DICTIONARY USE IN ESL COURSES

by Dr. Kenneth Croft

A foreign student in the United States for secondary or higher education finds that an all-English desk dictionary is one of his best friends. Actually, he can hardly survive in his academic training without one.

Back home the typical foreign student developed the habit of consulting a bi-lingual dictionary (English and his native language) to answer questions about words and usage. But for pursuing courses in American educational institutions this habit should be broken as soon as possible; he must be encouraged to switch to an all-English dictionary. As a rule, the contexts for presenting information about English words in bilingual dictionaries are hopelessly inadequate. Furthermore, the use of a bilingual dictionary reinforces a long-standing notion on the part of many students: that there is a one-to-one correspondence between English words on the one hand and words in the students' native language on the other — a completely false notion.

All students of English as a second language (ESL) know that a dictionary contains meanings of words and correct spellings, and they consult it mostly for these purposes. Relatively few of them draw on the other useful information to be found there. A unit of study based on dictionary usage at the beginning of a reading and/or composition course is well worth the time and effort. Even the alphabetic principle in dictionary arrangement is not entirely clear to some

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students, especially those from Asian countries and the Middle East.

A study unit devoted to familiarizing ESL students with the dictionary can be conducted best by means of a workbook on study skills, with all members of the class using the same dictionary. A good workbook explains what the dictionary contains and how the contents are arranged; it also provides exercises for practice in locating specific information: spelling, pronunciation, syllable division,

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derivation, meaning, part of speech, usage, synonyms, and the like.

In general an ESL student goes to the dictionary for the same reasons as an American student, but the questions he wants answered are usually less sophisticated than those of the American. Whereas the American student may decide to look up *inscrutable* to see if the ending is *ible* or *able,* the ESL student is more likely to look up a word like *fitting* to see if it contains one or two *t's.* Spelling rules can be and are learned, but I hear a frequent comment that it is easier to look in the dictionary than remember the rules. Also because he lacks security in the language, particularly in reading and writing, the ESL student's need for frequent dic-

tionary consultation is greater than the American's.

Inasmuch as I have to look in a dictionary to check word divisions, I can do no less than insist that my students do likewise. Some ESL students (but not all, by any means) are so intent on keeping their right margins straight, they divide words at the end of the line too often and, in many cases, incorrectly. Because of the average ESL student's "shaky" command of the language, it is almost impossible for him to internalize the rules for English word division completely.

Capitalization of proper nouns, a lesser problem, can be dealt with by referring to the dictionary, too, and this should be encouraged. If for no other reason than accurate spelling the ESL teacher can perform a valuable service to the student by helping him develop "the dictionary habit."

Provided the ESL student does not switch back and forth from one dictionary to another or switch around from one to another, he can usually learn the conventions for marking pronunciation in a single dictionary and make good use of them. At least he can locate the syllable of a word with the heaviest stress, and by studying the pronunciation key he can learn to recognize the various indicators of vowel and consonant quality. However, in quite a few cases, the dictionary symbols tend to confuse the student, unless he has guidance from a native speaker of English, because some of the sounds marked are not in the student's repertory. In his non fluent command of the language he substitutes the nearest equivalent from his native language for English sounds.

Moreso than for spelling and pronunciation, the ESL student values the dictionary for the meanings of words given. Using the same dictionary all the time is

THE IMPORTANCE OF IDENTIFYING THE TENSE CARRIER IN SIMPLE AFFIRMATIVE SENTENCES

by Yao Shen

There are two tenses in English and two only. They are the present tense and the past tense. Tense refers to the present or past* form of the word. For example.

WORD	PRESENT	PAST
be	am, is are	was were
have	have, has	had
do	do, does	did
will	will	would
will	will, wills	willed
can	can	could
can	can, cans	canned

Tense and time are not the same. There are three references to time: present, past, and future. Tense and time in the same sentence do not always have a one-to-one relationship. For example.

	TENSE		TIME	TENSE	TIME
1.	Is	he there	right now?	present	present
2.	Was	he there	yesterday?	past	past
3.	Is	he there	all the time?	present	pres

	TENSE		TIME	TENSE	TIME
1.	Is	he there	right now?	present	present
2.	Was	he there	yesterday?	past	past
3.	Is	he there	all the time?	present	present, past, future
4.	Is	he leaving	this moment?	present	present
5.	Is	he leaving	tomorrow?	present	future
6.	Was	he leaving	tomorrow?	past	future
7.	Was	he leaving	today?	past	present
8.	Was	he leaving	yesterday?	past	past
9.	Has	he patience	all the time?	present	present, past, future
10.	Does	he have patience	all the time?	present	present, past, future

The purpose here is not to take up the relation between tense and time but to demonstrate the importance of identifying the word which carries tense in a sentence. The word which carries tense will be referred to as the tense carrier. Two kinds of sentences are dealt with here. They are the simple affirmative yes-no questions and the simple affirmative statements.

Grammar books frequently divide yes-no questions such as the first eight sentences

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given above into two groups. In sentences 1-3, *be* is the verb (V) with the subject (S) of the sentence following it: V+S. In questions 4-8, *be* is the auxiliary (Aux), followed by the subject: Aux+S. This dual label of *be* as the verb in V+S and the auxiliary in Aux+S is troublesome not only to the non-native speaker learning English but also to the native speaker of English attempting to understand the operations of the grammar in his own language. And teachers of English as a second language have the added burden of choosing to teach *Has he patience?* (9) in V+S or *Does he have patience?* (10) in Aux+S.

The entire problem perhaps can be simplified by remembering that in simple yes-no questions; the tense carrier, whether it is the verb in V+S or the auxiliary in Aux+S, precedes the subject: T+S. For example.

V + S --- T + S

Is	he	there?
Was	he	there?
Has	he	patience?

Aux + S --T + S

Is	he	leaving?
Was	he	leaving?
Does	he	have patience?

In fact, this T+S extends to simple yes-no questions that begin with a modal.

Modal + S -- T + S

Can	you	do it?
Could	you	do it?
Will	he	come?
Would	he	come?

T+S also operates in yes-no questions in other expanded predicates, since an expanded predicate begins with either an auxiliary or a modal. A few examples are as follows.

Aux+S -- T + S

Are	they	done?
Were	they	done?
Are	they	being done?
Were	they	being done?
Has	he	done it?
Had	he	done it?
Has	it	been done?
Had	it	been done ?
Does	he	do it?
Did	he	do it?

Modal+S -- T + S

Will	it be done?
Could	it have been done?

T+S also applies to elliptical yes-no questions. In elliptical questions, the tense carrier which is the verb precedes the subject.

V + S --- T + S

Is	he?
Was	he?
Has	he?
Had	he?
Does	he?
Did	he?
Can	he?
Could	he?
Will	he?
Would	he?

There is a similarity among V+S, Aux+S, and Modal+S. It is that the verb, the auxiliary, or the modal is the tense carrier.

V + S	
Aux + S	T + S
Modal + S	

The importance of identifying the tense carrier in statements is of equal significance. In statements, the tense carrier, whether it is a verb, an auxiliary, or a modal, follows the subject: S+T.

```
S + V --- S  +  T
           He       is.
           He       has.
           He       does.
           He       is        there.
           He       was       there.
           He       has       patience.
           He       had       patience.
```

```
S + Aux -- S +   T
           He    is     leaving.
           He    was    leaving.
           It    is     gone.
           It    was    gone.
           He    has    come.
           He    had    come.
           It    has    been done.
           It    had    been done.
           He    does   have patience.
           He    did    have patience.
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S + Modal - S + T
           You   can    do it.
           You   could  do it.
           He    will   come.
           He    would  come.
           It    could  be coming.
           It    would  have been done.
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The similarity among S+V, S+Aux, and S+Modal is that the verb, the auxiliary or the modal carries the tense in the sentence.

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      S + V
      S + Aux          S + T
      S + Modal
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Rather than teaching students to distinguish verbs, auxiliaries, and modals, it might be more profitable to make them pay attention to the word which carries the tense in the sentence. If the sentence is a yes-no question, the tense carrier precedes the subject; if the sentence is a statement, the tense carrier follows the subject.

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      Question      T + S
      Statement         S + T
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In this way a student can be guided by the deep grammar of T+S for yes-no questions and S+T for statements. The student's language would have not only the necessary tense carrier but also the tense carrier in its relation to the position of the subject of the sentence. An understanding of the necessity of the tense carrier in its positional relation to the subject of the sentence could help him produce simple affirmative yes-no questions and simple affirmative statements in acceptable grammar.

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Note:
"The Tense Carrier in Negative Sentences and Tag-questions" will appear in a following issue of this magazine.

THE TOLLESON SIX SCHOOL READING PROJECT A REVOLUTIONARY APPROACH

by GRACE A. BLOSSOM

Last school year Tolleson Union High School, Tolleson, Arizona, and the five elementary schools that surround it, put into practice a revolutionary approach to help all students read on or above grade level. It required no new texts, no highly specialized teacher training and very little cash outlay. Stated in its simplest terms the teachers were asked to accept the following concepts:

1. That the English language, itself, not racial origin or economic conditions is the cause of reading retardation in the upper grades.

2. That a shift from the use of conversational English to literary English or non-conversational English takes place in the text books at about the fourth grade level.

3. That every teacher of academic subjects, not just the reading teacher, must help students cope with the language of that subject.

4. That regular grade level texts be used in place of high interest, low vocabulary level materials. In other words, bring the student up to the text rather than the material down to the student.

Starting with these four points as the underlying philosophy of the new approach the teachers were asked to do the following:

1. Prepare a glossary or little dictionary of the terms deemed difficult in each day's lesson.

2. Define the selected terms in the simplest English possible giving only a definition for the item as it is used in the text.

3. Give each student in the class a copy of the glossary for the day's lesson and spend a few minutes of class time pronouncing each entry item and noting the meaning. This procedure was kept to a maximum of ten minutes of class time.

When the year finished and we looked at the results of the pilot project we realized how successful it had been. On the high school level the entire freshman class had averaged two years six months gain in reading comprehension as measured by Gates MacGinitie Reading Tests. But there were other results that we believe were even more important:

1. The daily glossary sheets seemed to identify the problem as being the difficultness of the English language rather than student stupidity.

2. They also seemed, as Mr. Tim Prichard of Fowler Elementary School remarked, concrete evidence of the teacher's willingness to help.

3. By identifying the "adversary" as the English language student self image was improved.

4. We had fewer discipline problems and fewer drop outs.

5. By keeping all freshman students informed as to their progress in improving their reading ability in terms they could fully understand, we seemed to develop a better teacher-student relationship.

While the preparation of a glossary sheet for each lesson from the text is time consuming the teachers knew that next year it would be only a matter of reproducing the sheets for further use. An interesting side effect of the writing of glossary material was the increased awareness on the part of the teacher of the difficulty of the text. It was not at all uncommon for a teacher to remark, "I never realized how difficult this book is." While we started out to help the bilingual students we found that English speaking students made the greatest gain in reading comprehension with the native bilinguals close behind. The few students who came in from Mexico made the least gain.

A more complete report including the computerized results of the student and teacher questionnaire may be had upon request from Dr. Weldon P. Shofstall, Superintendent of Public Education, State Department, Phoenix, Arizona.

INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE READING

by Vuki Tangitau

Reading is a highly complex process and it demands the knowledge of correct pronunciation, word recognition, comprehension skills, speed of reading as well as confidence on the part of the learner. According to John Waldman, we are motivated to read in order to discover how

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other people live, feel and act. We sometimes read to understand the past and project into the future. Insights we get from learning about other lives and other periods besides our own will add to our self knowledge.1*

Bearing Waldman's thought in mind it is therefore necessary to recommend that all language teachers should make occasions to give the second language learner opportunities to practice and imitate new sounds correctly. The teachers should look for and commend good pronunciation, correct intonation and rhythm, speed and good diction so that improvement and progress could be effected. The learner should be encouraged to pronounce sounds that are new to him and also to be critical of his own speech and pronunciation during his daily language activities. Drills and self awareness in-so-far as good articulation is concerned, should be pursued and cultivated throughout the entire reading course.

But for the reading activity to be a profitable and pleasurable learning process it is perhaps necessary to iterate the fact that the learner should be the most important thing in the whole reading program. The

1* *John Waldman: Reading With Speed and Confidence* (New York, 1972), p.4.

materials chosen for the reading should be considered in terms of his needs, his interest and his level of reading ability. Dacanay emphasized this very point when she wrote:

The principle of sequencing units of subject matter should be observed, that is from the familiar to the new. The subject matter, presented in meaningful situations and in small doses at first, should have interest and content appeal for the learner.2*

The reading materials, as suggested, should be carefully selected and graded to give the learner an interesting and challenging experience of English vocabulary and constructions. There should be, as in the case of the Church Middle Schools in Tonga, class readers, supplementary readers, books for private reading, local and overseas newspapers, posters and advertisements to aid the teaching of reading as a whole. Elliot saw the value in this when he recommended that:

the reading material must inevitably be simplified-that is to say, it must be within the linguistic range of pupils at different levels of the language. It must either be specially written within a precise range, or texts in "full-that is, unlimited English must be re-written in simplified versions."3*

Before embarking on the types of reading that I am to discuss I would like to say something more pertaining to the problems involving reading. This is because the greatest difficulty the learner meets in learning to read a foreign language concerns the language itself. The language problems, as pointed out by Sutaria, that the learner is likely to encounter in his reading:

2* *Fe R. Dacanay: Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching* (Philippine, 1967), p. 240.

3* *A.V.P. Elliot:* "Teaching the Printed Word. Reading and Literature," *Teaching English As a Second Language* (New York, 1965), p. 281.

likely to encounter in his reading:

> are identical with those he meets in listening and those that he meets in reading orally. . .He tends to transfer the sounds, the stress and intonation patterns, the rhythm, the grammatical structure, and even some of the vocabulary and style of his native tongue.4*

A second language teacher who is aware of these difficulties may adapt his reading program to the needs of his class. Moreover his approach to reading, as influenced by this awareness, would be geared towards assisting the learner to gain profitable experiences from the effort made. Reading then, should be regarded as a motivation and a morale booster employed principally for the purpose of familiarizing the learner with the strange mechanics of the target language, expanding his interest as well as giving him an education. Both the instructor and the instructed should review it as an important process primarily in relation to what they are doing at the moment and what they want to do in the future.

At this stage I need not go into a detailed discussion of the basic problems, basic skills and preliminary drills necessary for reading. I take it for granted that all are conscious of the need for the instructor to be aware of these existing problems as well as the great demand for a reasonably sound reading programme. But to the English language teachers of Tonga, to which this paper is directly addressed, I would like to discuss two major sub-divisions of the subject in discussion in terms of what Mary Finnochiaro called intensive and extensive reading.

> In Intensive reading as the term indicates, each vocabulary and structural item is explained and made part of the student's active language; pronunciation and intonation are stressed; each concept or allusion is clarified. In Extensive reading, the principal aim is comprehension. Pupils are trained to get the meaning primarily from the context although

some common vocabulary items may be developed for active use.5*

The intensive reading as defined above is principally an activity to help furnish the learner with a better understanding of the language. That understanding would only be accomplished if what is given does meet the needs of the learner.

> Necessity comes first. The child in a home environment or in a kindergarten is driven to adopt the prevailing form of communication in order to share in the activities around him and thus be happy and contented rather than lonely and miserable.6*

It should be a means of motivating the learner's interest to study the language and also to assist in establishing his confidence and desire to make use of this new tool for gathering information , for conversation and for communication. The reading programme should be made a profitable, pleasurable and functional activity. Profitable in the sense that the learner is gaining new knowledge from reading; pleasureable in-so-far as the learner uses this skill effectively and successfully; functional in the sense that the learner is able to put whatever information he receives into gainful means.

The reading program should have specific aims toward which the teacher should guide the learner in whatever reading activity he (learner) may chose to participate in. These aims may include things such as: learning of some important points of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation or structural words in the passage to be read. Questions from the teacher or from the class pertaining to the story or chapter to be read could be made more interesting and motivating if these are carefully worded. Difficult words and phrases should be discussed and made meaningful. This is best achieved through using the dictionary, giving antonyms and synonyms, dramastization, using objects, pictures, actions and any method which the teacher

4* *Minda Sutaria: Basic Readers For English Teaching* (Philippine, 1967), p. 10.

5* *Mary Finnochiaro: Teaching English as a Second Language* (New York, 1958), p. 140.

6* *E. V. Gatenby:* "Conditions for Success in Language Learning," *Teaching English As a Second Language* (New York, 1965), p. 14.

considers as appropriate in promoting and in establishing the necessary behaviour expected of the learner. For further elaboration on the need for having specific aims for reading I would like to make reference here to Minda Sutaria as pointed out:

When teaching pupils to read for any of the purposes discussed above, it is imperative that (1) the pupils know the meaning of the purpose, (2) they know what they must do to attain the purpose, (3) they be given practice in reading for that purpose.7*

Setting out of specific aims for any reading programme will undoubtedly be considered, as previously pointed out, on the needs of the learner. There are also different stages of reading determined by the level of ability of the learner and these shouldn't be ignored. These stages are: reading readiness stage, beginning reading stage, the developmental reading stage and the independent or rapid reading stage.8* Each speaks for itself and each calls for a different aim with probably a different approach.

Activities will no doubt differ from one stage to the other but at the same time since our concern is presently with intensive reading we need to limit our discussion to those that are within the territory of intensive reading. Generally speaking activities such as answering questions based on the story; choral reading (after the teacher); vocabulary study; using new words in original sentences; retelling of the story orally or in writing are some of the activities which can help make intensive reading interesting, challenging and gratifying to the learner.

Extensive reading, according to Mary Finnochiaro, is principally for comprehension. The ability to comprehend that which the learner has read depends largely upon meanings that he acquired through experience. Because the reader relies so much on his experience in order to interpret meanings correctly, it is therefore necesssary to conclude that the teacher should motivate the learner to expand his knowledge of words or otherwise. This expansion can be initiated through enriching the reading program with activities that will assist the learner in his search for meanings and relevancy through the printed page.

Setting of specific aims will assist both the instructor and the instructed in acquiring the experience wanted. Prepared questions on the passage to be read should be ready for the learner to answer. These questions will assist the learner to read with interest, purpose and meaning. Passages taken out of text-books should be discussed orally and modifications be made tto help relate the story to the interest and experience of the learner. By this method the teacher can arouse the learner's interest and curiosity about the content and the main points within the story.

Activities relating to class discussion based on the story will prove invaluable in teaching extensive reading. From experience, I have found that when students are asked to criticize a passage or write a summary they seem to read with more interest and deep concentration.

In conclusion I would like to add that the reading process, and all that it takes to make it beneficial to the learner, is not an easy task. It demands creativity on the part of the instructor. The success of it lies in both the teacher and the student; dedication and patience are necessary for each. Effective reading will therefore have a great deal to do with the effectiveness of both the instructor and the student. Each party needs to participate actively in order to successfully bring the objectives of the reading programme to fruition.

7* *Minda Cscolan Sutaria*, p. 45.

8* Ibid., p. 46.

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USING CROSSWORD PUZZLES IN TESL

by Kelly Harris , Jr.

There is something about challenges that always arouses some interest in people. In almost every possible field of endeavor challenges are possible. Language learning is far from being an exception.

This paper is to put forth my ideas on the worth of a particular type of challenge exercise that might be used in teaching

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English as a second language — crosswords. I believe in their worth and hope to distinguish between good learning exercises and time consumers, although students should learn something from both types.

Walter Powell Allen, in two booklets of designed crosswords, has organized some very fine exercises that do not seem too difficult nor beyond the teaching realm.

He indicates in prefaces to both booklets that his intention is to provide fun and practice for people learning English. Also indicated is that the puzzles are from the basic 500 word list from *The Teachers Word Book of 30,000 Words* and the basic + 1,000 word lists. This seems to me like a fine idea. However, there is no indication given that these word lists are readily available to the students. Allowing second language learners to work without guidance or helpful lists is a negative approach. I think that lessons, similar to the one which follows, be given first before students attempt the crosswords.

Admittedly the puzzles are reasonably easy, but to use them as they are might be detrimental. I have noticed that no particular subject matter or central idea permeates the various examples, and this I do not agree with—until students become competent in their word knowledge. Step by step puzzles will help students more - that is, nouns and pronouns, or verb forms, or antonymns, synonymns and homonyms. Just so long as some sort of methodical build-up is used, then the Allen booklets will be helpful.

Dacanay and Bowen follow the pattern of use that I have proposed as being of greater benefit in the initial learning stages. They insist that it is even necessary that a sample crossword be worked with the class on the blackboard to show the importance of unit, cohesion, and relevance.

Depending on the experience and total exposure of the class members, crosswords should begin with about ten to twelve answers being required, and building up from there. I personally like the 13 x 13 pattern as a maximum checker and prefer the square rather than "open-grill" formats.

Another very important part of crosswords that I implement is having students draw up their own puzzle frames instead of using cyclo-styled frames. My reasoning for this is that the following of written and spoken instructions will be more beneficial than allowing for greater speed in solving the puzzles.

(e.g.) Instructions should be written on the blackboard and then gone over orally. A picture or drawing of a sample frame would also assist.

After explaining, have class members repeat the instructions so that someone else can draw the required frame on the blackboard or a cardboard.

Basically then, my contention is that there are good lessons, that can be given through crosswords, but lists, instructions, demonstrations and examples are most important for second language students.

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(crossword puzzle grid with filled letters: WORSE, BETTE..., ALARM, etc.)

ACROSS:

2. Synonym for nought.
3. Antonym for man.
6. Homonym with 21 down.
7. Opposite of better.
8. Same sound as 13 across.
10. Meaning to join (in animals.)
11. SACRED.
12. Not very important.
13. A small part of a play.
15. A synonym to 14 down.
18. To teach in church.
21. Opposite to sweet.
22. A smell.
24. The clue for 11 across.
27. Down is its antonym.
28. A synonym for man.
29. Commands; demands.
30. More or . . . . are antonyms.
31. Terrestrial.

DOWN:

1. Trip.
3. Meaning climate conditions.
4. Opposite of never.
5. A word that sounds like 3 down.
6. The clue for 7 across.
8. The clue for 22 across.
9. We usually _____ food.
14. To stir up.
16. Another word for beast.
17. Very important.
19. What people eat.
20. Journey.
21. Use a _____ to stop a car.
23. To eat completely.
24. If words are synonyms the meanings are the ___
25. Stop is a word that means the same.
26. Sounds the same as missed.
27. To join.

A PRONOUN ACROSTIC

ALL THE PERSONAL AND IMPERSONAL PRONOUNS ARE INCLUDED

Ourselves is given, but will be found again as one of the words.
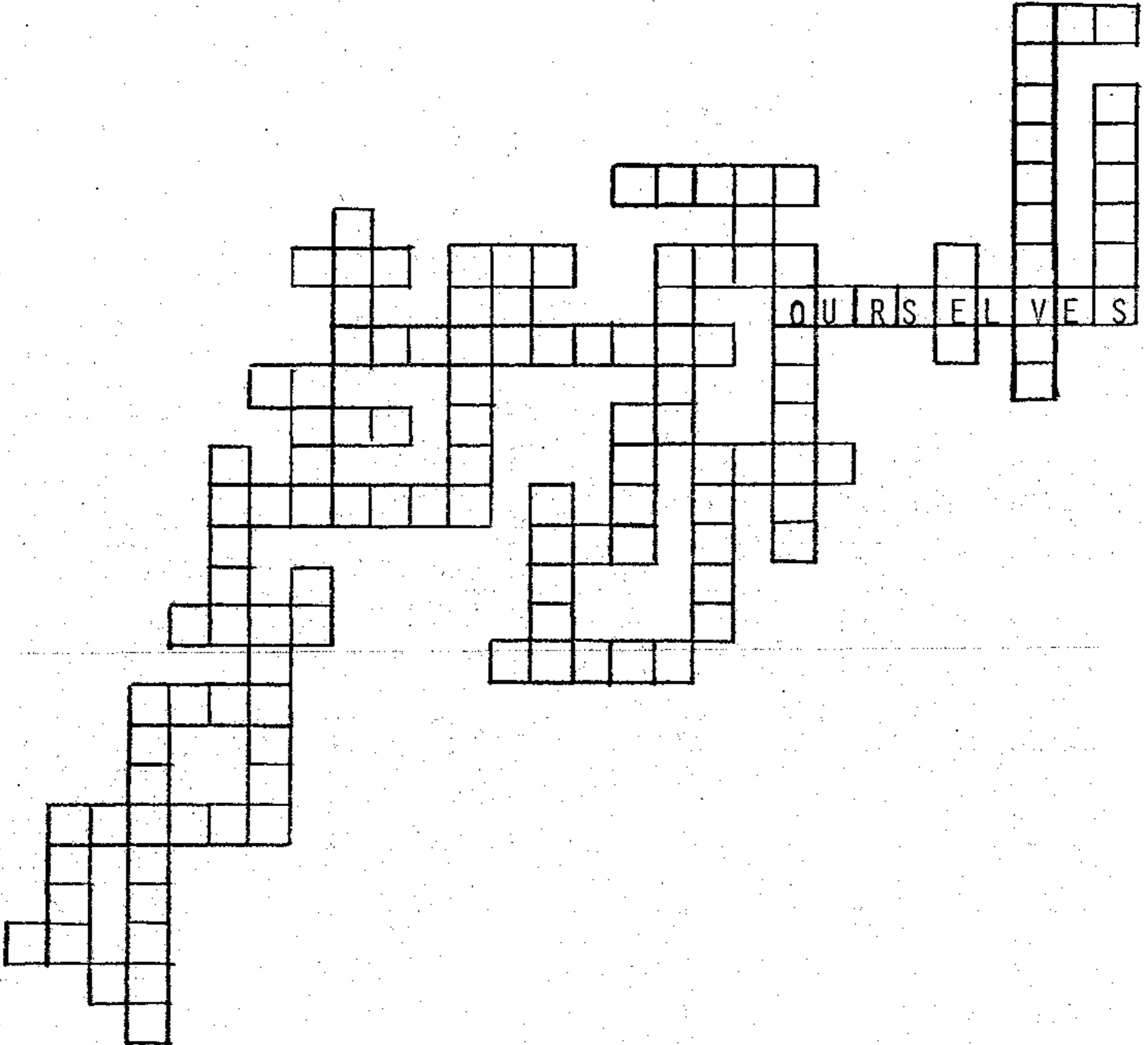
SEE PRONOUN CHART
TESL REPORTER Vol. 5, No. 2.
WINTER 1972.
(Reprinted on the opposite page)

PRONOUN CHART

By Alice C. Pack

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	SUBJECTIVE		OBJECTIVE		POSSESSIVE				REFLEXIVE	
					Determiner*		Possessive Noun Phrase			
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st Person	I	We	Me	Us	My	Our	Mine	Ours	Myself	Ourselves
2nd Person	You	You	You	You	Your	Your	Yours	Yours	Yourself	Yourselves
3rd Person										
masculine	he	they	him	them	his	their	his	theirs	himself	themselves
feminine	she	they	her	them	her	their	hers	theirs	herself	themselves
neuter	it	they	it	them	its	their	its	theirs	itself	themselves

RELATIVE PRONOUNS

	SUBJECTIVE		OBJECTIVE		POSSESSIVE	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Human	who (that)	who	whom	whom	whose	whose
Nonhuman	which	which	which	which		

DEMONSTRATIVES

	Determiner*		Noun Phrase	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
	that	those	that	those
	this	these	this	these

*See Chart No. 1 - THE ENGLISH NOUN PHRASE. determiners

RULES

I. 1. All *pronouns* must have an antecedent.
   2. *They* must show agreement with the antecedent - *In sentence 2 they refers to pronouns in sentence 1, and must show plural, neuter, subject.*

II. Subject forms are used as subjects and complements. In present day English both subject forms are used as complements - (after be).

Examples -
Where's John? That's *he* in the blue shirt.   Who is it?   It's *I*.
           That's *him* in the blue shirt.   It's me.

III. Object forms are used as objects of (1) verbs, (2) prepositions, or (3) verbals.
Examples -
1. Give *it* to the boy.   2. Give *it* to *him.*   3. Seeing *her*, he started to run.

IV. Reflexive pronouns are used for (1) emphasis, and (2) as object of the same subject.
Examples -
1. He *himself* spoke to *us.*   2. I *cut myself* because the knife *was* sharp.
   I have no objections to the *ideal itself.*   I bought *myself* a new car.

THE FUNCTIONS OF BE IN ENGLISH

by Alice C. Pack

Present forms	Past forms
I am	I (He, She, It) was
He (She, It) is	
You (They, We) are	You (They, We) were

I-A.   BE as the main verb:

1.   Verb alone followed by a locative.

Subject	Verb	Locative
He	is	here.
He	was	there.
I	am	in the kitchen.
I	was	in the backyard.

2.   With a modal and verb. (Use base form of BE after a modal.)

	Subject	Modal	Verb	Locative
	He	will	be	there.
He said	he	would	be	here.
I		can	be	there.
	They	should	be	here.

3.   With the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

	Auxiliary	Verb	
Subject	HAVE	(P.P.)	Locative
He	has	been	here.
I	have	been	there.
She	had	been	there before he arrived.

4.   With both a modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

		Auxiliary	Verb	
Subject	Modal	HAVE	(P.P.)	Locative
He	could	have	been	here.
She	might	have	been	in the kitchen.
They	must	have	been	there.
I	should	have	been	there.

B.   BE followed by a noun:

1.   Verb alone.

Subject	Verb	Noun
He	is	a doctor.
She	was	a nurse.
They	are	missionaries.
I	am	a secretary.

2. With a modal. (Use base form of BE after a modal.)

Subject	Modal	Verb	Noun
He	will	be	a doctor.
She	can	be	a nurse.
He	must	be	a missionary.
They	should	be	teachers.

3. With the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE

Subject	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P.P.)	Noun
He	has	been	a doctor.
She	has	been	a nurse.
I	have	been	a missionary.
They	have	been	teachers.

4. With both a modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P.P.)	Noun
He	could	have	been	a doctor.
She	might	have	been	a nurse.
I	should	have	been	a missionary.
They	must	have	been	teachers.

C. BE followed by a modifier (adjective).

1. Verb alone.

Subject	Verb	Modifier
He	was	sick.
She	is	small.
They	are	happy.
I	am	grateful.
You	were	wise.

2. Verb with a modal. (Use base form of verb [be] after a modal.)

Subject	Modal	Verb	Modifier
He	could	be	sick.
She	may	be	small.
They	will	be	happy.
I	should	be	grateful.

3. Verb with the auxiliary HAVE. (Use past participle of verb [been] after HAVE.)

Subject	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P.P.)	Modifier
He	has	been	sick.
She	has	been	small all her life
They	have	been	happy.
You	have	been	wise.

4. Verb with both modal and HAVE. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of verb [been] after HAVE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Verb (P. P.)	Modifier
He	could	have	been	sick.
She	might	have	been	small when she was younger.
They	must	have	been	happy.
I	should	have	been	grateful

5. With the auxiliary BE. (Use -ing form of verb [being] after BE.)

Subject	Auxiliary BE	Verb -ing form	Modifier
He	is	being	bad.
She	is	being	good.

(The auxiliary BE and verb BE are seldom used together.)

6. With a modal and BE as auxiliary. (Use base form of BE after the modal, the -ing form of BE [being] after the auxiliary BE, and the past participle of the verb after the passive BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary BE	Passive BE (-ing form)	Verb (P. P.)
The food	might	be	being	eaten right now.
The lesson	might	be	being	completed now.
They	might	be	being	beaten now.

7. With a modal and HAVE and BE as auxiliaries. (Use base form of HAVE after modals, past participle of BE after HAVE, -ing form of BE after the auxiliary BE, and the past participle of the verb after the passive BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Auxiliary BE (P. P.)	Passive BE (-ing form)	Verb (P. P.)
The food	could	have	been	being	eaten while we were in the other room.
The lesson	might	have	been	being	finished while he was gone.
They	could	have	been	being	beaten when the best player was resting.

(Note: This is the longest verb group possible in English.)

II. BE as an auxiliary to the main verb.

1. Verb with BE. (Use -ing form of verb after BE as an auxiliary).

Subject	Auxiliary BE	Verb (-ing form)
I	am	cooking.
He	is	swimming.
She	is	reading.
They	are	listening to some music.
You	are	working on this lesson.
They	were	sleeping.

2. Verb with a modal and BE. (Use base form of BE after modal and -ing form of verb after BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary BE	Verb (-ing form)
He	could	be	swimming.
She	must	be	reading.
They	might	be	listening to some music.
They	may	be	sleeping.

3. Verb with a modal and HAVE and BE as auxiliaries. (Use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and -ing form of verb after BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Auxiliary BE (P.P.)	Verb (-ing form)
He	could	have	been	swimming.
She	must	have	been	reading.
They	may	have	been	listening.
They	might	have	been	sleeping.
You	should	have	been	working.

III. BE as part of the transformation into the passive. (BE is followed by the past participle when used in the passive.)

1. Verb alone. (Use past participle of verb after BE.)

Subject	BE (passive)	Verb (P.P.)
The food	was	eaten.
The lesson	was	completed.
They	were	beaten.

2. Verb with a modal. (Use base form of BE after modal and past participle of verb after BE.)

Subject	Modal	Passive BE	Verb (P.P.)
The food	must	be	eaten.
The lesson	could	be	completed.
They	might	be	beaten.

3. With HAVE as an auxiliary. (use past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and past participle of verb after passive BE.)

Subject	Auxiliary HAVE	Passive BE (P.P.)	Verb (P.P.)
The food	has	been	eaten.
The lesson	had	been	completed.
They	have	been	beaten.

4. With BE as an auxiliary. (Use -ing form of BE [being] after auxiliary BE and the past participle of the verb after passive BE.)

Subject	Auxiliary BE	Passive BE (-ing form)	Verb (P.P.)
The food	was	being	eaten.
The lesson	was	being	completed.
They	were	being	beaten.

5. With a modal and HAVE as auxiliary. (Use base form of HAVE after a modal and past participle of BE [been] after HAVE and the past participle of the verb after passive BE.)

Subject	Modal	Auxiliary HAVE	Passive BE (P.P.)	Verb (P.P.)
The food	could	have	been	eaten.
The lesson	might	have	been	completed.
They	must	have	been	beaten.

THE FUNCTIONS OF HAVE IN ENGLISH will appear in the next issue of the TESL REPORTER THE FUNCTIONS OF DO IN ENGLISH and THE FUNCTIONS OF CAN AND WILL IN ENGLISH will appear in future editions.

DICTIONARY USAGE & ESL

the best practice, but when this is not feasible, the student must be cautioned repeatedly about the order of listing different meanings. Some dictionaries list the earliest meanings first and the most recent meaning last; others list the most common current meaning first, which is then traced back to earlier meanings.

Synonyms and antonyms, if they are familiar words, provide good supplementary clues to the definitions stated. The part-of-speech label — noun, verb, adjective, etc. — helps to identify common occurrences, and the usage examples in phrases and sentences illustrate words in context. These are all aids to understanding the meanings of words and their customary use in sentences. The ESL student grasps the utility of these aids slowly at first, but he picks up speed with repeated "visits" to the dictionary.

Besides the meanings of words in ordinary usage, the ESL student consults the dictionary to locate meanings of idioms, two-part verbs, and slang that he encounters in reading and in conversations with Americans. For example, he may want to find the meaning of *pull one's leg, pass the buck, call off, get by, nitty gritty,* and *goon.* These expressions are all familiar to the American student, but usually unfamiliar to the ESL student. Similarly, the ESL student refers to the dictionary for

information about important persons and places, particularly in regard to the United States.

The ESL student makes occasional use of the other dictionary references: usage levels — formal, colloquial, slang, etc.; etymologies; labels for specialized fields — Chemistry, Economics, Psychology, etc.; and editorial matter — tables of weights and measures, list of U. S. colleges and universities, etc. Words related to the one being defined, however, are given special attention. In English there is a fairly complex machinery for word derivation among the major word classes by means of affixes: nouns from verbs (*govern-government*), verbs from nouns (*beauty-beautify*), adjectives from nouns (*dust-dusty*), nouns from ajectives (*ill-illness*), adjectives from verbs (*agree-agreeable*), verbs from adjectives (*sharp-sharpen*), adverbs from adjectives and nouns (*clear-clearly, instant-instantly*). As a native speaker of the language, the American student has no difficulty with this kind of elaboration. But the ESL student makes frequent mistakes in choosing the appropriate affix: *approvement,* for example, instead of *approval.*

The lack of adequate competence in language skills puts the average foreign student at a disadvantage. The dictionary does not solve all of his language problems, but it serves him better than any other single reference tool he can own.

READING INSTRUCTION FOR NATIVE AND SECOND LANGUAGE STUDENTS

by Sid Jenson

A well designed language program works regardless of the student's first language or ethnic background. This is one of the conclusions that can be drawn from the RISE (Reading Improvement Services Everywhere) Project held on the Church College of Hawaii campus this summer.

Under the direction of Mona Sherwood, Chairman of RISE for the State of Hawaii, Dr. Carl Harris and Dr. Sid Jenson of CCH and Elaine Makaio of the Laie Elementary School offered a structured tutoring program for children from the ages of 6 to 11 who were behind on their grade level in reading skills. The tutoring program ran for five weeks, with the children in class for one and one half hours, five days a week.

The class period was divided into three parts: (1) each child was tutored in reading about 15 minutes per day; (1) the child read graded material for 5, 10, 30 minutes per day (the length of time depended on the child); (3) and the remainder of the class time was spent in organized activities, such as movies, games, coloring, motor skill drills, and outside recreation activities.

The tutoring program used was Grant Von Harrison's *Beginning Reading I* (Brigham Young University Press, 1972). Harrison's structured tutoring uses trained tutors. It takes about four hours minimum to train an adult or teenager. We used teachers, parents, college, high school and junior high school students as tutors. All worked about equally well. The personality of the tutor was more critical than age or previous education.

Harrison's *Beginning Reading I* has eighty-five well explained steps which the tutor follows. The student is first taught five sight words (the, is Is, this, I), and then is taught the names of five letters (s, m, f, n, a) and then the sounds of those same five letters. For example the sound of "m" is blended with "a" to produce "ma." Then after two letter combinations, three letter combinations, such as "mas" and "maf" are learned, the student is asked to decode real and nonsense words, such as "maf," "fan," and "sam." When this is accomplished, the student reads a story composed of the five

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sight words and five sounds they have learned. Very quickly the student can read; this does wonders for his self-esteem.

Basically this is the program. The student learns names of letters, sound of letters, then blends the sounds - name, sound, blends. With the addition of some critical sight words, the student then reads sentences and stories. Dr. Harrison, through much trial and error (his book is in the eighth version) has determined which letter, diagraphs, and sight words are easiest and which need to be learned first. The student follows a sequential, step by step, program, guided by the tutor, working on a one to one basis for short periods of each day.

The personal attention, the sequential order, the mastery of a small amount of material each day, the controlled reading material all make Harrison's method successful.

The backbone of the method is flashcards. The letters, sounds, and sight words are on triplicate cards; and through the tutor's manipulation of the cards, the student has a high repetition of material he is learning. Little time is wasted on material which has already been mastered. However, there is sufficient repetition to reinforce the

student's past learning and to give him confidence.

Our summer at CCH program is not yet completed. Many of the students have finished only about one half of the eighty-five steps. The program will be continued this fall in the local elementary schools. But the program has a series of mastery checks, and so the teachers and students know quite clearly all through the program how successful the teaching and learning are. A student is not allowed to continue from step to step unless he has mastered the past material.

Judging from the results we have so far, it is very clear that we have one factor which determines success or failure — attendance. If the child attended, he progressed in his reading skills. If he didn't he didn't. The student who progressed the most in the session was the student who missed only one day, and that day was excused. Three students were asked to drop the program because they would not attend regularly, which meant the tutor had to go back several steps and review, which made both the tutor and the student frustrated. If the child had regular attendance, we would measure regular progression. Some children progressed more rapidly than others; but all progressed, regardless of their first language or ethnic backgrounds.

We had children from several different cultural, and economic backgrounds. We had Koreans, Tahitians, Japanese, Caucasian, Chinese, Samoan, Tongan, Hawaiian, and part-Hawaiian. The differences in their progress seemed due more to the home situation and personal temperament than to any cultural or language heritage. This leads to our not new, but re-confirmed conclusion, that any good language program will work for all ethnic groups.

We recognize that our students were young and adapt easily to new programs and new languages, but we are confident that this program will successfully work with older persons as well. This is a subjective hunch on our part, but near the end of our session we were given outside statistical data to support our belief.* When this year's program is finished in the spring of 1974, we will have more statistical data on which to base our conclusions, but as of now, we feel very pleased with the reading progress the children have shown so far.

* Improving Human Performance: *A Research Quarterly,* 1 (December 1972), This issue contains several articles with bibliographies of work done in tutoring and reading instruction.

TESL REPORTER

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