

# TESL

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## Language Acquisition and Dialectalism

By PATRICIA G. ADKINS

We have no neat Litmus-Paper Test for the evaluation of language acquisition. We know that all children begin to speak at about the same age, regardless of the language involved. We also note that normal children have learned the basic structure of their language by the age of five or six. Houston emphasizes the common age of onset of language and the common course of language acquisition of children around the world, making the general assumption that this was due to neurological factors.<sup>1</sup> Many speech pathologists and psychologists accept man's inherent tendency to learn language by exposure to linguistic features. In the case of the child, this is not a matter of formal teaching, but informal listening to the phonology, morphology and syntax of the language, resulting in his "figuring out" the relationships of the sounds, forms and patterns surrounding him. In the situation in which he says "foots" for "feet," as in an analogy with "hand-hands," a simple correction by parents, peers, siblings or teacher may serve to correct the error. This

would similarly be true of "bringed" for "brought" or "blowed" for "blew."

In the case of the adult learning a second language, the learning problem is different from that of the child, but it is a common problem in all language learning. Children rapidly expand their vocabularies if they are expanding in their native tongue; this is a normal procedure. The basic units are already formulated; the sounds, spelling, and pronunciation are quite similar. It is possible

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to increase a child's vocabulary from 1,000 words to 10,000 words by using the same familiar language rules. The sentence structure is basically the same. His "accent" will be that of his parents and playmates whom he first heard and imitated. The speech pattern of imitation which we learn when we are beginning to talk is the one which generally remains with us in adult life.

Lado says: "The adult speaker of one language cannot easily pronounce language sounds of another even though he has no speech impediment, and what is even more startling, he cannot easily hear language sounds other than those of his native language even though he suffers no hearing defect. This is one of the major problem areas confronting the bilingual student."<sup>2</sup>

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Time and pitch differences are likely to be a major factor, for we recognize immediately these deviations from our own speech. In addition, there are changes of word emphasis within the structural make-up of the sentence or thought. On the basis of these differences, it appears logically sound that the term "accent" fails to embody the problems evidenced by the majority of students who learn English as a second language. Grant Fairbanks suggested the term "dialectal speech."<sup>3</sup>

However, dialectal speech, or "bidialectal" speech has another connotation today. This term is currently utilized to describe the language of the economically disadvantaged child in the United States. It is applied to the disadvantaged black child, to the Spanish-speaking child in the Southwest, and to the culturally deprived child in any area. The speech of these children is not the so-called "standard" speech of the middle-class monolingual English speaker in this country. Baratz defines dialectal speech within a frame of reference of substandard speech learned in a language environment where standard English is not spoken.<sup>4</sup>

Does the bilingual speech or dialectal speech or substandard speech of such youngsters fall into the category of "defective" speech? Is this "defective speech" when it is used by an adult?

My personal feeling is that the child or adult learning English as a second language should be taught the phonology and syntax of an educated person, if only for the ultimate goal of being able to communicate with all persons with whom he will come in contact. He will appear to be uneducated if his speech reflects otherwise. Although his speech may not be considered "defective" in the sense of the word, he may be "language handicapped."

Phonology must be *taught*; morphology must be *taught*; syntax must be *taught*. The ultimate language goal of the student will determine his needs. We have no means of judging language outside of the function it serves in its own cultural environment. One dialect is not "better" than another. Our judgments are valid only within the limitation of our immediate society. How do you measure, in terms we can all understand, language proficiency?

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2. Robert Lado, *Linguistics Across Cultures* (Ann Arbor; University of Michigan Press, 1957), p. 11.
3. Grant Fairbanks, *Voice and Articulation Drillbook* (New York; Harper and Brothers, 1940), p. 226.
4. Joan C. Baratz, "Language in the Economically Disadvantaged Child: A Perspective," *ASHA Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 4 (April, 1968), pp. 143-145.

# ELI TEXTBOOK SURVEY

Since nothing in the way of a textbook survey had been published since Dr. Harold B. Allen's very valuable TENES report (NCTE, 1966) early in 1970 approximately 1,200 questionnaires were sent to TESOL members and institutions regarding the texts they were using in teaching English to non-native speakers. A questionnaire form was also published in the TESL REPORTER.

There were 255 replies to the mailed questionnaire and two replies from the published form, plus several returned forms from those interested in the survey who were not currently teaching ESL students. Replies were segregated into Elementary, Junior High, High School, College, and Adult (non college); some schools reported on kindergarten through Grade 12 with no distinction as to where specific books were used.

Only five replies were received from countries other than the United States so the survey is essentially of books used in the United States. There were two replies from Puerto Rico, one from Tonga, and two from the Trust Territories.

The complete report will be published in the next issue of the TESL REPORTER (Winter, 1971).



# Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion<sup>1</sup>

By YAO SHEN

The subject of this article is simple predicate expansion. It discusses observable grammatical word strings and grammatical formulas of three auxiliaries and two modals in the expansion of the English predicate in two relationships. One of these relationships is external; the other internal. The external relationship is that between the subject and the predicate. The feature under consideration is within the predicate; the subject, though a member of a sentence is, nevertheless, outside the predicate.<sup>2</sup> The internal relationship concerns the behavior among members within the predicate. It includes formations of continuous strings and discontinuous strings with auxiliaries and modals including the verb. The three

Expanded predicates are formed by the addition of auxiliaries and modals before the verb. The longer the expanded predicate is, the farther apart the subject and the verb are. The first member in an expanded predicate is either an auxiliary or a modal. It is the first auxiliary or modal that carries tense distinction; the verb does not. In the following pairs of sentences with both unexpanded and expanded predicates, a. indicates the present tense; b. the past tense.

	subject		verb
1a.	<u>They</u>		<u>do</u>
b.	<u>They</u>		<u>did</u>
2a.	<u>They</u>		<u>are done</u>
b.	<u>They</u>		<u>were done</u>
3a.	<u>They</u>		<u>are being done</u>
b.	<u>They</u>		<u>were being done</u>
4a.	<u>They</u>	<u>have been being done</u>	
b.	<u>They</u>	<u>had been being done</u>	
5a.	<u>They will</u>	<u>have been being done</u>	
b.	<u>They would</u>	<u>have been being done</u>	

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auxiliaries used are *be*, *have*, and *do*; and the two modals are *will*, and *can*. Details are also given regarding the behavior of *do*. The purpose here is to call attention to the supplementation of opposites between the observable and the operational. Examples are affirmative statements with simple expanded predicates that do not use words such as *and*, *or*, *not* and *here*, *now*, *immediately*. Unexpanded ones are included for contrast.

A feature which is independent of either relationship external or internal and yet must be taken up here is tense. Tense is the present/past distinction. It is a distinction in form. In English, it is indicated by the inflectional suffix of the first member in the predicate. The verb in the predicate occurs last. In an unexpanded predicate, tense is carried by the verb which is the first member and also is the last one.

present: They do  
past: They did

Two sets (A and B) of twelve sentences each appear below. The present and past tenses are indicated by a. and b. Set A contains unexpanded predicates; set B has expanded predicates with *be*, *have* and *do* as auxiliaries and *will* and *can* as modals. Both sets have *go*, *be*, *have*, *do*, *will* and *can* as their lexical verbs.

1. This is the first of four installments. I am grateful to Robert A. Peters and Elizabeth Bowman, editor and associate editor of *Journal of English Linguistics*, Western Washington State College, and Janet Callender of the University of Hawaii for their detailed and constructive criticisms.

2. The terms **subject** and **predicate** are used for the purpose of explanatory convenience. No offense to or defense of Chomsky's deep grammar and Fillmore's deep grammar is intended here.

Set A.

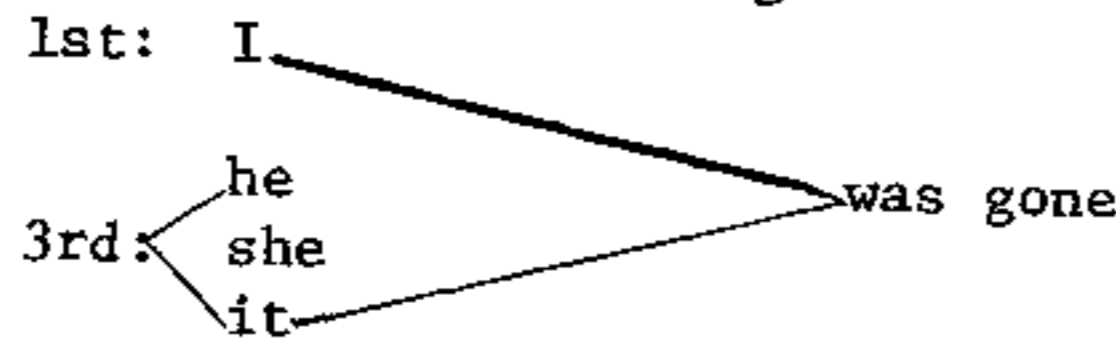
A1a.	<u>Mary goes to church</u>		verb
A2a.	<u>Mary is funny</u>		<u>go</u>
A3a.	<u>Mary has problems</u>		<u>be</u>
A4a.	<u>Mary does the dishes</u>		<u>have</u>
A5a.	<u>Mary wills her books to her school</u>		<u>do</u>
A6a.	<u>Mary cans tomatoes</u>		<u>will</u>
			<u>can</u>
A1b.	<u>Mary went to church</u>		<u>go</u>
A2b.	<u>Mary was funny</u>		<u>be</u>
A3b.	<u>Mary had problems</u>		<u>have</u>
A4b.	<u>Mary did the dishes</u>		<u>do</u>
A5b.	<u>Mary willed her books to her school</u>		<u>will</u>
A6b.	<u>Mary canned tomatoes</u>		<u>can</u>

Set B.

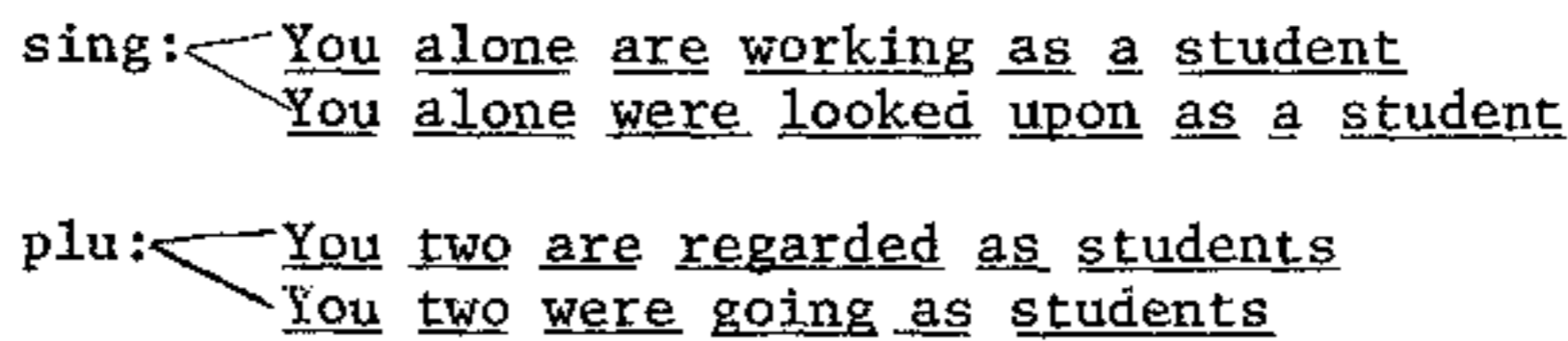
		modal	auxiliary	verb
B1a.	<u>Mary is gone</u>		<u>be</u>	<u>go</u>
B2a.	<u>Mary is being funny</u>		<u>be</u>	<u>be</u>
B3a.	<u>Mary has had problems</u>		<u>have</u>	<u>have</u>
B4a.	<u>Mary does do the dishes</u>		<u>do</u>	<u>do</u>
B5a.	<u>Mary will will her books to her school</u>	<u>will</u>		<u>will</u>
B6a.	<u>Mary can can tomatoes</u>	<u>can</u>		<u>can</u>
B1b.	<u>Mary was gone</u>		<u>be</u>	<u>go</u>
B2b.	<u>Mary was being funny</u>		<u>be</u>	<u>be</u>
B3b.	<u>Mary had had problems</u>		<u>have</u>	<u>have</u>
B4b.	<u>Mary did do the dishes</u>		<u>do</u>	<u>do</u>
B5b.	<u>Mary would will her books to her school</u>	<u>will</u>		<u>will</u>
B6b.	<u>Mary could can tomatoes</u>	<u>can</u>		<u>can</u>

The external relationship deals with the feature of subject agreement of *be*, *have*, *do*, *will*, and *can*.

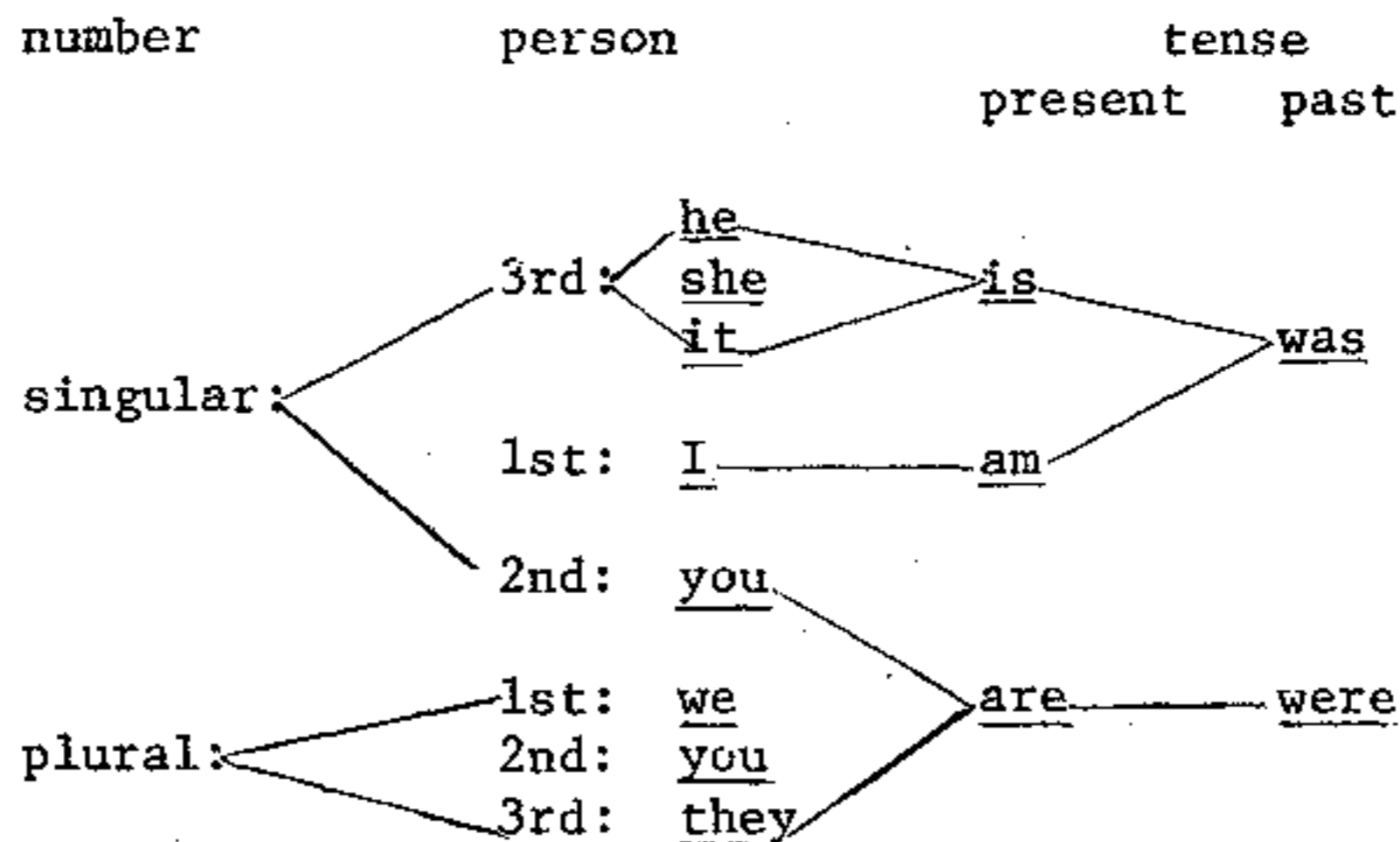
Subject agreement is most observable in *be*. *Was* agrees with both the first person singular and the third person singular.



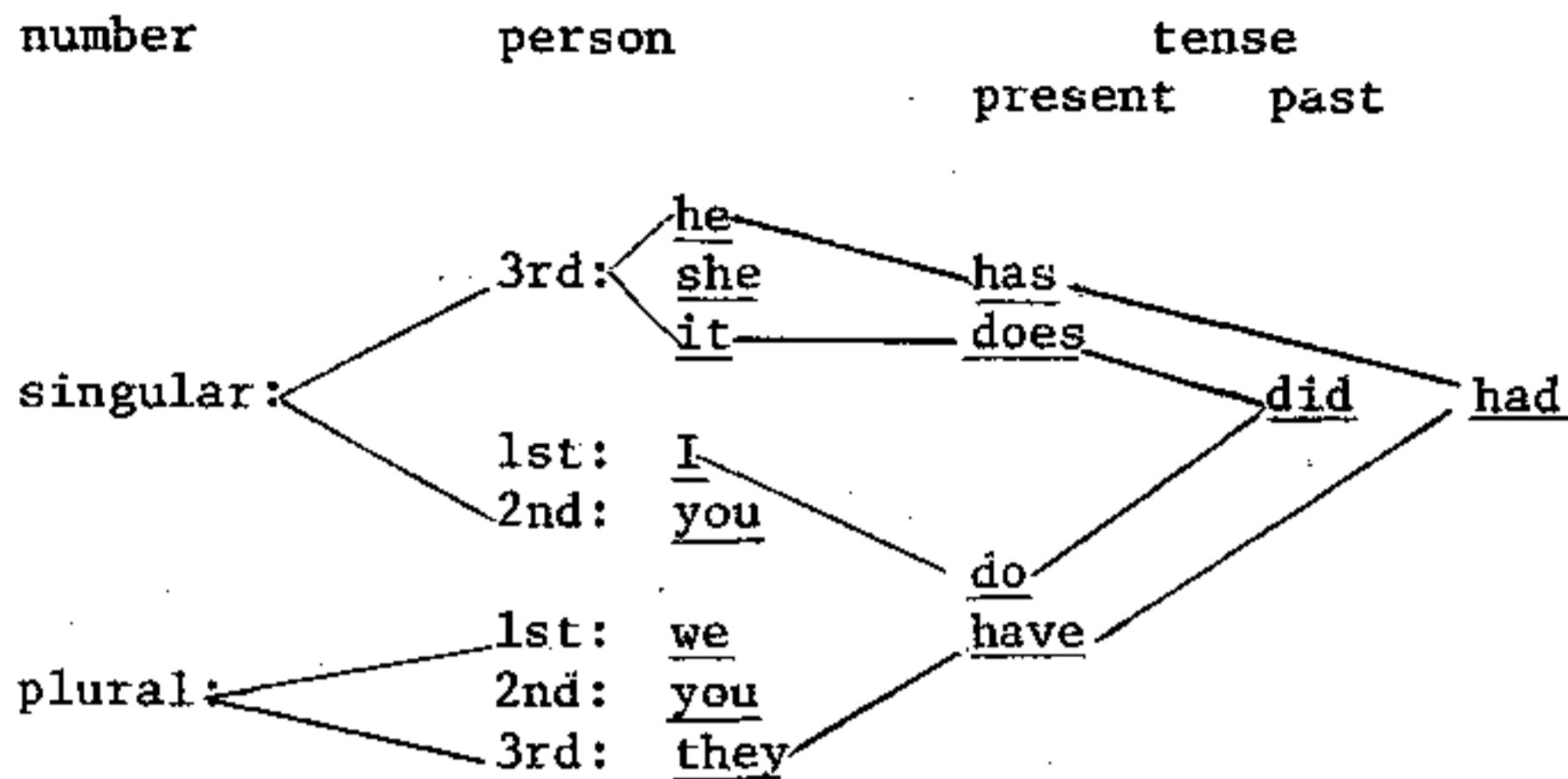
*Are* and *were* agree with the second person in both the singular and the plural.



Subject agreement occurs in both tenses. Present tense *is* agrees with *he*, *she*, *it*; present tense *am* agrees with *I*. Past tense *was* agrees with *he*, *she*, *it* as well as with *I*. The distribution in subject agreement with *be* is as follows.



Subject agreement distributions between *have* and *do* are the same. They are not as extensive as those with *be*.



Whether *be*, *have*, and *do* are the auxiliaries in expanded predicates (auxiliary + verb) or whether they are the verbs in unexpanded predicates (auxiliary = verb), the feature of subject agreement remains.

expanded

unexpanded

<u>Mary is doing her work</u>	( <u>Is Mary doing her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she is</u>
<u>They are done with their work</u>	( <u>Are they done with their work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>they are</u>
<u>Mary has done her work</u>	( <u>Has Mary done her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she has</u>
<u>Mary does do her work</u>	( <u>Does Mary do her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she does</u>
<u>Mary was doing her work</u>	( <u>Was Mary doing her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she was</u>
<u>They were done with their work</u>	( <u>Were they done with their work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>they were</u>
<u>Mary had done her work</u>	( <u>Had Mary done her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she had</u>
<u>Mary did do her work</u>	( <u>Did Mary do her work?</u>	<u>Yes,</u> ) <u>she did</u>

There are two sets of *be*, *have*, and *do* as verbs in the unexpanded predicates. They are the lexical = verb set and the auxiliary = verb set. Both sets observe subject agreement, and both sets have the same past forms. (See sentences A2a-A4a, A2b-A4b; B2a-B4b above.)

lexical = verb

auxiliary = verb

Mary is (funny)  
They are (students)  
Mary has (problems)  
Mary does (the dishes)

Mary is (doing her work)  
They are (done with their work)  
Mary has (done her work)  
Mary did (do her work)

Mary was (funny)  
They were (students)  
Mary had (problems)  
Mary did (the dishes)

Mary was (doing her work)  
They were (done with their work)  
Mary had (done her work)  
Mary did (do her work)

The modals *will* and *can* lack the overt -s form as the present third person singular marker.

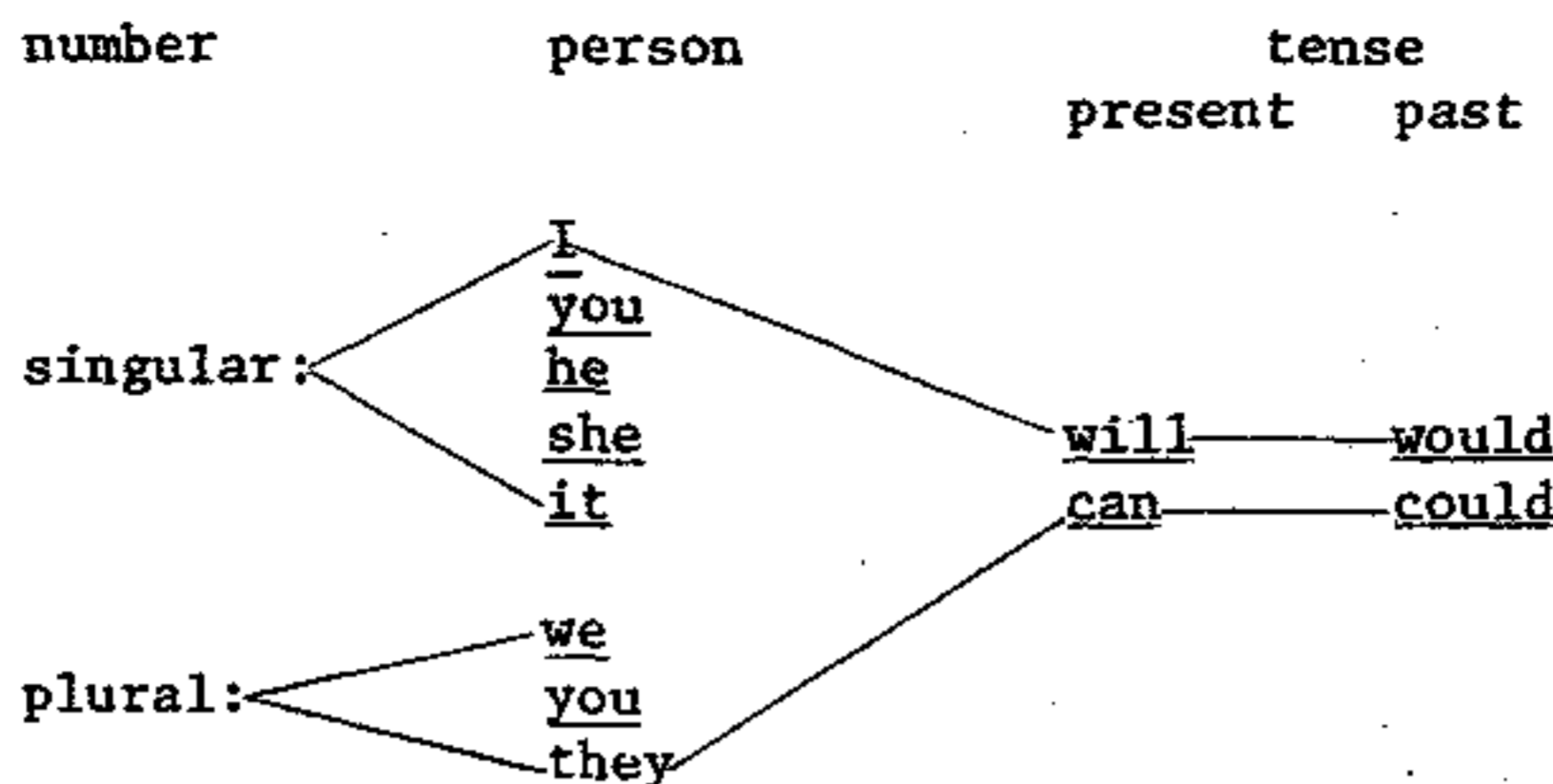
\*He wills come to see you  
 \*He cans come to see you

Modals *will* and *can* may be said to have no subject agreement. This feature can be observed in expanded predicates (modal + verb).

sing: I will enroll as a student  
She will enroll as a student  
You alone will enroll as a student

plu: You two will enroll as students

The lack of subject agreement is the same with *will* and *can*.



When the modals function as the verb (modal=verb) in unexpanded predicates, this absence of subject agreement remains.

(Will Mary finish her work? Yes,) she will

(Can Mary read the newspaper? Yes,) she can

(Would Mary do the shopping? Yes,) she would

(Could Mary go home? Yes,) she could

There are two sets of *will* and *can* functioning as verbs in unexpanded predicates. They are the lexical = verb set and the modal = verb set. The lexical = verb set observes subject agreement; the modal = verb set does not. The past forms of the two sets are different also. (See sentences A5a, A6a; A5b, A6b; and B5a, B6a; B5b, B6b above.)

lexical = verb

Mary wills (her books to her school)

Mary cans (tomatoes)

Mary willed (her books to her school)

Mary canned (tomatoes)

modal = verb

Mary will (finish her work)

Mary can (read the newspaper)

Mary would (do the shopping)

Mary could (go home)

*Be, have, do, will, and can* occurring in either the expanded predicate (auxiliary + verb, modal + verb) or the unexpanded predicate (auxiliary = verb, modal = verb) can be classified according to whether they observe subject agreement or not. Auxiliaries observe subject agreement; modals do not.

auxiliary + verb

Mary is doing her work

They are done with their work

Mary has done her work

Mary does do her work

Mary was doing her work

They were done with their work

Mary had done her work

Mary did do her work

modal + verb

Mary will do her work

They will do their work

Mary can do her work

They can do their work

Mary would do her work

They would do their work

Mary could do her work

They could do their work

auxiliary = verb

Mary is (doing her work)

They are (done with their work)

Mary has (done her work)

Mary does (do her work)

Mary was (doing her work)

They were (done with their work)

Mary had (done her work)

Mary did (do her work)

modal = verb

Mary will (do her work)

They will (do their work)

Mary can (do her work)

They can (do their work)

Mary would (do her work)

They would (do their work)

Mary could (do her work)

They could (do their work)



The following sentences exemplify *be*, *have*, *do*, *will* and *can* in the external relationship.  $\emptyset$  is used after the modal to show a lack of subject agreement.

	Subject	Predicate	
<u>be</u> :	He	is	going
	He	was	gone
<u>have</u> :	He	has	gone
<u>do</u> :	He	does	go
<u>will</u> :	He	will- $\emptyset$	go
<u>can</u> :	He	can- $\emptyset$	go

(continued on next page)

## **BOOK REVIEWS**

Erazmus, Edward T. and Harry J. Cargas. **English as a Second Language: A Reader.** Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1970. 463 pp. paperback. U.S. Price \$5.75

A collection of short essays and fiction by American authors from colonial times to the present. Three tables of contents are included: (1) Chronological order (the regular sequence of topics), (2) Word Count (265 to 2770 words each), and (3) Grade level of each reading (from 4th and below to 13th-15th)-length of the readings and difficulty of content are not correlated. Each reading has a short introduction giving historical background information. Following the readings are three essay topics,

Vocabulary Builders (using selected words from the article), Comprehension Quizzes (multiple choice and true-false), and Structure Drills. For the structure drills students write original sentences patterned on model sentences using a frame containing specific words and/or phrases which controls syntax. Two substitutions of phrase or clause length are required in each model. An excellent book for advanced ESL students, particularly for college prep courses in reading comprehension and vocabulary building.

McIntosh, Lois, Teresita V. Ramos, and Rosalina Morales Goulet. **Advancing in English.** American Book Co. New York, Manila, 1970. 278 pp. Softcover.

A comprehensive text for intermediate students with good coverage on two of the usually neglected areas. Both tag questions, which have explanations of English usage with affirmative and negative statements and tags, and disjunctive *or* questions are used in the intonation drills and explanations. However, teachers will need supplemental material on *how much* and *how many* with *be* as this is totally ignored although the coverage with *do* is adequate.

The first eight sections have a short introductory reading/listening selection or

dialog with comprehension questions. Grammatical explanations of basic English sentence patterns and exercises follow. There are also writing exercises and pronunciation explanations and drills in each of these sections.

The final section "Writing in English" is a review of the basic sentences and their common transformations with a few pages devoted to writing a composition.

ALICE C. PACK

In the external relationship, *do* observes subject agreement in the way *be* and *have* do. Its behavior differs from that of *will* and *can* which do not observe subject agreement. The external relationship of *be*, *have*, *do*, *will*, and *can* is given below with plus (+) and minus (-) indicating the presence and absence of subject agreement.

relationship:	<u>can</u>	<u>will</u>	<u>do</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>be</u>
external:	-	-	+	+	+

Auxiliaries (+) and modals (-) are distinctive in their external relationship.

The internal relationship deals with expansion phenomena inside the predicate. The expansions are examined with the verb as the point of reference. The verb occurs last in an expanded predicate.

The predicate of an affirmative statement frequently has an observable verb. The verb can be the sole member in the predicate such as *They do* and *They did*. A predicate can be expanded by the addition of words, part of a word, or both. Words added can be auxiliaries and modals.

1. They go
2. They do go
3. They will go

Words added can be neither auxiliaries nor modals.

1. They travel
2. They often travel
3. They often travel extensively

Part of a word can be added to the predicate.

1. The sheep look happy
2. The sheep look-s happy
3. The sheep look-ed happy

This kind of expansion, though it is within the predicate and also with reference to the verb, is tense distinction and subject agreement. Tense distinction is independent of either relationship. Subject agreement is external relationship. A predicate can also be expanded by the addition of a word and part of a word.

1. They go
2. They are go-ing
3. They will be-Ø go-n

Predicate expansion examined here is of the last kind. It includes strings that begin with the auxiliary or the modal which has (+) or (-) subject agreement and end with the verb including all the inflectional suffixes other than those of subject agreement, which is external relationship. A string must have a minimum of two members, and strings can be continuous or discontinuous.

Continuous strings have members that occur successively, and they can be as short as two members to as long as five members, the longest string treated here.

A continuous string can have two members with the preceding one being an auxiliary (aux) and the following being the verb (V). Example sentences are

	aux	V
<u>My heart</u>	<u>is</u>	<u>smiling</u>
<u>All worries</u>	<u>are</u>	<u>gone</u>
<u>Silence</u>	<u>has</u>	<u>fallen</u>
<u>Such moments</u>	<u>do</u>	<u>happen</u>

The formula for a 2-member continuous string is *aux + V*.

In a continuous string of *aux + V* *be*, *have*, and *do* all participate forming

<u>be</u> + V
<u>have</u> + V
<u>do</u> + V

The following (+) indicates the occurrence of *be*, *have*, and *do* as the preceding member, and the verb as the following member.

preceding	<u>do</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>be</u>
following			
	V	+	+
			+

A continuous string of three members can have *aux + aux* before the verb.

	aux	aux	V
<u>The curtains</u>	<u>are</u>	<u>being</u>	<u>drawn</u>
<u>The dishes</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>been</u>	<u>done</u>
<u>The light</u>	<u>has</u>	<u>been</u>	<u>shining</u>

The formula for a 3-member continuous string is *aux + aux + V*.

In a continuous string of three members with *aux + aux* before the verb, the only occurrences are

<u>be</u> + <u>be</u>
<u>have</u> + <u>be</u>



Other than these two strings, *be*, *have*, and *do* do not form any continuous strings in *aux + aux* before the verb. The distribution below gives their occurrences (+) and non-occurrences (-) in *aux + aux + V*.

preceding following	<u>do</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>be</u>
<u>do</u>	-	-	-
<u>have</u>	-	-	-
<u>be</u>	-	+	+

*Be + be* (a1) and *have + be* (a2) are the two basic 2-member strings in forming longer continuous strings.

It must be remembered that though continuous string *be + be + V* occurs as *aux + aux + V* in the language, sentence examples with *be + be + V* as part of their predicate are by no means frequent. A speculative explanation could be that *be + be + V* is a recent development of Late Modern English and is now undergoing the survival test of time.<sup>3</sup> The same reason is perhaps also responsible for the low frequency of occurrence of sentences in the three subsequent longer formulas containing *be + be + V*. (They appear here and in the next installment.)

A continuous string can have four members with *aux + aux + aux* before the verb.

aux aux aux V

The music has been being written

The formula for a 4-member continuous string is *aux + aux + aux + V*.

*Aux + aux + aux* is the additive occurrence of basic *be + be* (a1) and basic *have + be* (a2) with the deletion of redundancy in preceding *be* in *be + be* and *be* in *have + be* forming *have + be + be*.

	<u>be</u> + <u>be</u>	(a1)
<u>have</u> + <u>be</u>		(a2)
<u>have</u> + <u>be</u> + <u>be</u>		

*Do* does not participate in *aux + aux + aux + V*.

(To be continued)

3. See Yao Shen, "Vocabulary Participation and Grammatical Formula Shift," *TESL Reporter*, Vol. 3, No. 2 (1969), 6-7 and 10-11.

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## Undergraduates Help Teach ELI Classes

Students in the BATESL program at The Church College of Hawaii are getting practical experience in the ESL field by assisting in the ELI Classes at the school.

An unprecedented enrollment in the fall created a problem for the new individualized student program in the English Language Institute. Most of the classes were too large for maximum teaching effectiveness, so they were divided, and selected students were asked to assist in the teaching.

Texts and course outlines previously prepared for the regular classes are used and teaching is under the direction of the English Language Institute staff.

Both teachers and students benefit in the smaller class, teaching-learning situation. There are frequent evaluations and reassignments as all ELI classes are now scheduled in 20 one-hour class blocks. ELI students take only the classes needed to prepare them for the regular Freshman English program.

BATESL students are paid for this ELI teaching, and it is not a substitute for the regular student teaching requirement which is supervised by the Education Department.

# Form Class Baseball: A TESL GAME

By ALICE C. PACK

Object: 1) Help students learn the four English form classes (noun, verb, object, adverb) and specific words and their alternate forms.

2) Provide additional practice for students whose native languages do not have these different word forms.

Materials: Sets of cards with one word printed on the front and the additional forms printed on the back.

## SAMPLES OF CARD FORMS

<b>Verb</b> persuade
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<b>Noun</b> persuasion
<b>Adjective</b> persuasive
<b>Adverb</b> persuasively

<b>Noun</b> respect
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<b>Verb</b> respect
<b>Adjective</b> respectful
<b>Adverb</b> respectfully

<b>Adjective</b> beautiful
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<b>Noun</b> beauty
<b>Verb</b> beautify
<b>Adverb</b> beautifully

Where there are no English forms for some classes a line should follow the class given.

## SAMPLE CARD FORMS

<b>Verb</b> refuse
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<b>Noun</b> refusal
<b>Adjective</b> _____
<b>Adverb</b> _____

<b>Adjective</b> adventurous
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<b>Noun</b> adventure adventurer
<b>Verb</b> _____
<b>Adverb</b> adventurously

Different colors could be used for each group on the front of the card, i.e. yellow for nouns, white for verbs, etc. The size of the cards used would depend on the teacher. As the pitcher calls the word, large cards could be displayed for the whole class to see; small cards could be read aloud or printed on the board by the pitcher.

Playing the game: As far as possible regular baseball rules are followed, with two teams of nine players each. If desired, an umpire may be selected to call balls, strikes, and outs. The

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catcher signals the pitcher the type of throw (verb, noun, adjective, or adverb), then the player who is up is given a word by the pitcher. If the batter gives one correct form it is a base. Two correct forms are two bases and a home run is made when all three forms for one word are correct. A player who tries a word form and misses has one strike called. If he is not sure of the word and wants to pass, the first baseman gives the correct form. If this is correct, the play is a strike, but if it is missed, it is a ball.

The second baseman calls the second form

for the same player (if he passes again) then the third baseman, the shortstop, and the fielders in that order. Thus a player may strike out, make a base on balls, have a one-or-two-base hit, or make a home run for his team.

Each side is retired after three strikes, and batters take their regular batting order. Nine inning games are usually played with extra innings for tie games; the game may be called because of rain (discretion of the teacher) or darkness (allotted time over.)

If classes are small or if there are twenty or more students in the group, teams could have five players on each team-- catcher, pitcher, and first, second, and third basemen. Larger groups would have more than one game playing at the same time.

If room permits, the diamond should be indicated in the classroom and students go from base to base. When the room is small, a diagram should be placed on the black board and the player's progress indicated.

This game must proceed rapidly so that

students don't get bored. If desired a time limit might be imposed and a strike called if an answer isn't given within the time set.

This game could be played without cards by advanced students. In this case the pitcher would select the original word form from his own vocabulary. A non-native English speaking umpire would probably need a reference list of words or help from the teacher.

The following TESL Readers emphasize the English form classes and have exercises and/or specific word form charts.

Danielson, Dorothy and Rebecca Hayden, *Readings in English for Students as a Second Language*, Prentice-Hall, 1961.

Grindell, Robert, Leonard R. Marelli, and Harvey Nadler, *American Readings*. McGraw-Hill, 1964.

Taylor, Grant, *American English Reader*. McGraw-Hill, 1960.

Words might be obtained from the charts and the game might give additional help to classes using the readers.



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# Letter to the Editor

The article by Yao Shen in the Spring, 1970, TESL Reporter, inspires me to reply from my position as a lowly classroom teacher of ESL. I'm frustrated! So many of the questions presented are nonsense from my point of view. Methods of good teaching are just that in any field and a teacher can feel success or failure without seeking support from his neighbor. Other questions appeared to me to be response for the sake of response. The answers to most of the questions wouldn't be enlightening even if they were there. There is no need to consider how bad bad pronunciation really is because it can be correctly learned to begin with. I want concrete examples of successful methods in teaching ESL.

I work in the mass of debris inherited from years of confusion. I don't teach ESL, I unteach it! Ninth grade is my teaching level. I receive students who have been exposed to English for nine years. They have a vocabulary on the fifth grade level and a functional grasp of the language equal to any American three year old. Why is this? Possibly because of the extremely poor quality of English speakers. Our teaching power is on the upper level and our need is at the bottom. "We can't afford to spend the money it would cost to hire specialists of ESL on the primary level." This is what I have been told. But since when is economy synonymous with quality or vice versa? And just what is economy in the field of ESL?

Ideally, ESL should start with a knowledgeable teacher on a blank slate. Each year we receive here a small group of students from Tahiti. They have never been exposed to any English. At first they study only English for four periods a day. After four months

many of them are ready to be integrated into the regular program. By the end of a year their performance in English outshines the local student. Their pronunciation and mechanics are better and they are better equipped to use English as a tool for further learning.

I would like to have more definite information about ESL in the beginning stages. I am in need of the "what and how". ESL is my field, I'd like to be successful in teaching it. And what I'd like to know is, specifically, how are others teaching ESL?

Sincerely yours,  
Mary Louise Pope  
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Nuku'alofa, Tonga

*Any teacher who has developed a successful plan for teaching a specific English Skill, and would like to share this with Mrs. Pope and others, is invited to submit a short article for publication in the TESL Reporter.*

## TESL REPORTER

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Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 150, The Church College of Hawaii, Laie, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding three pages.

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