TESL REPORTER
Published by:
English Language Institute
The Church College of Hawaii
Teaching English as a Second Language
Vol. 2, No. 1 Laie, Hawaii Fall, 1968

The Utterance-Response Method to Pattern Drill

BY JASON B. ALTER

The Utterance-Response approach represents an attempt to improve upon and go beyond the traditional or ordinary structural drill or pattern drill. Utterance-Response drills provide the quality of meaningful context and utilize natural, realistic language, thereby acquainting the student with patterns, in settings, that he can actually use outside the confines of the classroom. The drills are most palatable, both to student and instructor.

This approach is embodied in a set of materials that Mr. Roy Collier, Mrs. Miho Tanaka Steinberg, and I began to work on in the winter of 1964 for use at the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii. We sought to use language and patterns that were more natural and less stilted or awkward, intentionally avoiding the overly formal, the textbookish, and the prescriptive.

Jason B. Alter is Assistant Professor of English in the English Language Institute, University of Hawaii in Honolulu.

Here are some examples from an actual drill. This is part of Practice 2, Unit 8, one of two units that emphasize drills on "-Ing" and "To" verbs following other verbs.

1. Did Susan have time to wash the dishes? (Almost!) She didn't quite finish washing them.
2. Did Bill have time to write the term paper? He didn't quite finish writing it.

CONTENTS

The Utterance-Response Method to Pattern Drill
by Jason B. Alter Page 1
Your Gestures and Mannerisms: A Help or Hindrance?
by Alice C. Pack Page 3
Part II: A Structural Comparison of English and Tongan
by Ermel J. Morton Page 5
Teaching Pattern Practice With A Language Game
by Carla Weustoff Page 7

3. Did Ruth have time to address the envelopes? She didn't quite finish addressing them.
4. Did Dad have time to read the paper? He didn't quite finish reading it.
5. Did Jack have time to figure his income tax? He didn't quite finish figuring it.

The utterances are in black print; the responses in brown. This draws

attention to the two-person, give-and-take arrangement of the drills. All the responses are printed in the text, enabling the student to practice the correct responses at home; this is in accord with the philosophy that we should be doing more teaching and less testing. In class the text is seldom open, except at the very introduction of the drill.

All of the grammatical items at issue are presented in the responses, not in the utterances. Italics and arrows indicate these items in the first response in every regular exercise; in pattern testing exercises the first two responses are so marked. In the drill in question both "finish" and "washing" are italicized, marked by a single arrow.

This article is based upon Mr. Alter's speech delivered at the NAFSA Conference in San Francisco on May 3, 1968.

Notice that the student has other things to worry about besides the grammar points; namely, pronoun shifts in both subject and object. "Susan" becomes "she," and "dishes" becomes "them." Wherever possible we forced such changes, to avoid monotony and to add a challenge.

The utterance serves merely to elicit the response. In many cases the utterance is a statement, and the response is a question. The student is thereby given ample opportunity to phrase questions in English, a feature that is sometimes neglected. In several drills the utterance is a statement, and the response is also a statement. For example, again from Unit 8:

Utterance. I hate to write letters.

Response. I don't mind writing them.

The goal is to give the student experience with all sorts of combinations, rather than the hackneyed question-answer syndrome alone.

The listening comprehension aspect of the Utterance-Response approach needs mention. The varied nature of the drills challenges the student to listen carefully to the utterance. Giving the proper response requires more than simple substitution. In this era of large lecture courses, the student spends a major portion of his time listening, but may seldom have a chance to speak. Given the foreign student's reluctance to ask questions in the classroom (even truer in his non-ELI classes), it is essential that we build his listening ability.

Cues Eliminated

Utterance-Response drills have all but eliminated the need for artificial cues. In effect, the entire utterance is a cue, and a natural one. The student is never faced with the following type of drill:

Instructor: Whatever she serves is all right with me (does)

Student: Whatever she does is all right with me.

Instructor: (the children)

Student: Whatever the children do is all right with me.

Virtually never would the foreign student (or any student) be asked, outside the language classroom, to engage in this sort of interchange. Therefore, why have the student practice something that he will never use? Instead, each Utterance-Response

TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BA-TESL program of The Church College of Hawaii.

Editor.......William D. Conway, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Staff.......Mrs. Alice Pack, Assistant Professor of English and TESL.

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 127, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

Deadline for the winter editor is November 25, 1968.

Your Gestures and Mannerisms: A Help or Hindrance?

BY ALICE C. PACK

One of the areas which Teachers of English as a Second Language seem to neglect is personal gestures and mannerisms. Although sentence structure, intonation, and vocabulary are very carefully controlled, gestures are often used unconsciously or without any previous study or consideration. Many teachers feel that gestures are a universal language and that communication by sign language is primarily primitive and natural, thus subject to only one interpretation. This language myth is quickly exploded as one examines various cultures. True, there are intercultural gesture cognates as well as word cognates, with similar and nearly similar interpretations, but every society has its own peculiar "sign language" which teachers should search out, then encompass or avoid, according to the meaning and/or connotation.

No Tours Today

Recently I took some visitors to see the industries of our island and called at the sugar factory near Honolulu. As we approached the building I stopped suddenly and informed my guests that the company wasn't taking tours that day. When questioned as to where I received this information I indicated a company official standing inside the building near a second story window and replied that the man in the office had told me. When I turned to leave, my guests, who were very anxious to see this factory, questioned my certain knowledge that no tours would be conducted that day. After all, they knew no one had spoken to me - there had not been any verbal exchange - so how could such definite communication have taken place? This was a perfect example of a meaningful body movement: The man's hand wave --a side to side rolling movement of the vertical open hand--has a peculiar significance in Hawaii*, and I had clearly "got the message" although to others in the group it was merely a friendly wave.

Cultural Meaning

ESL teachers must be particularl, sensitive to peculiar cultural significances of common American and English gestures as unawareness can often alienate or unknowingly offend

---

pair is arranged in the form of a two-line dialogue. An Utterance-Response version of the above would go like this:

U. What's Helen serving?
R. Whatever she serves is all right with me.

U. What're the children doing?
R. Whatever they do is all right with me.

This smacks more of communication, which is supposed to be the name of the game.

The Utterance-Response drills are a part of the saturation process that should characterize the language classroom. The student should not be given time to think in his own language. The nature of intensive language activity suggested here seems to indicate that communication is indeed going on. As the drilling on a particular practice proceeds to its later stages, as the class seems to be catching on, the instructor begins to probe and check on comprehension by asking impromptu questions on various items in the drill. These questions are rapidly interspersed with the actual drilling. This procedure adds a spontaneous quality and forces the student to think about the meaning of the Utterance-Response pair more deeply.

students. Young children often laugh and snicker, or even show shock at these faux pas and the teacher can later find the reason and eliminate his error, but adults are not always so cooperative; mature students are often too polite to indicate these feelings.

Samoan Experience

During a workshop in Western Samoa this past summer I was surprised to learn that one of the very common signals for class response--a beckoning motion with the cupped hand in front of the instructor--indicates inferior status in the learners· thus it is disrespectful. Although this gesture had been used rather extensively in demonstrations and in films shown to a group of Samoan teachers, it was not until the third day of a five day workshop when gestures per se were discussed, and the teachers were asked which gestures were considered acceptable in Samoan culture, that someone volunteered the information that none of them would use this signal in their classrooms. (When the gesture was

Acceptable

discussed in American Samoa native teachers agreed that it was a derogatory gesture). When a beckoning motion of the finger was discussed, the response was that this gesture was even worse than the first--it would only be used to call a dog!

After discussing various gestures to indicate class response all of the Samoan teachers agreed on a gesture that was acceptable to their

Unacceptable

culture. This was cupping the hand but substituting a motion which started from the side to the front and then back toward the teacher , for the previous front toward teacher movement. Such a small difference, but it meant so much. Time spent in front of a mirror practicing this gesture until it became a "natural" one was worth the effort for all the previous, unconscious resentment disappeared and there was a feeling of unity or "togetherness" in the workshop class. All ESL teachers will agree that teaching becomes extremely difficult and learning considerably curtailed when this bond between teacher and students is lacking.

Ask an Informant

There are studies currently being conducted in this field which should soon be available as helps for teachers. However, every teacher can usually find a friendly native adult informant, or better still a small group of friendly informants, and discuss with them the impact of their normal, habitual gestures on the students and the advisability of adapting, changing, or substituting these for more effective classroom gestures.

---

* This gesture is variously interpreted as "it's all over," "nothing today or nothing now", "he's not here", "I don't have it", "not available at present", "it's cancelled", "I don't know", etc.

Part II: A Structural Comparison of English and Tongan

BY ERMEL J. MORTON

This is the final part of Dr. Morton's article. His complete dissertation is available from: UNIVERSITY MICROFILMS, P.O. Box 1346, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48601

Tongan uses a prepositional phrase in many cases where English uses a clause. Even though he went is expressed in Tongan by neongo 'ene 'alu "despite his going" (neongo "despite," 'ena "his", and 'alu "going"). Another example, because he failed is rendered in Tongan as koe'uhi ko 'ena to'o "because of his failing" (koe'uhi "because of," ko substantive predicative, "ene "his," and to'o "failing"). The extent to which Tongan prepositional phrases are used in contexts where English uses a subordinate clause is a prominent difference between Tongan and English.

Tense Markers

Tongan uses function words to mark tense. 'Alu "go"> ne'e 'alu> "went 'oku alu "goes or is going> 'e alu "will go", etc. On the other hand, English uses inflection of verbs in the present and past tenses and function words in the progressive, perfect and future tense forms. In imitation of the Tongan verb pattern, a Tongan will say or write John was take instead of John took. When he does this, the Tongan is attempting to use was as the equivalent of the Tongan past tense marker na'e, which is used in an analogous way to the the English verb was in the sentence Na'e 'ita ia "He was angry" (Na'e past tense marker, 'ita "to be angry" and ia "he"). In this example, as in many other examples that may be cited, the tense marker may be translated as was (Na'e 'ita ia, literally Was angry he). The Tongan is aware of this similarity and is often tempted to use was in English as though it were a tense marker.

Thus the present and past tense forms of the verb "be," since they carry the inflections for tense, are often used by Tongans as substitutes for the past or present tense markers. Since English uses the function word will to mark the future, there is no problem for a Tongan in the use of the future tense in English. Sometimes a Tongan, conscious of the need for inflecting English verbs in the past tense, will even use was or were with a past tense form of the verb such as in John was took instead of John took. Verbs are perhaps the hardest past of English for a Tongan to master.

Dr. Ermel J. Morton is the Director of the Linguistics Institute at Ricks College in Rexburg, Idaho.

In Tongan, there are three numbers: singular, dual and plural with the plural indicating three or more. The latter two numbers are marked by specific function words or number markers. On the other hand, English uses the inflectional suffix -s or -es in forming the plural of most nouns. In Tongan, ongo is a function word marking the dual number of all nouns, as: fale "house'> ongo fale "houses". In the plural, kau is used to mark the plural number of nouns referring to persons: tangata "man'> kau tangata "men"; fanga is used with nouns referring to animals, insects or birds: pato "duck" fanga pato "ducks"; and ngaahi is used with nouns referring to things: hala "road" nagaahi hala "roads". Since English marks plural nouns by inflection, it is easy for a Tongan to omit the -s (or -es) suffix and to say or write all the box instead of all the boxes.

In English, there is agreement between subjects and verbs in certain tenses, whereas in Tongan there

is no such agreement. Consequently, a Tongan will often drop the -s from the third person, singular, present tense and will say or write He speak English rather than say He speaks English. A Tongan also has trouble with has and have and the various forms of be in the matter of agreement. He as difficulty in correlating am, is, are, was and were as well as has and have with the corresponding subject. Not only is the problem one of agreement of subject and verb but the tendency to use all such auxiliary verbs as though they were tense markers also confuses the situation. Since all auxiliary verbs in English show the tense inflection, they tend to seem like tense markers to the Tongan student of English. Consequently, a great deal of drill on verbs is necessary to overcome these problems.

Noun-Genitive Case

The possessive or genitive case of nouns also gives some trouble. Nouns are not inflected for genitive case in Tongan although there is one suffix which carries the same meaning as the English possessive form of. Note mata'i hele in which mata means "blade", 'i means "of" and hele means "knife". A mata'i hele is a knife blade. Since the suffix 'i "of" merely makes a modifier of the noun to which it is attached, it cannot, however, be classed as a genitive form despite the resemblances. It is rather a device showing modification.

Instead of using an inflected form such as John's in John's book to indicate the possessive case, Tongan uses a prepositional phrase consisting of the possessive preposition 'a "of" and a substantive, as in tohi 'a Sione "book of John". Thus, 'o "of" with its allomorphic form of 'a "of" is used in Tongan in a structure similar to the English prepositional phrase introduced by of: fale 'o Sione "house of John" etc. Tongans readily use the English possessive phrase with of, but must learn to use such possessive forms as John's coat, Mary's dress, etc. Some mistakes result in the use of English possessives.

Since much less difficulty is encountered by the language student in reducing multiple forms to a single form than is encountered in expanding one form to many, Tongans readily learn the use of English possessive pronouns when the latter parallel the former in their usage. For example, 'eku, hoku, si'eku, and si'oku, all meaning "my", are readily reduced to their single English counterpart my. Moreover, both the Tongan and English possessive pronouns are used in a position before nouns, so no difficulty is experienced in their use with regard to position. But there are uses of possessive pronouns which cause problems. One difficulty with regard to the use of possessive pronouns is one which concerns the difference between the -o group possessives and the -e group when used with verbs. In finding an equivalent English expression for 'ene taki "his leading" vs. hono taki "his being led," 'ene tukuaki'i "his accusing" vs. hono tukuaki'i "his being accused," a Tongan sometimes has difficulty in differentiating active and passive in the English expression used. The greatest difficulty in use of possessive pronouns, however, is encountered with use of the indefinite possessives. Note the example: 'E fefe ha'aku 'alu? ('E "will", fefe "be how", ha'aku "a my", 'alu "going"). It is difficult for a Tongan to arrive at the English sentence "How could I go?" or "How could I possibly go?" from this Tongan sentence.

In view of the fact that English, as has been indicated, makes use of function words as well as inflection for marking comparison of adjectives and adverbs, and since Tongan uses function words exclusively, there is some difficulty for Tongans learning to use English inflected adjective and adverb forms such as bigger, biggest, smaller, smallest, faster, fastest, farther, farthest, better, best, etc. The difficulty is greatest with regard to the use of the irregular forms, both adjective and adverb.

The differences between Tongan and English in formation of the com-

(Continued on Page 9)

Teaching Pattern Practice With a Language Game

BY CARLA WEUSTHOFF

In our Hawaii schools we find many children who rarely make use of our basic English sentence patterns and who have extremely meager spoken vocabularies. We need to provide interesting and easy opportunities for repeated oral expression using standard English forms. There are many specific speech concepts and practices we need to teach and then the crystalization and expansion of this knowledge calls for drill.

Is there a flexible oral word game which can be adapted to different levels of learning or skill and which can provide practice in a variety of concepts, or specific aims which the teacher has at the moment?

I have used the simple parlor game "I Spy" (or "I See" - or a variation, "I Am Thinking of Something") as a language arts tool to develop various responses from the children, and have found the youngsters most enthusiastic participants. And because this game seems to fit so well into the principles and methodology we have been studying in TESL, I thought I might suggest it to you and point out some of its advantages.

Miss Carla Weusthoff is a 3rd grade teacher at Fern School in Kalihi.

Primarily, the game can provide pattern practice in four basic English sentence structures: (1) the three-part sentence, (2) the inverted question, (3) the negative response, (4) the positive response. It allows for repetition, replacement of words and expansion of expressions, and it highly motivates vocabulary growth.

Method of Presenting. The teacher explains to the children the nature of the game (which will follow) and if the children are second graders or above, she will need to tell them that although the game they are going to play will be fun, and may even become very exciting, it is a learning device and the rules of the game call for their adhering to the proper speech patterns that are being taught. (Otherwise they will wave and point, saying "is it dis?" or "it dat?")

Using the correct stress, rhythm and intonation, the teacher presents the statement and answer forms - perhaps the following:

(Child who is IT, or the Leader)

2 I see something 3 green. 1

(Child volunteering to guess)

2 Is it the 3 green chalkboard? 3

(Leader) No, it is not. Or, No, it isn't. Or, Yes, it is.

Because we usually have several very shy or inarticulate children in a class the teacher might, in accordance with Finocchiaro's method, have the whole class repeat these utterances for sound practice and to gain confidence. When the whole class has imitated the teacher for two or three examples, the teacher may call upon individual children to repeat alone from their seats. Then, she may choose a capable child to be the first "IT", and so on. The teacher needs to stress that turns to guess be widely given so that every child will have a chance to participate.

Once the sentence - question pattern is mastered by most of the children, the objectives of the game can be shifted to a variety of other skills, which will depend upon the nature of the group-age level, English language familiarity, etc.

One can see the possibilities of using this game in extremely simple and controlled form with a group of very young children, or children from non-English speaking families. By utilizing a limited number of objects,

or pictures, a yellow banana, a yellow pencil, a yellow flower; a red apple, a red crayon, a red ball; a green leaf, a green book, a green marble, the names and identification of a few colors and of a few common articles can be taught - along with the important statement and question patterns.

Application

For utilization in the needs of the second to slow-sixth grade Hawaii youngsters, we can find this game helpful in some of the following ways:

(1) To expand upon the vocabulary building aspect, it involves identifying objects by the names by which they are known and making use of these names. This means using many nouns and adjectives, and it works toward overcoming usage of expressions like "da kind", dis dat, da-blah-ovah-dere, etc.

(2) It requires much use of correct possessive forms, i.e. "Is it Mary's dress?" - not "Mary dress?".

(3) It can provide additional sentence usage: "Please give us a hint," (or a clue); and "I suggest that we give up."

(4) It allows for creative expression for the more articulate children who enjoy enlarging questions to fairly elaborate degrees as in "Is it the green leaves in the pattern of Henry's shirt?", or "Is it the blue words on the cover of John's book?", etc. In fact, the child who is "IT" soon develops a tendency to require specific questions - he asks "what pink on the bulletin board?", and the questioning child is faced with the need to use adequate language to point out what he has in mind.

(5) The above paragraph shows that the child learns the need and value of prepositional phrases to indicate just 'where' - to show relationships in regard to location and position.

(6) The game can be geared to a limited vocabulary or concept building area, such as a social studies vocabulary (items of clothing, etc.) or arithmetic concepts - geometric shapes - "I see something round, something square, a rectangle, a circle, etc."

Throughout the progress of such a game, the teacher observes and listens to the children. In rare instances she may want to intervene to enable the children to better express an idea they are struggling to convey. She may encourage a particularly shy child to take part. She indentifies children who may need individual help later.

One very practical value of this game which should not be overlooked is that in its more general form it requires no materials at all, except the environment, and can, therefore, be played anywhere and by any number of players. It can likewise be used by the children in their own social situations beyond the classroom.

This article was submitted by Carla Weustoff as part of her project in a TESL workshop held at The Church College of Hawaii during the annual Aloha Summer session.

Workshops in TESL Held at Church College

Over fifty elementary and secondary teachers from Hawaii and the Mainland participated in two workshops in English as a Second Language during the annual Aloha Summer Session of The Church College of Hawaii.

During the four-hour daily sessions participants were given an intensive introduction to phonetics and TESL methodology. During the second week of the two week workshops teachers demonstrated and, in many cases, actually taught short lessons that they had developed to apply TESL methodology to the problems found in the classroom.

Summer school officials indicate that 906 people attended the 1968-69 Aloha Summer Session. Next year additional workshops will be offered in English as a Second Language and many other areas.

English and Tongan--

(Continued from Page 6)

parative and superlative of adjectives and adverbs is apparent from the following examples: big, bigger, biggest (inflection) and lahi "big" lahi ange "bigger" lahi taha "biggest" (use of function words); bad>worse>worst (inflection) and kovi "bad" kovi ange "worse" kovi taha "worst".

English makes use of four function words to indicate comparison: more, most, less and least. On the other hand, Tongan uses three function words to mark the comparative degree and only one to mark the superlative. These are ange, hake and hifo, marking the comparative degree and taha used to mark the superlative. Note the examples: lahi "big" lahi ange "bigger" or lahi hake "bigger"; si'i "small" si'i ange "smaller" or si'i hifo "smaller"; beautiful>more beautiful>most beautiful or less beautiful>least beautiful. Since the use of function words in Tongan parallels the use of function words in English in forming such comparisons, Tongans readily take the transfer to the English constructions with no difficulty. As has been stated, the main difficulty to the Tongan is in the use of the inflected comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs.

Adjective Position

The normal adjective position in English is before the noun that the adjective modifies as in big house: In Tongan, this order is reversed for most limiting adjectives: fale lahi (fale "house" lahi "big"), tamasi'i angalelei "well-behaved boy" (tamasi'i "boy" angalelei "well-behaved"). Problems sometimes arise for Tongans in the placement of English adjectives, but there are not so many problems of this sort as in the placement of adverbs.

The greater number of problems with adverbs result mainly from the wide variety of adverb positions that are possible in the English sentence. Only is an example of an adverb with extreme flexibility of use in English. Note the following examples: Only he wanted to go early. He only wanted to go early. He wanted only to go early. He wanted to go, only early. He wanted to only go early. The combination He wanted to go early only is not likely. Such a variety of positions for adverb confuses a Tongan, as Tongan has very few adverbs that may occur in positions other than a position next to the verb. Fakamolemole "please" and na'a "perhaps" are among the few adverbs that may occur elsewhere than next to the verb and even they are not moveable as many English adverbs are.

Adverb Position

Most Tongan adverbs follow, and a few precede, the verb or adjective they modify. Some meanings that are expressed with an adverb in English are expressed in Tongan with verbs accompanied by a tense sign, as: Na'e tuai 'ene lele "His running was slow (Na'e past tense marker, tuai "slow", ene "his", and lele "running). An example of this usage is the following: Na'e 'ikai te ne 'alu "He didn't go" (Na'e past tense marker, 'ikai "not", te an allomorph of the so-called conjunction ke which is a function word used with verbs in noun clauses, ne "he", 'alu "go"). In this example, 'ikai "not" appears in the verb slot following a tense marker and hence must be classified as a verbal.

Tongan adverbs modifying adjectives usually follow the word they modify as lahi 'aupito "very large" (lahi "large" and 'aupito "very"). Some Tongan adverbs modify adjectives, however, precede the adjective as fu'u lahi "exceedingly large".

'I he 'ene ha'u is also equivalent in meaning to the English clause when he comes referring to future action.

As is common, more or less, with most languages, a number of Tongan prepositional phrases beginning with 'i "in or at" or ki "to" are equivalent syntactically to a direct object or goal in English. The same is true of some English prepositional phrases and Tongan direct objects or goals. For example, in English we say I saw the man but in Tongan a person says Na'a ku mamata ki he tangata, literally "I saw to the man" (Na'a past tense marker, ku "I", mamata "see", ki "to", he "the" and tangata "man"). Other similar Tongan verbs requiring prepositional phrase following them are tokoni "help", sio "see", 'ofa "love" and manako "like". Each of these verbs is normally followed by a prepositional phrase beginning with ki or 'i that is equivalent in meaning to the corresponding English verb followed by a direct object or goal. Note the sentence He helped me which is equivalent to the Tongan Na'a ne tokoni kiate au (Na'a past tense marker, ne "he" tokoni "help", kiate an inflected form of ki meaning "to" and au "me"). The reverse situation is true of the verbs which in Tongan are transitive, taking a direct object, but in English the same idea is expressed by a verb plus a prepositional phrase. For example, the Tongan sentence Na'a nau katai'i ia "They laughed at him" (Na'a past tense marker, nau "they", kata'i "laughed at", ia "him")may influence a Tongan to say "They laughed him", leaving out the preposition at.

Syntax Comparison

The syntactic constructions of English are much more complex than Tongan. Tongan does not have as many complex sentences, especially those containing several subordinate clauses. This complexity of English syntax creates many problems for a Tongan learning English. However, because of limited space, it will not be possible in the present article to treat all of the problems of English syntax met by a Tongan learning English.

New Linguistics Journal Issued In New Guinea

Pacific area language and linguistic studies were enriched recently with the publication of KIVUNG, the journal of the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea.

KIVUNG, according to Andras Balint the editor, was formed in October 1967 with the aim of promoting research in English, in Melanesian Pidgin, in indigenous languages, and in general and applied linguistics.

In this first issue of what is hoped to be a quarterly publication a selection of papers from the first annual conference is given. Francis C. Johnson, Foundation Professor of English and President of the Society, discusses English "supersententials". The use of the computer in linguistic research is described by Maxwell H. McKay, Foundation Professor of English and President of the So- of Mathematics. Two papers, given by John R. Prince and Andras Balint present contrasting views of the time concepts of Papuans and New Guineans. A new approach to dialect study is suggested by Bjorn Jernudd, Secretary of the Linguistic Society of Australia. Andrew Taylor gives a socio-linguistic view of the language situation in a Papuan village. Problems of emphasis and contrast in English nominal constructions are analysed by English Lecturer, Don Stokes.

To become a member of KIVUNG, the Linguistic Society of the University of Papua and New Guinea, a payment of ten dollars will provide a corporate membership; and five dollars will provide an individual membership. KIVUNG, the quarterly journal of the society, will be sent free to members in either classification. Subscriptions should be addressed to KIVUNG, P.O. Box 1144, Boroko, Port Moresby, T.P.N.G.

Education Survey Reveals 2,312 ESL Students in Hawaii Public Schools

The public schools of Hawaii have about 2,312 non-native speakers of English enrolled, according to figures found in a Survey of Non-English Speaking Students Attending the Public Schools in Hawaii, Research Report No. 58, published May 23, 1968, by the Office of Research, Department of Education.

This number was obtained in a a survey which received responses from 190 out of 208 schools included in the initial survey.

This number, which represents 1.4 per cent of the total public school enrollment, was obtained from the responses of the 190 schools that completed the survey questionaire. This count breaks down into the following groups: Samoan 611, Japanese 416, Philippines 337, Ilocano 335, Cantonese 142, Tagalog 121, Chinese (Dialect not determined) 90, Korean 40, Spanish 39, Visayan 37, Mandarin 34, German 21, So. Pacific 20, French 14, Chamorro 10, Tongan 9, other 36. These students are found in grades K-12 with a slightly heavier concentration in the lower grades.

With 158,418 students classified as native-speakers of English enrolled in all public schools in the state, perhaps it isn't too surprising to find that of the teachers surveyed, none had a teaching certificate in TESL and only two had master's degrees in TESL. Very few had had TESL practice teaching experience. Many had attended workshops and institutes in TESL.

Hawaii News

We were all surprised and saddened to hear of the death of Dr. Richard C. Sittler on June 18, 1968. Dr. Sittler was Chairman of the Department of English as a Second Language, the University of Hawaii.

Mr. Ted Plaister has accepted the position of Chairman of the Department of English as a Second Language. Assisting him will be Charles W. Mason, who will be Director of the English Language Institute component of the department.

In-service workshops in TESL were conducted in Tonga, American Samoa, and Western Samoa during June by William D. Conway and Mrs. Alice C. Pack of The Church College of Hawaii English Language Institute at the request of the Church School system owned and operated by the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints.

One week was spent in each country showing films, conducting classes, holding individual conferences with teachers, and visiting classes.

TESL REPORTER
Box 25
The Church College of Hawaii
Laie, Hawaii 96762

Non-Profit Organization
U. S. Postage
PAID
Laie, Oahu, Hawaii
Permit No. 1