

ELI Textbook Survey

By ALICE C. PACK

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 FESOL members¹ 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 264 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, so this category was also listed as a separate group. Only seven replies were received from countries other than the United States so the survey is essentially of books used in the United States. There were three replies from Puerto Rico, one from Tonga, one from Western Samoa, and two from the Trust Territories.

Replies recieved	Total
Elementary	25
Jr. High High School	11 19
College Adult	116 47
K-12 (Not included above)	<u>46</u>
Totals	264

1. I wish to express my appreciation to Dr. James E. Atlatis, Executive Secretary of TESOL for his kindness in sending out the original questionnaires.

2. Some institutions teach more than one level so they are listed in each category, making the total replies more than the total guestionnaires returned.

Seven replies indicated the schools used only self-prepared materials (not available for purchase by other institutions) and nineteen indicated they used such materials in addition to TESL texts currently available.

Additional sel K-12	f-prepared	10	5
Jr. High College Adult		2 5 3	
	Total	20	
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ELI Textbook	Survey		-
By Alice C.	Pack		, Page 1
Why TESL?			. .
By Julene E	ivans		. Page 6
Supplementati	ion of Op	posites i	n
Simple Prec	licate Exp	pansion	
By Yao She	n	* • . • • •	. Page 9

Page 2					
Only self-prepar	ed materials	r ⁴		i.	
Elementary K-12		15		- •	
College		1			
	Total	7	TOTAL	27	

In teaching English to non-native speakers, many institutions indicated they are using texts prepared for native speakers, rather than, or in addition to, texts for non-native speakers.

Non ESL mater	ials	
Elementary		18
Jr. High		3
High School		12
K-12		5
College		72
Adult		48
	Total	158

These non-ESL texts are not listed in the survey count given. Nearly all were single selections and many were novels or collections of readings.

As the survey was for texts for teaching non-native speakers, replies giving ESL teaching instruction, information, or reference were also not included.

Some references were made to use of United States Government materials; texts written for resident aliens are included in the textbook list.

Following is the TESL survey bibliography. There were a few book titles which could not be identified, with no author or publisher listed and queries to publishers were either unanswered or indicated that the texts were not their publications.

	Elementary	Junior High	High School	College	Adult	K-12	
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Student	
Alesi, Gladys and Dora Pantell, Family Life in the U.S.A. Regents, 1962.	

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Why TESL?

By JULENE EVANS

A few years ago the personnel manager of a large corporation asked me why I was majoring in Teaching English as a Second Language. To him such a program was superfluous; he could not understand why a person with an English major could not teach English to everyone, including non-native speakers of the language. At the time I did not have the opportunity to tell him that teaching English to non-native speakers with the same methods used for teaching native speakers would be as frustrating to him as explaining the operations of his plant to me in the same terms he would use for instructing his experienced foremen. Perhaps the best way to explain why a teacher whose students learn English as a second language must be trained differently from a teacher of regular high school English is to point out some of the differences in the students and material each will eventually teach.

The students which a high school English teacher instructs are, presumably, native speakers who have been speaking English for at least thirteen years. Though they may still make occasional grammatical errors, they internalized the basic structural rules or English as children. Just how they learned these rules is not known, but it is evident that they learned them well enough to be able to communicate with sophisticated speakers of the language. (If high school students resort to slang and incorrect English it is often because they prefer to, not because that is all they know.) Their English teacher must make minor corrections in their grammar while reinforcing the correct skills which they already possess.

At this point in their studies, high school students are ready to be introduced to English literature. Their teacher must be well versed in literature for his task becomes guiding them through poetry, short stories and novels. Literature, besides broadening and deepening the students' views of life, is a means by which the teacher may enlarge their vocabularies and effect greater eloquence in their speech.

In contrast with the sophisticated English of high school students, English as a Second

BOK REVIEW

Dykstra, Gerald, Richard Port, Antonette Port. Ananse Tales, A Course in Controlled Composition. Ananse Tales Workbook. New York: Columbia University Teacher's College Press, 1966, 1968.

Forty different, short, West African legends about Ananse, an almost human spider, are the basis for this controlled course in writing for students of grade 6 to adult (intermediate to advanced). The modifications and transformations that the student writer is asked to make are graduated in fifty-eight steps.. Students begin with the relatively mechanical steps of copying and substitution and proceed as rapidly as possible to the most advanced steps of free creative composition. There are a number of different passages with the same numerical step to allow the student to repeat a step at a given level as often as necessary without repeating previous subject matter. Ananse Tales provides an opportunity for extensive practice in student writing with a minimum of teacher correction. The

workbook is fully programmed and provides additional practice for basic substitution, transformation, and expansions in English. An example and four or five sentences to complete are provided for each of the original steps in the Ananse Tales, Both the example and the sentences use different content and vocabulary from that of the folktales---advantageous in overcoming an otherwise stylistic problem in using the Ananse Tales. It also gives additional material in areas where the original book moves too rapidly for some students.

It would be a great help in teaching writing to have similar materials for controlled composition on all grade levels. (The authors indicate that some are in preparation for grades 1 through 10 although no publication date has been set.)

Language (ESL) students, when they first come to their teacher, very often have had no previous contact with English or that contact which they have had has not been adequate for them to learn the language. No matter what their native language, ESL students will encounter new features when studying English; among these features is sound. The meaningful sounds, or phonemes of English, will need to be explained by the teacher. Often English phonemes will resemble some of those in the student's native languages. The finer the distinctions between two sounds, the more skilled the teacher must be in identifying the difference and describing this to the student. Phonemes entirely different from those found in the native languages will also need to be taught.

Learning how the sounds may be combined to form words follows mastery of the phonemes. English has phoneme combinations which are not possible in other languages. Spanish speaking students, for instance, find /s/ difficult to pronounce at the beginning of words because it is never found in that position in their language. Consonant clusters, /bl/, /str/, /kr/, etc., do exist in Samoan and create not pronunciation problems for students whose native language is Samoan. Being aware of these and similar difficulties, the ESL teacher would know in which areas his students require special help and how to give it to them. Knowing how to analyze language is essential if an ESL teacher is to identify and help overcome individual student problems, but is something which other teachers of English are not required to know. At the same time they are learning to form words, students should be learning how words may be arranged to form sentences. Just as possible phoneme combinations differ in each language, so sentence patterns and inflections are different. Though students who are native speakers may also study sentence patterning, they study it already knowing the basic rules. They may not be able to state these rules formally, but they obviously know them because they use them everyday in speech. ESL students are likely to have this problem in reverse. After study, they may know the rules, but find it difficult to apply them. Nevertheless, a Second Language teacher must help his students learn to use deep, often obscure, structural elements of English if they are to acquire a satisfactory level of speaking and comprehension.

Verb tense and mood, subject-verb noun-adjective agreement, agreement, pluralization, misplaced modifiers, sentence fragments, punctuation-commas, colons, semi-colons, apostrophes, dashes, parentheses, quotation marks--are problems with which both native and non-native speakers must deal; but the native speaker has an advantage: he has been working on them all his life. The ESL student has been working on similar problems all his life too, but in another language. Essentially his instructor teaches him to forget what he has already learned about language and to learn something new and different.

Julene Evans is a BATESL major at the Church College of Hawaii. She will assist in ELI classes during the Spring 1971 semester.

One of the more difficult elements of English for an ESL instructor to teach is prepositions. Their usage can be learned only by memorizing specific instances rather than general rules. Consider the problem of explaining why one depends upon people, but trusts in them. In, on, and at are all prepositions used when referring to where one lives which any native speaker could use correctly, but which second language learners would undoubtedly find confusing. The subtle differences in meaning between prepositions and the numerous meanings associated with some prepositions are not adequately defined in a dictionaryThe ESL teacher must become his students' personal of reference, contrasting and source comparing prepositions until they become meaningful for his students. As culture is intimately involved with language and is, in fact, expressed through language, it is necessary for ESL students to be taught the culture, as well as the language, of the people with whom they wish to communicate. A single word which conjures up paragraphs of meaning for native speakers may have mere dictionary meaning for ESL students. It is also very likely that, not knowing the culture, ESL students may use a word which when translated into their own language is innocent, but in English is socially unacceptable. Hence, the ESL

teacher would be required to teach culture which native high school students grew up living with, knowing and helping to change, but which ESL students have never experienced.

Briefly, the above are some of the dissimilarities between English and ESL students and material to be taught. Underlying the dissimilarities in language teaching is the fact that an English teacher tries to reinforce and broaden already known concepts, whereas, an ESL teacher tries to change existing language concepts and introduce new ones. Each teacher attacks different problems from different directions; so, they should not be expected to use the same techniques. Not needing to use the same techniques, they would not need to be trained in the same methods or use the same texts.

Requiring each type of teacher to learn the techniques of the other would be superfluous; yet, requiring an English teacher to instruct ESL students as he would native speakers would be frustrating for both the teacher and the students. Each should be trained for his particular position.

Supplementation a in Simple

By YAO SHEN

A continuous string of two members can also consist of a modal before the verb.

modal V

Your friend will stay Your enemy can go

The formula of a 2-member continuous string with a modal is modal + V.

Will and can both participate in the formation of modal + V yielding

The occurrence of will and can before the verb is indicated by (+) below.

preceding following	<u>can</u>	<u>wil1</u>
V	+	+

A continuous string of three members does not occur with modal + modal before the verb. Modals do not occur successively.

ELI Instituted In South Pacific

To increase the English ability of their graduates who plan to attend college, Church High Schools in the South Pacific have instituted, or are planning to institute, an English Language Institute program like that currently operating at the Church College of Hawaii.

Beginning with the Spring 1971 semester, students from American Samoa, Western Samoa, and Tonga must have a minimum TOEFL Score of 460 for acceptance at CCH.

CCWS at Pesega, Western Samoa started an ELI program in February 1971 with fourteen students enrolled. Postgraduate classes are held during the regular high school sessions.

Liahona High School on Tongatapu, Tonga has organized its program, but is waiting for books and additional staff to begin operation. Mapusanga in American Samoa is presently planning a new program for Fall 1971.

preceding following	<u>can</u>	<u>will</u>
can	-	-
can will	••	-

A continuous string of three members does not occur with aux + modal before the verb. Auxiliaries do not occur before modals,

modal aux V

The treetops	<u>vill</u>	be	<u>glistening</u>
No one	<u>vill</u>	be	forgotten
The moon	vill	have	risen
<u>Children</u>	can	<u>be</u>	listening
Mortals	can	be	forgiven

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

In modal + aux + V, do does not

1. This is the second 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.

of Opposites Predicate Expansion

participate. Will and can both occur before auxiliary be. Will also occurs before auxiliary have; can usually does not. The distribution yields

 $\frac{\text{will} + \text{be}}{\text{will} + \text{have}}$ $\frac{\text{can}}{\text{can}} + \text{be}$

The following tabulates the occurrences (+) and non-occurrences (-) of will and can before auxiliaries be, have, and do

preceding following	Can	<u>wi11</u>
do		-
have	-	+
be	+	+

Modal + be (ml) and modal + have (m2) are the two basic 2-member strings in forming longer continuous strings with a modal.

A continuous string of four members can consist of modal + aux + aux before the verb. (See first installment.) $\frac{have + be}{modal + have} (a2)$ $\frac{modal + have}{modal + have} (m2)$

Be + be and modal + be (al, ml), and have + be and modal + have (a2, m2) occur additively and complementarily in forming modal + be + be and modal + have + be.

In modal + be + be, will and can both participate. In modal + have + be, will participates; can does not. Do does not participate in modal + aux + aux + V.

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A continuous string of five members can consist of modal + aux + aux + aux before the verb.

	modal	aux	âux	V
Flowers The ground	<u>vill</u> <u>vill</u>	<u>be</u> have	<u>being</u> been	grown broken
Mountains	can	<u>be</u>	<u>being</u>	shaken

The formula of a 4-member continuous string with a modal is modal + aux + aux + V.

Modal + aux + aux can consist of modal + be + be. This is the additive formation of basic be + be (al) and basic modal + be (ml) with the deletion of redundancy in preceding be in be + be and be in modal + be forming modal + be + be.

					(al)
<u>modal</u>					(m2)
modal	+	<u>be</u>	+	be	-

Modal + aux + aux can also consist of modal + have + be. This is the additive formation of basic have + be (a2) and basic modal + have (m2) with the deletion of redundancy in have in both formulas forming modal + have + be modal aux aux aux V

The star will have been being seen

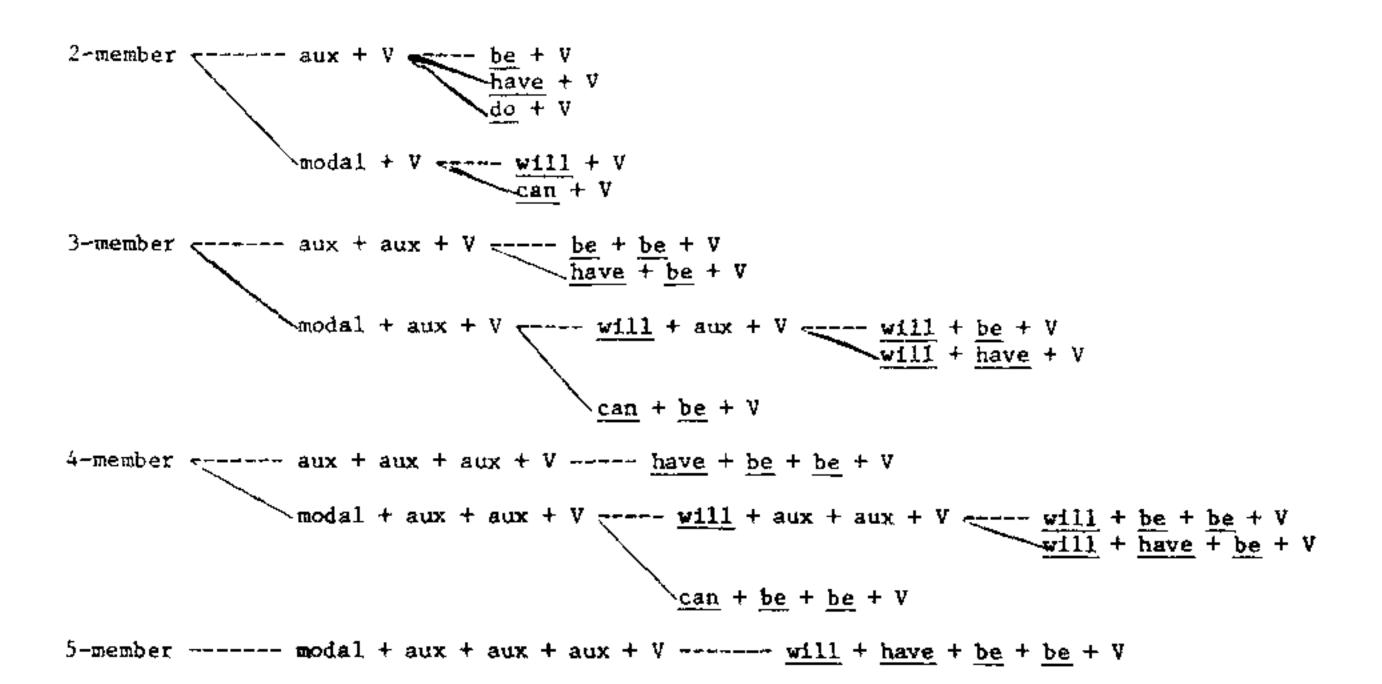
The formula for a 5-member continuous string is modal + aux + aux + aux + V.

Modal + aux + aux + aux before the verb is the additive (but not complementary) formation of the two basic formulas of aux + aux (a1, a[†]) and the two basic formulas of modal + aux (ml, m2) with the deletion of redundancy in *be*, *have*, and the modal in the four formulas forming modal + *have* + *be* + *be*.

		have	ŧ	<u>be</u> be	÷	<u>be</u>	(al) (a2)
modal	÷			be			(m1)
modal	+	have					(m2)
moda1	+	have	+	be	+	be	-

Will occurs in modal + have + be + be + V. Neither do nor can does.

The following summarizes by listing the number of members in continuous strings including the verb, the formulas in the continuous strings, and the participation of the auxiliaries *be*, *have*, and *do*, and the modals *will* and *can* in the formulas.



Predicate expansion with continuous strings can be stated as the operation of 2-member units. Minimal expansions are formed with auxiliary or modal + V. Longer expansions are additive formation of the four basic 2-member formulas (a1, a2; ml, m2) before the verb with deletion of redundancy in the case of same participants and complementation in the case of different participants. Within this operation of 2-member strings, there are restrictions of modals occurring as the preceding member, auxiliaries as the preceding or following member, and the verb as the following member.

before V in modal + V, that is to say, when V is the following member, *be, have, do, will,* and *can* all occur as the preceding member.

preceding following	<u>cân</u>	<u>will</u>	do	<u>have</u>	<u>be</u>
v	+	+	+	+	+

As the preceding or the following member in the four basic 2-member continuous

	modal	aux	v	
preceding	+	+	•	
following	-	+	+	

The following gives the total inventory of (+) and (-) of 2-member continuous string formations.

preceding following	<u>can</u>	<u>will</u>	<u>do</u>	have	<u>be</u>
can	-	_	-	-	_
will	-	-	-	-	_
do	-	-	-	-	-
<u>do</u> have	-	+	-	-	-
be V	+	+	-	÷	+
v	+	+	÷	÷	+

Among be, have, do, will and can, do alone does not occur as either the preceding member or the following one in 2-member continuous strings before the verb. In other words, do does not participate in any continuous string longer than two members. Auxiliaries be, have and do occur before V in aux + V; modals will and can occur strings before the verb, the occurrences (+) and non-occurrences (-) of the three auxiliaries and the two modals are distributed differently.

	can	<u>w111</u>	<u>do</u>	have	<u>be</u>
preceding following	+ -	+ -	-	+ +	+ +

Be and have occur as both the preceding and the following members. Do does not occur as either the preceding or the following member. Will and can occur only as the preceding member.

The occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) as either the preceding or the following member before the verb with *be, have, will,* and *can* (without *do*) are as follows:

preceding following	<u>ca</u> 1	<u>n will</u>	hav	e <u>be</u>
<u>can</u> will	_	-	-	-
<u>have</u>	- +	+ +	- +	- +

In aux + aux, the occurrences of be and have is

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

Both be and have are auxiliaries. The above tabulation is thus reduced to

preceding following	aux
aux	+

forming the simplified 2-member continuous string aux 3 aux. The preceding aux is **be** or **have**; the following one is **be**.

In modal + aux, the occurrences of **be**, **have**, will, and can are

preceding following	can	<u>vill</u>
<u>have</u>	-	+
be	+	+

Both be and have are auxiliaries, and both will and can are modals. The reduced tabulation is The tabulation of the (+) and the (-) of *be, have, do, will, and can according to the features in the formula is as follows:*

	can	<u>will</u>	<u>do</u>	have	<u>be</u>
B (+ V)	+	÷	+	+	÷
B (+ B)	+	÷	-	+	÷
(B +) B	-	-	-	÷	÷

Be, have, do, will, and can are further examined in sets of sentences with predicates containing continuous strings consisting of no more than two members including the verb.² Under this condition,

do does occur. In each set, there are two parallel groups (A and B) of sentences. Two kinds of sentence sets are given. The first kind has both groups of sentences with expanded predicates. In one group (A), be,

have, do, will, and can all participate. In the other group (B), do does not participate; the other four items, be, have, will, and can all do. Predicates of group (A) have the heaviest stress on be, have, do, will, and can. Those of group (B) do not have their heaviest stress on be, have, will, and can.

preceding modal following aux +

forming the simplified 2-member continuous string modal + aux. If the modal is will, aux is be or have; if the modal is can, aux is be.

The four 2-member formulas operating as continuous strings in predicate expansion are

aux + V modal \rightarrow V aux + aux modal + aux

with be, have, and do as auxiliaries, and will and can as modals.

Fries included be, have, do, will, and can among his function words, Group B. Aux + V and modal + V can be reduced to B + V, and aux + aux and modal + aux can be reduced to B + B. The two formulas of 2-member continuous strings are B + V and B + B. B is redundant as preceding members in B + B and B + B. The formulas are further reduced to B + - V

(A)		(B)		(B)	
He is He is He has He does He will He can	going gone go go go go	He is He is He has He He will He can	going gone gone go-es go go	He is He is He has He will He can	going gone gone go-es go

The second kind has two groups (A and B) of sentences one of which has unexpanded predicates (A), and the other has expanded ones (B). In the unexpanded predicates (A), be, have, do, will, and can all participate. In the expanded ones (B), do does not participate. When the unexpanded ones (A, in which all occur) are expanded (B), do again does not occur. In the set in which do does not participate (B), the heaviest stress in the predicate is not on be, have, will, or can. Three such sentence sets are given.

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

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Example 1.		(A)	(B)
 (<u>Is</u> <u>John going</u>? (<u>Is</u> <u>John gone</u>? (<u>Has</u> <u>John gone</u>? (<u>Has</u> <u>John gone</u>? (<u>Mill John go</u>? (<u>Can</u> <u>John go</u>? 	<u>Yes</u> ,) <u>Yes</u> ,) <u>Yes</u> ,) <u>Yes</u> ,) <u>Yes</u> ,)	$ \begin{array}{r} he & is \\ he & is \\ he & has \\ he & does \\ he & will \\ he & can \\ \end{array} $	<u>he is gone</u> <u>he has gone</u> <u>he will go</u> <u>he can go</u>
Example 2.		(A)	(B)
 (John is going (John is gone (John is gone (John has gone (John has gone (John will go (John will go (John can go 	11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11 11	<u>Mary is</u> <u>Mary is</u> <u>Mary has</u> <u>Mary does</u> <u>Mary will</u> <u>Mary can</u>	<u>Mary 15 going</u> <u>Mary 15 gone</u> <u>Mary has gone</u> <u>Mary will go</u> <u>Mary can go</u>
Example 3.		(A)	(B)
1.(John is going2.(John is gone3.(John has gone4.(John has gone5.(John will go6.(John can go	and) and) and) and) and) and)	MaryistooMaryistooMaryhastooMarydoestooMarywilltooMarywilltooMarycantoo	Maryis is gonegoing too tooMaryis is gonegone tooMaryhas go-esgone tooMarygo-es tootooMarywill gogo tooMarycan gogo

Sentence sets of the first kind in which both groups have expanded predicates show a distribution of stress on *be*, *have*, *do*, *will*, and *can*. When these words all occur, they carry the heaviest stress in the predicate. When *do* does not occur, the heaviest stress in the predicate is somewhere else. The former set can be labelled as stressed, and the latter as unstressed. Sentence sets of the second kind support the information given in the first set, that is, when *do* does not occur, the rest of the set *be*, *have*, *will*, and *can* are unstressed.

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Tabulation of the occurrences (+) and non-occurrences (-) of *be, have, do, will,* and *can* according to stress distribution appears below.

can	will	do	have	be
+	+	+	+	+
+	+	-	+	÷

The following summarizes the (+) and the (-) of *be*, *have*, *do*, *will*, and *can* occurring in continuous strings.

	can	<u>vil1</u>	<u>do</u>	<u>have</u>	<u>be</u>
B (+ V)	+	+	+	+	+
B (+ B)	+	÷	÷-	÷	+
(B +) B	-	-	-	+	+
stressed	÷	+	+	+	+
unstressed	+	+	-	÷	+

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