

TESL

REPORTER

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A Comparison Between TOEFL and Michigan Test Scores and Student Success in (1) Freshman English and (2) Completing a College Program

Original data consisted of a list of 598 non-native English speaking students who entered the Church College of Hawaii during the years from September 1960 through February 1972 whose records included entering TOEFL and/or Michigan Test Scores. Students were dropped from the list who did not have scores for both tests or who did not have available Freshman English grades or a graduation record. This left 402 students for the study.

Charts No. 1 and 2 show the distribution of these students and the total entering students during this time.

This article was delivered at the national NAFSA Convention held in Atlanta, Georgia, May 2-5, 1972.

The total number of students in the study with admissible data who entered during the years 1959 through 1966 was 69. This group would normally have completed the four years required for graduation. There were 23 graduates, 10 transfers to other institutions, 15 were academically dismissed from the College, 16 dropped out (some with academic warning) and 5 are still in school.

Chart No. 3 shows a comparison of years in school from entrance until graduation with the entrance tests.

Of the 23 graduates one graduated in three years, three in four years, nine in five years, nine in six years, and two took seven years to complete their college work. One student was given an honorable dismissal with completed work but not a diploma because she failed to pass the required English Proficiency exam.

(Beginning Fall 1969 the English requirement was changed. Instead of two semesters of required Freshman English and a Junior Proficiency Exam, four semesters of English with a grade of C or better [with no

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Chart No. 1

NUMBER OF ENTERING STUDENTS USED IN STUDY

	1960	1961	1962	1963	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972
Ent. Students	1	3	3	14	45	4	1	10	34	144	143	123	13

exam] became part of the general graduation requirements.)

Most foreign students at the Church College of Hawaii come on advanced loans and earn all their college expenses by working at the college (all gardening and janitorial service is done by students with supervisory help), the Polynesian Cultural Center (opened in 1963), or in the pineapple fields and canneries. This additional work load might account for many who took additional time to complete their college work. However, all carried at least the twelve hours required by immigration while they were in school.

Figures for the students in the study who entered CCH from 1967 through Spring 1972

with their current status are shown on *Charts No. 4A & 4B* See *Chart No. 5*

A comparison of TOEFL total scores and Michigan equated scores shows the following:

The highest TOEFL score was 688 with a matching Michigan equated 86 and Michigan aural 87. The next highest TOEFL was 646 with a Michigan score of 98 equated and an aural of 95. (This was the highest Michigan score.) The lowest TOEFL score was 308 with a matching 43 Michigan equated and an aural of 50 while the lowest Michigan score was an equated 35, aural 47, with a TOEFL of 330. There was a wide discrepancy between the two scores on all levels as can be seen by *Charts 6 & 7*

Chart No. 2

TOTAL ENROLLMENT BY COUNTRY AND NATIONALITY

YEAR	Western Samoa	American Samoa	Tonga	Tahiti	Fiji	New Zealand	Australia	China	Japan	Other Polynesian	Other Asian	Hawaii	Mainland	Total Enrollment
1956-57		1	4		1						1	175	41	223
1957-58														323
1958-59		7	7			2		1	2			208	39	266
1959-60		12	19		3	14		5	3		7	337	138	538
1960-61		10	28	3	3	27		16	4		3	371	98	563
1961-62		17	33	4	1	32		24	4		1	621	125	862
1962-63		32	57	7	9	21	4	16	7		1	659	119	932
1963-64		32	63	11	5	13	4	10	8		6	596	117	865
1964-65		51	78	15	7	12	3	12	4			718	109	1009
1965-66		41	70	8	13	17	2	14	5		13	558	140	889
1966-67		40	62	18	6	27	13	21	8		3	664	174	1036
1967-68		44	48	19	7	35	16	19	9		8	671	220	
1968-69		50	50	28	9	31	14	14	6		13	706	192	
1969-70	43	25	71	29	17	57	20	16	10	3	15	674	231	1211
1970-71	83	22	110	21	33	52	24	18	32	3	51	611	247	1307

Chart No. 3

TOEFL Test Scores for graduates range from a low of 372 to a high of 624.

Michigan Test Scores are from 57 equated to a high of 67 equated.

A comparison of years in school from entrance until graduation with entrance tests follows:

TOEFL test score 111
 Mich. test scores *(11)

Years in School	No. of Students	Low							High
3	1	530							530 (same)
4	2	426 (58)							546
5	9	374	390	400	442	466 (44)	468	488	518 (69)
6	9	372 (60)	384	392	470	482	520	524	624
7	2	400							542 (61)

*When directly underneath TOEFL Scores are for the same student.

Chart No. 4A

		Total	In School	Transfer	Dropped	Academic Dismissal	Non Academic Dismissal
1967	No of Students	8	3	2	2	2	
	High TOEFL		530 (80)	438 (43)	530	552 (88)	
	Low TOEFL		482 (71)	336	450 (70)		
	High Mich		80 (530)	43 (438)	70 (450)	88 (552)	
	Low Mich		69			80 (552)	
1968	No of Students	21	6	4	10		1
	High TOEFL		548 (85)	336 (58)	566 (90)		384 (60)
	Low TOEFL		452 (72)		384 (60)		
	High Mich		86 (518)	68	90 (566)		60 (384)
	Low Mich		56	49	60 (384)		
1969	No of Students	103	65	6	21	10	1
	High TOEFL		528 (86)	532 (73)	446	542 (82)	
	Low TOEFL		312 (44)	366	362 (52)		
	High Mich		93	84	77	95	76
	Low Mich		66 (504)	73 (532)	40 (406)	66	

	Total	In School	Transfer	Dropped	Academic Dismissal	Non Academic Dismissal
1970	No of Students	103	85	4	13	1
	High TOEFL		646 (98)	380 (51)	460	544
	Low TOEFL		312 (62)		314 (43)	
	High Mich		98	74	66 (416)	85
	Low Mich		56	50	43 (314)	
1971	No of Students	79	77		2	
	High TOEFL		688 (86)		498 (74)	
	Low TOEFL		312 (39)		348 (55)	
	High Mich		98		74 (498)	
	Low Mich		39 (312)		55 (348)	
1972	No of Students	18	18			
(Spring Semester)			(used for TOEFL - MICH comparisons only)			

Correlation on computer runs of TOEFL and Michigan test scores are shown on *Chart 8*. Runs were made on the totals and then individually on the structure, grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension and aural comprehension. The Michigan test does not have a writing score and its aural test is not included in the equated total. Both writing and listening comprehension are included in the total TOEFL score.

Chart No. 5

The moderate positive correlation in the total scores would have more significance if the individual tests showed more positive correlation.

Evidently the measurement of writing ability -- which is not based on a writing sample but on choices of written passages -- has some weight on the total TOEFL score because the listening comprehension is lower (.499) and so probably does not influence the total for positive higher correlation. Reading

CCH ENTERING STUDENTS 1967 - 1971

Year	South Pacific	Orient	Hawaii	Mainland & Other	Total
1967	53	12	268	62	495
1968	81	13	301	48	442
1969	51	13	240	144	448
1970	16	67	197	183	611
1971	41	53	150	190	440

comprehension shows but .49 with vocabulary with .662 the highest of the individual scores although it too does not come up to the total score correlation of .662.

Note the wide differences in some of these scores:

Beginning levels show a 39 and 40 Michigan with 312-406 in the corresponding TOEFL scores (a differences of 94 points).

A 44 Michigan equated score has both a 312 and 466 TOEFL score (a 154 point difference). A 54 Michigan has a 316 and a 464 (a 148 point difference). A 58 has a 355 and 538 (a 183 point difference).

The widest difference is found at 61 Michigan-the crucial intermediate stage-with

336 and 542 TOEFL scores (a 206 point difference). A 68 Michigan has 364 and 510 (a 146 difference).

In using a 450 TOEFL cut off score a student with 412, but an 88 Michigan Test score, could not be accepted. On the other hand, 466 reveals a 44 Michigan score--far too low to succeed in Freshman English.

A cut off at 500 yields a 510 with a 68 and a 500 at 89--again a vast difference.

Correlation coefficients on the two entrance tests by countries reveal some interesting statistics. Note that Japan (.2129) does not even show any significant correlation.

In our English Language Institute at the Church College of Hawaii we have found that the Michigan Test scores except for Test D are very reliable for student placement.

Chart No. 6

EQUATED MICHIGAN TEST SCORES WITH COMPARATIVE TOEFL TOTALS

35	330	56	316	62	312	67	416	73	464	83	476
35	330	56	394	62	398	67	466	73	440	84	488
39	350	56	316	62	370	68	428	73	464	84	488
39	312	56	394	63	420	68	408	74	498	85	548
40	406	57	366	63	432	68	498	74	502	85	544
41	360	57	452	63	410	68	408	74	502	85	544
42	332	57	368	63	432	68	498	75	472	86	528
42	332	57	388	63	434	68	408	75	510	86	518
43	308	57	368	63	408	68	408	75	510	86	528
43	314	57	388	63	388	68	382	76	548	86	590
43	314	58	538	63	442	68	510	76	468	86	688
44	312	58	355	63	432	68	364	76	456	86	518
44	466	58	355	63	434	68	510	76	450	86	528
44	466	59	364	63	408	68	364	76	452	86	590
45	354	59	380	63	388	69	366	76	452	86	688
45	446	59	364	63	442	69	368	77	508	87	532
45	446	59	366	64	382	69	416	78	490	88	530
48	314	59	364	64	460	69	446	78	424	88	494
48	342	59	380	64	370	69	368	78	440	88	552
48	342	59	364	64	446	69	446	78	482	88	528
49	334	59	366	64	382	69	368	78	494	88	540
49	330	60	384	64	460	69	446	78	424	88	526
50	348	60	384	64	370	70	420	78	440	88	478
50	366	60	358	64	446	70	450	78	482	88	562
50	348	60	358	65	446	70	406	78	494	88	526
50	366	61	458	65	386	70	406	79	374	88	478
50	348	61	394	65	430	70	388	79	488	88	562
51	380	61	400	65	436	70	388	79	374	89	500
52	362	61	442	65	436	70	450	79	374	98	500
52	362	61	370	66	426	70	440	80	476	90	532
52	390	61	410	66	406	70	406	80	512	90	566
52	452	61	374	66	460	70	406	80	530	90	566
52	390	61	336	66	398	71	460	81	534	91	538
52	452	61	372	66	398	71	442	81	502	91	568
53	364	61	376	66	388	71	478	81	538	91	568
53	392	61	416	66	416	71	492	81	502	93	558
53	374	61	542	66	376	71	406	81	538	93	566
53	360	61	376	66	388	71	406	82	502	93	558
54	464	61	416	66	416	72	456	82	522	93	566
54	316	61	542	66	376	72	430	82	542	94	600
54	312	62	398	67	430	72	430	82	522	94	600
54	312	62	312	67	430	72	444	83	472	95	614
55	348	62	398	67	416	72	452	83	542	95	614
55	348	62	370	67	466	72	460	83	476	98	646

Chart No. 7

COMPARATIVE TOEFL TOTALS WITH EQUATED MICHIGAN TEST SCORES

308 43	366 69	390 52	432 63	464 54	526 88
312 39	366 57	392 53	432 63	464 73	528 88
312 44	366 50	394 61	432 63	466 67	528 86
312 62	366 59	394 56	434 63	466 44	528 86
312 54	366 50	394 56	434 63	466 67	528 86
312 62	366 59	398 62	436 65	466 44	530 88
312 54	368 69	398 66	436 65	468 76	530 80
314 48	368 69	398 66	440 73	472 75	532 87
314 43	368 57	398 62	440 70	472 83	532 90
314 43	368 69	398 62	440 78	476 80	534 81
316 54	368 57	400 61	440 78	476 83	538 91
316 56	370 61	406 70	442 61	476 83	538 58
316 56	370 64	406 70	442 71	478 71	538 81
330 49	370 62	406 66	442 63	478 88	538 81
330 35	370 64	406 40	442 63	478 88	540 88
330 35	370 62	406 71	444 72	482 78	542 82
332 42	372 61	406 70	446 65	482 78	542 83
332 42	374 79	406 71	446 69	488 79	542 83
334 49	374 53	406 70	446 45	488 84	542 61
342 48	374 79	408 68	446 69	490 78	544 85
342 48	374 79	408 68	446 45	492 71	544 85
348 50	376 61	408 63	446 64	494 88	548 76
348 50	376 66	408 63	446 69	494 78	548 85
348 55	376 61	410 61	450 70	494 78	552 88
348 50	376 66	410 63	450 70	498 68	558 93
348 55	380 51	416 69	450 76	498 74	558 93
350 39	380 59	416 67	452 57	500 89	562 88
354 45	380 59	416 66	452 72	500 89	562 88
355 58	382 68	416 61	452 76	502 82	566 90
355 58	382 64	416 67	452 52	502 81	566 93
358 60	382 64	416 66	452 72	502 74	566 90
358 60	384 60	416 61	452 76	502 81	566 93
360 41	384 60	420 70	452 52	502 74	568 91
360 53	386 65	420 63	456 72	508 77	568 91
362 52	388 70	424 78	456 76	510 75	590 86
362 52	388 70	424 78	458 61	510 75	590 86
364 53	388 66	426 66	460 71	510 68	600 94
364 59	388 57	428 68	460 66	510 68	600 94
364 59	388 63	430 67	460 64	512 80	614 95
364 68	388 66	430 67	460 72	518 86	614 95
364 59	388 57	430 72	460 64	518 86	646 98
364 59	388 63	430 72	460 72	522 82	646 98
364 68	390 52	430 65	464 73	522 82	688 86
				526 88	688 86

Only once in 5 years of testing have we had a difference when students were retested on alternate tests that was significant enough for replacement in classes. This student we later found had been traveling without sleep for two nights before testing and had also been very ill the previous night.

We have not found individual scores of TOEFL helpful in placement in classes although students with over 550 have never had to take ELI courses. Although there is a moderate correlation between the totals of the two tests (.06) this would not be helpful in substituting TOEFL for Michigan in placement. Correlations show that the individual TOEFL test scored in vocabulary would be the only one that is helpful for

diagnostic purposes.

TOEFL and Michigan test scores show little influence on success in Freshman English.

Chart 10 shows the highest and lowest TOEFL and Michigan equated scores for each grade category: A, B, C, D, X, F, Withdraw. A student may be given an X the first time he takes a course if he has put forth an effort to succeed and does not warrant a passing grade, while an F is given to a student who fails because of lack of effort or to a student who retakes the class and again cannot make a passing grade. There has been no distinction made between withdraw passing and withdraw failing on the chart.

All available grades in Freshman English

Chart No. 8

Chart No. 9A

TOEFL - MICHIGAN TEST CORRELATIONS

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>TOTAL SCORES</u>		
TOEFL	435.065	91.6058
Michigan	67.0326	15.6533
Correlation Coefficient - .66246		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>LISTENING COMPREHENSION</u>		
TOEFL	47.6778	10.5135
Michigan	70.2778	16.9353
Correlation Coefficient - .449569		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>STRUCTURE - GRAMMAR</u>		
TOEFL	44.5065	8.41973
Michigan	28.4351	10.1787
Correlation Coefficient - .524011		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>VOCABULARY</u>		
TOEFL	41.3766	9.26663
Michigan	24.5844	7.00672
Correlation Coefficient - .615167		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>READING COMPREHENSION</u>		
TOEFL	43.6645	8.23733
Michigan	10.9671	7.96966
Correlation Coefficient - .493629		

were correlated with both TOEFL and equated Michigan Scores. First by total scores in all classes and then for each class separately. These were III, II2 (the original Freshman English requirement) then 100A, 100B, 201, and 202 (the new general requirement). Withdraws and X grades were considered with the Fs for this part of the study. Only in the beginning classes (III until Fall 1969 and 100A after that time) was there a significant positive correlation. These were significant on the .001 level with both the TOEFL and the Michigan tests. II2, 100B, and 201 showed no significance, but surprisingly 202 showed a significant negative correlation of .05. This would indicate that the further a student progresses in his college English the less his original

TOEFL - MICHIGAN TEST CORRELATIONS BY COUNTRIES

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>SAMOA</u>		
TOEFL	463.914	67.034
Michigan	72.0286	14.7558
Correlation Coefficient - .549883		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>TONGA</u>		
TOEFL	417.135	65.6051
Michigan	64.2432	14.6688
Correlation Coefficient - .690618		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>JAPAN</u>		
TOEFL	379.654	127.22
Michigan	57.4615	12.4619
Correlation Coefficient - .212947		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>CHINA</u>		
TOEFL	501.471	63.7708
Michigan	77.5	11.309
Correlation Coefficient - .664603		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>FIJI</u>		
TOEFL	453.2	57.2991
Michigan	71.4	4.21898
Correlation Coefficient - .80002		

Chart No. 9B

TOEFL - MICHIGAN TEST CORRELATIONS BY COUNTRIES

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>KOREA</u>		
TOEFL	396	67.0224
Michigan	54.6667	6.02769
Correlation Coefficient - .391099		

	<u>Means</u>	<u>Standard Deviation</u>
<u>TAHITI</u>		
TOEFL	408.5	91.6715
Michigan	62.25	19.6023
Correlation Coefficient - .972655		

English ability would influence his grades. Total grades for all classes and test scores had no significance. In this study no attempt was made to correlate figures on students who had had English Language Institute classes or other special English classes for non-native speakers. I have these figures and will probably make a report on them at a
Continued on Page 9.

Teaching ESL Through Typing

by Mike Foley

Earlier this year I taught ESL for the Hawaii State Adult Basic Education (ABE) night classes to foreign-born military wives. Over 40 wives showed up for the first class, so I divided them into a beginning and intermediate group. The intermediate group presented the biggest teaching challenge.

Many of these ladies had lived stateside for several years, and all had previous ESL classwork. After the second night their abilities proved diverse and I could see we needed something special to hold everyone's interest.

The Education Center at Hawaii's Schofield Barracks has a well-equipped typing room which wasn't being used on our class nights. I had heard about other programs' success teaching ESL through typing and decided to propose that idea to our class the next session.

The ladies showed great enthusiasm and wanted to begin immediately, but I encouraged them to spend half our class time (2 1/2 hours) on more traditional ESL materials. We used *Learning English Through Typewriting* (by Charles W. Gay, Robert B. Kaplan, and Ron D. Schoesler; *English Sentence Patterns* (1969) as our workbook.

When we first began I divided our still large group into smaller groups, instructing them and demonstrating typing fundamentals such as posture, margins, inserting paper, various mechanisms, etc. After all had mastered these basics, we commenced typing in earnest.

As the text is designed for individualized study and progress, all went well. I circulated frequently, checking accuracy, answering questions, and freeing jammed keys. When a lesson had been completed, the student brought it to me to check. If correct, then we would discuss the new keys in the next lesson and learn the correct fingering.

As the weeks went by our class eventually learned the entire keyboard. Once past this milestone the GI wives began to type more grammatical

exercises--building proficiency in typing and English.

Mike Foley received his MA in TESL at the University of Hawaii. He is currently teaching in the English and ELI Departments at Church College of Hawaii.

Though not making excuses, these particular women found little outside use for typing. In fact most of them didn't have access to another typewriter. Briefly, their motivation suffered.

Despite this unhappy ending, I found the idea of teaching ESL through typing basically sound, especially for those students and potential workers who'll have use of the skill. The text proved adequate, but I recommend additional drill materials--materials not oriented towards typing skill but grammar acquisition. For ESL programs that may be slumping, I recommend a typing section to generate enthusiasm and aid language learning.

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

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TOEFL and Michigan Test Scores

Continued from Page 7

later date.

From this study I would conclude that:

1. While both TOEFL and Michigan Tests measure a student's English ability, their correlation is only moderate for total scores, with considerable variation in individual categories, and could not be used interchangeably for student evaluation or placement.

2. Neither TOEFL nor Michigan Test Scores have significance on a non-native English speaking student's success in college work. Although the grades in the first English class taken reflect English ability as shown by these tests neither further English classes nor graduation, which are the real goals of a college student, show any correlation.

Chart No. 10

GRADES IN FRESHMAN ENGLISH

	A	B	C	D	X	F	W
TOEFL HIGH	510 (75)	660 (98)	624	542 (61)	566 (81)	624	500
TOEFL LOW	366 (59)	408 (68)	312 (62)	374 (61)	382 (64)	254	376
MICH HIGH	98	98 (660)	98	71 (478)	93	90 (566)	72
MICH LOW	53 (440)	54	38	61 (374)	47	57 (452)	50

Figures in () denote enter TOEFL or Mich Test Score for same student.

Correlated English -ELI Program

A number of changes in English studies at the Church College of Hawaii will be effective next fall. At present the English Language Institute is a separate department, the reading clinic operates independently, and developmental speech for non-native speakers of English is taught by the speech department. Although NAFSA reflects the thinking of many ESL teachers by recommending in its field service publication *Guidelines: English Language Proficiency* (1971) that a program in English as a second language should remain independent of either English or speech departments, the ethnic mixture of the studentbody at CCH make this impractical because over half of our students now use English as a second language or dialect. As the number of second language speakers has increased on our campus, it has become necessary to plan every English class with the needs of these students in mind and to have one academic department coordinate the classes which satisfy those needs.

Next year the English department will offer an integrated program of course work which will allow a student to move from an elementary ESL program, which includes developmental speech, to an individualized intensive reading skills program, through an expository writing course, to a two semester program in reading and writing about world literature. Qualified students who test high on entrance tests (Michigan and Co-op Reading) may eliminate the elementary ESL courses and or the reading course.

The beginning courses will still be offered in twenty day modules, with the student being assigned to conversation, vocabulary, reading, grammar, and writing classes as needed. A student will be able, thereby, to work at his own pace and test out of this stage of the program when he is ready.

The course in reading skills development will be a one semester class, approached clinically with comprehension and vocabulary building receiving the emphasis.

Upon satisfactory completion of these two phases, the student then enters a

New Administrative Structure of	
	Chairman: J
ELI Courses 101-104 Director: Mike Foley	Compositor Courses 111 Director: Pa
Developmental Speech Part of ELI courses in modular form Coordinator: Brent Pickering	Reading Clin Courses 107- Director: Sid

“freshman English” course in expository writing. This course is considerably different from its typical mainland counterpart, however, in that it will be a one semester (four credits), daily class accompanied by a weekly individual consultation between student and teacher. Instead of an English proficiency exam, commonly given in American Colleges during the junior year, CCH will require a two semester world literature course which emphasizes the development of writing skills. Enrollment in these courses will not be allowed to exceed twenty two, thus allowing the student to participate in discussions which build his oral skills.

One of the main goals in combining these programs is to facilitate the coordination of departments which were previously autonomous and only loosely correlated with other English studies on campus. It should result in the elimination of unnecessary duplication and confusion for the international student.

The next issue of *TESL Reporter* will carry a description of the new BATESL curriculum at CCH.

am at CCH

CCH English Department

ay Fox

y and Reading
, 201, 202
ul Thomas

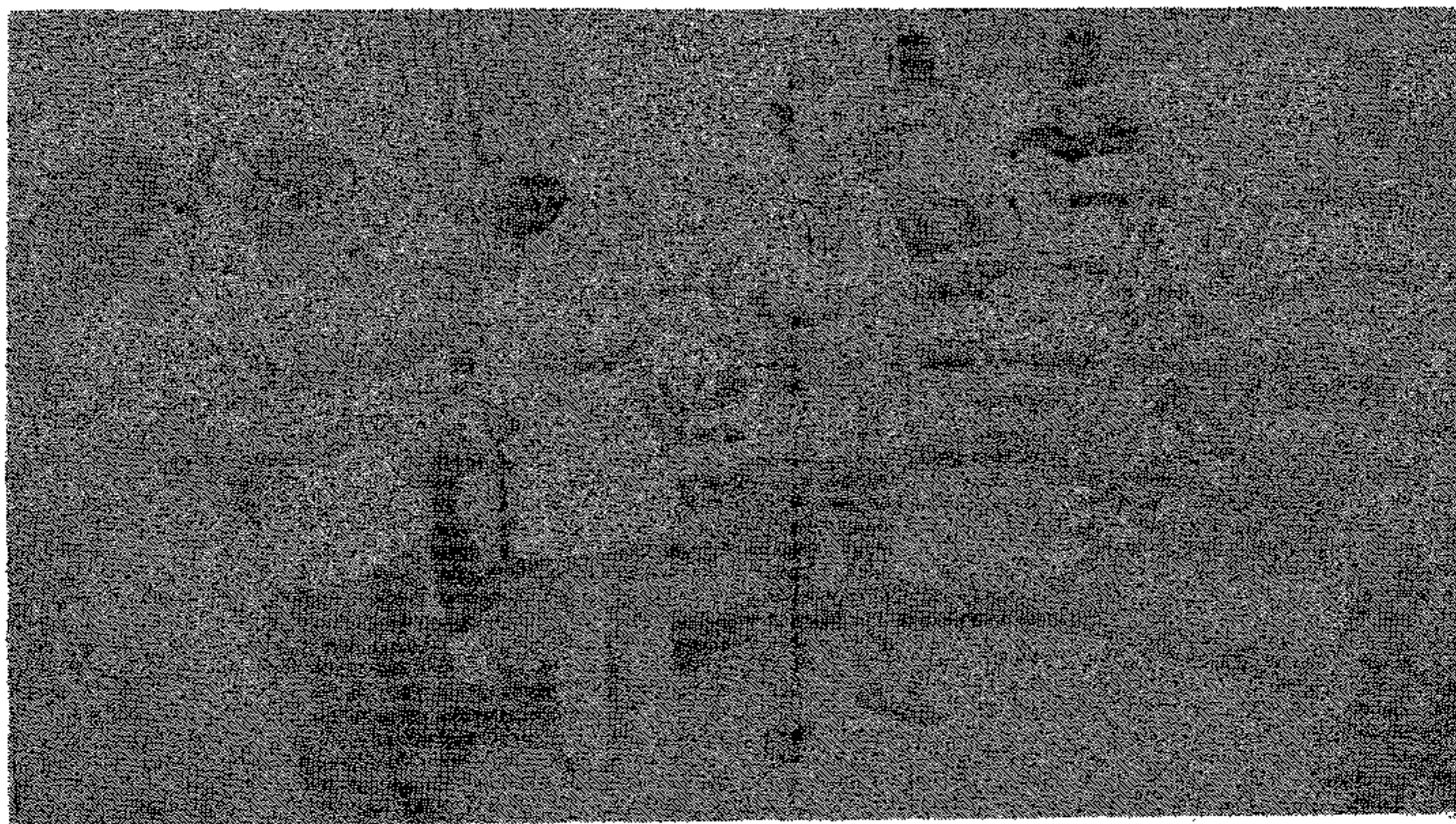
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TESL
All TESL courses
Coordinator: Alice Pack



Participants from Micronesia, Alik Kephas, Lewis Santos, Gusto Ligoehr, and Maria Yamada.

CCH SUMMER SCHOOL CLASSES



Maria Yamada from Ponape leads other class members in TESL activity.

VOCABULARY BINGO

- A TESL GAME

by Cecelia Vaioleti

This is a game which could be used as a tool for vocabulary practice, a cumulative exercise, or just for an interesting diversion from the normal routine. The teacher makes up a set of Bingo cards (see diagram below) with selected vocabulary words taken from previous oral, reading, and/or writing exercises. Put one word in each square on the card, varying each card so that there are not more than two or three identical cards. Students then would not be likely to repeatedly select the same card.

There are two suggested ways of playing the game.

(1)

The teacher makes up a set of word definitions. Each definition should be on a separate strip of paper. These should be on the level of the students' understanding. Example:

a hard outer covering, as on an animal, egg, or nut.

The students who have "a shell" printed on their cards should place a marker there.

(2)

The teacher makes up a set of sentences with the key words left out. These are written on strips of paper.

Example:

Jack found — — — on the beach.

Again, the student would mark "a shell".

These cards may be adapted to noun practice, as shown here (notice that the articles are always included with the count nouns), a verb practice, prepositions, etc. The markers could be anything from small pebbles to candy. Some kind of point system could be arranged by the teacher if a competitive situation were desired. The teacher could either read the strips of paper to the class or if reading ability permits let

each student draw a strip from a bag and read his strip to the class.

Mrs. Vaioleti, mother of two boys, is a Senior TESL Major at CCH, and has assisted in ELI classes.

The first student to have marked a vertical, horizontal, or diagonal line of five spaces across the card wins the game. Any prize or reward is left to the discretion of the teacher.

B I N G O				
1	a doll			
2			a shell	
3				
4		a library		
5	an apple			

This game might also be used for practice in word form classes. For example the word beauty might be drawn and students having any forms of this word (i.e. beautiful, beautify, beautifully,) would mark their cards.

Lexical Decomposition

and the Teaching of Vocabulary

by Don L. F. Nilsen

Let me begin by saying that I have no simple solution for the teaching of vocabulary. In the joint ATESL-COMSEC meeting on Wednesday, Robert Kaplan pointed out a number of the complexities that exist between the English language and the real world which it represents. In my paper I do not mean to minimize this complex relationship. I do, however, want to suggest that recent linguistic research in the area of semantics has provided us with the kinds of insights that will allow us to analyze a semantically packed lexical item into its more basic meaning components.

The generative semanticists have viewed this as a synthetic rather than an analytic process. I will use an oft-cited example to illustrate their position. They would consider the adjective "dead" to be a state, and they would consider this adjective to be

This article by Mr. Nilsen of the University of Northern Iowa, author of *Pronunciation Contrasts in English* (Simon and Schuster, 1971), was presented at the national NAESA Convention 1972.

part of the predicate in such a sentence as "John is dead." Now let us consider the change of state verb "die," which has the same resultant state, "dead." The generative semanticists would synthesize the change of state element "become" with the resultant state element "dead," and they would conclude that "become dead" is equivalent to "die." If we add a causative element to "die," we would get "kill," which is said to be a synthesis of the three elements "cause," "become," and "dead." This process can be carried still further, so that "cause," "become," "dead," and "illegally," would coalesce to become "murder," and "cause," "become," "dead," "illegally," and "important person" would become "assassinate," and so on.

The synthetic process which I have just been describing is known as lexical incorporation, because it is the process by which basic lexical elements can be

incorporated together to form less-basic elements. In the present example, it should be noticed that both the basic elements and the non-basic elements are predicates. When this is the case, the process is further designated as predicate lifting or predicate raising. Predicate lifting, then, is the process by which lower predicates are incorporated together to form higher predicates, or, in our example, the process by which "become" and "dead" are incorporated into the new lexical item "die;" the process by which "cause," "become," and "dead" are incorporated into the new lexical item "kill," and so on.

Just as it is possible to incorporate two predicates together to form a new, semantically packed predicate, it is also possible to incorporate other types of information into the predicate. We can incorporate a predicate, like "to put" with a location prepositional phrase "into a bottle" to get a new predicate, "to bottle." We can incorporate a predicate like "to hit" with a body-part prepositional phrase "with a foot" to get a new predicate, "to kick." We can incorporate a predicate like "to cover" with a material prepositional phrase "with gravel" to get a new predicate, "to gravel." Or we can incorporate a predicate like "to fasten" with an instrumental prepositional phrase like "to fasten" with an instrumental prepositional phrase "with a button" to get a new predicate, "to button." The list of incorporation types could be extended greatly. Sometimes there is a choice of which deep case to incorporate. Consider an expression like "John hit the nails with the hammer to cause the window to be shut." If the Object is incorporated, this sentence will become "John nailed the window shut," but if the Instrument is incorporated it will become "John hammered the window shut." This accounts for an intuitive feeling that the verb "nailed," and the verb "hammered" are in some sense synonymous. Linguists dealing with this aspect of semantics make a distinction between transparent incorporation and opaque incorporation. Such verbs as "to

bottle," "to button," "to nail," "to hammer," and "to gravel" are transparent; we know what is incorporated by the shape of the verb—A bottle is incorporated into the verb "to bottle." But such verbs as "to kill," "to die," and "to kick" are opaque; we cannot tell from the shape of the verb "kick" that it is a foot which is incorporated. If this were an example of transparent lexical incorporation, it would be "to foot," which is a logical possibility, but which just doesn't happen to occur in English, in this sense.

Such is the method of the generative semanticists, and also, by the way, of the case grammarians. It might be argued that "cause to die," and "hit with the foot" do not mean the same as do their incorporated counterparts "kill" and "kick" respectively. I would agree with such an objection, and I would go even further, to say that not two synonyms, paraphrases, or cognates in any language or pair of languages are exactly equivalent. There is always a difference in formality, style, connotation, frequency of occurrence etc. that makes them not exactly equivalent. But this does not mean that we should abandon our investigation of paraphrase relationships of this type. In teaching vocabulary we can start with gross approximations, and later make finer and finer distinctions as our students become more capable of handling such distinctions.

In my title, I promised to talk about lexical decomposition, and to this point I have been talking about lexical incorporation. In actual fact, these are two faces of the same coin, the first being analytic, the second synthetic. For ease of presentation, let me change from a generator (if you'll excuse the expression) to an analyzer, and let me mainly change from verbs to nouns, since it is nouns which have been least analyzed in the past, in this regard. Let us begin with a word like "lake." In English, there are many words which mean "body of standing water." In descending order of size, these include "ocean," "sea," "lake," "pond," "pool," and "puddle." In order to know the meaning of "lake" in English, therefore, it is necessary to distinguish it from "ocean" and "sea" on the one hand, and "pond,"

"pool," and "puddle" on the other hand, according to relative size.

Or consider the lexical feature of space. This is one of the ways of distinguishing body parts, for example as we go from top to bottom (basically front to back with an animal) we have "head," "throat," "shoulder," "chest," "stomach," "pelvic area," "leg," "foot," "toe," etc. And the difference between such words as "great grandfather," "grandfather," "father," "self," "son," "grandson," etc. has to be accounted for by extracting the feature time. Such words as "solo," "duet," "trio," "quartet," "quintet," etc. differ from each other in number; and "officer (of the law)," "policeman," "cop," "copper," "fuz," and "pig" are really the same except for formality, or attitude. And, if I am not mistaken, such words as "run," "branch," "coulee," "bayou," "binacle," "kill," and "burn" are basically the same except for geographical dialect.

To teach the meaning of a word, it is often necessary to contrast it with other words along a number of different dimensions. Although I know nothing about metals, let me attempt to illustrate my point with four common metals: "bronze," "gold," "lead," and "silver." If these four metals are ranked according to hardness they would probably go in order "silver," "bronze," "gold," and "lead." According to brilliance, they would have a different order: "silver," "gold," "bronze," and "lead." By weight, still a different order would emerge: "lead," "gold," "bronze," and "silver," and finally, by value, still a fourth order would be necessary: "gold," "silver," "bronze," "lead." If we were teaching the meaning of the word "lead," we could contrast it other metals along these four, and along many other dimensions.

Now let me consider a slightly different type of multi-dimensional lexical system. Suppose we are teaching about animals. In this case we would have to deal with the feature of sound distinctions of such words as "neigh," "growl," "roar," "howl," "bark," "bleat," "oink," "honk," "quack," "cluck," "cackle," "meow," "purr," "hiss," "coo," etc. You would also have to distinguish between different kinds of feet,

such as "hoof," "paw," and "claw." You would have to consider male animal terms, like "stallion," "bull," "stag," "billy goat," "ram," "boar," "peacock," "drake," "tom cat," and "rooster," as contrasted with the female animal terms, like "mare," "cow," "doe," "tigress," "shewolf," "ewe," "bitch," "sow," "hen," and "nanny goat," and relate these terms to the animal itself: "horse," "cow," "deer," "sheep," "dog," "pig," "chicken," etc. The feature youth would have to be extracted from such terms as "colt," "calf," "fawn," "kid," "cub," "lamb," "puppy," "piglet," "gosling," "duckling," "chick," and "kitten." And such terms as "stable," "barn," "den," "pen," "kennel," "hutch," "coop," and "nest" would all be seen to contain the same semantic feature home. And finally, a group of the animals would have to be designated as a "herd," "pride," "pack," "flock," "gaggle," or "school." And for this exercise to be meaningful, the relationships of all these terms to the appropriate animals must be established, so that such terms as "rooster," "hen," "chick," "coop," "cluck," "eggs," "feathers," and "claws" are all associated with chicken.

But I've merely scratched the surface in indicating the types of semantic features that can be extracted from lexical items in contrasting them with other lexical items in a particular language. Such expressions as "break," "destroy," and "demolish" differ from each other mainly in intensity. "Buy" and "sell" are the same except for the point of view. The difference between "whisper," "talk," and "shout" is mainly loudness. "Fragile" is the same as "delicate" except that the former has a negative connotation that the latter does not have. There is really no difference between "taking" and "stealing" except for legality (whatever that means). "Lending" is the same as "giving" except that one is more permanent. "Enunciate" and "stammer" are both expressions of oral communication, but one is more distinct than the other.

"Strut," "prod," and "stagger" differ from each other in pride or tiredness; "walk" and "limp" are the same except that the second deviates from the norm. The main difference between "run," "scamper," "dash," and "sprint" is one of speed. "Think" and "know" differ in the quantity and/or quality of evidence. "Neighbors" differ from "foreigners" in proximity.

"Marching" is a kind of precision-group "walking." And if time would allow, I could go on and on—listing additional features, and giving additional examples of words contrasted on the basis of these features.

Fortunately for the audience, however, I must conclude at this point. What I have tried to present is a method for vocabulary teachers and materials developers of breaking semantically complex and sophisticated lexical items into less complex and more basic semantic features. There is a high negative correlation between the semantic packing of a lexical item, and its range of appropriateness to various linguistic and social contexts. Those words which are heavily packed semantically should mainly be reserved for more-advanced students, but most of the words in any language will have some semantic packing, and it is necessary to develop in the students an ability to unpack these words in order for them to see what semantic features are inherent to various lexical items.

Another point that I should like to make is that most of the semantic packing is not signalled in the surface structure of English or any other language. We know that -en, -ize, and -ify signal causative and inchoative in such English words as "straighten," "equalize," and "liquefy," respectively, but most English causative-inchoative words are like "break" in that they do not overtly signal that the causative and inchoative semantic features are present. This same covertness is true for other semantic features, and for other languages. In vocabulary study, we must rely not only on the surface-structure, language-specific relationships between form and meaning. We must also develop an ability to use intuition and introspection to figure out what the semantic elements of lexical items are. Once we are better equipped to do this, we will be able to see that the words of all languages are decomposable into exactly the same semantic features. And we will see in what ways the words of one language differ from similar words in another language (in this case English), by seeing which features are present in one, but absent in the other. And, we will be able to see that all languages are basically the same, because they all relate to the same real world (except for differences in perception), and therefore have the same significant semantic features, and they will see that languages differ only in their surface structures.

Reflections

of a Non-TESL Person in a TESL Setting

by Jayne G. Garside

During the 1970-71 school year, I had a sabbatical leave which I spent with my family in the town of Kyoto, Japan. Kyoto is a large city of about a million and a half people on the island of Honshu located about 400 miles to the southwest of Tokyo.

At one time, Kyoto was the capital of all Japan before the Meiji restoration. Following the Meiji restoration, the capital was moved to Tokyo, but much of tradition of Japan is still centered in the area of Kyoto and its environs. Kyoto has over 1,600 temples and shrines, many of which are cultural national treasures of Japan.

The main industry in Kyoto is connected in some way to tradition. The main industry is the dying and making of Kimono. Kimono is the national dress of the women of Japan but is not, in modern times, worn usually every day during the year. Because of the beauty of the silk material and because of the need for many layers of underclothing to make the Kimono, as an outside garment, appear the most beautiful, Kimonos are quite warm when they are worn. They are usually worn, then, in late fall, in winter, and early spring.

Since the ending of the Second World War, the people of Japan have tossed aside many of the traditions of the past and have come back from a wartime economy to have one of the highest standards of living in the world. Japan is counted a world power in industry and in technology. Major exported items include such things as automobiles, particularly Toyota and Isuzu, and electronic equipment.

While Japan is making all this progress industrially and technologically, the people of Japan still cling to many of the traditions of the past that bring into their lives beauty and knowledge. Some of the aspects that bring into their lives beauty and a sense of national identity are reflected in Noh plays, Kabuki plays, Kyogen, Bunraku; and for

most of the people in Japan, they represent the past and feelings of personal commitment to a country, to an ideal, and to a philosophy.

Jayne G. Garside, clinical psychologist and Director of Institutional Research at Church College of Hawaii, obtained a doctorate in Educational Psychology from Brigham Young University. During her ten years in Hawaii, Dr. Garside has worked exclusively in transcultural psychology.

At the ending of the Second World War, the educational system of Japan was revamped and reestablished along democratic lines - that is public education for all. Although public education for all was the philosophy, because of space allotment and building problems, while education was compulsory until junior high termination, it was not possible to put all people in public schools. Therefore, there was a development and continuation of many of the private schools of Japan. Places in public education are still highly sought after because public education has achieved an excellence. For this reason, competition is very keen for opportunities to attend the public school. Competition, then, is a part of the Japanese people from a very early age in that many of the children in Japan begin a public Kindergarten or private Kindergarten (called a Yochien) at about three years of age. At six years, they are formally taken into the first grade of public schools or private schools. Periodically, as they journey through school, it is necessary for them to take examinations which permit them, with high scores to continue on in public schools if openings occur. This means, then, that the excellence of public education is not really in question.

As a foreign sojourner in Japan, I had

planned to do research only, while living in Kyoto and absorbing as much of the beauty and culture of Japan as possible. My two boys were placed in Japanese schools, one in a Shinto—Buddhist yochien; one in a regular public school in the fourth grade. We were fortunate enough to obtain living accommodations in a Japanese style apartment in a neighborhood chiefly composed of artisans, of the Kimono industry. We were well accepted in the neighborhood and in the community. In my association with people in the neighborhood and in the community, it came fairly well—known to others that there was a “gaijin” (foreigner) living in the immediate area.

Not long after we obtained residency and were living in Kyoto, I was approached by an older woman in a very formal manner who asked me, through an interpreter, to be English conversation teacher to her daughter who was at that time a student in Kansai Junior College, majoring in English. In Japan, most of the students in junior high and high school are required by law to take English. English, in this setting, is taught usually by a Japanese person who has a somewhat limited knowledge of the application of English. Therefore, most of the people of Japan who have been through public schools are able to read and write English but their speaking ability is very limited due to not having had the opportunity of conversing often or in depth in English with a person who has an extended knowledge of English. It is not unusual for strangers from Occidental countries to be approached by Japanese people in the street and asked questions in English or asked if they would teach the person English. For the young woman for whom I had been requested to teach English, I found that her knowledge of written English was quite extensive; her ability to converse was somewhat limited due to the same lack of opportunity. I did agree to teach her as a student. Immediately she prevailed upon me to also include in my teaching another girl who also was a student at Kansai Junior College.

Not long after this, I was approached by two young women who were working as salesgirls in one of the very large hotels in Kyoto and who had opportunity of dealing with many foreigners. Both young women

requested English conversation lessons. I was then asked by two young women from Church to act as their English conversation teacher.

This reflects a phenomena of Japan that should be mentioned. The Japanese people are possibly the most industrious people in the world as far as their commitment to their job and their desire for personal development. As you talk to most of the young men and women of Japan, you find that their work—a-day week is six days in length and their workday is not necessarily limited to eight hours a day but often is much longer. They are expected, upon obtaining employment, to devote themselves to the good of the company. The company becomes a paternal figure for them, thus, they become children in the organization. In addition, to their work—a-day world, the Japanese people have much desire for self-improvement and obtaining knowledge. Toward this end many of the young people, particularly the young women are engaged in flower arrangement, tea ceremony, knitting schools, dressmaking schools, cooking schools, and classes in English, typing, and other forms of academic pursuits.

To teach English in Japan is a choice experience. Financially, it can be very rewarding, but teaching English in Japan, if you are a foreigner also offers the only opportunity of learning in depth about the culture in which you are residing. It was my plan to utilize teaching English conversation as an opportunity to become more knowledgeable about the experiences, the thoughts, the emotions of the people with whom I dealt. It was possible to find out about their traditions as practiced in the homes. It was possible to converse about their plans for the future, the desires of the young people of Japan, to find out if they have broken the bonds of tradition or whether tradition was still significant in their lives. But there arose some difficulties that might be mentioned for the benefit of those people interested in teaching English in a foreign situation.

My background included a BA in Spanish with a minor in English. In obtaining this type of degree, it was possible to learn certain techniques of teaching language, but I have never had experience in TESL. When I began teaching English conversation, I tried to obtain some books or manuals that would

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help the students best in their desire to pursue English conversation. For me, this was a very difficult task not only due to some of the paucity of material available, but also due to the fact that my ability to choose that which was appropriate was limited. Exactly *what* was good text for teaching English as a second language?

Another problem arose in the form of having difficulty in knowing the techniques of phonics and phonetics. After many trial and error situations, I found that which worked best for me was the utilization of a "mim—mem" method, that is often I would say a word and my students would repeat the word after me several times until I felt their pronunciation was correct. Another technique I utilized was calling the student to talk upon a specific or assigned topic utilizing experiences from her own background. As the students would talk, I would correct them in their grammar or their pronunciation.

The errors that occurred most frequently in the grammar were the errors due to a lack of commonality grammatically, such as in Japanese the definite articles are not utilized like they are in English. It was not uncommon for Japanese students in talking in English to refer to house or car or boyfriend, instead of *the* house, *the* car, or *the* boyfriend. It was also not uncommon for Japanese students to place the verb in English conversation in a different locality than that which was desired because Japanese syntax is different from English syntax.

When assigning students particular topics, I felt that the best utilization could be made through topics that were reflective of the students' own experiences such as their plans

for the future, what they would like in marriage, what they do for their leisure activities, where their parents came from, what was the physical arrangement of their home, what their room was like, what they did as children, etc. This provided an opportunity for me to learn much more about Japan and the Japanese per se than if I had not had the opportunity, and were easy topics for the students to prepare.

I know of no greater calling nor opportunity than that of a teacher to the youth of the world. Through the use of TESL in a foreign setting, I believe intercultural communication does occur and through this intercultural communication all people are better prepared to function as citizens of the world.

It was with a great sense of loss and regret that after a year's time my family and I returned to our beloved Hawaii. We will miss the friendships we had. I will miss extremely the experience of working with the youth of Japan, particularly the students who seem to be so motivated beyond what is required of them. I would like to return to Japan someday to again have the experience of functioning in a society different from my own. In order to prepare for this, though, and for the eventuality or opportunity of teaching English as a second language, I would like to obtain more knowledge and ability in this particular art—TESL. I believe, then, that a person could go to almost any country and function as a teacher having the opportunity of working with many different people because skills would be possessed that transcend cultural barriers.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR

Some time ago I was fortunate enough to be placed on the mailing list for your marvelous publication. I have read and learned a good deal from it, and when I suddenly realized that while I am on sabbatical leave next year, I will not be receiving your magazine, I just had to let you know how much I will regret it.

If only I had the time I would love to submit an article which would help Margaret Pinney, as much of my work has been with non—readers who were also non—English speaking. Since I cannot take the time, I would, though, like to refer

her to the Miami Linguistic Readers, which are published by D.C. Heath and Co., Lexington, Mass. While no reading series is in itself a total answer, this series lends itself very nicely to working with a mixed group (some literate in their native language and some not). It also has a great appeal to both younger and older pupils because it features cartoon—type characters, and since it is linguistic in its approach, many of the sound—symbol correspondence problems are ironed out systematically.

(Mrs.) Sandra L. Parker
ESL Specialist Dade County, Florida

Suggestion from a Reader

by Walter P. Allen

Walter P. Allen, Associate Professor of English at the University of Houston commented on the Pronoun Chart published in our Winter 1972 Issue and suggested a revision which is printed below. He states:

Each type of chart, the maximal and the minimal, is useful in different aspects of

teaching. The chart printed in the Winter TESL Reporter shows all the possible uses of each form, while my suggestion concentrates attention on the changes in form. Probably the native language background of the students will also determine which form of the chart is most useful.

PRONOUN CHART

<u>PERSONAL PRONOUNS</u>	<u>Subject</u>	<u>Object</u>	<u>Possessive Determiner</u>	<u>N.P.</u>	<u>Reflexive</u>
1st Person Singular	I	me	my	mine	myself
Plural	we	us	our	ours	ourselves
2nd Person Singular	you - -	you	your	yours	yourself
Either sing. or Pl Plural					yourselves
3rd Person Singular					
Masculine	he	him	his - - -	his	himself
Feminine	she	her - -	her	hers	herself
Neuter	it - - -	it	its	its	itself
Plural	they	them	their	theirs	themselves

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

Human	who	whom	
Either Human or NH	that		whose
Nonhuman	which -	which	

DEMONSTRATIVES

	<u>Close to Speaker</u>	<u>Farther from Speaker</u>
Singular	this	that
Plural	these	those

R U L E S

- I. 1. All except 1st and 2nd person pronouns must have an antecedent.
2. A 3rd person pronoun agrees with its antecedent in number and, when singular, in gender.

Example: In Rule 1. 2. (above) its agrees with its antecedent pronoun as singular in number and neuter in gender.

- II. Subject forms are used as subjects of clauses. In present day English both subject and object forms are used as complements after be.

BOOK REVIEW

English Sentence Structure — Robert Krohn and the Staff of the English Language Institute. University of Michigan 1971.

This revision of **English Sentence Patterns** covers the same topics in the same order as the previous book and is based on the oral approach to language learning.

Among the improvements in this edition are: 1) a few grammatical comments or explanations for the drills — helpful in teaching adults at an intermediate level.

2) Situational specific vocabulary rather than value judgment adjectives in beginning drills.

Example:

Sentence Patterns (old edition)

Is the lesson important?

Is the lesson interesting?

Is the student intelligent?

Sentence Structure (new edition)

Is the book green?

Is the table heavy?

Is John happy?

3) Less confusing format using italics rather than capitals for grammatical differences, but still retaining capitals for student response. New illustrations and diagrams which are pertinent and useful.

4) A suggestion for written homework is also included..

The thirty lessons are a very comprehensive study of basic English sentences covering material that is often distributed over several books. Included are determiners, modals and verb forms; also adverbs of frequency and manner. Each lesson has from two to six sub groups. With adequate examples and numerous exercises for each group.

Alice C. Pack

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