2, G, B, R
 led: liderado T1, B2, G, B, R
 left: deixou T1, B2, G, R
 left: deixado T1, B2, G, R
 left: esquerdo T1, B1, G, R
 leg: perna T1, B1, G, B, R
 lend: emprestar T3, B1, G
 length: comprimento T1, G
 less: menos T1, B1, G, S
 -less: (suf.) sem
 lesson: lição T1, R
 let: deixar T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 letter: carta T1, B2, G, B, R
 let us: vamos
 level: nivel T2, B2, G, B, S
 library: biblioteca T2, B1, G, B
 lie: deitar T1, G, R
 life: vida T1, B1, G, R
 lift: levantar T1, B1, G, B, R
 light: luz T1, B1, G, R, S

light: leve T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 like: gostar T1, B1, G, R
 like: como T1, B1, R
 -like: (suf.) "como" (lifelike)
 likely: provável T3, B2, G, R
 limb: membro T2, G
 link: elo T3, S
 lip: labio T1, G, B, R
 listen: ouvir T1, B1, G, R
 little; pouco T1, B1, G, B, R
 little: pequeno T1, B1, G, B, R
 live: viver T1, B1, G
 load: carregar T1, B2, S
 lock: fechadura T2, G
 lodge: alojar T2
 lonely: T4, B2, R
 long:: longo (tempo) T1, B1, G, R
 look: parecer T1, B1, G, B, R
 look at: olhar para B1
 look for: procurar
 loose: frouxo T2, B2, G, B, R, S
 lose: perder T1, B1, G
 loss: perda T1, B2, G, B, S
 lost: perdeu T1, B1, G
 lost: perdido T1, B1, G
 lot: muito T1, B1, G, R
 loud: alto T1, B1, G, B, R
 love: amar T1, B1, G, B, R
 low: baixo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 lower: baixar T1
 luck: sorte T3, B2, G, R
 -ly: (suf.) "como" (fatherly)
 -ly: (suf.) "mente" (happily)
 -ly: (suf.) "que ocorre periodicamente" (daily)
 lying: deitado T2
 mad: louco T2, B2, G, R
 made:: fez T1, B1, G, B
 made: feito T1, B1, G, B
 main: principal T2, B2, G, S
 make: fazer T1, B1, G, B
 make up: compor B2, S
 male:: do sexo masculino T3, B2, B, S
 man: homem T1, B1, G, B, R
 manage: administrar T2, B2, G
 many: muitos T1, B1, G
 March: março G
 marry: casar T2, B1, G, R, S
 match:: encaixar T2, G
 May: maio
 may: poder T1, G
 me: me T1, R
 meal: refeição T2, B1, G, B
 mean: significar T1, B1, G, R

mean: querer dizer T1, B1, G, R
 meant: quiz dizer T1, B1, G, R
 meant: significado T1, B1, G, R
 means: meio B2, G, S
 measure: medir T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 meat: carne T1, B1, G, B R
 medium: meio T4, S
 meet: encontrar T1, B1, G, R
 melt: derreter T2, B2, G, S
 men: homens T1
 mend: T3, B1, G
 met: encontrou T1, B1, G, R
 met: encontrado T1, B1, G, R
 middle: meio T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 might: podia T1, R
 milk: leite T1, B1, G
 mind: mente T1, B1, B, R
 mine: meu T1, G, B, R
 mirror: espelho T3, B1
 mis-: (pref.) mal (misadvise)
 miss: perder T1, G
 mistake: engano T2, B1, G, R, S
 Monday: segunda-feira G
 money: dinheiro T1, B1, G, B, R
 monkey: macaco T4, G, B
 month: mês T1, B1, G, B
 moon: lua T1, B1, G, B
 more: mais T1, B1, G
 moreover: alem do mais T3, G, S
 morning: manha T1, B1, G, B
 good morning: bom dia
 most: mais T1, G
 most: a maior parte T1, B1, G
 mother: mãe T1, B1, G, B, R
 motion: movimento T2, G, B, S
 mouse: camundongo T2, G, R
 mouth: boca T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 much: muito T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 mud: lama T2, G
 must: dever T1, G, R
 my: meu T1, G, R
 myself: eu mesmo T1, R
 nail: prego T2, G, B
 name: nome T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 narrow: estreito T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 near: perto T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 nearly: quase T3, B1, G, R, S
 neck: pescoço T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 need: necessitar T1, B1, G, R
 needle: agulha T2, G, B
 neglect: negligência T2, B2
 neighbor: vizinho T1, B1, G
 neither: nem T1, B1, G, R, S
 neither: nenhum de dois T1, B1, G, R, S

-ness: (suf.) -dade, -eza, etc. (happiness)
 nest: ninho T1, G
 net: rede T2, B2, G, B, S
 never: nunca T1, B1, G, R, S
 nevertheless: apesar disso T4, S
 new: novo T1, B1, G, B, R
 news: noticia T2, B1, G, B
 newspaper: jornal T2, B1, G
 next: proximo T1, B1, G, R, S
 next: em seguida T1, B1, G, R, S
 nice: simpatico T1, G
 night: noite T1, B1, G, B, R,
 nine: nove T1, G
 nineteen: dezenove T4
 ninety: noventa T3
 no: nao T1, G, B, R
 no: nenhum T1, G, B
 nobody: ninguem T2, G
 noise: ruido T2, B1, G, B, R
 none: nenhum T1, B1, G, S
 noon: meio dia T1, G
 nor: nem T1, B1, G, R
 north: norte T1, B1, B, R
 nose: nariz T1, B1, G, B, R
 not: nao T1, G, B, R
 note: anotar T1, B, R
 nothing: nada T1, B1, G
 notice: notar T1, B1, G, R
 now: agora T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 nowhere: nenhum lugar T6, G1, G
 number: numero T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 nurse: enfermeira T2, B1, G
 nut: noz T2, G, B
 obey: obedecer T2, B2, G, R
 oblige: obrigar T2, B2
 of: de T1, B1, G, B, R
 off: afastado T1, B1, G, B, R
 offer: oferta T1, G, B, R
 office: escritorio T1, B1, G, B
 often: frequentemente T1, B1, G, R, S
 oil: oleo T2, B1, G, B, R
 old: velho T1, B1, G, B, R
 on: em T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 once: uma vez T1, B1, G, R, S
 at once: imediatamente G
 one: um T1, G, R
 one: a gente T1
 only: somente T1, B1, G, B, S
 open: abrir T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 or: ou T1, B1, G, B, R
 orange: laranja T2, B1, G, B, S
 in order to: a fim de B2, G
 other: outro T1, B1, G, B, R

ought: devia T1, B2, G, R
 our: nosso T1, G
 ours: nosso T3, G
 out: fora T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 out-: (pref.) "mais que" (outlive)
 outcome: resultado T10, B2
 outline: esquema T5, G, S
 output: produção T8, S
 outside: lado de fora T1, B1, G
 outstanding: importante T14, S
 over: sobre T1, B1, G, B, R
 over: terminado T1, B1, G, B, R
 over-: (pref.) demais (overanxious)
 owe: dever T2, B2, G, B, R
 own: proprio T1, G, R, S
 own: possuir T1, G, R, S
 pack: empacotar T2, B2, G, R
 page: pagina T1, G, B, R
 paid: pagou T2, B1, G, R
 paid: pago T2, B1, G, R
 pain: dor T1, B1, G, B, R
 paint: pintar T1, B1, G, R
 paint: tinta T1, G, B, R
 pair: par T1, B1, R
 pan: panela T2, G
 paper: papel T1, B1, G, B, R
 parcel: pacote T3, B1, G, B
 parents: pais T2, B1, G
 party: festa T1, G, B, R
 past: alem T1, G
 past: passado T1, B2, G, B
 path: trajetória T1, B1, G, R
 pattern: estrutura T2, B2, G, S
 pay: pagar T1, B1, G, R
 peace: paz T1, B1, G, B, R
 pearl: perla T2, G
 pencil; lapis T2, B1, G, B
 people: pessoas T1, G
 perform: desempenhar T2, B2, G, S
 perharps: talvez T1, B1, G, R, S
 pick up: ajuntar B1, G, R
 picture: figura T1, B1, G, B, R
 piece: pedaço T1, B1, G, R, S
 pig: porco T2, B1, G, B
 pile: pilha T2, B2, G
 pin: alfinete T2, B2, G
 pin: alfinetar T2, B2, G
 pink: cor-de-rosa T2, B1, G
 pipe: cano T2, B2, G, B
 pity: pena T2, B2, G, R
 place: lugar T1, B1, G, S
 place: colocar T1, B1, G, S

plain: simples T1, B2, G, R, S
 plate: prato T2, B1, G, B
 play: jogar T1, B1, G, R
 play: brincar T1, B1, G, R
 play: peça T1, B2, G, B, R
 pleasant: agradável T1, B1, G
 please: satisfazer T1, G, R
 please: por favor T1, G, B, R
 pleasure: prazer T1, B2, G, B
 plus: mais T8, B2, S
 pocket: bolso T2, B1, G, R
 poison: veneno T3, B2, G, B
 poor: pobre T1, B1, G, R, S
 post: correio T1, B1, G, R
 pound: libra T1, G, R
 pour: despejar T2, B2, G
 power: poder T1, B1, G, B, R
 praise: louvar T2, B1, G
 pray: suplicar T2, B1, G, R
 pray: rezar T2, B1, G, R
 press: imprensa T1, G, R
 press: apertar T1, B1, G, R
 pretty: bonito T1, B2, G, R
 prevent: impedir T2, B2, G, S
 price: preço T1, B1, G, B, R
 priest: sacerdote T3, B1, G
 print: imprimir T2, B1, G, B, R
 private: particular T2, G, B
 prize: prêmio T2, B2, G
 procedure: método T9, S
 profit: lucro T2, B2, G, B
 promise: promessa T1, G, R
 proof: prova T2, B2, G, S
 proud: orgulhoso T1, B1, G, R
 prove: provar T1, B2, G, R
 provide: fornecer T2, B2, G, S
 pull: puxar T1, B1, G, B, R
 pump: bomba T3, B2, G, B
 punish: punir T2, B2, G, R
 pupil: aluno T2, B1, G, R
 purpose: propósito T1, B, R, S
 push: empurrar T1, B, G, R, S
 put: pôr T1, B1, G, R
 put: pôs T1, B1, G, R
 put: posto T1, B1, G, R
 put on: vestir B1
 quarrel: discutir T2, B1, G
 queen: rainha T1, B1, G, R
 quick: rápido T1, B1, G, R, R, S
 quite: bastante T1, B2, G, B, R
 quote: citar T5, S
 rail: trilho T2, G, B, R
 rain: chuva T1, B1, G, B, R

raise: levantar T1, B2, G, R, S
 ran: correu T1, B1, G, R
 ran: dirigiu T1, B2, R
 random: aleatorio T5, S
 range: alcance T2, B2, B, S
 rate: taxa T2, B2, G, B, S
 rather: antes T1, G, R, S
 would rather: preferir G
 ray: raio T2, B2, G
 reach: alcançar T1, B1, G, R, S
 read: ler T1, B1, G, R
 read: leu T1, B1, G, R
 read: lido T1, B1, G, R
 ready: pronto T1, G, B, R
 receipt: recibo T3, G, B
 record: registro T2, B2, G, B, S
 red: vermelho T1, B1, G, B
 regard: considerar T2, G, R
 relate: relacionar T3, G, S
 release: libertar T3, B2, S
 rely: confiar T6, B2, S
 remain: permanecer T1, B2, G, R
 rent: alugar T2, G
 repair: consertar T2, G, R
 reply: responder T1, G, R
 request: solicitar T2, G
 research: pesquisar T9, S
 resource: recurso T6, S
 rest: descanso T1, B1, G, B, R
 reward: recompensa T3, G, B
 rice: arroz T3, B1, G, B
 rich: rico T1, B1, G, R
 ride: andar de T1, B1, G, R
 ridden: andado T10, B1, G, R
 right: certo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 right: direito T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 ring: anel T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 rise: levantar T1, B1, G, R, S
 risen: levantado T8, B1, G, R, S
 river: rio T1, B1, G, B, R
 road: estrada T1, B1, G, B, R
 rock: pedra T1, B1, G
 rode: andou T1, B1, G, R
 role: papel T9, S
 play the role: desempenhar o papel
 roll: rolar T1, G, R
 roof: teto T1, B1, G, B, R
 room: peça (de casa) T1, B1, G, B
 root: raiz T2, B1, G, B, S
 rope: corda T2, B1, G
 rose: levantou T1, B1, G, R, S
 rough: aproximado T2, G, R, S
 round: redondo T1, B1, G, B
 row: fila T1, G

rub: esfregar T2, G, B, R
 rubber: borracha T3, G
 rule: regra T1, B2, G, B, R
 ruler: regua T3, B1, G
 run: correr T1, B1, G, R,
 run: dirigir T1, B2, G, R
 run: corrido T1, B1, G, R
 run: dirigido T1, B2, G, R
 rush: correr T1, G, R
 sad: triste T1, B1, G, B, R
 safe: seguro T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 safety: segurança T2, B2
 said: disse T1, B1, G, B, R
 said: dito T1, B1, G, B, R
 sail: velejar T1, B1, G, R
 sake of: amor a B2, G
 sale: venda T2, B2, G
 salt: sal T1, G, B
 same: mesmo T1, B1, G, B, R
 sample: amostra T4, G, S
 sand: areia T1, B1, G, B, R
 sat: sentou T2, B1, G, R
 sat: sentado T2, B1, G, R
 Saturday: sabado G
 save: salvar T1, B1, G
 save: economizar T1, B1, G
 saw: viu T1, B1, G, B, R
 say: dizer T1, B1, G, B, R
 scatter: espalhar T2, B2, G, S
 school: escola T1, B1, G, B, R
 sea: mar T1, B1, G, B, R
 search: procurar T2, B2, G
 season: estação T1, B1, G, R
 seat: assento T1, G, B, R
 see: ver T1, B1, G, B, R
 seed: semente T1, B1, G, B
 seem: parecer T1, B1, G, R
 seen: visto T1, B1, G, B, R
 seize: pegar T1, B1, G
 seldom: raramente T2, G, S
 self: mesmo T1, G, B
 self-: (pref.) "auto" (self-determination)
 sell: vender T1, B1, G, R
 send: enviar T1, B1, G
 sense: sentido T2, G, B
 sensible: sensato T4, B1, G
 sent: enviou T1, B1, G
 sent: enviado T1, B1, G
 set: conjunto T1, B2, G
 set: ajustar T1, G, R
 set: ajustou T1, G, R
 set: ajustado T1, G, R

settle: ajustar T1, B2, G
 seven: sete T1, G
 seventeen: dezessete T4
 seventy: setenta T2
 several: T1, B1, G, R
 shade: sombra T1, G, B, R
 shadow: sombra T2, B1, G, R
 shake: sacudir T1, B2, G, R
 shake hands: apertar as mãos G
 shall: "vamos" T1, G
 shame: vergonha T2, G, B, R
 shape: forma T1, B1, G, R, S
 share: partilhar T2, G, R
 sharp: afiado T2, B1, G, B, R, S
 she: ela T1, G
 shed: derramar T2, G
 sheep: ovelha T1, B2, G
 sheet: folha T2, G
 shelter: abrigo T2, B2, G
 shift: mudar T3, G, S
 shine: brilhar T1, B2, G, R
 ship: navio T1, B1, G, B, R
 -ship: (suf.) -dade, -ia, etc. (friendship)
 shirt: camisa T2, B1, G
 shoe: sapato T1, B1, G, B
 shone: brilhou T3, B2, G, R
 shone: brilhado T3, B2, G, R
 shook: sacudiu T2, B2, G, R
 .shaken: sacudido B2, G, R
 shoot: atirar T2, B2, G, R
 shop: loja T1, B1, G
 shop: comprar T1, G, R
 shore: costa T1, G, B, R
 short: curto T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 shot: atirou T2, B2, G, R
 shot: atirado T2, B2, G, R
 should: devia T1, G, R
 shoulder: ombro T1, B2, G, R
 shout: gritar T1, B1, G, R
 show: mostrar T1, B1, G, R, S
 shut: fechar T1, B1, G, R
 shut: fechou T1, B1, G, R
 shut: fechado T1, B1, G, R
 sick: doente T1, B1, G, R
 side: lado T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 sight: visão T1, B2, G
 sign: sinal T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 silk: seda T1, B1, G, B
 silver: prata T1, B1, G, B, R
 since: desde T1, B2, G, R, S
 since: já que T1, B2, G, R, S
 sing: cantar T1, B1, G
 single: único T1, B2, G, R, S

sir: senhor T1, G, R
 sister: irma T1, B1, G, B, R
 sit: sentar T1, B1, G, R
 sit down: sentar
 sitting: sentado T1,
 six: seis T1, G
 sixteen: dezesseis T3
 sixty: sessenta T3
 size: tamanho T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 skill: habilidade T3, B2, G, S
 skin: pele T1, B1, G, B, S
 skirt: saia T2, G, B
 sky: ceu T1, B1, G, B, R
 slave: escravo T2, B2, G
 sleep: dormir T1, B1, G, B, R
 slept: dormiu T3, B1, G, R
 slept: dormido T3, B1, G, R
 slight: leve T2, B2, G, S
 slope: declive T2, B2, G, B, S
 slow: devagar T1, B1, G, R, S
 small: pequeno T1, B1, G, B, R
 smell: cheirar T2, B1, G
 smile: sorrir T1, B1, G, R
 smoke: fumar T1, B1, G
 smoke: fumaça T1, B1, G, B, R
 smooth: liso T2, B2, G, B, S
 snake: cobra T3, B1, G, B
 snow: neve T1, B1, G, B, R
 so: assim T1, B1, G, B, R
 so: tão T1, B1, G, B, R
 soap: sabao T3, B1, G, B
 so far: ate agora S
 so that: de modo que
 soft: macio T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 soil: solo T1, G, S
 sold: vendeu T1, B1
 sold: vendido T1, B1
 soldier: soldado T1, B1, G, R
 some: algum T1, B1, G, B, R
 somebody: alguem T3, B1, G
 someone: alguém T3, B1
 something: alguma coisa T1, B1, G
 somewhere: em algum lugar T3, B1
 son: filho T1, B1, G, B, R
 song: canção T1, B2, G, B
 soon: logo T1, G, R
 sore: dolorido T2, G
 sorry: triste T2, G, R
 I am sorry: sinto muito
 sort: especie T1, B1, G, B, R
 soul : alma T1, G
 sound: som T1, B1, G, B, R
 soup: sopa T3, G, B
 sour: azedo T4, B1, G

source: fonte T3, B2, S
 south: sul T1, G, B, R
 spare: sobressalente T2, B2, G
 speak: falar T1, B1, G, R
 speech: fala T2, G
 speed: velocidade T2, B1, R
 spell: soletrar T2, B1, G
 spend: passar T1, R
 spend: gastar T1, R
 spent: passou R
 spent: gastou R
 spent: passado R
 spent: gasto R
 spite: despeito T2, G, S
 spoil: estragar T2, B2, G, R
 spoke: falou T1, B1, G, R
 spoken: falado T4, B1, G, R
 spoon: colher T2, B1, G, B
 spot: lugar T1, B2, G, R, S
 spread: espalhar T1, B2, G
 spring: primavera T1, B2, G, B, R
 square: quadrado T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 stamp: selo T2, B1, G, B
 stand: ficar de pe T1, B1, G, R, S
 stand up: levantar
 standing: de pe
 star: estrela T1, B1, G, B, R
 start: começar T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 state: enunciar T1, B2, R, S
 stay: ficar T1, B1, G, R
 steal: roubar T2, B1, G, R
 steam: vapor T2, B1, G, B, R
 steel: aço T2, B1, G, B, R
 steep: muito inclinado T2, B2, G, S
 step: passo T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 stick: graveto T1, B2, G, B
 still: ainda T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 stole: roubou T3, B1, G, R
 stolen: roubado T4, B1, G, R
 stole: pedra T1, B1, G, B, R
 stood: ficou de pe T1, B1, G, R, S
 stop: parar T1, B1, G, B, R
 store: armazenar T1, B2, G, B, S
 storm: tempestade T1, B1, G, R
 straight: reto T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 strange: estranho T1, B1, G, B, R
 stranger: estranho T2, B2, G
 stream: corrente T1, B2, G, S
 street: rua T1, B1, G, B, R
 strength: força T1, B2, G
 stretch: estender T2, B2, G, B
 strike: bater T1, G, R
 string: cordao T2, G
 stroke: golpe T2, G

strong: forte T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 struck: bateu T2, G, R
 struck: batido T2, G, R
 study: estudo T1, B1, G, R
 subject: assunto T1, G, R
 such: tal T1, G, B, R
 sudden: repentino T1, B1, G, B
 suffer: sofrer T1, B2, G, R
 sugar: açucar T1, B1, G, B
 suit: convir T1, B1, G, R
 suitable: conveniente T4, B1, G, S
 sum: soma T1, B2, G
 summer: verao T1, B2, G, B, R
 sun: sol T1, G, B, R
 Sunday: domingo G, R
 sung: cantado T3, B1
 supply: abastecer T1, B2, G
 support: apoiar T2, B2, G, B, S
 sure: certo T1, B1, G, R
 surplus: excesso T7, S
 swallow: engolir T2, G
 swam: nadou T6, B1, G, B, R
 sweet: doce T1, B1, G, B, R
 swim: nadar T2, B1, G, B, R
 swum: nadado T17, B1, G, B, R
 table: mesa T1, B1, G, B
 tail: cauda T1, G, B
 take: tomar T1, B1, G, B, R
 take: levar T1, B1, G, B, R
 take out: tirar
 taken: tomado B1, G, B, R
 taken: levado B1, G, B, R
 talk: falar T1, B1, G, B, R
 tall: alto T1, B1, G, B, R
 taste: gosto T1, B1, G, B, R
 taste: provar T1, B1, G, B, R
 taught: ensinou T2, B1, G, R
 taught: ensinado T2, B1, G, R
 tax: imposto T2, B2, G, B
 tea: cha T2, B1, G, R
 teach: ensinar T1, B1, G, R
 teacher: professor T1, G
 tear: rasgar T1, B1, G, R
 tear: lagrima T1, G, R
 teeth: dentes T2, B1, G, B
 tell: dizer T1, B1, G, R
 ten: dez T1, G
 -th: (suf.) forma numerals ordinais (seventh)
 than: do que T1, B1, G, B, R
 thank: agradecer T1, B1, R
 thank you: obrigado B1
 that: aquele T1, G, B, R
 that: aquilo T1, G, B, R

that: que T1, G, R
 the: o T1, G, B, R
 their: deles T1, G
 theirs: deles T1, G
 them: "eles" T1
 themselves: eles proprios T1
 then: entao T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 there: la T1, B1, G, B, R
 therefore: portanto T1, G, R
 these: T1, R
 they: eles T1
 thick: grosso T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 thin: fino T1, G, B, R, S
 thing: coisa T1, B1, G, B, R
 think: pensar T1, B1, G, R
 third: terceiro T1
 thirteen: treze T3
 thirty: trinta T2
 thirsty: com sede T1, B1, G, B, R
 this: este T1, B1, G, R
 thorough: completo T2, G
 those: aqueles T1, R
 though: embora T1, B1, G, B, R
 thought: pensou T1, B1, G, R
 thought: pensado T1, B1, G, R
 thought: pensamento T1, B
 thousand: mil T1, G
 three: três T1
 threw: arremessou T2, B1, G
 throat: garganta T2, G, B
 through: ataves T1, B1, G, B, S
 throughout: atraves T2, G, S
 thrown: arremessar T1, B1, G
 thrown: arremessado T1, B1
 thunder: trovao T2, G, B
 Thursday: quinta-feira G
 thus: assim T1, G, S
 tide: mare T2, B2, G
 tie: amarrar T1, B1, G, R
 tight: apertado T2, B2, G, B, S
 till: até T1, G, B, R
 time: tempo T1, B1, G, B, R
 time: hora T1, B, R
 time: vez T1, B, R
 tiny: minuscuro T2, S
 tire: cansar T1, B1
 title: titulo T2, G
 to: para T1, B1, G, B, R
 to: a T1, B1, G, B, R
 today: hoje T1, B1, G, R
 together: junto T1, B1, G, B, R
 told: disse T1, B1, G, R
 told: dito T1, B1, G, R

tomorrow: amanhã T1, B1, G, B, R
 tongue: língua T1, G, B, S
 tonight: hoje à noite T2, G
 too: também T1, B2, G, R
 too: demais T1, B1, G, R
 took: tomou T1, B1, G, B, R
 took: levou T1, B1, G, B, R
 tool: instrumento T2, B1, G, S
 tooth: dente T2, B1, G, B
 top: topo T1, B1, G, S, R
 tore: rasgou T4, B1, G, R
 torn: rasgado T3, B1, G, R
 touch: tocar T1, B1, G, R
 towards: para T1, B2, G, R, S
 tower: torre T2, G
 town: cidade T1, B1, G, R
 toy: brinquedo T2, G
 track: trilha T2, G, S
 trade: comércio T1, B2, G, B, R
 train: trem T1, G, B, R
 travel: viajar T1, B2, G, R, S
 treasure: tesouro T2, G
 treat: tratar T2, B2, G, R, S
 tree: árvore T1, B1, G
 tremble: tremor T2, G
 trend: tendência T9, S
 trial: tentativa T2, G, S
 trick: truque T2, G, B
 trip: viagem T1, G, R
 trouble: problema T1, B1, G, B, R
 true: verdadeiro T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 trust: confiar T1, B1, G, R
 try: tentar T1, B1, G, R, S
 Thursday: terça-feira G
 turn: girar T1, B1, G, S
 turn off: desligar G
 turn on: ligar G
 twelve: doze T1
 twenty: vinte T1
 twice: duas vezes T2, B1, G, S
 twist: torcer T3, B2, G, B
 two: dois T1, G
 ugly: feio T2, B1, G
 umbrella T4, B1, G
 un-: (pref.) in- (unhappy)
 uncle: tio T1, B1, G, R
 under: debaixo T1, G, B, R, S
 under-: (pref.) sub- (underline)
 undergo: sofrer T5, S
 understand: compreender T1, B1, G, R
 understood: compreendeu T1, B1, G, R
 understood: compreendido T1, B1, G, R
 unit: unidade T6, G, B

unless: a menos que T2, B2, G, R, S
 until: até T1, B1, G, S
 up: (para) cima T1, B1, G, B, R
 upon: sobre T1, G, R, S
 upper: superior T2, B2, S
 upright: vertical T3, G, S
 upside down: invertido S
 us: "nos" T1
 value: valor T1, B1, G, B, R
 very: muito T1, B1, G, B, R
 vessel: vaso T2, G, B
 view: vista T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 view: ver T1, B2, G, R, S
 village: aldeia T1, B1, G, R
 virtue: virtude T2, G
 voice: voz T1, B1, G, B, R
 waist: cintura T2, G
 wait: esperar T1, B1, G, R
 wake: acordar T2, G, R
 walk: caminhar T1, B1, G
 wall: parede T1, B1, G, B, R
 wall: muro T1, B1, G, B, R
 want: querer T1, B1, G, R, S
 war: guerra T1, G, B, R
 -ward, -wards: (suf.) "para" (upwards)
 warm: quente T1, B1, G, B, R
 was: foi T1
 was: esteve T1
 wash: lavar T1, B1, G, B, R
 waste: desperdiçar T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 watch: vigiar T1, G, B, R
 watch:: assistir T1, G, B, R
 watch: relógio T1, B1, G, B, R
 water: água T1, B1, G, B
 wave: onda T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 wax: cera T3, G, B
 way: caminho T1, B1, G, B, R
 way: modo T1, B1, G, B, R
 we: nos T1, G
 weak: fraco T1, B1, G, R, S
 wear: usar T1, B1, G, R
 weather: tempo T1, B1, B, R
 Wednesday: quarta-feira G
 week: semana T1, B1, G, B
 weigh: pesar T2, B1, G, S
 weight: peso T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 welcome: bem-vindo T2, B1, B, R
 well:: bem T1, B1, G, B
 well: poço T1, G
 went: foi T1, B1, G, B, R
 were: foram T1
 were: estiveram T1
 west: oeste T1, B1, G, B, R
 wet: molhado T2, B1, G, B, R

what: o que T1, G, R
 what: qual T1, G, R
 wheat: trigo T1, B1, G
 wheel: roda T1, B1, G, B, R
 when: quando T1, G, B, S
 where: onde T1, G, B, R, S
 whether: se T1, G, S
 which: que T1, G, R
 which: qual T1, G, R
 while: enquanto T1, B1, G, B, S
 whistle: assobiar T2, G, B
 white: branco T1, B1, G, B, S
 who: quem T1, G, B
 who: que T1, G, B
 whole: todo T1, B1, G, R, S
 whom: quem T1
 whom: que T1
 whose: de quem T1, G
 whose: cujo T1, G
 why: por que T1, G, B, R
 wide: largo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 width: largura T3, G
 wife: esposa T1, B1, G, R
 wild: selvagem T1, B1, G, R
 will: "pode" T1, G, B, R
 will: "vai" T1, G, B, R
 will: vontade T1, G, B, R
 win: vencer T1, B1, G, R
 wind: vento T1, B1, G, B
 window: janela T1, B1, G, B
 wine: vinho T2, G, B
 wing: asa T1, B2, G, B
 winter: inverno T1, B2, G, B, R
 wire: fio T2, B1, G, B
 wisdom: sabedoria T2, G
 wise: sabio T1, B2, G, B, R
 -wise: (suf.) "como"
 wish: desejar T1, B1, G
 with: com T1, B1, G, B, R
 within: dentro T1, G, R, S
 without: sem T1, G, R
 woman: mulher T1, B1, G, B
 women: mulheres T2
 won: venceu T2, B1, G, R
 won: vencido T2, B1, G, R
 wonder: maravilha T1, B2, G, R
 wood: madeira T1, B1, G, B
 wool: la T1, B1, G, B, R
 word: palavra T1, B1, G, B, R
 wore: usou T1, B1, G, R
 work: trabalhar T1, B1, G, B
 work: funcionar T1, B1, G, B
 world: mundo T1, B1, G

worn: usado T2, B1, G
 worry: preocupar(-se) T3, G
 worse: pior T2, B1, G
 worst: pior T2, B1, G
 worth: valor T1, B2, G
 is worth: vale
 would: "-ia" (forma futuro do preterito)
 wound: ferida T2, G, B
 write: escrever T1, B1, G, R
 written: escrito T1, B1, G, R
 wrong: errado T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 wrote: escreveu T2, B1, G, R
 -y: (suf.) "oso", "-ento", "-ado", etc. (milky)
 yard: jarda T1
 yard: patio T1, G
 year: ano T1, B1, G, B
 yield: produzir T2, B2, G, S
 yellow: amarelo T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 yes: T1, B1, G, B, R
 yesterday: ontem T1, B1, G, B, R
 yet: ainda T1, B1, G, S
 yet: contudo T1, G
 you: você T1, G, B
 you: voces T1, G, B
 young: jovem T1, B1, G, B, R
 your: teu T1, G
 yours: teu T3, G
 yourself: voce mesmo T2

LIST OF THE MOST FREQUENT COGNATES (UP TO THE 5,000-LEVEL IN THE THORNDIKE LIST AND THE 3,000-LEVEL IN BARNARD'S, INCLUDING SCIENTIFIC TERMS). TOTAL: 1,543 ITEMS.

abandon T4, B3	admire T2, B3, G, R
ability T4, G, S	admission T5, B2
abnormal S	admit T2, B2, G, R
abrupt B3	adopt T3, B2, G
absolute T2, G, S	adoption T5, B2
absurd B3	adore T4,
abundance T3	advantage T3, G
abundant B3	adventure T3, B3, G
abuse T3	adverb B1
academic B3	aeroplane G
accelerate B3	affect T3, S
accept T3, B2, G, R	affection T3
access T5	affectionate T3
accident T3, B2, G, R	affluent B3
accomodate T5, B3	agency T5
accumulate S	agent T5
accuse T3, G	aggressive B3
accustom T3, B3, G	agony T4
acid B3, S	agricultural T4, B2
acquire T3	agriculture T3, B2, G
acre T2	airport B3
action T2, B1, G, R, S	alarm T2, B3
active T3, B2, S	alcohol B3
actor T5, B2, G	algebra B3
addapt S	altar T3
addition T2, B2, G, B, S	alter T3, S
adequate S	alteration B2, S
adjective B1	alternate S
adjust S	alternatively S
administration T5, B2	altitude B3
admiration T4, G	ambassador T5

amber T5
 ambition T3, B2, G
 ambitious B2
 ample T3
 analogy T3
 analyse S
 analysis S
 anatomy B3
 ancestor T4
 anchor T3
 angel T2
 angle T4, B2, G, S
 angular B2
 animal T1, B1, G, R
 anniversary T5
 announce T5
 annual T3
 antagonism B3
 anthropology B3
 anxious T2, B2, G, R
 apart T2, G
 apartment T5
 apparatus S
 apparent T4, S
 appearance T2, G, S
 appetite T3
 applause T5
 application T3, B2, G, S
 appreciate T5, B3, G
 appropriate S
 approve T2, G
 approximate B2, S
 approximation S
 arc S
 arctic T5
 area T3, B2, S
 arid B3
 arithmetical B2
 arms B3, G
 art T1, B, G
 article T1, B1
 argument T3, G
 arrange T2, S
 arrangement T5, S
 artificial T5, B2, G
 artist T3, B2
 artistic T5, B2
 ascend B3
 aspect T5
 assault T4
 assimilate B3
 associate T3, G
 association B3
 astronomy B3
 athletic T5
 atmosphere T5, B2
 atom B2, S
 atomic B2, S
 attack T2, G, B
 attention T2, B2, G, B, R
 attitude T5, B2
 attract T4, G, S
 attraction T5, B2, B, S
 attractive T4
 attribute T5, B3
 auditory B3
 author T3, B2
 authority T2, B2, G, B
 automatic S
 automobile T2

autonomy B3
 autumn T2, B2, G, R
 avenue T2, B2, G, R
 auxiliary B3
 axiom B3
 banana T4, G, B1
 banquet T3
 barbarous T5
 barometer B3
 barrier T5
 base T2, B, S
 basic B2
 battery T5, B3
 bible T4
 bicycle T4, B1, G
 biological B2
 biologist B2
 block T2, S
 brilliant T4, B3
 brute T4
 button T2
 cabinet T4
 calculate B1, S
 calculation B2, S
 calendar B2, G
 calm T2, B2, G, R
 calorie B3
 camel T4
 camera B1, G
 canal T3, B2
 candidate T4, B3
 canoe T4
 capable T3, S
 capacity T4, B3, S
 capital T2, B1, G, R
 capsule B3
 captain T1, G, R
 captive T4
 captivity T5
 capture T3, B2
 car T1, B1, R
 carbon B3
 cards T2, R
 career T4
 cargo T4
 carpenter T3
 carriage T2, B
 case T1, G, R, S
 catalogue T5, B2
 category B3
 cathedral T4
 catholic T4
 cause T1, G, B, S
 celebrate T2, B3
 cement T4, B2
 cemetery T5
 center T1, G, S
 central T2, B2, S
 centrifugal B3
 ceremonial B2
 ceremony T4, B2, G
 certain T1, S
 certainly T5, S
 certify B3
 certificate T5
 champion T4
 chance T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 channel T3, S
 chapel T3
 characteristic T5, B2, S
 charity T3, S
 charm T3, G, S

chemical B2, B
 chocolate T4
 cinema B1
 cigarette B1, G
 circle T1, B1, G, S
 circuit B2
 circular B2
 circulate S
 circulation S
 circumference B3
 circumstances T3, B2
 circus T5
 civil T3, B2
 civilization B2, G
 class T1, B1, S
 classic T4
 classical B3
 classification B2
 climate T3, B2
 climax B3
 clinic B3
 club T2, G
 coffee T2, G
 coincide B3
 collapse B3, S
 collection T3, B2
 colonial T3, B2
 colony T2, B2, G
 color T1, B, S
 combat T4, B3
 combination T3, G, S
 combine T3, B2, G, S
 combustion B3
 comedy T5
 comfort T2, B3, G, B, R
 comfortable T2, B1, G
 common T1, B2, G, E, R
 command T1, B2
 commander T4, B2
 commence T3
 commerce B2, G
 commercial T3, B2
 commission T3
 commit T3
 communicate B2, S
 communication T4, S
 communist B2
 community T4
 compact T5, B3
 companion T2, G
 company T1, G, R
 comparative T5, G, S
 compare T2, B2, G, R, S
 comparison T4, B2, G, B, S
 compel T3, B2,
 competent B3
 complementary B3
 complete T1, B1, G, R, S
 complex B2, B, S
 complexion T5
 competition B2
 complication B2
 component S
 composition T4, G
 compound T5, S
 compulsion B2
 comprehend T4
 comrade T4
 concede B3
 conceive B3
 concentrate B3, S
 concentration S

concept B3
 concert T4
 conclude T3, S
 conclusion T5, S
 concrete B3
 condemn T3, B2
 condemnation B2
 condense S
 condition T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 conduct T2, B3, C, S
 conductor T5
 confer T4
 conference T4, B2
 confess T4, G
 confidence T3, B2, G
 confident B2, G
 confine B3
 confirm T4
 conflict T4, B2
 conform B3, S
 conformity S
 confuse T5, B2
 confusion T3, B2, G
 congratulate T5
 congregation T5
 congress T2
 conjunction B1
 connect B2, S
 connection T2, B
 conquer T2
 conqueror T3
 conquest T3
 consecutive B3
 conserve B3, S
 consistent B3
 conscience T3, B3, G
 conscious T4, G, B
 consequence T3, B2, S
 consequently T5, S
 consider T2, B1, G, S
 considerable T4
 consist T2, S
 conspiracy T5, B3
 constant T2, B2, S
 constitute T5, S
 constitution T3, B3
 construct T3, B2, S
 construction T4, B2, S
 consult T3, B2
 consume T4, G, S
 contact B2
 contain T1, G, S
 contaminate B3
 context B2
 continent T3, B2
 continental B2
 continue T1, B2.
 contract T3, B3, S
 contradict B3
 contrary T3, B3
 contrast T4, B2
 contribute T5, B2
 contribution B2
 control T2, B2, G, B, S
 controversy B3
 convenience T5, B2, G
 convenient T3, B2
 convention T3, B2, G
 converge B3
 conversation T3, B2, G

conversely T5, S
 conversion S
 convert T4, S
 convex B3
 convince T3, B3
 co-ordinate B3, S
 copy T2, G, B, R
 cordial T3
 corporation T5
 correct T2, B1, G, R, S
 correlate B3, S
 correspond T4, B3, S
 corrupt T4, B3
 cosmology B3
 courage T2, B2, R
 course T1, G, R
 courteous T5
 courtesy T5
 coward T3
 cowardice G
 create T2, B2
 creation T4, B2
 creature T2, B2, G
 credible B3
 credit T3, B3, B
 crime T3, B2, G, B
 criminal B2, G
 crisis B3
 critic B2
 crucial B3
 cruel T2, B2, G, B
 cruelty T4, B2
 crystal T4
 cube T5, B3
 cultivate T3, B2, G
 cultural B2
 culture B2
 cumulative S
 cure T2, B2, G
 curious G
 current T2, B2, G, S
 curtain T2, B1, G
 curve T3, B2, G, S
 cycle S
 cylinder T5
 dance T1, G, R
 date T1, R
 debate T3, B2
 decade S
 decide T1, B2, R
 decimal S
 decision T4, B
 declare T2, G
 decline B3
 decoration T5
 dedicate T5
 defect T5, S
 defend T2, G
 defense T3, G
 deficient B3, S
 deficiency S
 define S
 definition B2, S
 deliberate B3
 delicate T3, B3, B
 delicious T4
 democratic B2
 demonstrate B2, S
 demonstration B2
 dense T4, B2, S
 density B2, S
 dental B3

department T3, B2, G
 depend T2, G
 dependent B2, G, B
 deposit T3, B3, S
 depression B3
 descend T2
 descendant B3
 describe T2, R
 description T3, B2, G
 desert T2, B2, G
 desperate T4
 destroy T4, B1, G, R, S
 destruction T3, B2, G, B, S
 detail T4, B2, G
 detain T4
 detect S
 detergent B3
 determine T2, G, S
 deviate B3, S
 devote T3, B3,
 diagnose B3
 diagonal B3, S
 diagram B2, S
 diameter B2
 dictate T5
 dictionary G
 diet T5
 differ T3, S
 difference T1, S
 different T1, B1, B, S
 differentiate S
 difficult T2, B1, G, R, S
 difficulty T3, B1, S
 digest B2
 dignified T5
 dignity T4
 dimension S
 diminish T5, S
 diplomat B3
 direct T1, B2, G, R, S
 direction T2, B2, G, B, S
 director T4, G
 disappear T2
 disappoint T3, G, R
 disaster T5, B3
 disc B3
 discipline T5, G
 discourage T4
 discover T4
 discovery T3, B2, B
 discriminate B3
 discuss T4, G
 discussion T5, B2, G, B
 disgrace T3
 disperse T4, B3
 display T3
 dispose T3
 disposition T5
 dispute T3, B2
 dissolve T3, B2, S
 distance T1, G, B, R, S
 distant T2, B3, G, S
 distinct T3
 distinguish T3, B3, G
 distribute T5, B2, S
 distribution T5, B2, B, S
 district T2, B2, G
 diverge B3, S
 divergence S
 divide T1, B2, G, R, S
 dividend B3
 divine T2, S

division T3, B2, B, S
 divorce T4, B3
 dock T4
 doctor T1, B1, G, R
 doctrine B3
 dollar T2, G, R
 domestic T3, B3
 dominion T4
 dozen T2, B2, G, S
 dragon T3
 drama B3
 dynamic B3
 echo T2
 eclipse B3
 economic B2
 economy B3
 education T3, B2, G, B
 effect T2, B2, G, B, S
 effective B2, S
 efficiency T4, B2, S
 efficient B2, G, S
 effort T2, B2, G, S
 elastic G
 election T3, B2, G
 electric T3, B1, G, B, R
 electricity B1, G, S
 electrode B3
 electronic S
 elegant T4
 element T3, S
 elephant T4, B1, G
 elevate T4
 eliminate S
 eloquence T5
 embrace T3
 emerge B3, S
 emigrate B3
 emit S
 emotion B2
 emperor T3, B2
 empire T2, B2, G
 empirical B3
 encourage T3, B2
 enemy T1, B1, G, R
 energetic B2
 energy T4, B2, S
 engineer T4
 enormous T3, B2, B
 enter T1
 entertain T3, B2
 entertainment T5
 enthusiasm T5, B3
 entirely B2, S
 entrance T2
 envelope T4, B1, G
 epidemic B3
 equal T1, B1, G, B, S
 equation B3, S
 equator B3
 equipment B2, S
 equivalent B2, S
 erect T2, B3
 error T2, B2, B
 escape T1, B1, G, R
 especially T2, B2, S
 essence B3
 essential T5, B2, G, S
 establish T2, S
 establishment T5, B2
 esteem T3
 estimate T4, S
 eternal T3

evaluate S
 evidence T4, B2, S
 evident T3, B2, S
 exact T2, B2, G, R, S
 examination T3, B1, G
 examine T2, G, S
 example T2, B1, G, B, R, S
 exceed T3, S
 excellent B3
 except T1, B1, G, R, S
 exception T4, B2, S
 excess T4, G, S
 excessive T5
 excite T3, B3, G
 excitement T5, G
 exclaim T3
 exclude B3, S
 exclusive T4
 exclusively S
 excuse T2, B1, G, R
 execute T4, B3
 executive T5
 exercise T1, G, R
 exhibit T4, B3
 exile T5
 exist T4, B2, G, R, S
 existence T4, B2, G, B
 expansion B2, S
 expedition T4, B3
 expel T5, B3
 experience T2, B2, G, B
 experiment T5, B2
 expire T4
 explain T2, B1, G, S
 explanation T5, G, S
 explode B2, G
 explore T4, B2, G
 export T5, B2, G
 express T1, B2, G, R
 expression T5, B2, G
 extend T1, B2, G, S
 extension T5, G, S
 extensively T5, S
 external S
 extra T4, G
 extract T5
 extraordinary T4, G
 extreme T2, B2, G, S
 extremely T3, S
 fable T4
 face T1, B1, G, S
 fact T1, B1, G, B, S
 factor S
 false T2, B3, S
 familiar T2, G
 family T1, B1, G, B
 famous T1, B1, G
 fan T2
 fascinating B3
 fault T2
 favor T1, G
 favorable T3, B2, G
 favorite T2, B2, G
 federal T5
 federation B3
 fertile T4, B2, B
 festival T4, B2
 fiber T5, B3
 fiction B3
 fig T4

figure T1, B2, G
 film T5, B2, G
 filter B3
 final T2, B2
 finally T2, B2
 finance B2
 financial B2
 finite B3
 firm T1, B2, G
 fix T1, S
 flexible B2
 fluctuate B3
 focus B3
 football T5
 force T1, B2, G, S
 form T1, B2, S
 formula S
 fortunate T3, G
 forest T1, G
 foundation T3, B2
 fountain T2
 fraction T5, S
 fragile B3
 fragment T1
 frank T2
 fraud T5
 frequent T2, B2, G, B, S
 frequency S
 fruit T1, B1, G, B
 frustrate B3
 function T5, B2
 fundamental S
 funeral T3, G
 fungus B3
 future T2, B1, G
 galaxy B3
 gallant T4
 gallery T4
 gallon T5
 gallop T3
 gang T5
 garage G
 gas B1, G
 gasoline T3
 general T1, B2, G, B, R, S
 generation T3, B3
 generalize B2
 generous T3, B3, G
 genetics B3
 genius T4, B3
 genuine T5, B2
 geography T4, B2
 geology B3
 geometric B2
 geometry B2
 germ B2
 giant T2
 globe T3, B3
 glorify T5
 glorious T2
 glory T2, G
 govern T3, G
 government T1, B1, G, B, R, S
 governor T2
 grace T1
 gravity B3
 gradual T3, B2, S
 graduate T4, S
 graduation T4
 granite T5

gratitude T4
 group T2, S
 guardian T5
 habit T3, B1, G
 hero T2, B2
 harmony B3
 heroic T4, B2
 heroine B2
 hesitate T5, B2, G
 hesitation B2, G
 historic T5
 history T2, B1, G, B, R
 honest T2, B1
 honour B3, R
 honorable T3
 horizon T4, B2
 horizontal B2, G, S
 hostility B2
 horrible T3
 hour T1, R
 horror T4
 hospital T3, G, B
 hostile T5, B2
 hotel T3, G
 human T2, B2, G
 humanity B3
 humid B3
 humour B3
 hygiene B3
 hypothesis T2, B3
 idea T2, B1, G, B, R
 ideal T4, B2, G
 idealism B2,
 identify S
 identity S
 ideology B3
 ignorance T4
 ignorant T3, B3
 ignore B3
 illuminate B3
 illusion B3
 illustrate T5
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