0. BACKGROUND INFORMATION[1]

A reader is usually a bridge for someone with some knowledge of a language to develop an ability to work with written texts. As has often been the case, the "'leap' between any course … and reading a text, even a newspaper, was too great and dispiriting for most learners."[2] MRM Inc. has responded to this situation with the production of numerous readers in the less-commonly taught languages.[3] As Jack Murphy's preface to our first reader stated: "Textbook [language] is of necessity carefully graded and kept within strict controls in order that the elements of the language may be properly assimilated by the foreign learner. Newspaper text is, however, under no such limitations, and the transition from the contrived language of the textbooks to [authentic texts] can be a rather jolting one."[4]

There is a whole continuum of readers that might be produced, from a basic introduction to reading the language to parallel texts. There could be topical readers (limited strictly to, say, political affairs, or some ongoing war) or author readers (limited to the work of one prolific writer). Furthermore, texts may be derived from newspaper articles or transcriptions of spoken materials, all the way through prose works. The range is virtually limitless, but the decision as to what kind of reader to undertake must be weighed against materials already available, i.e., what fulfills a need in the field. The bulk of our output has been the general reader, but others might well be considered.

The following are guidelines (not mandates) for developing a reader. Your project-specific goals and reader design should be discussed with management. We are mindful that user needs, individual preferences, or language differences may lead each team and product in different directions.

In working through this document, bear in mind that spoken or voice materials (i.e., transcriptions of radio or television broadcasts, or of films) may be included in a reader.[5] In some instances, such as Arabic or Chinese dialects, or where no print media exist (e.g., Ibo, where the press has been suppressed), or when publications cannot be obtained, such oral texts may provide the total corpus. To what degree does preparation of such parallel (or differ from) what is required of a reader project? It should be noted that radio or TV recordings may

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[1] The authors and director are grateful to the following staff for their many helpful comments and suggestions: Allen J. Frank, Steven Harrell, Marti Hawkins, Jack Jones, Oumie Joof, Karl A. Krippes, Mulugeta Melles, Sao Tern Moeng, John D. Murphy, and Phillip Thomas.

[2] *Teach Yourself Bengali*. The English Universities Press, 1993.

[3] As of September 1996, 34 such publications have been produced in 33 languages (see Appendix One).

[4] Mulugeta Kebede and John D. Murphy. *Amharic Newspaper Reader*. Dunwoody Press, 1984.

[5] As was the case for some selections in the Haitian Creole, Kapampangan, and Hiligaynon readers.

be equivalent to written texts in that, apart from interviews and spontaneous speech or dialogs, scripts are read from previously prepared written material.

1. GUIDING PRINCIPLES: USER-FRIENDLY, USER-ORIENTED

1.1. One means of considering the user is to <u>tie the reader to existing materials in English</u> (comprehensive language-to-English dictionary and adequate grammar) if such are <u>readily obtainable</u> and an evaluation has been made of their <u>usefulness</u>. "Availability" means the texts are <u>not rare</u> and are either <u>books in print</u>, which can be bought from or ordered through a local bookstore, or are held by many university libraries and <u>can be legally photocopied</u>. "Usefulness" implies that the student can understand and deal with the information provided, e.g., a technical linguistic grammar or a dictionary organized by root words may not be particularly user-friendly. Research time will increase proportionate to the need to develop all information relevant to decoding the selections.

1.2. The reader must fill a needed area or gap in the field, i.e., there is nothing like it "out there." A search through the academic community and of the literature available in and on the language should be made to insure this project does not duplicate something already or about to be published. At a minimum a Library of Congress catalog search should be conducted.

1.3. The reader should be as <u>student- or user-friendly</u> as warranted by his or her work and life situation. [See notes on adult vs. child education.[6]] The developers should put themselves in the place of the user, in terms of training, motivation, and interest. Within cost-effective parameters, if the production team must look up requisite information, all (or most) of it could be included to save time and frustration on the part of the user.

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[6] Children :   (= pedagogy)   Adults :   (= androgogy)
are sponges   educated professionals
are being prepared   are already functioning
are told <u>when</u> to learn   decide when to learn
are told <u>what</u> to learn   know what to learn
depend on teachers   are self-directed
minimize experience   are their own resources
master prescribed content (e.g., string beads)   learn thoroughly (what beads are)
are motivated externally   use internal motivation
   (e.g., family pressure, the law)   want to better themselves
respond to negative motivation   need a lot of feedback
respond to rote learning   need various physical formats and variety
willing to learn parts (bit and pieces)   want materials to form a coherent whole
can be teased; will cheat (if possible)   use answers to learn, not cheat for shortcuts

In part, the consideration of the user relates to <u>language difficulty</u>, i.e., how "foreign" is it (to the first, second, third or fourth power[7])? A reader in a Romance Language (Spanish, Italian, French) may supply a reasonably sophisticated user almost 50% for nothing (because there is so much cognate vocabulary).[8]

One of the most important factors should be the **interest** level of the selections. Interesting material serves to motivate the user to persist in the study of the language, no matter how difficult or complex the readings may become. Other factors discussed below should relate to this, namely: breadth and depth of **coverage**, **timelessness**, and **country-relatedness**.

1.4. A general newspaper reader should cover <u>every style and genre</u> encountered in the media of the country or language under study appropriate to or fitting the level at which the project is aimed.

     <u>Styles</u> range from the purest form of the language to "translationese" from English, Russian or some other major trade language. Note that more than one kind of translation may be involved (i.e., from a foreign language as opposed to another local language); in either case, the word order, the structure, and/or the vocabulary may differ from the appropriate language.

     <u>Genres</u> include news of every type (e.g., economic, political, social, accident, natural disaster), editorials, weather reports, sporting events, humor or jokes, legal notices, advertisements,[9] letters to the editor, recipes, prose, and poetry. Note that there might be a "pot boiler" within the culture -- article topics that continually reappear in the press, e.g., AIDS throughout the world, or rapes in mosque outhouses in Malaysia. Similarly, some papers have a format consistently followed, e.g., almost half of every Oromo newspaper consists of legal notices -- hence one selection in the Oromo Reader (#5) offered some samples so the learner could understand and cope with the formalized style of grammar and vocabulary within these.

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[7] See the DLI (Defense Language Institute), FSI (Foreign Service Institute) and ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) classification of languages into four categories, based on the length of time it would take an English-speaking learner to achieve basic fluency. Examples:

Category I	Category II	Category III	Category IV
<u>6 months</u>	<u>6-9 months</u>	<u>12 months</u>	<u>24 months</u>
Afrikaans	German	Albanian	Arabic
Dutch	!Indonesian/Malay	Cambodian	Chinese
French	Romanian	Greek	Japanese
Spanish	Moldavian	Russian	Korean
!Swahili	!Urdu	Armenian	

[8] One must be wary of "false friends," words that seem cognate, but have drastically different meanings, e.g., Spanish **grocerias** = gross or rude things, not groceries, **sopas** = soup, not soap!

[9] Advertisements are one means of obtaining examples of the imperative, a grammatical construction that is otherwise limited or non-existent in the press.

In the selection process, staff should be mindful of obtaining representative samples of <u>major grammatical constructions and basic vocabulary</u>.

1.5. As many articles as possible should be "<u>timeless</u>" so that the book does not become seriously outdated in a few years. This means selecting articles that could (more or less) be true in the year 2010 as they are today.[10] An exception should be made for major issues affecting the country (ongoing war, revolution, spelling or monetary reform, etc.), but even here, given their supposed frequency, the article should be chosen for <u>excellence of coverage</u> of that issue so that it will be <u>of interest</u> to the user even when the issue has long since been resolved. Bear in mind that timelessness is only one of many criteria, not one of the most important. Good material, especially at higher levels (3-3+), should be included in the overall collection.

1.6. The majority of the selections should be <u>directly related</u> to the country, culture, and language-group under consideration, e.g., an article about the kidnapping of a diplomat from that country's embassy overseas is fine, but not one about that of some foreign power. Exceptions could be made for <u>articles of great interest</u> that indicate that the press is not "provincial" (an impression that overadherence to this principle may leave with the user).

1.7. The developers should check if national standards or guidelines have been set by any group. For example, ALTA (the African Language Teachers Association) in conjunction with the NFLTC (National Foreign Language Training Center) have been developing standards for the teaching of Swahili, Hausa and Yoruba. Evaluating the applicability of these standards to our purposes may help promote consistency.

2. TYPES (FORMATS) OF READERS:

Based on speed of production (which must be tied to extant "cited" materials), project possibilities are presented in Table 1 below from quickest to slowest. It is important to note here that while there is ideally only <u>one textbook</u> selected for learning a language,[11] there can be <u>any number of readers</u>. While a reader, with the exception of a introductory reading course, <u>must assume some background in the language</u> on the part of a student, there can be a <u>series of</u>

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[10] Normally MRM Inc. discourages editing, especially on the part of non-native-speaking staff (see Appendix Six, §IV). However, if done correctly, substituting "the president" for "President Bush" is one means of making an article less time-embedded.

[11] That is to say, a teacher usually selects a single textbook (even if many are available) as the basis for his/her curriculum. Since textbooks rarely agree in the pattern or manner of treatment of topics, grammar, etc., it is difficult to jockey from one to another throughout a language program or course.

readers (introductory, intermediate and advanced) and these could represent a variety from glossed to parallel texts. Beginning readers could start out presenting the language in "bite-sized bits," while advanced readers could cover given topics (literary or technical) or even well-known authors.

BASIC TEXTS present a series of readings or a collection of texts with no notes, glossary, or translation. The only reason such a book should be produced in this day and age is if texts in the language are hard to come by. Usually, anyone with sufficient savvy can find plenty of language materials, e.g., via the Internet, Library of Congress, etc.

PARALLEL TEXTS have the English side-by-side with the language (usually paragraphs are matched up, so some blank space in one column or another is inevitable). No individual vocabulary is supplied, but an alphabetical index of words (generated by a concordance program) may be given in the back; this may (or may not) be cross-referenced to the reading, line, paragraph or page in which they occurred. Such selections should be interesting and contain material that could attract people interested in literature, even if not the language itself. If a combination of 2.5 and 2.6 appears to be necessary, thought should be given to developing a glossed text.

GLOSSED TEXTS have individual vocabularies, so the user is spared recourse to one or several dictionaries. Words that occurred in an earlier selection are not reglossed (principle of first occurrence); the translations are in a separate section after the reading selections; a composite glossary is supplied; this may (or may not) be cross-referenced to the reading and/or paragraph in which they occurred. Each successive phase (i.e., 2.7 through 2.14) takes more and more time in product development.

The treatment of vocabulary differs from project to project. It could be on a whole word or phrase basis, e.g., development - is being encouraged, letting the user know the literal meaning of full occurrences in this particular context. More analytical users require (or are interested to know) detailed information about the formation and use of each word and element, e.g., after presentation of the meaning of development, in indented explanations under that entry, the root develop and the suffix -ment would be treated; in the case of is being encouraged, information about the auxiliary verb, the progressive suffix (-ing) and passive (-ed) would be given, cross-referenced to the appropriate grammatical sections (in the book or the cited materials). Such a method could be followed throughout the book, or this format could be dropped in later selections (i.e., to "wean" the user).

Some authors prefer to include a dictionary definition (within reason)[12] of the root word so that the user becomes acquainted with the whole gamut of meanings. In such cases, if the word is used later in a different or extended meaning, it need not be treated there (under the principle of first occurrence).

The final type is a READING-ONLY TEXT, which teaches the language from scratch with no reference to the spoken word; it should be a self-contained course (i.e., with all grammatical and lexical coverage).

TABLE 1. TYPES OF READERS

TYPE	PRO	CON
2.1. Basic Texts (sometimes called a CHRESTOMATHY)	Very fast production time	User must be quite advanced or highly motivated, willing to look up all words and patterns with which one is unfamiliar; no means of checking one's work
2.2. Parallel texts -- no vocabulary or grammar	Fast production time	User must look up all words and patterns with which he/she is unfamiliar
2.3. Parallel texts with alphabetical unglossed index -- all words and grammar can be found in cited materials	Fast production time; user can gloss the index as he works through the readings	User must assume duties of a project researcher looking up all words and patterns with which he/she is unfamiliar
2.4. Parallel texts with alphabetical unglossed index -- footnotes provided for the words or grammar not found in cited materials	Reasonably fast production time	User must look up all other words and patterns with which he/she is unfamiliar
2.5. Parallel texts with alphabetical glossed index if lexicographic coverage is sparse for press usage	Book becomes more self-contained	Slower production time; user must look up all words and patterns with which he/she is unfamiliar
2.6. Parallel texts with grammatical outline if grammars fail to cover most constructions that occur	Book is almost self-contained	Slower production time; user still must take time to look up all patterns with which he/she is unfamiliar

[12] There must be some pre-established limit (perhaps up to five or six senses). Certainly all senses that would pertain to any selections within the reader and the most general meanings of the word. However, a word with twenty-six senses simply cannot be accommodated in full!

2.7. Glossed texts -- vocabulary in alpha-betical order	Easier to produce; user who knows a lot of vocabulary knows how to find unknown words; works well for a language without prefixes (i.e., roots and inflections occur in the same position)	Time spent in looking for an entry if reading is long; hard to handle if language is complex (e.g., with multiple prefixation) or has long alphabet or syllabary; format replicates composite glos-sary, which is in alphabe-tical order
2.8. Glossed texts -- vocabulary in order of occurrence[13]	Less time spent during first-time use in looking for an entry if most of the new vocabulary is unknown	Some frustration in finding a word if the user knows a lot of the vocabulary or reviews the selection later; user may need to reread the text to locate a word
2.9. Glossed texts -- each word is given a literal translation	Lets the user know the exact meaning in this context	does not prepare the user for secondary or extended meanings
2.10. Glossed texts -- each word is given a dictionary definition	Lets the user know the total range of meaning, not limited to just this context	Unlikely the user will remember all the meanings cited from the earlier occurrence
2.11. Glossed texts -- each word fully parsed	Complete information for more interested or analytical user	More time-consuming to produce than any other method
2.12. Glossed texts with grammatical outline tied to the texts	Book is self-contained	Preparers need thorough research into completeness of paradigms relating to all selections
2.13. Glossed texts with reference gram-mar (none is available in English)	Book is self-contained and can serve as a manual for construc-tions that did not come up in selections	Preparers must research all language constructions and paradigms
2.14. Reading-Only Textbook	Many users want to read (not speak) a language and do not want the conversation skills and vocabulary in standard courses	Difficult to plan and pro-duce; early texts should be in "bite-sized bits" (e.g., short headlines on similar topics) to introduce voca-bulary and grammar

[13] Note that most of the readers and textbooks on the market present material by order of occurrence. Of Zorc's six readers, Cebuano, Ilokano, Armenian, and Oromo are in occurrence order, whereas Tagalog and Hiligaynon are alphabetical. As discussed above, there are pros and cons for each method. To some degree, the peculiarities of a language may dictate (or suggest) which procedure is better for the user (e.g., the Malagasy Reader).

3. THE NITTY GRITTY

STAGE 1. BACKGROUND SURVEYS

Step 1. The editor should spend at least one-half to one full day reviewing the readers published by Dunwoody Press.

   Rationale: This step should make the editor familiar with a broad array of readers, some of which may be used as a model for the task at hand. The editor should also become familiar with the kind of reader he or she does **not** want to compile.

   Examples: See Appendix One for a complete list of readers through 1996. If the editor is charged with producing a basic reader, he or she may look to the *Azerbaijani Reader* (Murphy, 1993) as an example of a reader with brief selections suitable for the beginner and early intermediate user. Should the editor be asked to compile a reader that requires a basic introduction into the language and the grammar, the *Haitian Creole Reader* (Howe, 1990) or *Oromo Newspaper Reader* (Tucho, Zorc & Barna, 1996) could serve as models. Should there exist a 'standard' grammar for the source language and the editor feels that it is preferable to reference that grammar in his or her notes rather than undertaking to write a brief grammar, then the editor should see how such a situation was handled in the *Hindi Newspaper Reader* (Stone, 1990).
   On the 'negative' side, a better selection of articles or their arrangement may have averted the copious notes necessary for the *Papiamentu Reader* (Howe, 1993). Also, the compilers should avoid placing very short selections (see for example, the *Haitian Creole Reader, Selection Thirty* which is only one sentence) at the end of the reader.

Step 2. The editor should survey all materials already available in and on the language. Obtain (borrow, purchase or photocopy) essential dictionaries and grammatical treatments. Review these materials, compile a brief annotated bibliography, and select the ones to which your study will be tied (§1.1). These latter ones should then be studied in sufficient detail so that cross-references to them can be made.

This step should begin with a search of the computerized catalog at the Library of Congress (this can be provided by MRM researchers or over the Internet) and similar library or institutional catalogs. The search should be for both monolingual and bilingual dictionaries and glossaries, reference grammars,

handbooks and the like. Each item should be looked through carefully, after which a brief description should be written for future reference, etc.

> *Rationale*: This step is intended to make the editor become thoroughly familiar with the language resources for the source language. It may well be the case that the prospective editor already has a native or near-native grasp of the language, especially in his or her area of expertise. For the task of compiling a reader, however, the broad linguistic and cultural range to be covered in 40+ selections may very well require the editor to go beyond his or her specialty.

> *Examples* of this for the Turkmen language are given in Appendix Two.

Step 3. The editor should prepare a brief sketch of the source language (i.e., background information) and a grammatical outline of the language.

> *Rationale*: The purpose of this step is to begin to focus the editor's attention on the nature and structure of the source language. It is **not** being suggested that the editor should undertake to write a comprehensive grammatical treatise at this stage. Rather, the purpose is to have the editor write out a bare outline of the grammar, noting the parts of speech, major affixes, etc. and any special conditions existing in the language. It is hoped that with this information in mind and at hand that the editor will have a concrete understanding of the fine points of grammar, areas where specialized notes on the language may be in order, and the like. When the editor actually begins to select articles for the reader he or she may want to select one article over another (all else being equal) because it better demonstrates a point of grammar, etc.

> *Examples*: For an example of the nature of the source language see the Introduction to the *Papiamentu Reader*. For examples of a grammatical sketch see the *Azerbaijani Reader* or the various Philippine readers (Tagalog, Bikol, Cebuano, Ilokano, etc.).

Step 4. The editor should survey the major current periodicals (e.g., newspapers, magazines, journals) in the source language and select and make a list of those periodicals considered appropriate for the reader. If there is a very broad range of publications, it may be necessary to limit these to just a few numbers of each. If, on the other hand, there is only one paper (which may further limit language-oriented material to a single page or column), then obtain as many back issues as possible.

> *Rationale*: The purpose of this step is to familiarize the editor with the variety and structure of periodicals available. Because the

reader will require a number of different selections on different topics, the editor will not only need to know the general subject matter and target audience for each periodical (e.g., science for young people), but also where to (quickly) look for articles to fill in any 'gaps' in the reader. After this step is completed, the editor should have a clear understanding of the types and amounts of materials from which he or she has to select.

Examples: A list of newspapers in Turkmen and their basic content is provided in Appendix Three.

Step 5. The editor should peruse the selected periodicals to become intimately familiar with the contents and any potential problems. For example, if a non-Roman script is used, determine if the script or a transliteration will be employed.[14] If it is decided to go with the script, obtain and try-out a suitable font. If a modified Roman script is to be employed (heavy use of accent marks or IPA linguistic symbols) insure that all characters needed are available and reproducible. A sort program may have to be developed to insure that words are in the alphabetic order proper to the language.

Rationale: The purpose of this step is to enable the editor to have a clearer understanding of the content and style of the periodicals, and how these will be represented. This will be crucial for the steps that follow.

Examples: For English, an editor [assume he or she is a non-native English speaker] would not only want to become familiar with the major newspapers like the *New York Times*, the *Washington Post*, the *Chicago Tribune*, and magazines like *Time* and *Newsweek*, but also with papers such a the *Wall Street Journal* (which may have been ignored because of it business orientation) or *USA Today* (for whatever reason). However, the *Wall Street Journal* is an excellent source for new social trends, ideas and the like (especially Section B, page 1) and *USA Today* is a good source for short articles which could be used early on.

STAGE 2: SELECTING ARTICLE CANDIDATES

Step 1. Once the press has been determined, call (if possible) and then write the editor or publisher of each to obtain permission (copyright release) to quote their articles, explaining that the purpose of the reader is educational (neither a vehicle of criticism nor a competing resource).

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[14] In most instances, the company replicates the script used in the press. Any variation to this policy must be at the client's direction and/or with his full understanding and approval.

Step 2. Determine the number of <u>article candidates</u> you plan to isolate. This traditionally exceeds (up to double) the proposed number of selections in the final product; 50 - 80 is the usual range.

> *Rationale*: Most readers have between 40 and 50 selections (see Table 3 below). It should be assumed that several of the articles initially selected will not be used in the reader once they have been completely translated and closely compared with the others. Therefore, it is better to select more articles than will be used at this stage in the work when the editor has his or her basic selection criteria in mind rather than having to go back and find more suitable articles at a latter stage. This is not to say that one will necessarily collect all the articles to be used in the reader. It is prudent, however, to do most of the selection in one stage.

TABLE 2. RATIO OF CANDIDATES TO SELECTIONS IN SOME READERS

Reader	Candidates	Selections
Armenian	47	30
Hiligaynon	77	50
Malagasy	85	44
Oromo	55	32
Shan	45	24
Tagalog	92	50
Tigrinya	(approx.) 83	(projected) 50
Turkmen	60	44

Step 3. <u>Select</u> suitable article candidates covering all styles and genres (review §1.4 - 1.6 above), levels of difficulty, topics, dates (months, seasons, especially post-1990), and lengths. As work progresses, be aware that the need to isolate specific topics, grammatical constructions, or levels of difficulty may arise, leading to the selection of additional articles and the rejection of earlier candidates. Make a <u>photocopy</u> of each article including its title (note the name of the periodical, date, volume, number, page(s), and estimated level of difficulty).

Step 4. <u>Assign each a letter</u> (A, B, C) or <u>number in sequence</u> (201, 202 ...), and write it on the photocopy. Since the ultimate product will be numbered from 1 through N (25, 40, 50, etc.), if numbers are chosen (rather than alphabetic letters), use a higher sequence than will occur in the manuscript (e.g., 201 or 301) to keep these apart. Actual sequence numbers should be avoided until the team is absolutely sure of the order of presentation; changing the position of a reading selection introduces far-reaching and time-consuming complications (order of first occurrence, cross-references, etc.).

Step 5. <u>Translate the headline and gist each article</u>, i.e., make one or two line summaries.

Step 6.   Some projects will have to submit the entire set of these article candidates (with headline and gist) to a <u>selection committee</u>.[15] Whether or not you must do this will be determined at an early project review meeting with the director and client.

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[15] Such a committee is formed of all staff involved with the specific reader project as well as company employees who, by their previous experience with readers or with the language, could be expected to assist in and contribute to such a task.

STAGE 3: GETTING STARTED[16]

MRM Inc. has several software programs available to assist you in various tasks (e.g., sorting wordlists in exotic alphabets, concordances that generate individual and composite glossaries, etc.) Be sure to check on these with the appropriate computer staff.

Step 1. After approval by the selection committee or consensus (agreement) among the members of the team, <u>make a rough or draft translation</u> of each approved selection. The editor should then circulate the draft translations for assigning final levels of difficulty (Step 2) and 'smoothing.'

> *Rationale*: For this step, the editor need only work from clean photocopies of the articles. It is not necessary to have them keyboarded at this stage (Step 4). Also, these translations should only be considered drafts because the effort here should be on determining the content and level of difficulty of the articles, not necessarily crafting polished translations. As stated above, perhaps one-third of the selected articles may never appear in the reader.

Step 2 Rank each selection as to its level of difficulty on the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) scale.

> *Rationale*. The editors may not be sufficiently familiar with the specifics of the ILR ranking to assign levels of difficulty to the articles. MRM has staff who are very familiar with this system and can give advice. In general, easier articles (Level 1+/2) should come first, and the harder ones (2+, 3, 3+) later. Even a brief editorial (assuming it is an opinion piece at Level 3), should not be among the early selections because it would over challenge the user. However, it might not be a bad idea to have a longer (but simpler) article among the later readings to give the user a break.
>
> *Examples*: A chart of the ILR levels assigned for the *Mongolian Parallel Text* is included as Appendix Four.

Step 3. The editor and the editorial staff should select and sequence the final (40 - 50) articles.

> *Rationale*:   Based upon factors of length and level of difficulty, the selections should be put in their 'final' order. This is especially

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[16] The order of some of the steps below is not absolute and may vary from one team or project to another. Some prefer to work on draft translations first, while others vocabulary development. The two often seem to be "the chicken or the egg" in that vocabulary development helps refine translations and the process of translating helps polish the individual glosses.

important for the phase where the vocabulary must be in proper sequence in order to supply glosses, notes, etc.

How many readings are enough? This should be determined by the research team in conjunction with management. The following statistics (in Table 3) show that the range for the 34 readers thus far published by the company is from 20-21 (Swahili, Moroccan) through 50-52 (Myanmar, Hindi, Somali, Amharic, Hiligaynon, Pashto, Punjabi, Tagalog, Urdu), with an average of 38 selections. Due to variation in length of selections, composite glossary, and grammatical treatment, note that the total number of pages ranges from 80 (Coptic) through 510 (Armenian), with an average of 238 pages.

TABLE 3. RATIO OF SELECTIONS AND PAGES IN MRM READERS

Reader	Selections	Pages	Reader	Selections	Pages
Amharic	50	372	Myanmar	52	328
Arabic Adeni	45	265	Nepali	35	274
Arabic Hijazi	40	193	Oromo	32	386
Arabic Moroccan	21	143	Papiamentu	31	205
Armenian	30	510	Pashto	50	246
Azerbaijani	25	113	Persian Fiction	32	224
Bhutanese	40	274	Punjabi	50	218
Bikol	49	143	Shan	24	224
Cebuano	25	121	Somali	51	186
Coptic	40	80	Swahili (elemen)	20	201
Georgian	41	211	Swahili (interm)	25	259
Haitian Creole	42	210	Tagalog	50	271
Hausa	44	225	Tamil	45	434
Hiligaynon	50	220	Tibetan	33	173
Hindi	51	212	Turkish	36	328
Ilokano	25	127	Turkmen	44	301
Kapampangan	45	105	Urdu	50	322

Step 4. Keyboard each selection into a separate file. Note that re-writing of an article is not allowed. It should be usable as it stands. With the exception of clear typographic errors, mistakes in spacing, and deletion of dates or names (that render the article "timeless"), editing of an original text is normally discouraged because the user should be faced with whatever the local press presents. In some instances, adherence to this principle could make the reader indecipherable, as with Yoruba, where tone is so crucial that the absence of any marks indicating it makes texts difficult to interpret, even for a native speaker.[17]

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[17] An intermediate case can be found with many languages of the Philippines, where accent plays a very important role, and there are established standards for writing it (e.g., túbo 'pipe, tube' versus tubó 'sugarcane'). Lack of accent marks makes it difficult to read and interpret a text. However, the press has consistently ignored these conventions. While putting accents into

Rationale: There is no need to actually keyboard the selected articles before this time. This is to prevent keeping an article in the reader 'because it is there' (i.e., someone has taken the time and trouble to keyboard it.) It also saves time and money.

Step 5. Print it out.

Step 6. The editor should proof-read it against the original.

Rationale: The editor himself or herself should do the proofing not only to catch 'typos', but also to take another, careful look at the article to focus on problems of translation, etc.

Step 7. A computerized wordlist or concordance for each selection and one for the aggregate collection should be produced. Derive any additional information deemed necessary (absolute number of vocabulary items once repetitions are subtracted, frequency of occurrence, etc.). This process may lead to the rejection of some candidates and the need to substitute a different article.

Rationale: MRM computer staff will provide the editor with an index and concordance of all the source language words used in the entire corpus. The index includes the word, the number of times it occurs, and its locations throughout the text; the concordance shows each word surrounded by four or five words in context.

Step 8. Develop a vocabulary and relevant notes for the user.[18]

Rationale: The editor should add glosses for every word in the text based on its first occurrence. An individual vocabulary will appear after each selection. There are several options on what and how to gloss, e.g., if there is a standard language textbook, the editor may choose to gloss only those words that do not appear in that text.
More likely, however, the editor will need to gloss every word. It is recommended that the gloss be more of a 'dictionary definition' than

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the article itself is tempting and certainly would be beneficial to the user, in our Philippine series, accentuation was only marked in the individual vocabularies and in the overall glossary. Otherwise, the reader would not be truly representing what the user will find in the Philippine press, i.e., the principle of authenticity.

[18] For some projects this has been the longest process of all, surpassing in time the selection and translation stages together. Parsing words into their roots and affixes (introduced in the Armenian Reader and practiced in the Oromo Reader) does take more time, but leaves no question unanswered for the user. There are two ways of interpreting how such has value: (1) it may be ignored on the first run-through, but studied in detail on subsequent ones; (2) the analytical users benefit from the indented (parsed) material by understanding every detail of what is going on in the language, while the non-analytical ones may chose to ignore it.

how the word is used at that specific point in the text (but see §2.9 - 2.11). This will keep the editor from having to gloss the word each time it appears in the text with a 'new' meaning. The 'definitions' need only cover the usages in the reader (all the occurrences of the word therefore must be checked in the index or concordance), not 'all' the possible definitions.

The determination should be made as to whether the individual vocabulary will be in alphabetical or occurrence order (see discussion above in §2.7 and §2.8).

Step 9. Develop grammatical notes where necessary.

Rationale: The notes and grammatical information notes should be separated from the glossary following each selection. The notes may include cultural information or the like that the editor feels is not conveyed in the text.

Concerning grammatical information, it should be remembered that the gloss of a word may contain some grammatical information. However, most points of grammar could be handled in this notes section, so more elaborate explanations can be given as necessary. Also, remember that there may be a grammatical sketch as part of the frontmatter. Therefore, the editor may want to refer the user to the sketch or an external reference whenever possible.

Examples: See the *Azerbaijani Reader*, the *Armenian Reader*, and the *Papiamentu Reader* for different approaches (esp. quantitative) to this issue.

Step 10. Develop any relevant background or cultural explanations.

Rationale. Besides all of the content words (lexicon), personal and place names, events, festivals, etc. should be glossed or explained. Such an explanation need not be encyclopedic, but should make the user aware of the importance of the person, place, event within the country or the culture.

STAGE 4: REFINING THE TRANSLATIONS

Gather all comments on the circulated draft translations. MRM editors may be called on to give advice or suggestions on translation problems should they arise.

In the past, translations often tended to be literal or very close to the style and sense of the target language. More recently, some authors have strived for polished English -- tantamount in some cases to re-writing (within set

parameters) the article as if it appeared in a major American paper (*New York Times, Washington Post*, etc.). Since the individual vocabulary (and the notes) of each respective article gives the literal meaning of words and phrases, the latter (free, idiomatic) option has a certain educational value. If the translation "shocks" the user enough, it should send him/her back to the original text to see how it is justified. However, no matter how free one wishes to be, nothing of substance should either be added or subtracted from the original. Every main idea contained in the target language should be expressed unless it is redundant in English, e.g., the language may say 'the city of Chicago' or 'the country of Canada' whereas 'Chicago' or 'Canada' alone are sufficient. Changing nouns into verbs or verbs into nouns, or descriptive clauses into adjectives are all legitimate grammatical changes if each reflects the idiom of the language in question.

STAGE 5: COMPOSITE GLOSSARY DEVELOPMENT

The editor should insure that every element covered in the individual vocabularies is taken up in the composite glossary. The computer staff will do the initial work of taking each vocabulary section from the text and putting it into one listing. The editor will be responsible for proofreading and finalizing the glosses and checking the list for alphabetical order, etc. This glossary will appear at the end of the reader. For examples, see any Dunwoody Press reader.

STAGE 6: GRAMMATICAL OUTLINE OR REFERENCE GRAMMAR

The editor should prepare a grammatical sketch (with examples taken from the text whenever possible) or a fuller reference grammar (as determined by discussion with management). The differences between these two are matters of size and degree. A grammatical outline ranges from 5 to 40 pages, and only covers the major patterns one needs to know to decipher the texts in the particular reader. In a few areas (e.g., pronouns, demonstratives, verb affixes) a full paradigm may be presented, even if not all of the forms occurred in the selections. See, for example, the following texts:

Cebuano	5	Hiligaynon	13
Georgian	5	Tagalog	14
Ilokano	10	Kapampangan	16
Tibetan	11	Azerbaijani	19
Bikol	13	Turkmen	28

A reference grammar can be from 40 to 300 pages and covers all major sentence patterns, parts of speech, inflections and derivations. In part, length

depends on the verbosity of the explanations given and the detail one gives in exemplification (few, several, or many examples of each grammatical pattern).

Papiamentu	41	Chechen	75
Haitian Creole	47	Armenian	283
Oromo	58	Somali	290

Rationale: This grammatical survey may well be one of the most important aspects of the reader. It should be done at this stage because it is the culmination of all other steps. It should cover the main grammatical points in the language and, as much as possible, include examples tied to the texts in the reader. Remember that if there is a 'standard' grammar of the source language, then that in the reader need only cover the basics as a point of reference for the users.

STAGE 7: FRONTMATTER

The frontmatter usually includes:
• a preface (basic information on the contents and structure of the book itself and how to use it),
• list of abbreviations,
• acknowledgments (of all who helped in its production),
• references consulted, and
• table of contents.

It may also have:
• a dedication (to family member, colleague, or scholar),
• a foreword (by some eminent scholar in the field who has reviewed earlier drafts and can endorse the product)
• a full list of sources for each selection, and
• a frequency list (of words or forms that occurred several or many times).

STAGE 8: LAYOUT VS. FORMATTING

Authors (the reader production team) need not concern themselves with formatting. They can type the selections, translations, etc. without reference to spacing or look. However, they should have a clear idea about how their book should be laid out (i.e., its structure). This can be done in reference to existing Dunwoody Press publications. If, for example, one wants a recto-verso layout,

use the *Hiligaynon* or *Oromo* readers as a model. The job of formatting the final product for publication is that of the publications officer or team.[19]

STAGE 9: THE SIGNOFF PROCESS

A signoff sheet is usually prepared by production staff which accompanies the photo-ready manuscript to key personnel in the final approval process; this usually includes: the director, the contract officer, the author(s), the copyright acquisition person, the publications officer, and any staff member who may provide a new set of eyes for final proofreading.[20] Among the many things that must be checked are the inclusion and accuracy of the ISBN[21] and LOC[22] numbers. Another important check is for consistency, are all headings in the same font and character size (e.g., all caps?, bold?), is paragraphing, indentation, and pagination followed uniformly? This is the last chance the author(s)/editor(s) have for any final editing. The look of the book is under final scrutiny.[23]

STAGE 10: THE RECORDING

It is required that each reader have an accompanying cassette recording of all the selections (it may include the vocabulary or other language materials in the book as well). This should be made from a final (publication) copy of the manuscript, i.e., it could be made from the signoff copy or a photocopy of the book while it is at the printers.

STAGE 11: THE BLUE LINES

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[19] This having been said, if an author is particularly computer proficient and has a clear idea about how he or she wants the book to look, certain steps can be taken to insure cooperation between the research and publication team. Granting that all company policies relating to format are met (suitability of font, page size, etc.), a well laid-out manuscript (computer file) will save time in the end, granting that a disproportionate amount of time is not spent on the process of formatting.

[20] Mrs. Hawkins has provided tremendous assistance to several projects. While it is not part of her assigned task roster, she has special talents at editing and proofreading, and has squeezed such work into her busy schedule.

[21] The ISBN number consists of 10 numbers in the format «x-xxxxxx-xx-x», that is, a single digit followed by six digits, followed by two digits, and ending in a single digit.

[22] The Library of Congress number consists of 7 numbers in the format «yr-xxxxx», that is, two digits representing the year of assignment, followed by five digits. Note that sometimes we receive an eight digit number (year + six digits), however the first of the latter (usually a zero) is dropped, i.e. "85-076544" should be «85-76544».

[23] Even then, some things still slip through the cracks: the Kapampangan reader could have been in a larger font size to prevent a majority of half-used pages; the Tamil reader has 39 blank pages due to starting most readings or translations on an odd-numbered page.

The printer forwards a set of "blues" (photographic images of the final manuscript in blue ink) to MRM Inc. This is not the time to make corrections beyond what is the fault of the printer, e.g., size of reduction, faulty or missing pagination, etc. Extensive editing at this stage will not be tolerated, and is very costly. The editor-in-chief should check the blues as quickly as possible and return them to the production officer for forwarding (with any specific corrections) to the printing firm.

STAGE 12: THE FINAL REPORT

Monthly or periodic reports are required on the progress of the work program. However, the editor should write a comprehensive final report covering methods used, problems encountered, etc. This should include a retrospective timetable detailing the order followed and the length of time spent on each stage and step (see Appendix Five).

   Rationale: There is always a need to refine methodology. With the help of the editors' reports we would hope to improve the process, prepare others for solving difficulties, offer useful advice, etc.

4. POSTSCRIPT: FACTORS AFFECTING SPEED OF PRODUCTION

1. Knowledge of the language on the part of the research team. The more each member knows of and about both the target language and English, presumably the faster the work can proceed.

2. Assumption of basic vocabulary. The authors can give a list in the frontmatter of words (or even grammatical patterns) they assume the user will (or should) know. Having done this, any occurrences would be ignored.

3. Intermediate and advanced readers can be produced more rapidly than beginning readers because the user can be expected to have mastered much of the material covered. However, the length and complexity of the texts selected may offset this gain to some degree.

4. Studies of languages that have been thoroughly researched (with a large dictionary and comprehensive grammar) can be tied to those studies and need not break new ground.

5. The difficulty or complexity of the language also plays an important role. An Indonesian or Afrikaans reader would presumably be a faster project than a Japanese or Javanese one.

5. AUTHORSHIP AND ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Company policy reserves the right of authorship to itself, although in practice the team that has worked on the materials has been acknowledged as authors, editors, or compilers. The degree of recognition usually depends on the project coordinator or senior linguist and has varied from <u>giving the native-speaking consultant</u>(s) on the cover, spine or first page:

1. sole authorship (Kapampangan)
2. primary authorship (Bikol, Hiligaynon, Oromo, Somali, Tagalog)
3. secondary authorship (Armenian, Hindi, Tibetan)
4. some billing (Azerbaijani, Haitian Creole, Papiamentu, Persian)
5. no authorship (Cebuano, Ilokano, Turkmen)

It often happens that other MRM staff serve as advisors (on an ad hoc article selection committee), as production staff (formatting and preparing the volume for publication), or are otherwise involved in a project (as proofreaders, editors, or linguistic consultants). It has usually been the practice and certainly is appropriate to detail such assistance in the acknowledgments section of the frontmatter. The same would hold true for former colleagues at a university or another institution.

6. PLAGIARISM AND COPYRIGHT

Authors should not replicate in full or even in part material that is under copyright without the authors' or publisher's written permission. In tying a reader to a existing dictionary or grammar, one cannot duplicate dictionary definitions or grammatical explanations verbatim without breach of copyright. If appropriate permission has not been obtained (or especially if it is not given), care must be exercised in paraphrasing any copyrighted information to the extent that no accusation of plagiarism could be leveled against the researcher and the company.

7. NOTES ON LEARNING THE LANGUAGE

Since the researcher must usually learn the language, will - can - or should this skew the selections, ordering or articles, or orientation of the product?

One early goal should be to learn or know enough of the language to gain the respect of the native speaker and to cope with even the most elementary texts. It is best to learn the grammar first. There are two reasons for this:

1.   It is a closed system, which means that there are a finite number of forms (affixes, pronouns, particles, markers, classifiers, etc.) to master.[24] Languages, of course, differ widely, but most grammatical systems have (well) under a thousand members; in contrast, the basic vocabulary of any language (required to understand either daily or job-specific communications) could range from two to eight thousand words.

2.   Grammar forms the structure on which the edifice of language is built. Once it is mastered, vocabulary can be learned as required for the communication needs at hand.

Mastery is of two kinds, depending on the needs of the project. The first involves a **passive** command of the language, i.e., the ability to understand written texts or work through them with the aid of a dictionary. Depending on the language,[25] this can be gained in as little as four months but up to a year.

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[24]   Which is not to imply that mastery is "easy" - even if it is limited. Truly learning the grammar is a difficult process that can take months. For example, the Armenian grammatical system has around 700 items: 321 affixes (which form or inflect nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc.), just under 200 pronoun forms, 27 number-formatives, and 100 basic conjunctions and discourse particles. In contrast, the Tagalog system has under 350 items (the most complex of which are the 168 verb focus affixes); active mastery would take over one year of study and practice.

[25] Cognates with English (e.g., in learning French or German) are a key. Jack Murphy reports from his experience that it took 4 months to learn Swedish or French, 5 for Armenian, 6-7 for Icelandic, while Japanese is "ongoing." Coordinating languages (e.g., Hebrew, Arabic) and left-branching languages (e.g., Armenian, Turkish) introduce grammatical and word-order complexities which the English-speaker must face. See also footnote 2.

The requirement of having to learn (memorize) vocabulary is somewhat minimalized. The second involves an **active** command of the language, i.e., the ability to speak or write it in its proper idiom. This involves much more intensive study and practice, and can take from double to triple the time than acquiring a passive command. One must build up an ample stock of basic or technical vocabulary (from four to ten thousand words). Extra-linguistic problems like having to learn a new script or cope with complex cultural protocols (e.g., speech levels in Japanese or Javanese) place additional burdens on the learning process.

For learning to read languages which do not have textbooks, Jack Murphy suggests (and had written about) using trots. The USIA has put out many books in many languages, which are translations from English. By comparing the English original and the translation side by side, one has an excellent basis for the study of the written language, as he details in his article.

8. OTHER MRM NOTES OR DOCUMENTS ON THIS TOPIC

Creamer, Thomas. 1994. Dunwoody Press Guidelines for Compilers of Readers. Draft.

Murphy, John D. n.d. "Trots" in Foreign Language Study." Manuscript.

Thomas, Phillip L. 1990. Editorial Guidelines for MRM Readers. MRM Programming Document 10. Friday, Dec. 28, 1990.

Zorc, R. David. 1988. Readers at MRM. Handout for in-house seminar, Jan. 12, 1988.

APPENDIX ONE
MRM / DUNWOODY PRESS READERS (1984-1996)

Ahmad, Mumtaz. *Urdu Newspaper Reader*. 1985.

Ahmad, Mumtaz. *Punjabi Reader in the Arabic Script*. 1992.

Belchez, Chito A., Pamela Johnstone Moguet. *Bikol Newspaper Reader*. 1992.

Buck, Stuart H. *Bhutanese Newspaper Reader*. 1989.

Davidson, Alma M., Leonardo Aquino Pineda, edited by Pamela Johnstone Moguet, with a grammatical introduction by R. David Zorc. *Kapampangan Reader*. 1992.

Eccles, Lances. *Introductory Coptic Reader*. 1991.

Feghali, Habaka, edited by Alan S. Kaye. *Arabic Adeni Reader*. 1990.

Feghali, Habaka J., John D. Murphy. *Arabic Hijazi Reader*. 1991.

Feghali, Habaka J., with notes by Alan Kaye. *Arabic Moroccan Reader*. 1989.

Frank, Allen J. *Turkmen Reader*. 1995.

Gabounia, Ketevan, John D. Murphy. *Georgian Newspaper Reader*. 1995.

Glick, Irving I., Sao Tern Moeng. *Shan Newspaper Reader*. 1996.

Hillmann, Michael, with Mohammad Mehdi Khorrami. *Persian Fiction Reader*. 1995.

Howe, Kate, Lyonel Desmarattes. *Haitian Creole Newspaper Reader*. 1990.

Howe, Kate. *Papiamentu Newspaper Reader*. 1993.

Issa, Abdullahi A., John D. Murphy. *Somali Newspaper Reader*. 1984.

Jaggar, Philip J. *Hausa Newspaper Reader*. 1996.

Jarmul, Champa, John D. Murphy. *Nepali Newspaper Reader*. 1984.

Kebede, Mulugeta, John D. Murphy. *Amharic Newspaper Reader*. 1984.

Lempert, Michael & Tenzing Sangpo, edited and with foreword by Paul G. Hackett. *A Tibetan Newspaper Reader*. 1996.

Luzoe. *Myanmar Newspaper Reader*. 1996.

Moguet, Pamela Johnston, R. David Zorc. *Ilokano Newspaper Reader*. 1988.

MRM Inc. Staff. *Pashto Newspaper Reader*. 1984.

Murphy, John D., Metin Somay. *Turkish Newspaper Reader*. 1988.

Murphy, John D., *Azerbaijani Newspaper Reader*. 1993.

Musyoki, Agnes, John D. Murphy. *Elementary Swahili Newspaper Reader*. 1985.

Rutayuga, John B. K., John D. Murphy. *Intermediate Swahili Newspaper Reader*. 1984.

Sarra, Annabelle M., R. David Zorc. *Tagalog Newspaper Reader*. 1990.

Stone, James W., Roshna M. Kapadia. *Hindi Newspaper Reader*. 1990.

Sunio, Delicia, R. David Zorc. *Hiligaynon Reader*. 1992.

Tucho, Yigazu, R. David Zorc, Eleanor C. Barna. *Oromo Newspaper Reader, Grammar Sketch, and Lexicon*. 1996.

Vaidyanathan, Sowbhagyalakshmi, John D. Murphy. *Tamil Newspaper Reader.* 1990.

Zorc, R. David. *Cebuano Newspaper Reader.* 1987.

Zorc, R. David, Louisa Baghdasarian. *Armenian (Eastern) Newspaper Reader and Grammar.* 1995.

APPENDIX TWO
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF TURKMEN REFERENCE WORKS

A. Dictionaries

1. N. A. Baskakov, B. A. Karryev, & M. Ia. Khamzaev, eds. *Turkmensko-Russkii slovar,* (Moscow: Sovetskaia entsiklopediia, 1968).
   This is the standard, and most comprehensive, Turkmen-Russian dictionary in existence, containing approximately 40,000 entries. It is the essential lexicographical tool for those wishing to read Turkmen. The dictionary also represents the presence or absence of long vowels, which is not usually indicated in the orthography. Long vowels are important features of pronunciation, and are of particular interest to linguists studying the history of Turkic languages

2. P. Azimov, ed. *Turkmensko-Russkii uchebnyi slovar,* (Moscow: Russkii iazyk, 1988).
   This small dictionary contains about 9,000 entries. The dictionary is designed for Turkmen students learning Russian and Turkmen. In addition to the entries, the dictionary also contains useful grammatical sketch of Turkmen.

3. B. Charyiarov & S. Altaev eds. *Bol'shoi russko-turkmenskii slovar'* I-II, (Moscow: Russkii iazyk, 1986-1987).
   This large, two-volume, work contains over 77,000 entries, as well as an extensive bibliography of Soviet Turkmen lexicographical sources. It supercedes all previously published Russian-Turkmen dictionaries.

4. Myrat Penjiev, *Turkmen dilining professional leksikasy,* (Ashgabat: Magarif, 1991).
   This work is a fairly extensive study of the work-related lexicon of the Turkmen language.

B. Grammars and Manuals.

1. Oskar Hanser, *Turkmen Manual,* Beheifte zur wiener Zeitschrift fuer die Kunde des Morgenlandes 7 (Vienna: Wissenschaftlichen Gesellschaft Oesterreichs, 1977).
   This grammar is the most extensive work available in English on Turkmen. The grammar also contains a bibliography and an appendix containing Turkmen Cyrillic texts. Hansen's grammar inb many respects is the most useful Turkmen grammar in any language.

2. Louis Bazin, "Le turkmene," in: *Philologiae Turcicae Fundamenta II,* 308-317.
   Bazin's brief grammar sketch reproduces Turkmen into latinized transcription. His bibliography also includes some older sources on Turkmen lexicography and dialectology.

3. N. A Baskakov and M. Ia. Khamzaev, *Grammatika turkmenskogo iazyka,* I, Fonetika i morfologiia, (Ashkhabad: Ylym, 1970).
   This collective volume is the standard "Academy" grammar of literary Turkmen. It can be used as a reference work, but lacks an index.

4. Niiazberdy Redzhepov, *Izuchaem turkmenskii iazyk,* (Ashgabat: Turan-1, 1993).
   This manual is designed for Russian-speakers to learn Turkmen. It contains 90 lessons, consisting primarily of dialogs and short prose texts, as well as a short Turkmen-Russian glossary.

5. Niiazberdy Redzhepov, *Turkmenskii iazyk: uchebnik dlia vzroslykh,* (Ashgabat: Magaryf, 1993), 3rd edition.
   This manual is designed for adults wishing to learn Turkmen. It is essentially a briefer version of the work described above, consisting of 62 lessons, and a brief glossary.

6. G. Ch. Iailimov, *Uchites' govorit' po-turkmenski,* (Ashgabat: Nesil, 1993).
   This manual is also designed for Russian-speakers desiring to learn to speak Turkmen. It consists of 44 lessons, and contains a brief Russian-Turkmen glossary.

7. Dzh. Iagmyrov, *Izuchaem turkmenskii iazyk,* (Ashgabat: Ylym, 1993).
   This short manual is also designed for Russian speakers wiching to learn Turkmen. It contains 21 lessons; the glossaries are included in the lessons.

APPENDIX THREE
TURKMEN NEWSPAPERS, JOURNALS AND MAGAZINES

A. Newspapers

1. *Watan.* [Fatherland] (Ashgabat) . Official government organ.

2. *Turkmenistan* (Ashgabat) Organ of the cabinet and council of ministers.

3. *Bedew* [Marvellous] (Ashgabat) Bilingual Turkmen-Russian sports newspaper.

4. *Nesil* [Generation] (Ashgabat) Official youth newspaper of Turkmenistan.

5. *Ashgabat Agshamy* [Ashgabat Evening] Ashgabat local daily.

6. *Ahal durmushy* [Ahal Life] (Ahal province) Official provincial paper.

7. *Zaman Turkmenistan* [Time-Turkmenistan] (Ashgabat) Bilingual Turkmen-Turkish newspaper.

8. *Esger* [Soldier] (Ashgabat) Official military newspaper. Bilingual Turkmen-Russian.

9. *Talyp Durmushy* [Student Life] (Ashgabat) Official student newspaper.

10. *Ykdysadyet ve Durmush* [The Economy and Life] construction workers' newspaper.

11. *Turkmen Demirioljusy* [Turkmen Railroad worker] Official organ of the Turkmenistan railroad workers' union.

B. Journals and Magazines.

1. *Iashlyk.* Monthly youth journal.

2. *Ovadan.* Monthly social, political, and literary journal.

3. *Düar.* Monthly social, political, and literary journal published by the government of Turkmenistan.

4.   *Kino Duniasi.* Quarterly movie magazine.

APPENDIX FOUR
ILR LEVEL ASSIGNMENTS OF MONGOLIAN PARALLEL TEXT

Article No.		Level			Order No.	Order No. D. X.
3.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 25 22	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =8*	
4.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 29 19	
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3+	B.R. =29*	
6.		J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 9	06
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	2	B.R. =1*	
7.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 28 21	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	4	B.R. =33*	
9.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 30 29	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3+	B.R. =28*	
13.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 31 25	
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =17*	
14.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 34 26	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	4+	B.R. =?*	
15.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 24 30	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3++	B.R. =30*	
16.		J.J.	=	3+	J.J. = 10 13	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =16*	
20.		J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 6	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	2	B.R. =4*	
22.		J.J.	=	2	J.J. = 4	07
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	2+	B.R. =5*	
23.		J.J.	=	2+	J.J. = 5	08
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	2+	B.R. =6	
25.	A	J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 3	02
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =	

	B-M	J.J.	=	2	J.J. = 3	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =20*	
	[D	J.M.	=	4]		
27.		J.J.	=	2+-3	J.J. = 2	05
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =13	
29.		J.J.	=	3+	J.J. = 18 15	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =19	
30.		J.J.	=	3-4	J.J. = 23 10	
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =21	
31.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 32 28	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3+	B.R. =27	
32.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 19 09	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =22	
36.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 26 23	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =9	
39.	A-D, G	J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 17 16	
	E-F		=	2		
		J.M.	=	4	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =23	
40.		J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 11	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	2	B.R. =2	
45.		J.J.	=	4	J.J. = 33 31	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	4	B.R. =32	
48.		J.J.	=	3.5	J.J. = 20 17	
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R	=	3+	B.R. =24	
49.	A	J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 12 01	
	B-D		=	2		
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =10	
52.	A-C,	J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 13 12	
	D		=	2+		
	E-G		=	3		
		J.M.	=	3	J.M. =	
		B.R.	=	3	B.R. =12	
53.		J.J.	=	3	J.J. = 7	06

| | J.M. | = | 4 | J.M. = | |
| | B.R. | = | 3 | B.R. =14 | |

57.   J.J.   =   3   J.J. = 21 18
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3+   B.R. =26

58.   J.J.   =   3+-4   J.J. = 27 24
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3   B.R. =11

61.   J.J.   =   3+   J.J. = 8   11
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3   B.R. =7

63.   J.J.   =   4+   J.J. = 35 33
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   4   B.R. =34

65.   J.J.   =   3+   J.J. = 22 14
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3   B.R. =15

67.   J.J.   =   3   J.J. = 16 32
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3+   B.R. =?

70.   J.J.   =   3   J.J. = 15 27
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   3+   B.R. =25

71.   J.J.   =   3   J.J. = 14 20
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   4   B.R. =31

77.   J.J.   =   2   J.J. = 1   04
           J.M.   =   3   J.M. =
           B.R.   =   2+   B.R. =3

APPENDIX FIVE
READER PRODUCTION FLOW CHART

Step-Stage

1.0.   Search for staff (project coordinator, language consultant, etc.)

1.1.   Review Dunwoody Press Readers.

1.2.   Survey of materials already available in and on the language.

1.3.   Write brief background and grammatical sketch of the language.

1.4.   Survey major current periodicals in the language.

1.5.   Become familiar with the contents of selected periodicals.

2.1.   Obtain permission or copyright release from publisher(s).

2.2.   Determine the number of article candidates.

2.3.   Select and photocopy article candidates (style, genre, level, topic).

2.4.   Assign each a letter or number for temporary sequencing.

2.5.   Translate the headline and gist each article.

2.6.   Submit all candidates to selection committee.

3.1.   Make a rough or draft translation of the approved articles.

3.2.   Rank each selection on the ILR scale of difficulty.

3.3.   Select and sequence the final articles (readings).

3.4.   Keyboard each selection into a separate file.

3.5.   Print each selection out.

3.6.   Proofread each selection against the original.

3.7.   Derive a computerized wordlist or concordance for each selection and for the aggregate collection.

3.8.   Develop a vocabulary and relevant notes for the user.

3.9.   Develop grammatical notes where necessary.

3.10.   Develop any relevant background or cultural explanations.

4.   Refine the translations.

5.   Develop the composite glossary; refine individual vocabularies.

6.   Write a grammatical outline or reference grammar (if required).

7.   Write the frontmatter.

8.   Format for publication.

9.   Distribute signoff copy.

10.   Make a recording of the selections, and edit the master tape.

11.   Review the Blue Lines for printer's errors.

12.   Write the final report.

APPENDIX SIX
MRM POLICIES

I. PROJECT REPORTS

Facts and figures are expected for each stage of any project. Researchers should keep records throughout, noting the time required for each task. Staff who work at the LRC are required to compile monthly project reports; off-site contract staff will report on a schedule as determined in consultation with management at the inception of the project. In every case, the project coordinator should compile a final report as described in Stage 12 above.

II. AUTHORSHIP (from standard appointment letter)

Please note that all materials produced by MRM, Inc. employees in their assignments are the property of MRM. MRM, Inc. reserves the publishing rights to any materials that result from this work and reserves the right to publish under corporate authorship at the discretion of MRM, Inc.

(from MRM Inc. General Policies and Procedures for Employees, 18 May 1995)

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III. RECORDING

All foreign-language readers must have an accompanying audio recording of the reading selections exactly as they appear in the publication, and optionally of the individual vocabulary lists.

IV. AUTHENTIC TEXTS

1. All texts should come from authentic in-country material (the press, periodicals, books, broadcast media, etc.). Texts should not be generated or composed.
2. Apart from minor corrections to spelling or spacing, texts should be unedited. If spelling errors are common, it may be advisable to mark them with «sic» so the user gains practice at identifying and correcting them on his/her own.
3. Abstractions from longer articles are permitted provided they result in self-contained text with no loss in context clues. This may be necessary for the first few selections which are generally quite short, or for exceptionally long passages.
4. In the interests of reducing time-orientation, dates may be dropped or reduced (e.g., on Monday -- rather than on Monday, October 7, 1996) and names may be replaced by positions or titles (e.g., the prime minister announced -- rather than John Major announced).

V. SPELLING (from a memo dated March 7, 1994)

In order to insure consistency in all MRM publications, the following standards for spelling should be used:

1. Foreign language word spellings used in MRM Publications must be the ones found in the most common, current, native, media sources such as newspapers.
2. Standard American spellings must be utilized in MRM projects. By standard, we mean the primary spelling forms as given in either The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language (Third Edition, 1992) or The Random House Dictionary of the English Language (Second Edition, Unabridged, 1987).
3. Do not use British spellings such as 'colour' for 'color', 'utilise' for 'utilize', nor specialized spellings such as 'Kiswahili' for 'Swahili', 'Qur-r'an' for 'Koran', 'Qyrghyz' for 'Kirghiz', etc.
4. If there is not a standard American spelling for a word, you may romanize the native word.