PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMAR AS THE FRAMEWORK OF TEFL RESEARCH. PART 19. CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FORM OF RULES OF LINGUISTIC AND PEDAGOGICAL GRAMMARS

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The nineteenth paper in the series continues to discuss the correlation between linguistic (LG) and pedagogical (PG) grammars in the development of communicative grammar skills. This time, the author addresses the issue of the form of LG and PG rules, aiming to answer a series of questions. What is the general attitude of researchers towards using LG grammar information in the classroom? Are LG rules effective for grammar teaching in their current linguistic form? How can their efficiency be increased by changing their form, bearing in mind the psychological nature of the process of developing grammar skills? An analysis of contemporary literature on this topic revealed a significant shift in attitude towards explicit focus on linguistic form in teaching, moving away from the zero tolerance of LG information in communicative language classrooms of the 1970s and 1980s. While maintaining strict adherence to the communicative nature of teaching and the prevalence of meaning-focused tasks in the classroom, researchers also acknowledge the importance of explicit attention to form for language acquisition. Stressing the teacher's role as a facilitator, the authors praise the use of pre-task modelling techniques, which positively impact learners' attention to linguistic forms and facilitate second language skill development. Conversely, the author cautions against the uncritical revival of grammar-translation techniques, asserting that PG's primary objective is to foster students' communication abilities rather than their comprehension of LG structure. Based on this, he suggests that PG can disregard the principles of LG structure and establish its own rules, which may differ from those of LG. The author convincingly demonstrates the validity of this principle using examples from the pre-zero-tolerance era and shows the potential of types of

pedagogical information such as models and algorithms as specific forms of PG rules. The author suggests a number of requirements for PG rules, promising to extend this list in his next contribution to the series.

Problem statement. *Introduction to the series*. Numerous research projects in teaching foreign languages, specifically in the development of grammar competence, often seem to lack a common framework to integrate them into a single area with uniform approaches, terminology and criteria. It accounts for the *current importance* of the issue under consideration.

The aim. The *object* of this part of the series is outlining the main approaches to the relationship between the rules of the linguistic grammar, on the one hand, and those of the pedagogical grammar, on the other. Thus, the *subject* remains the analysis of the correlation of linguistic and pedagogical grammar. Its *aim* is to outline a general approach to the solution of the abovementioned issue. This is the nineteenth (see the previous issues of this journal [5]) in a series of articles focusing on the Pedagogical Grammar issue [2; 3; 7], where the author, basing on the theoretical models and research data, is discussing the various aspects of the problem.

An analysis of the current research and a presentation of the main material. Nassaji [10] presented a timeline of research on form-focused instruction, highlighting the significant shifts in the perception of instruction's role, from the 'zero position' of the early 1980s to a more positive view of its potential. Samuda [12] argues that a successful task-based language learning classroom requires teachers to act as mediators between meaning-focused tasks and an explicit focus on linguistic form. The fundamental argument is that meaning-focused tasks can engender a desire to express oneself, but that explicit attention to form is also crucial for language acquisition. In this regard, it is essential for the teacher to act as a facilitator. As demonstrated by Kim's research [8], there is irrefutable evidence that pre-task modelling positively impacts learners' attention to linguistic forms and facilitates second

language development. Toth's [15] data suggest that teachers have the potential to facilitate L2 learning by directing attention to target structures and providing procedural assistance for processing output. This view is corroborated by other research results [6; 9; 11; 13; 14], which indicate a growing consensus that form-focused instruction facilitates learners' acquisition of linguistic features in communicative or content-based instruction. These features may not be acquired without guidance.

As PG's primary objective is to enhance students' communication abilities rather than their understanding of LG structure, it can disregard the principles of LG construction and establish its own rules, which may differ from those of LG. For example, D. Wilkins [16], having examined the LG rule on the formation of feminine adjectives from masculine adjectives in French, derived six variants of this rule's application, presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The formation of feminine adjectives from masculine adjectives in French. The approximate pronunciation is given in square brackets, without reference to any phonetic transcription system.

Variant	Masculine	Feminine
1	laid [le]	laide [led]
2	rouge [ruzh]	rouge [ruzh]
3	bas [ba]	basse [bas]
4	frais [frei]	fraiche [fresh]
5	long [lon]	longue [long]
6	leger [lezhe]	legere [lezher]

The rule is as follows: feminine adjectives are formed by adding -e to the masculine form. However, masculine adjectives ending in -e do not change in the feminine form. This is followed by instructions for variants 3–6 as special cases of the rule.

Having analysed this linguistic rule, which is also traditionally used as a PG rule, D. Wilkins [16] concluded that it could only be applied in teaching based on written language, i.e. when students see

words in graphic form (reading and writing). It does not make sense when teaching oral speech, since the last letter in French words is not pronounced. Therefore, when hearing words (masculine adjectives) only, it is impossible to determine the final consonant in variants 1, 3–6. Consequently, the rule is completely useless. D. Wilkins proposes a PG rule that differs from the LG rule. The masculine form is formed from the feminine form by dropping the final consonant (some adjectives have the same form in both the masculine and feminine). This form of the rule has clear advantages: instead of six variants of adjective formation, there are now only four: (1) see variant 2 in Table 1; (2) see variants 1, 3, 4 and 6 in Table 1; (3) adjectives ending in -n in the feminine form (nasalised in the masculine form); and (4) adjectives ending in -v, which change to -f in the masculine form.

The pedagogical rules developed by D. Wilkins [16] enable us to create a model (see Figure 1) and an algorithm (see Figure 2 below) for carrying out this grammatical action. These greatly simplify the process of finding your way around for students compared to using Table 1.
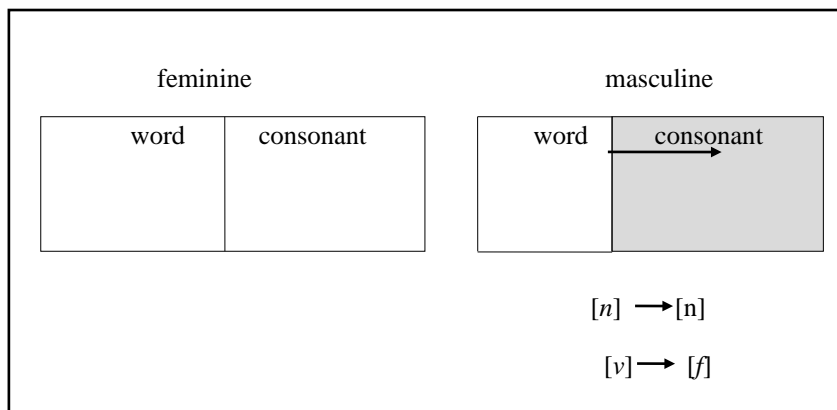

Figure 1. Model for forming masculine adjectives from feminine adjectives in French.

The simplicity and accessibility of the model and algorithm distinguish them favourably from the LG rule (see Table 1), as the algorithm includes only two steps, whereas the LG rule includes six. This allows us to predict their effectiveness in the learning process.
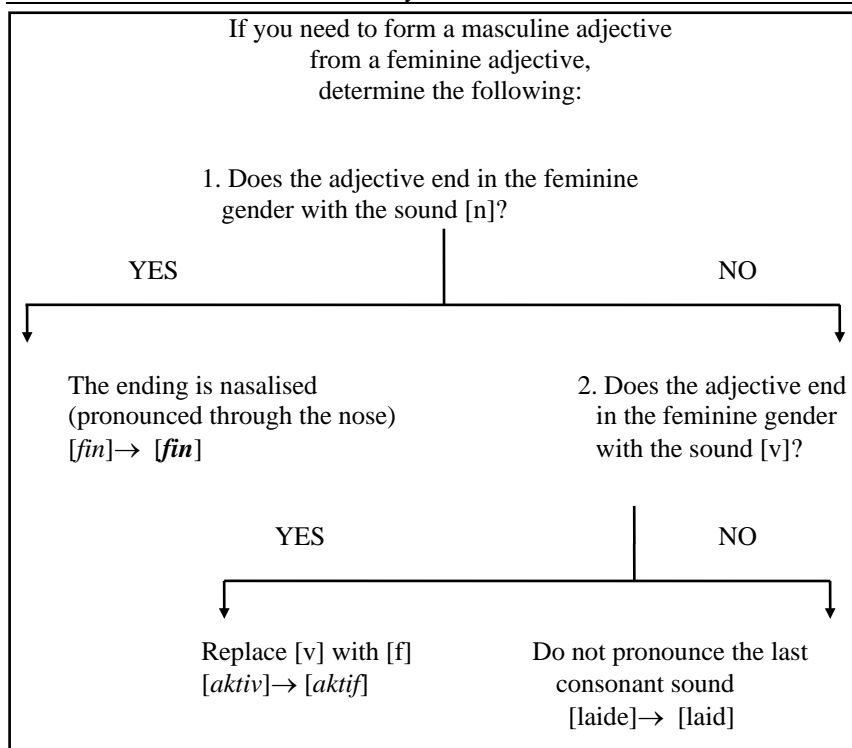
If you need to form a masculine adjective
from a feminine adjective,
determine the following:

1. Does the adjective end in the feminine
gender with the sound [n]?

YES   NO

The ending is nasalised   2. Does the adjective end
(pronounced through the nose)   in the feminine gender
[*fin*]→ [***fin***]   with the sound [v]?

YES   NO

Replace [v] with [f]   Do not pronounce the last
[*aktiv*]→ [*aktif*]   consonant sound
                                               [laide]→ [laid]

*Figure 2. Algorithm for forming masculine adjectives from feminine adjectives
(in spoken French).*

Interrogative and negative constructions. In LG, this information is scattered across different sections describing various tense forms and can be represented as the following system of sub-rules: (*S* – subject, *be* – verb *to be*, *have (got)* – verb *have (got)*, *V* – main verb (infinitive without *to*), *wh* – question word, *do* – auxiliary verb *do*, *Ving* – verb in *ing* form, *Ved* – second form of the verb, *Ven* – third form of the verb, *was/were* – past tense of the verb *to be, had* – past tense of the verb *have, will/shall* – auxiliary verbs *will / shall, been* – third form of the verb *to be,* X – the rest of the sentence): **1)** ***Present Indefinite:*** **1a)** S + *be* + X® *be* + S + *X?*® *wh* + *be* + S + *X?;* **1b)** *S + have (got) + X*® *have* +*S* + *got* + *X?*® *wh* + *have* + *S* + *got* + *X;* **1c)** *S + V + X*® *do* + *S* + *V* + *X?*® *wh* + *do* + S + *V* + *X?;* **2)** ***Present Continuous:*** **S** + *be* + *Ving* + X® *be* + *S* + *Ving* + *X?*® *wh* + *be* + *S* + *Ving?;* **3)** ***Present Perfect:*** *S* + *have* + *Ven* + X® *have* + *S* + *Ven* + *X?*® *wh* + *have* + *S* + *Ven* + *X?;* **4)** ***Past Indefinite:*** **4a)** *S* + *Ved* + X® *did* + *V* + *X?*® *wh* + *did* + *V* + *X?;* **4b)** *S* + *was(were)* + *X*® *was(were)*

+ S + X?® wh + was(were) + X?; **5)** *Past Perfect: S + had +Ven+ X®* *had + S + Ven + X?® wh + had + S +Ven + X?;* **6)** *Past Continuous: S + was(were) + Ving + X® was(were) + Ving + X?® wh + was(were) + Ving + X?;* **7)** *Future Simple: S + will(shall) + V + X® will(shall) + S + V + X?® wh = will(shall) + S + V + X?;* **8)** *Future Continuous: S + will/shall + be + V + X® will/shall + S + be + V + X?® wh + will/shall + S + be + V + X?;*   **9)** *Future Perfect: S + will/shall + have + Ven + X® will/shall + S + have + Ven + X?® wh + will + have + Ven + X?;* **10)** *Present Perfect Continuous: S + have + been + Ving + X® have + S + been + Ving + X?® wh + have + S + been + Ving + X?;* **11)** *Past Perfect Continuous: S + had + been + Ving + X® had + S + been + Ving + X?® wh + had + S + been + Ving + X?*

Thus, there are 28 rules for forming interrogative sentences with basic types of verbs in the indicative mood (not including modal verbs). This does not take into account the rules for constructing special questions to the subject. In the latter case, the number of rules would increase to 39 for the indicative mood alone.

However, in PG, all these rules can be reduced to one. 'When constructing a question (except questions to the subject), move the operator to the beginning of the sentence (before the subject) and, if it is a special question, place the interrogative word before the operator.' List of operators: *be, have*, modal verbs. If there is more than one auxiliary verb in a sentence (e.g. *have been waiting*), the operator is the first one.' This rule is even simpler when presented as a model (see Fig. 3).
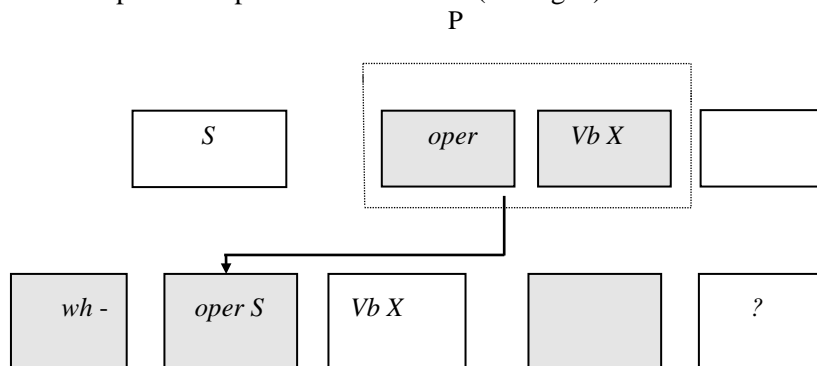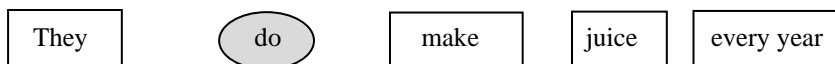

Figure 3. General model for asking general and specific questions (except for questions about the subject) in all verb tenses. Key: S – subject, P – predicate, oper – operator, Vb – rest of the predicate, X – rest of the sentence, wh – interrogative word.

This model is valid for structures 1–11 presented above. One question that may arise concerns the Present/Past Indefinite, where operators are usually absent in affirmative sentences. To unify such structures, the concept of a 'phantom' operator can be introduced, which is implicitly present in affirmative structures. In the model, this is introduced as follows [1]:

They		do		make		juice		every year

where it is shown that the operator DO can, in principle, be used in an affirmative structure to highlight the verb emphatically, this is absent in neutral statements but can always be restored, in a similar way to the linking verb in Ukrainian: 'Це (є) книга – 'This (is) a book.' For this rule to function effectively, students must be familiar with the concept of 'operator' from the outset of their education.

This example enables us to establish another requirement for PG rules: that they should be simple and clear. A PG rule should be as conceptually simple as possible and should not contain excessive information. The requirement for clarity means that a PG rule must be accessible to a specific group of learners; therefore, it is advisable to avoid terminology that could cause learner's entropy. This may even apply to basic linguistic terms. For instance, in a study involving 12-year-old students [1], the participants struggled with the concept of a 'subject'. These problems were solved by presenting an affirmative sentence model (with a verb as the predicate) in symbols accessible to the students (see Fig. 4).
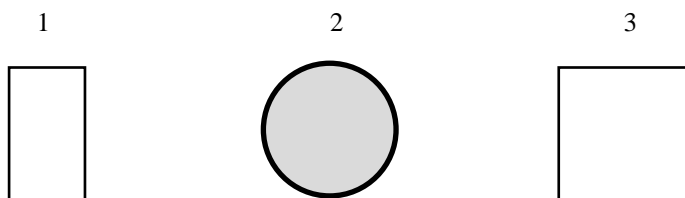

Figure 4. Model of an affirmative sentence in an experimental study on the formation of sentence structure skills (with the verb be as the predicate) [4].

As a result of exercises based on this model, students successfully learnt how to form interrogative sentences using the verb *to be,* without the need for grammatical terminology. For example, when learning the structure of a general question with *be* as the predicate, test subject A responded by pointing to the model when asked what to do to ask a question: 'You need to put the yellow one in front' (in the model, consisting of cards of different colours, the verb *be* was highlighted in yellow) [1]. It is entirely justified to avoid grammatical terminology when developing skills if the students' conceptual system does not include such terminology, since the PG itself is not the goal of learning, but merely a means to achieve it: forming grammatical skills and incorporating them into the grammatical mechanisms of speech.

This allows us to draw some preliminary conclusions about the relationship between the forms of LG and PG rules. Since LG and PG have different objectives (describing the structure of the language and developing students' communication skills, respectively), there is no reason for the form of LG and PG rules to coincide. The information contained in LG is undoubtedly useful for teaching purposes. However, when selecting information for classroom use, consideration should be given to the potential positive impact of such information on the development of grammatical mechanisms of speech. The form in which it is presented should consider the teaching purpose and objectives, stage, and time allocation. PG rules should also be conceptually simple and accessible to a specific group of students.

The next article in this series will discuss the prospect of formulating a more complete list of requirements for PG rules.

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ПЕДАГОГІЧНА ГРАМАТИКА ЯК ФРЕЙМОВЕ ПОНЯТТЯ ДЛЯ ДОСЛІДЖЕНЬ У ГАЛУЗІ МЕТОДИКИ НАВЧАННЯ ІНОЗЕМНИХ МОВ. ЧАСТИНА 19. СПІВВІДНОШЕННЯ ФОРМИ ПРАВИЛ ЛІНГВІСТИЧНОЇ ТА ПЕДАГОГІЧНОЇ ГРАМАТИК

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Дев'ятнадцята стаття серії продовжує обговорення співвідношення лінгвістичної (ЛГ) та педагогічної (ПГ) граматик у процесі формування іншомовних граматичних навичок. Цього разу автор розглядає питання формулювання правил ЛГ та ПГ, прагнучи відповісти на низку запитань. Яким є загальне ставлення дослідників до використання інформації ЛГ у навчальній аудиторії? Чи є правила ЛГ у тому вигляді, в якому вони сформульовані в лінгвістиці, ефективними для навчання граматики? Як можна підвищити цю ефективність, змінивши їхню форму з урахуванням психологічної природи процесу формування граматичних навичок?

Аналіз сучасної літератури з цієї проблеми виявив значну зміну в ставленні науковців до усвідомлення учнями мовної форми в процесі навчання, відхід від нульової толерантності до інформації ЛГ на заняттях з іншомовної комунікації 1980-х років. Декларуючи відданість ідеям комунікативного спрямування навчання та перевагу завдань, орієнтованих на значення, дослідники одночасно визнають важливість усвідомлення форми для засвоєння мови. Підкреслюючи роль вчителя як посередника, автори високо оцінюють ефективність методу моделювання перед виконанням завдання, який позитивно впливає на розуміння учнями мовних форм і сприяє розвитку навичок та вмінь іншомовного мовлення. З іншого боку, автор застерігає від некритичного відродження прийомів граматико-перекладного методу, зазначаючи, що основною метою ПГ залишається розвиток комунікативної компетентності учнів, а не розуміння ними структури ЛГ. Виходячи з цього, він припускає, що ПГ може ігнорувати

принципи побудови структури ЛГ і встановлювати свої власні правила, які можуть відрізнятися від правил ЛГ. Автор переконливо демонструє обгрунтованість цього принципу, використовуючи приклади з доби, що передувала нульовій толерантності ЛГ, і показує потенціал типів педагогічної інформації (моделі та алгоритма) як конкретних форм правил ПГ. Автор формулює кілька вимог до правил ПГ, обіцяючи розширити цей перелік у своїй наступній статті в цій серії.

Ключові слова: *завдання, орієнтовані на значення, завдання, орієнтовані на форму, навчання іноземних мов, правила лінгвістичної граматики, правила педагогічної граматики.*

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