TESL

Teaching English as a Second Language

Vol. 8 No. 2 Laie, Hawaii Winter 1975

THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE — SECOND LANGUAGE DISTINCTION

by Albert H. Marckwardt

A language that is as widespread as English throughout the various continents of the globe fulfills many different roles in the countries in which it is used. Over a long period, the term "foreign language" was used quite indiscriminately to characterize the status of English in a situation where the bulk of the population were native speakers of some other language. It is significant, perhaps, that a national advisory group organized in the United States in 1961 chose to call itself the National Advisory Council on Teaching English as a Foreign Language, and for which the acronym NACTEFL came into use. Only a few years later, the professional organization of teachers of the subject, which finally came to fruition in New York City in 1966, decided to call itself TESOL, Teachers of English as a Second or Other Language. Since that time, the use of the word *second* has gradually overtaken the use of *foreign* to characterize the status of English as a non-native language. In many ways this is an unfortunate development since it tends to obscure an important difference which could be indicated by a discriminating use of the two terms, a distinction which has been maintained in British usage for some years.

Dr. Marckwardt, Professor Emeritus of English and Linguistics at Princeton University, is a Senior Fellow of the East-West Center at the University of Hawaii. He is the author of *American English, Linguistics and the Teacher of English*, and numerous other publications.

CONTENTS

Let us begin by considering the status of English in a number of countries which, though now independent, were once colonies of one or another English-speaking nation. Examples come to mind readily enough: Ghana, Nigeria, the Philippines. In many of them English is still the language in which part or all of the business of government, especially the national government is carried on: parliamentary debates, the written statutes and government reports, the conduct of the courts.

It may be the language in which all or many of the commercial transactions are conducted. It may also figure significantly in such ceremonial functions as church services and public celebrations. It is usually wholly or in part the language of instruction in the schools, in addition to being one of the subjects of study. And in this connection, emphasis is placed equally upon the mastery of all four of the language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In fact, the aim of the educational system is often that of establishing a fairly widespread bilingualism. And finally, some of the literature produced in the country may be written in English.

When the use of English in a country fulfills the conditions which have just been outlined, we speak of it as a second language. Actually, the term is applicable in a dual sense. Chronologically considered, it is a second language since almost everyone will learn either a local language or the native national language first. Functionally considered, it is a second language in that it becomes an additional and essential communications resource.

One may contrast the foregoing situation with countries and educational systems where English may be said to occupy the position of a foreign language, not unlike the status of French in all but a very few parts of the United States. In general we look upon the acquisition of a fair working knowledge of French as a desirable or laudable cultural achievement. Or even more fundamental, we may consider the knowledge of French or some other foreign language to be a valuable and an essential component of a liberal education--something that liberates the individual from the confines of a single language, from a single structuring of experience. On the other hand, a knowledge of French is by no means necessary for anyone to function politically, commercially, or professionally in this country.

Although French has been cited here for purposes of illustration, there is nothing that points inevitably to a particular language to be studied. From the point of view of the purposes which have been mentioned, it could as well be German, Spanish, Italian, or Russian. It is the language-learning experience and achievement rather than the specific language that is important. The foreign language is rarely, if ever, the language of instruction in the schools. In general, what has been said of French in the United States applies equally to English in Japan, in the Latin American countries and in most of Europe. It is a foreign and not a second language.

In circumstances such as these, it is evident that general bilingualism is not a contemplated goal, valuable as it may be in individual cases. The native language is expected to remain dominant. Reading is probably the skill that will be used most extensively under these circumstances, except for those who engage in foreign travel. Except for this latter point, the classical languages could fulfill the educational function that has been specified just about as well as the modern foreign languages, and in fact they did just that over a long period in the past.

At one time all of the study of English throughout the non-English speaking world was conceived as falling into one or the other of the foregoing categories, ESL or EFL. Just recently an additional concept has been recognized as well, that of a library language or language of study. There are countries, for example, where English is not at all an official language, nor is it the language of instruction in the primary and

secondary schools. Yet it plays a larger role than merely that of a foreign language. It serves the purpose of a "window to the world," to employ a phrase used by Nehru.

In countries such as Thailand, for example, the Thai language serves quite satisfactorily for affairs which are of purely local or national concern. Yet the moment the interests of the intellectual and scientific community are extended into the international sphere, one of the languages of wider communication must serve as the vehicle. To put the situation into concrete terms, not long after the appearance of a new book written in English and dealing with microbiology, geophysics, or survey research techniques, it is likely to be translated into Japanese. The possibility of its being translated into Thai is very remote. For one thing, the market is not sufficient to justify the cost, and for another, the Thai are not yet certain that their vocabulary can be successfully adapted to many of the current scientific disciplines. In short, such groups of students and scholars need to be able to read technical English.

But that is not the whole story. If it were, the term *library language* would be descriptively adequate. We must realize, however, that in order to keep up with this expansion of knowledge, some students and indeed some of the professionals will have to study abroad. Foreign scholars knowledgeable in these fields will undoubtedly be brought into the country. Unquestionably, they will have to lecture in English. This adds to the reading skills already specified, that of aural comprehension. Students in seminars or study groups will have to respond to their instructor in his own language, which demands a speaking knowledge. They may be asked to prepare papers and reports, and if any publishable scholarship comes out of the venture, it will have to be written in English.

This poses the necessity for a command of all four of the language skills. The demand for this kind of competence is not as extensive as it would be in a country where English is a second language in that a smaller portion of the population is affected and the range of subject matter is considerably restricted. Nevertheless, within these limits, a high degree of competence is required, and certainly far more than just a reading knowledge. For this reason the term *language of study* seems to characterize the situation much more precisely than *library language.*

Like most schemes of classification, this one is open to the charge of oversimplification. Not everything is as neatly cut and dried as it has been presented here. In certain instances, India for example, English has the status of a third rather than a second language. And although India, like the Philippines, is firmly committed to bilingualism,unlike the Philippines, English is not necessarily contemplated as one of the two languages of the duo. In Japan, English has not only the status of a foreign language, but virtually that of a mandatory foreign language rather than one of a number of freely available possibilities. In short, although these three categories are useful to a degree, we must remember that every country presents a set of circumstances peculiar to itself, which in turn affects not only the place of English in the educational system but the motivation, the goals, and the methods of teaching the language as well.

TESL REPORTER

A quarterly publication of the English Language Institute and the BATESL program of the Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus.

Editor.....Alice C. Pack
Staff.....Api Hemi, Michael Foley, William Gallagher

Articles relevant to teaching English as a second language in Hawaii, the South Pacific and Asia, may be submitted to the editor through Box 157, Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus, Laie, Oahu, Hawaii, 96762. Manuscripts should be double-spaced and typed, not exceeding six pages.

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

by L.S. Harms

Intercultural communication has, in recent years, become a matter of worldwide concern. This article attempts to examine the pathway from language learning to intercultural communication, sketch a communication model, provide a working definition, outline some unexpected benefits, and establish a long-range goal for human communication.

Language Learning

When a student starts out to learn a second language, he starts a journey down a long path that can, if all goes well, lead to a world network for the intercultural interchange of ideas. To be sure, the beginning student often undertakes to learn a second language to complete a school requirement and laments the hours he must spend in class, lab and homework.

L. S. Harms, Ph.D, Professor of Communication at the University of Hawaii and author of numerous books and publications, is chairman of PEACEAT.
Dr. Harms, international lecturer and consultant is also organizer and chairman of the SCA Communication Rights Commission.

Curiously, even though that student may complete a course of second language study with distinction, he often makes little or no use of his newly developed skill. His investment does not pay off.

Language learning has, to a considerable extent, been domesticated. Second languages can be learned in classrooms and laboratories. Intercultural communication, however, occurs for the most part in airports, on the streets and in the shops of world cities, in outdoor cafes, and a thousand and one other places where persons from different cultural backgrounds communicate to achieve a mutual purpose. Intercultural communication extends far beyond the classroom.

As I see it, intercultural communication, is beset with surprises of many kinds. Its outcomes are difficult to predict. And it seems destined to remain an uncertain but important adventure. For instance, intercultural communication usually requires that rules be discovered or invented while two persons are acutally engaged in communication. Risk and uncertainty are key concepts.

Basic Model

Intercultural communication then, is characterized by greater variety and diversity and uncertainty than most intracultural communication. For that reason, it is important to be quite explicit about some of the assumptions that underlie intercultural communication.

Figure 1 shows a basic communication model (1,2,7,8). That model indicates that in the simplest case of intercultural communication there are two communicators, one a first language speaker (Communicator A) and the other a second language speaker (Communicator B). Intercultural communication is of necessity a two-way process. Notice that the language-related terms of speaker-listener or source-receiver are deliberately not used; these terms are appropriate only for a one-way model of communication. Quite importantly, there is also an external observer (Observer 0). The observer can be an instructor or a student; that viewpoint is

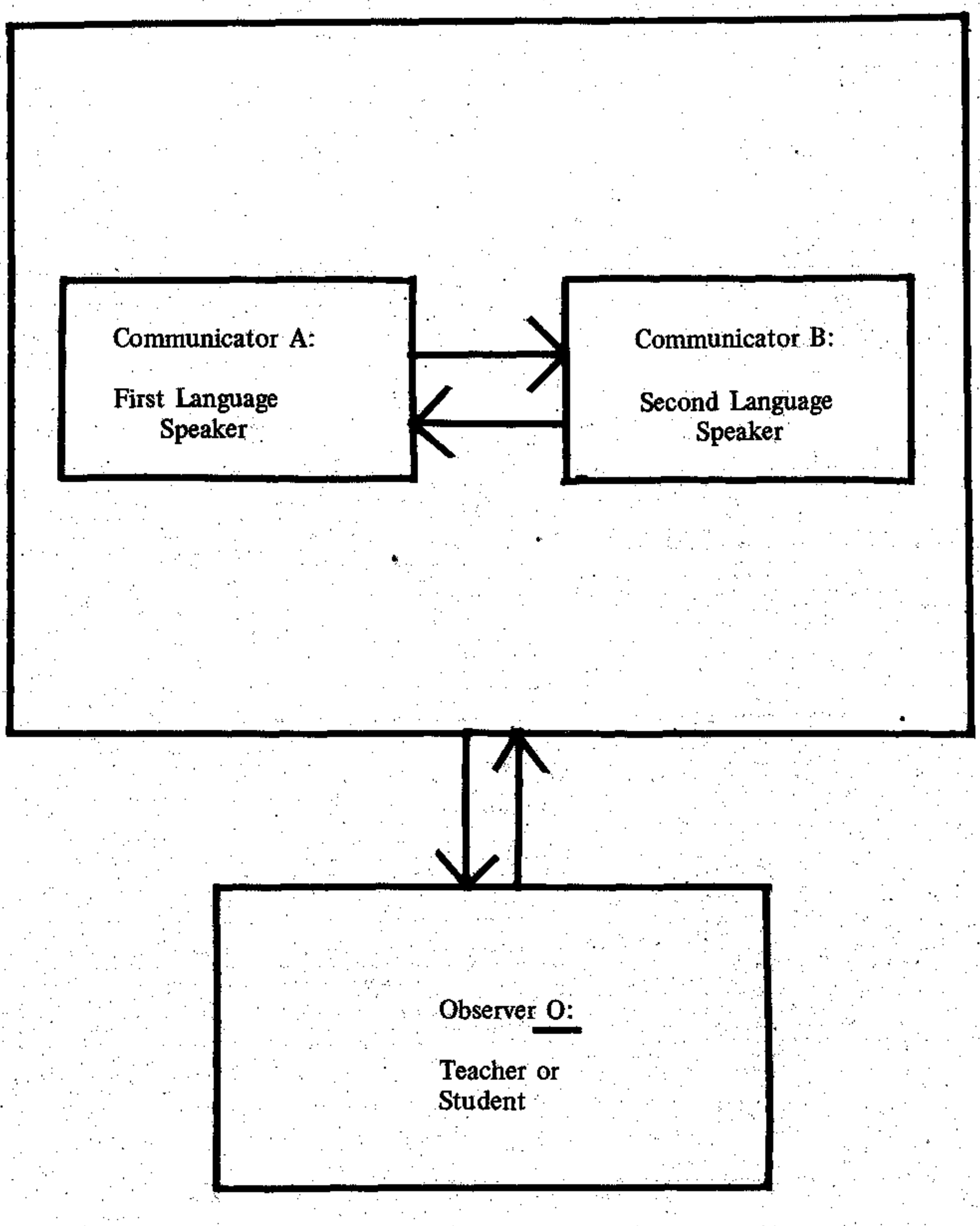


Figure 1: Dyadic Model for Intercultural Communication

necessary to observe the details of intercultural interaction between Communicator A and Communicator B. From that viewpoint, for instance, the question immediately arises: What can and should A do to help B? Additional pedagogical uses of the observer role are discussed in detail elsewhere (1:137) *(continued)*

Definition

The proposed definition of intercultural communication follows from the model shown in Figure 1. Thus, intercultural communication occurs when any two (or small group of) communicators of dissimilar language and cultural backgrounds communicate with each other to achieve some mutual purpose. It can be observed, for instance, in a telephone call, in face-to-face dialog, or in a committee meeting. Note that definitions that employ terms such as source and receiver usually suggest that the source manipulates the receiver in some way--which leads on to cultural imperialism. The proposed definition, on the other hand, leads to mutual influence, interchange, and reciprocal interaction.

Benefits

Until recently, the focus in intercultural communication was on errors, mistakes, barriers, breakdowns and a long list of other negatives. As we began to apply a system or cybernetic model to intercultural communication, two advantages of enormous importance became apparent. The names for these two advantages are synergy and serendipity.

Synergy results in a system when the achievement of that system exceeds what can be predicted from the performance of the individual parts. Thus, in a communication system with two culturally dissimilar communicators, one often finds that they are able to solve problems, reach insights, generate ideas, and arrive at decisions that remain 'unthought of' within the framework of a single culture. Intercultural communication then, can, when the conditions are right, greatly enhance human capacities to cope with a wide range of questions.

Serendipity results from what we usually call errors, mistakes, deviations and the like. While synergy can be expected from a rather serious application of human communication skills, serendipity requires a light-hearted, child-like curiosity about the shape of new and unexpected things. More generally, serendipity is the art and science of looking for one thing and finding something else which is different and better. Intercultural communication provides both a place to look and a way of looking that exceeds at times the individual human imagination.

Taken together, *syn*ergy and *ser*endipity--or if you like, *synser*--provide an important perspective on intercultural communication. That perspective arises from the system model in Figure 1, and the proposed definition. Obviously, language learning undertaken with a goal of synser intercultural communication takes on a very different academic cloak.

Right to Communicate

There are nearly four billion persons in the world and many, perhaps most, of them are constrained to communicate within the narrow framework of a single dialect. We have long held that human growth and development were closely linked to communication and language skills. Until now, the problem has been difficult even to think about because it is so large (3).

Recently there has come out of multicultural dialog---with a bit of synergy and serendipity to be sure---a new and simple concept: **Everyone has the Right** to Communicate. That concept requires that we examine closely human communication *needs*, deal with the fact that we can now *invent* any communication *technology* required to serve human communication needs, and shape the communication *policy* necessary to ensure that technology serves those needs (4,5). These are new conditions in the world. Both professionals and students of language and intercultural communication have a special contribution to make for they have the skills and outlook to advance this Right.

As a long-range goal, then, let us declare that everyone shall come to have the Right to Communicate.

REFERENCES

1. L. S. Harms, *Intercultural Communication*, New York: Harper and Row, 1973, 176 p.

(continued on Page 18)

TESL IN HAWAII'S PUBLIC SCHOOLS

by William H. Cunningham

Articles in the *TESL Reporter* usually offer some answers. This article provides no answers, only questions. But maybe we need a good question now and then.

For some time TESL teachers in Hawaii's public schools have had to contend with some controversy over our goals. Is our primary objective (1) to teach standard English to immigrant students, or is it (2) to assist them in reaching a functional level of communication and inter-action with their peers? In short, do we see TESL more in terms of academic or social goals?

Current thinking tends to favor the latter goal. Indeed, there is strong belief that an immigrant student's academic successes are often dependant upon his social successes. Tom Hale, State TESOL Program Specialist, writes in a handbook for classroom teachers that, "The idea that second languages cannot be learned unless 'taught' has been seriously questioned, and considerable evidence has been gathered which supports the notion that second languages can be most effectively and efficiently learned through concentrated interaction with those who speak those languages natively... the major objective should be to provide ample opportunity and encouragement for the non-English speakers to freely interact with their English speaking peers from whom they will learn to speak and understand most of their English"*

A keen observer of the Hawaiian scene would have to agree with Mr. Hale's analysis. In fact, the language learning process which he describes has produced what is now often referred to as "Hawaiian Dialect", our state's own brand of English!

But the tension in TESL is this: Should we settle for social adjustment and Hawaiian Dialect, or should we expect our immigrant students to learn standard English and to speak it well? This is a difficult question.

On the one hand, it can be well argued that children will learn to speak the way their peers speak, and our efforts for "Correctness" in English will make no difference. Furthermore, most of our students will spend their lives in Hawaii, in which case local dialect will serve them sufficiently well.

In addition, the state's TESL program is not really equipped to actually "teach the language" on any serious scale. Only in the Honolulu District are there a few schools where TESL teachers have a primary teaching responsibility. In each of the state's six rural districts, such as my own, the TESL program consists of only one TESL teacher, assigned to service a multitude of elementary and secondary schools. In this situation, the TESL person acts as a resource teacher, conferring with and advising teachers and administrators, testing and counseling students, and guiding a tutorial program. These "tutors", in turn, are not required to teach, but as paraprofessionals their job is simply to assist classroom teachers who have relatively large numbers of non-English speaking

*Thomas M. Hale, "Some Guidelines Concerning the Role of the Regular Classroom Teachers and School Administrators in Assisting the Non-English Speaking Students in Hawaii's Public Schools," Office of Instructional Services, Dept. of Education, State of Hawaii Aug. 1973.

students. The role of TESL, therefore, is one of helping the assimilation of immigrant students into the district schools.

Concurrent with this *de*creased emphasis upon special English language instruction for immigrant students, there is now an *in*creasing interest in bi-lingual education---which includes teaching immigrant students in their native language. Hawaii's Department of Education is considering a pilot program within one district in which the Ilocano language would actually replace English as the language of instruction in certain subjects, and instructional materials in Ilocano would be developed. This would initially involve lower elementary Filipino children at selected schools, but the program might be expanded to other grade levels, other school districts, and other immigrant languages.

William Cunningham, TESL coordinator for the Windward Oahu District of the Department of Education, State of Hawaii, has a M.A. in TESL from Columbia University Teachers College. Prior to teaching in Hawaii, he taught for several years in the Philippines.

But the opposite horn of the controversy has not withered away. The sentiment does persist among a number of classroom teachers and others that the greater need is more *English instruction* for the immigrant student, as opposed to social assimilation or bi-lingualism (which themselves have conflicting strategies). From this point of view, TESL should concentrate more heavily upon being an instructional instrument in the state's schools. We should raise our sights. These aims, however, run directly into the debate over standard English vs. Hawaiian Dialect, of trying to "teach" a language vs. the reality of peer learning.

I find that this tension is expressed in a double standard in my own life, a double standard between school and home. At home, my younger children, whose language acquisition has been entirely in Hawaii, are incapable of using a number of standard English patterns, such as in asking questions. (A good example of the relative weight of peer and parental influences!) They grow on a rich diet of Hawaiian Dialect, both at school and at play. And I try to correct their speech. But why should I correct them, why worry? Yet I do, because I know that outside of the local speech community my children would be at a social disadvantage. Like it or not, the world has its hang ups, and judging people by their speech is one of them. But if I am concerned about my own children's language, should I be any less concerned about the children I am employed to teach? Is it sufficient for them to be consigned to a "language ghetto" all their lives? A ghetto in itself may be a pleasant enough place to live, but what makes a ghetto a ghetto is that it is difficult to leave it.

On the other hand, assuming my concerns are valid, is this really a matter which I have any power to influence at all? Should I, and can I?

And so the objectives of TESL become complicated by the broader issues of education in Hawaii. Our schools repeatedly come under public attack and defense. What is the meaning of our high school diplomas? Is a diploma intended to signify a certain level of competence in reading, writing, and speech, or rather that a student has attended school for twelve years? Public schools are under pressure to graduate as many students as possible, to avoid drop-outs, yet, on the other hand, to toughen standards. Is it even possible to have the best of both worlds?

Although issues raised here apply specifically to Hawaii, they probably have a wider relevance also. What should be the goals of TESL in this state's public schools? Well, I promised you no answers, only a question. I hope I have been sensitive to both sides of that question.

PROBLEMS IN CLOZE TESTING RE-EXAMINED

A Reply to Roger K. Williams

by Kenneth G. Aitken

Cloze tests are deceptively simple reading tests that merit greater consideration by ESL teachers. The purpose of this article is to reexamine three issues pertinent to the use of cloze procedure that were recently raised by Williams (1974). In order to familiarize the reader with the subject, I will first describe the construction of a cloze test, then I will review each of the three issues in question and propose explanations to clarify the issues.

Cloze tests, pioneered by Wilson Taylor (1953), are constructed by simply randomly deleting every n-th word from a prose passage. The subject must then supply an appropriate fill-in by guessing from the remaining context. Pack (1973) suggests an every-fifth-word deletion pattern over a 250 word passage. However any n-th word pattern will do. A fifty deletion test seems to be a convenient length and provide a reasonable sample of the passage.

Williams (1974) raises three crucial issues concerning the validity, hence, utility of cloze tests in ESL:

(1). Cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process.

(2). There seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test.

(3). Crucial content words are often omitted which cannot be supplied by examining the context.

Do cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process? Williams argues that reading and listening are decoding process; that is to say they are skills of reception rather than production. Filling in blanks, then, would require production skills as it is an encoding process. Recently, however psycholinguists have begun to question the assumption that encoding and decoding skills are autonomous from each other. Holtzman (1967) has suggested that there is an integrative factor of language use which he calls "linguistic perceptual expectancy". This factor, which Spolsky (1968) calls "redundancy utilization," underlies both the so-called encoding skills of speaking and writing, and the decoding skills of listening and reading. Goodman (1969:82) makes this point regarding the reading process:

> Research has demonstrated that the reader does not process print sequentially, but rather in a manner which reflects his use of language at every opportunity. Expectancies about syntax and semantics within context lead to hypotheses which can be confirmed (or disconfirmed) with only a small portion of the cues in the text.

Kenneth G. Aitken, a former BATESL major at Church College of Hawaii (now Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus) is an ESL instructor at Vancouver Community College in Vancouver, B.C., Canada, where he is working on the testing and placement of ESL students.

Oller (1973) states that Goodman's observation applies "in the case of every observable aspect of language usage." Assuming the Goodman hypothesis is correct, then there is an encoding or production skill as well as an inseparable decoding or receptive skill in every act of reading.

Consider what happens when a subject

(continued on page 16)

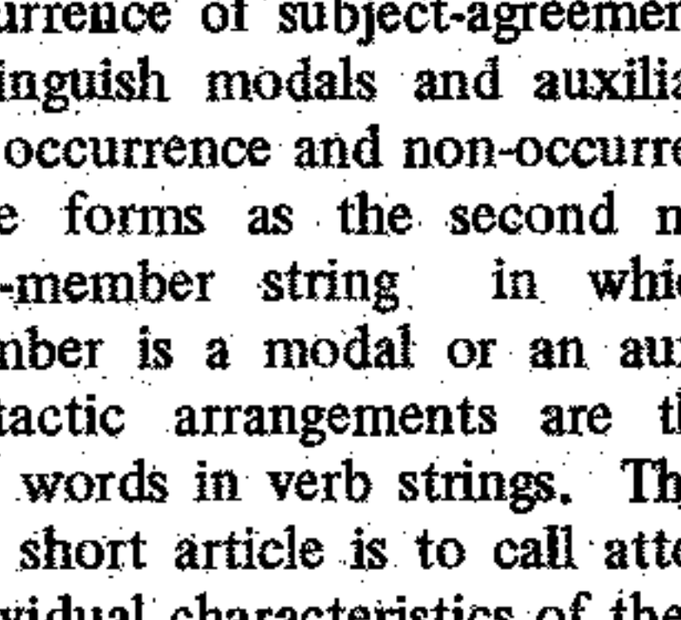
MORPHOLOGICAL AND SYNTACTIC COM THREE AUXILIARIES

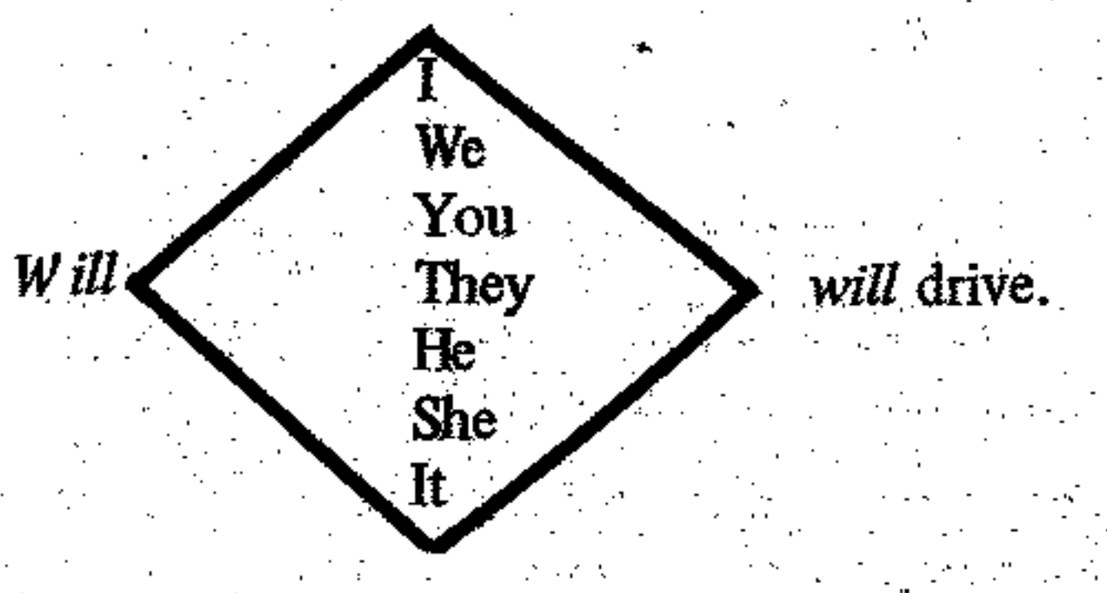
By Dr. Yao Shen

The subject of this short article is the two modals: *can* and *will*, and the three auxiliaries: *do*, *have*, and *be*. Their string formation and occurrence in sentences have been treated in detail in two previous series of articles in this journal. (See Yao Shen, "Supplementation of Opposites in Simple Predicate Expansion," Vol. 4, Nos. 1-4 1970-71), and Alice C. Pack, "The Functions of Be, Have, Do, Can and Will," Vol. 7, Nos. 1-3 (1973-74). The present article attempts to demonstrate the morphological and syntactic complementation of these five words as modals and auxiliaries, Their morphological forms are of two major categories: 1) the occurrence and non-occurrence of subject-agreement forms that distinguish modals and auxiliaries, and 2) the occurrence and non-occurrence of participle forms as the second member in a two-member string in which the first member is a modal or an auxiliary. The syntactic arrangements are those of the five words in verb strings. The purpose of this short article is to call attention to the individual characteristics of these five words in sentences.

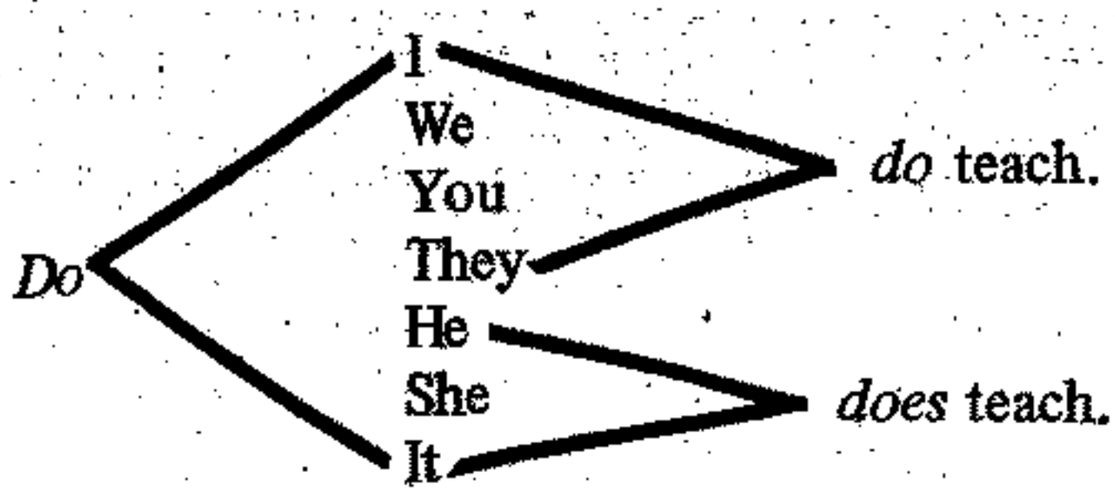
Morphologically modals and auxiliaries are distinguished from each other by the fact that the former does not have subject-agreement, the latter does.

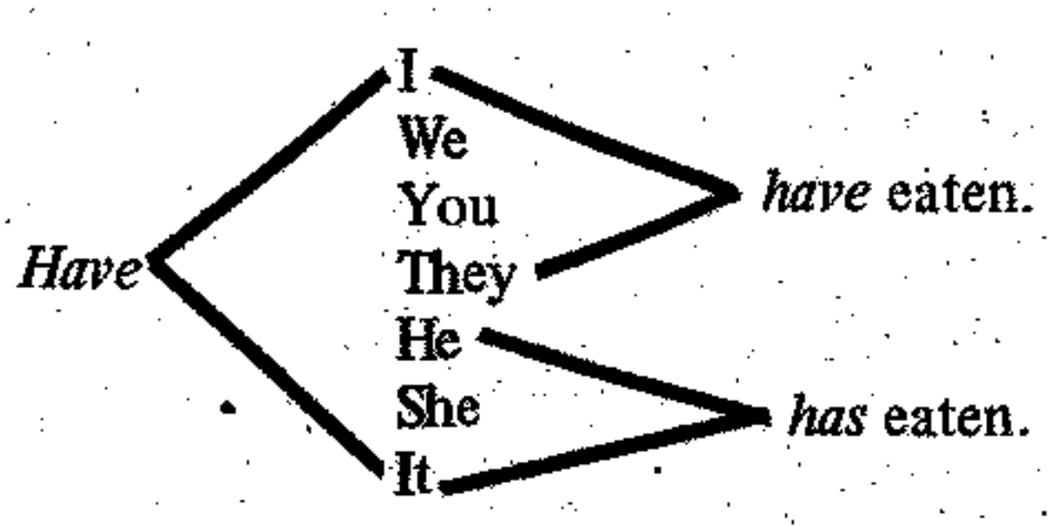
MODAL

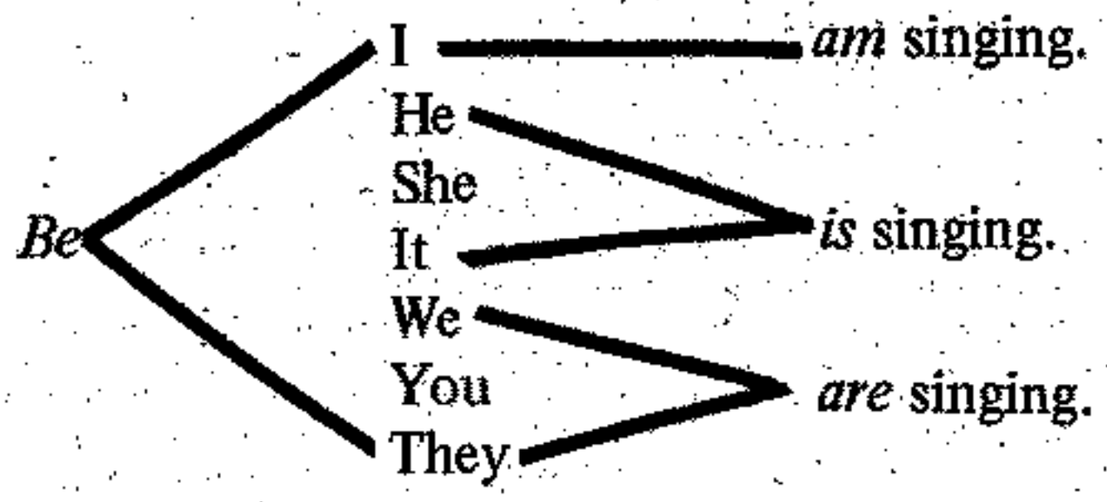




AUXILIARY







The occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of subject-agreement (S-a) that distinguish modals and auxiliaries can be represented in the following way.

	S-a
Modal	–
Auxiliary	+

IPLEMENTATION OF TWO MODALS AND

Modals and auxiliaries occur in two-member strings.

When the first member in a two-member string is a modal, the following member is in the base form, having no suffix, *-∅*: Modal + *-∅*. The base form of a word must be distinguished from its infinitive. An infinitive is marked by *to: to go;* a base form is not: *go.*

can + -∅: John can go-∅.
will + -∅: John will go-∅.

When the first member in a two-member string is an auxiliary, the suffix of the following member is *-∅, -n,* or *-ing:* Auxiliary + -∅, Auxiliary + -n, or Auxiliary + -ing.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *do* is -∅. (The word is in the base form.)

do + -∅: John does go-∅.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *have* is *-n* (the past participle form).

have + -n: John has go-ne.

The suffix of the member following auxiliary *be* is either *-n* (the past participle form or *-ing* (the present participle form).

be + -n: John is go-ne.

be + -ing: John is go-ing.

The complementation of the suffixes of the members following their respective auxiliaries is as follows:

do + -∅
have + -n
be + < *-n*, *-ing*

The above information is summarized below according to the occurrence (+) or non-occurrence (-) of *-n* or *-ing* (the participle forms) in the second member following *do, have,* and *be* as the first member.

2nd member / 1st member	-n	-ing
do	-	-
have	+	-
be	+	+

The complementation of the morphological behavior in both subject-agreement (S-a) that distinguishes modals and auxiliaries, and that of the participle forms *-n,* and *-ing* in the members following a modal or an auxiliary: *do, have,* or *be* are summarized below.

	S-a	-n	-ing
Modal	-	-	-
do	+	-	-
have	+	+	-
be	+	+	+

Syntactically a verb string begins with a modal or an auxiliary carrying tense, and ends with the verb. The following are some examples.

	Tense		Verb
John	does		go.
John	has		gone.
John	is		gone.
John	was		going.
John	can	be	going.
John	had	been	going.
John	would have	been	gone.

Modals do not succeed each other, that is, there is no occurrence (-) of modals in a successive sequence.

Yao Shen, Professor of English at the University of Hawaii, has taught Chinese, English, Linguistics, Methodology and Materials Development, and Linguistics and Literature.

She is listed in international dictionaries in England, France, Japan, and the United States, and has over one hundred publications in twelve countries.

2nd member	can	will
1st member		
can	-	-
will	-	-

Auxiliaries (Aux) may or may not succeed another auxiliary.

Auxiliary *do* does not occur with another auxiliary in a sequence.

	Aux	Verb	
May	does	do	the dishes.
They	did	have	some money.
(You)	do	be	careful.

Auxiliary *have* does not succeed itself.

	Aux	Verb	
The woman	has	had	money.

Auxiliary *be* can succeed itself.

	Aux	Aux	Verb
The paper	was	being	typed.

When auxiliaries *have* and *be* both occur, *have* precedes *be*.

	Aux	Aux	Verb
The papers	have	been	done.
John	has	been	having fun.
The girls	had	been	being earnest.

The following summarizes the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of successive sequences of the three auxiliaries: *do*, *have*, and *be*.

2nd member	do	have	be
lst member			
do	-	-	-
have	-	-	+
be	-	-	+

In a verb string in which a modal and an auxiliary both occur, the modal begins the string; the auxiliary follows. However, the auxiliary is either *have* or *be*, but not *do*. The first sentence below with * is an example indicating this characteristic of *do*.

	Modal	Aux	Verb
*John	will	do	go.
John	can	be	going.
John	will	be	going.
John	could	be	gone.
John	would	have	gone.

The following summarizes the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of a modal *can* or *will*, followed by an auxiliary: *do*, *have* or *be*.

2nd member	do	have	be
lst member			
Modal	+	+	

A possible long verb string in Present Day English that begins with a modal indicating tense, followed by a string of three auxiliaries, and ends with the verb is as follows.

	Tense		Verb
The paper	will	have been being	typed.
John	could	have been being	driven.

Between modal *can* and modal *will* there is also a complementation when they occur before auxiliaries *have* and *be*. Present tense form of *can* normally does not occur before auxiliary *have*. The first sentence below with * is an example indicating this characteristic of *can*. However, the past tense of *can*, and both the present tense and the past tense of *will* all occur before auxiliary *have*.

Present tense
- * John can have driven it.
- John will have driven it.

Past tense
- John could have driven it.
- John would have driven it.

This exception in the present tense form of *can* preceding auxiliary *have*, nevertheless, does not apply to auxiliary *be*.

Present tense
- John can be driving it.
- John will be driving it.

Past tense
- John could be driving it.
- John would be driving it.

The following shows the occurrence (+) and non-occurrence (-) of the two tense forms of *can* and *will* preceding auxiliaries *have* and *be*.

2nd member	have	be
lst member		
can	-	+
will	+	+
could	+	+
would	+	+

(continued on page 19)

DRILLING ENGLISH AUXILIARY VERBS IN ESL CLASSES

by Donald M. Decker

The effective mastery of the various auxiliary verbs is one of the major challenges faced by a speaker of another language while he is learning English. Few other languages of the world have anything quite like English auxiliary verbs, and none makes use of them in exactly the same way. Yet, they are one of the principal features of the structure of English and are called into play in nearly all transformations of verb phrases. Until they are mastered, the student will have considerable difficulty in all four basic skills in English: aural comprehension, speaking, reading, and writing.

The two most commonly used auxiliary verbs are "be" and "do": "**Are** you studying English? **Do** you like this book?" "Have" often functions as an auxiliary verb: "**Have** you finished the lesson?" Eight modal auxiliary verbs are also commonly used: "can," "could," "will," "would," "must," "should," "may," and "might."

All of these auxiliary verbs can be effectively taught by using specifically designed audio-lingual exercises. Students generally enjoy the practice exercises which are to be described step by step. Before they are begun, however, the instructor should help the students learn the most usual meanings of the auxiliary verbs in whatever way he deems most appropriate. In some cases, the attempt may be made to find the nearest equivalents in the mother tongue. It is extremely important that the students have sufficient command of basic English to understand the simple vocabulary to be used in the exercises as well as the most usual meaning of each of the auxiliary verbs to be practiced.

The first step in the drills is to ask the students, one by one, questions which begin with auxiliary verbs and which may logically be answered in the affirmative, using short answers, as follows:

Can you see me? (Instructor's Question)
--Yes, I can. (Students Answer)

Would you like to visit Florida? *--Yes, I would.*

Will you eat dinner today? *--Yes, I will.*

Since each question is phrased in the "you" form, each corresponding answer will consist of "yes, I . . ." plus the same auxiliary verb employed at the beginning of the question. This is an effective way to initiate the auxiliary verb drills because it (a) is relatively easy, (b) takes the form of a meaningful dialogue, and (c) emphasizes both the aural grasp and the oral production of the various auxiliary verbs. This type of drill should be done until each student can produce the oral replies freely and easily. At the same time the instructor should be sure that the meaning of each auxiliary verb is clearly understood.

The second step is to ask similarly phrased questions, but which evoke negative answers, as follows:

Can you speak English perfectly? *No, I can't.*

Would you like to be sick now? *No, I wouldn't.*

Could you write when you were a baby? *No, I couldn't.*

As each question uses the "you" form, each answer consists of "No, I . . ." plus the negative contraction of the same auxiliary verb used at the beginning of the question, except in those cases in which contractions are not commonly used as in "may not," "might not," and "am not." The contractions which may be drilled in this manner are: "isn't," "aren't," "wasn't," "weren't," "don't," "doesn't," "didn't," "haven't," "hasn't," "hadn't," "can't," "couldn't" "won't," "wouldn't," "mustn't," and "shouldn't." This step provides the same

three benefits as the first step plus the additional one of helping students become familiar with the use of negative forms of the auxiliary verbs. As a special case, the short answer with "am" should be contracted as "No, I'm not."

The first two steps, providing ample practice in the use of the affirmative and negative short answers, should be reviewed until the answers are supplied quickly and easily.

The third step consists of presenting the two types of questions in mixed order, as follows:

Can you see me? *--Yes, I can.*

Should you eat during the class? *--No, I shouldn't.*

Do you drink water every day?--*Yes, I do.*

Have you brought an apple to class? *–No I haven't.*

Could you write when you were two years old? *––No, I couldn't*

Will you leave this room after the class? *–Yes, I will.*

Would you like to speak English well? *Yes, I would.*

Must you sleep all day? *–No, I mustn't.*

Did you bring a pencil to class? *--Yes, I did.*

Will you visit your uncle tomorrow? *–No, I won't.*

Do you know every word in English? *–No, I don't.*

Had you seen some American movies last year? *–Yes, I had.*

Use of the mixed questions will confirm the abillty of the students to comprehend the questions and to answer them correctly according to their individual meanings. This step should be repeated several times and on different occasions until the instructor feels that all or nearly all the students have mastered it.

The fourth step is to introduce pronoun subjects other than "you" in the questions. these should be used in the questions and repeated in the answers, as follows:

Do you want to speak English well? *–Yes, we do.*

Does she have black hair? (indicating another student) *No, she doesn't.*

May it rain today? *–Yes, it may.*

Should he study in order to learn? *In*dicating another student) *–Yes, he should.*

Would they like to speak English well? *(indicating the other students) Yes, they would.*

Should we sleep during the class? *--No, we shouldn't,*

Will it snow this afternoon? *--No, it won't.*

Is she listening to us? *--Yes, she is.*

Must we eat in order to live? *--Yes, we must.*

Did they bring hats to class? *–No, they didn't.*

Does he have a pencil? *–Yes, he does.*

May I speak to you in English? *--Yes, you may.*

Have we begun this lesson? *–Yes, we have.*

Once the use of varied pronouns is mastered together with the correct corresponding auxiliary verbs, the students are ready for step five, which consists of the use of common and proper nouns in the questions and of the corresponding pronouns in the short answers, as follows:

Is the sun shining now? *–Yes, it is.*

Have some Americans visited your country? *–Yes, they have.*

Does a horse run on four legs? *–Yes, it does.*

Should most children learn to read? *–Yes, they should.*

Did Marco Polo discover America? *–No, he didn't.*

Have the other students and you spoken English today? *–Yes, we have.*

Will an airmail letter go by boat? *--No, it won't.*

Would your brother like a new car? *–Yes, he would.*

Although this type of construction is very common in English dialogues, it requires a great deal of practice before it is mastered.

Step six begins the use of double questions eliciting complete sentences in the second answers, as follows:

Can you see me? *--Yes, I can.*

What can you do? *--I can see you.*

Will you eat dinner today? *--Yes, I will.*

What will you do? *--I'll eat dinner today.*

Has your brother learned German? *–No, he hasn't.*

What hasn't he done? *–He hasn't learned German.*

This is one of the most difficult steps of all because several complex factors are involved. The first challenge is to the memory since the student must recall the total wording of the original question. This may be especially difficult if the question is long:

Would you read a newspaper if you had one? *–Yes, I would.*

What would you do? *–I'd read a newspaper if I had one.*

Should you try to speak better English? *–Yes, I should.*

What should you do? *–I should try to speak better English.*

Must a student study in order to learn? *–Yes, he must.*

What must he do? *–He must study in order to learn.*

A second challenge involves the reduction or contraction of the auxiliary verb when it precedes the main verb in the complete sentence. Contractions which may be practiced in this way are: "I'm," "you're," "he's" (for "he is" and "he has"), "I've," "I'll," and "I'd" (for "I would" and "I had"). The auxiliaries "was," "were," "can," "could," "must," and "should" are not really contracted but are reduced in pronunciation and stress in the full sentence, as follows:

Can you read? *–yes, I can. (The vowel of "can" is full and receives heavy stress.)*

What can you do? *–I can read. (The vowel of "can" is reduced and receives weak stress.)*

Another challenge occurs when the commonly used "do," "does," and "did" are omitted and the corresponding verb forms are used in the complete sentences, as follows:

Do you like apples? *–Yes, I do.*
What do you do? *–I like apples.*

Does he speak English? *–Yes, he does.*
What does he do? *-He speaks English.*

Did you bring a pencil to class? *–Yes, I did.*

What did you do? *–I brought a pencil to class.*

It is generally advisable to begin the practice of eliciting complete sentences with the easier step one questions first and gradually progress on through steps two through five. Step five questions, the most challenging, will be presented as follows:

Should most children learn to read? *–Yes, they should.*

What should they do? *–They should learn to read.*

Does a horse run on four legs? *–Yes, it does.*

What does it do? *–It runs on four legs.*

Have the other students spoken French today? *–No, they haven't.*

What haven't they done? *–They haven't spoken French today.*

Are many people trying to learn English? *–Yes, they are.*

What are they doing? *–They're trying to learn English.*

The seventh and final step is to use the auxiliary verb drills in a variety of interesting ways. Questions of all the different types may be asked in mixed order so that students are challenged to respond with complete flexibility according to the meaning of the question and the appropriateness of the answer. The "chain technique" may be applied, whereby the teacher asks the first question of one student, who answers it. His neighbor then asks the "What...?" question of his neighbor on the other side, who answers it. Also, the students may do this by drawing slips of paper with questions and asking them aloud of one another. Students may also be encouraged to ask their own spontaneous questions of the instructor and of one another.

The exercises described above can be made enjoyable because they are easily adaptable to real-life situations. Students gradually feel that they are making effective use of the English language. Once they have learned to handle the auxiliary verbs with ease, they have overcome one of the greatest challenges in the process of mastering the English language.

CLOZE TESTING

(continued from page 9)

responds to the items on a cloze test. The subject must guess a word to fill a blank and complete a sequence, on the basis of incomplete information. This draws on both the productive and receptive skills previously discussed. The information he has available in the context allows him by analysis, to synthesize, or guess whole. Simultaneously, that synthesis, or guess, may become part of the next analysis required to produce some future synthesis. Oller (1973:114) explains the process as follows:

> It is interesting to note that the process of taking a cloze test involves more than 'passive' reading. By sampling the information that is present the subject formulates hypotheses, or expectations, about information that is to follow. By sampling subsequent sequences, he either confirms or disconfirms these expectations. If the expectations are disconfirmed they must be revised and new hypotheses must be formed."

If the above assumptions concerning the reading process and the process of writing a cloze test are valid, then we can say that cloze tests do, indeed, parallel the reading process.

Williams second issue was that Carroll et al (1959) suggest that there seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test. Two major limitations to the Carroll et al study that detract from the above generalization were based on the results from a very small number of subjects. The second limitation was that they marked correct only exact word replacements then justified their generalization by correlating the test results with the Modern Language Aptitude Test (MLAT). Oller (1972) has found that the any-acceptable word replacement scoring method is the most reliable and convenient way of scoring cloze tests of ESL students. One might also reasonably question Carroll et al's procedure of correlating test scores with a language aptitude test. It would probably be better to use a proficiency criterion for validation (Oller 1973).

Darnell (1968) used a scoring method which drew upon a previously determined domain of responses from native speakers for each cloze item. This technique yielded a high (.83) correlation with the *Test of English as a Foreign Language.* Oller (1972) found similarly high correlations between cloze tests marked by the any acceptable word method, and the *UCLA ESL Placement Exam.* Stubbs and Tucker (1974) also report high correlations (.76) with the *English Entrance Exam* used at the American University of Beirut. Williams reports that the Carroll study found that success in cloze tests of foreign language is independent of foreign language proficiency, but it does not appear that Carroll used proficiency as a criterion. It seems, then, that Carroll's conclusions were hastily drawn.

The third issue that Williams raises in his article is that crucial content words are often omitted which cannot be supplied by examining the context. He suggests that rather than a random deletion system that "it might be better for test constructors to delete function and context words which should be apparent from context." His reasoning is that:

(1). Students who have not previously encountered the concepts in the passage may do poorly.
(2). Native speakers should be able to get a high or perfect score on a cloze test for non-native speakers.

Each of Williams two reasons were discussed in light of his recommendation. His first reason raises the question, what is the purpose of the cloze test? If cloze tests are used as a pre-assessment of knowledge of the subject matter of a passage then we certainly do not want to penalize the student whose entering competencies into the task are greater than the average. If a cloze is used as a post-assessment of reading comprehension of an assigned reading then it is just those crucial content words that we are most likely to be interested in. If a cloze test is used to determine the readability of a text to

ascertain its suitability for a class, we certainly do not want to discriminate against the experienced individual because it may well be his familiarity with the subject, not his reading skill (whatever you define that as!) that aids him in reading any passage. Essentially Williams argument, as I see it, is that language skills must be measured separately from one's experience. I contend that this is impossible: language cannot be separated from its use in communication, or from the individual's experience bank of interactions with his perceived world. If, then, a cloze test is used as a language proficiency measure, it would not be inappropriate to delete words that cause the student to probe his experience bank for a response.

Williams, of course, is right when he cautions teachers to select passages for cloze that are appropriate to the class or contextual domain they wish to test. Cloze tests so chosen and marked by the any-appropriate-word system will in all likelihood be valid.

The second reason Williams gives for deleting only function words and content words apparent from the context is that he feels that native speakers should be able to make high or even perfect scores on a cloze test designed for second language speaker. It seems that this would be more of a language proficiency test than a reading test. This is an attractive possibility, but is this what Williams wants to use cloze tests for? The every n-th word system is the simplest method and is still quite satisfactory. We have already found that Darnell (1968) and Oller (1972) using the usual method of construction have obtained high correlations with generally accepted measures of ESL proficiency. By changing the deletion system to make a cloze test easier for a native speaker, one would suspect that the internal consistancy of the items and the test reliability for ESL students might be upset. Using an every n-th word deletion system to construct cloze tests, Oller (1972) found that out of 150 items only seven failed to discriminate significantly at the .05 level by a *t* test between the top 50% and bottom 50% of students. Other studies (Oller 1973) have yielded similar results. All these studies using an every n-th word deletion ratio had Kuder Richardson reliabilities between .80 and .90.

The simplicity of test construction is one of the most attractive features of cloze tests. Rather than complicate the construction process, it would be more practical in most circumstances to use an easier reading selection to construct the test from. Oller (1972) found that cloze tests which were rated "very easy" by the Flesch formula (1948) and on the Fourth grade by the Dale and Chall (1948) system yielded correlations between .63 and .80 with the various parts of the UCLA ESL Placement Exam. The subjects were 398 foreign students in UCLA of which 210 were graduate students. Not only would it be more practical to use an easier reading selection than change the deletion system, but also it would be practically as valid as using a more difficult passage.

The construction of cloze tests have been reviewed with the three criticisms of them raised by Williams. The claim that cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process, has been refuted and it has been shown that current psycholinguistic theory suggests an integrative language factor that does not separate reception from production in language use. I have challenged the notion that a special talent is needed in being successful on a cloze test, citing Oller's (1973) criticism of Carroll's procedures and argued that changing the deletion procedure from every n-th word to a system that would make all fill-ins for deletions apparent from the context is unsound and impractical.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Carroll, J.B., A.S. Carton, and C.P. Wilds. (1959). "An Investigation of Cloze Items in Measurement of Achievement in Foreign Languages." *College Entrance Examination Board Research and Development Reports.* Cambridge, Mass.: Laboratory for Research in Instruction, Harvard University.

(continued on Page 18)

INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

(continued from page 6.)

2. L. S. Harms, *Human Communication,* New York: Harper and Row, 1974, 423 p.
3. L. S. Harms, *Futures of Human Communication,* New York: Prentice-Hall, in preparation.
4. L. S. Harms, "Communication Rights of Mankind," in Fred Casmer (ed.), *International and Intercultural Communication,* in press.
5. L. S. Harms, "Beyond Tolerence: World Communication Technology and the Local Cultural Structures of Man," in Fred Casmir (ed.) *International and Intercultural Communication Annual,* New York: Speech Communication Association, in press.
6. L. S. Harms, "Phonetic Science, Intercultural Communication, and the Right to Communicate," Chapter to appear in, *Phonetic Papers,* Tokyo: Phonetic Society of Japan, in press.
7. L. S. Harms and Yukio Takefuta, "A General Model of Communication." Invited paper. International Communication Conference, Montreal, 1973.
8. L. S. Harms and Jim Richstad, "An Interchange Model of Communication," Mimeo, Honolulu, 1973.

CLOZE TESTING RE-EXAMINED

(continued from page 17)

Dale, E. and J.S. Chall. (1948). "Formula for Predicting Readability." *Education Research Bulletin,* vol. 27, pp. 11-20, 37-54.

Darnell, Donald K. (1968). "The Development of an English Language Proficiency Test of Foreign Students Using a Clozentropy Procedure". Final Report, Research Project No. 7-H-010, Boulder, Colorado: University of Colorado ERIC ED 024 039.

Flesch, R.F. (1948). "A New Readability Yardstick." *Journal of Applied Psychology,* vol. 37, pp. 221-223.

Goodman, Kenneth S. (1969). "Analysis of Oral Reading Miscues: Applied Psycholinguistics". *Reading Research Quarterly,* vol. 5, pp. 9-30.

Holtzman, Paul D. (1967). "English Language Proficiency Testing and the Individual." *Selected Conference Papers of the Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language,* pp. 76-84. Los Altos, Calif.: Language Research Associates Press.

Oller, John W. Jr. (1973). "Cloze Tests of Second Language Proficiency and What They Measure." *Language Learning,* vol. 23, No. 1, pp. 105-118.

Oller, John W. Jr. (1972). "Scoring Methods, and Difficulty Levels for Cloze Tests of ESL Proficiency." *Modern Language Journal,* vol. 56, pp. 151-158.

Pack, Alice C. (1973). "Cloze Testing and Procedure," *TESL Reporter,* vol. 6, no.2, pp. 1-2.

Spolsky, Bernard, Bengt Sigurd, Masahito Sato, Edward Walker, and Catherine Aterburn. (1968). "Preliminary Studies in the Development of Techniques for Testing Overall Second Language Proficiency". *Language Learning,* Special Issue, no. 3, pp. 79-101.

Stubbs, Joseph Bartow and G. Richard Tucker. "The Cloze Test as a Measure of English Proficiency". *Modern Language Journal,* vol. 58, no. 5-6 (September-October 1974), pp. 239-241.

Taylor, Wilson L. (1953). "Cloze Procedure: A New Tool for Measuring Readability." *Journalism Quarterly,* vol. 30, pp. 414-438

Williams, Roger K. (1974). "Problems in Cloze Testing." *TESL Reporter,* vol. 7, no. 4. pp. 7-9.

THE GAME SETTING: AN AVENUE TO MORE ENGLISH

by Emilio Cortez

The language-teaching game, especially when used with the young second-language learner, has been widely acclaimed as an effective and highly useful pedagogic aid. Faye Bumpass expresses the feelings of many ESOL teachers when she says:

> Games can be an invaluable aid in teaching a foreign language on the elementary level. Nothing intrigues children more than the promise of learning a new game. By taking advantage of this playful inclination, the teacher is able to build new vocabulary concepts and to give additional practice in maintaining a previously learned skill.[1]

When playing a game, children focus more intently upon everything said. A situation which, needless to say, helps foster language acquisition.

In a game setting various opportunities arise for furthering the students' knowledge of English. Even prior to a game a host of contextually appropriate utterances are possible. Consider some of the following examples:

"Are you ready for our game?"
"Who's ready to play a game?"
"Let's play a game."
"Who wants to play a game?"
"It's time for our game."
"Today we're going to play a game."
"I think we're ready for our game."
"It's game time"'

It is suggested that ESOL teachers be *consistent* in their use of language when announcing "language-game time." After the children have grown accustomed to a specific introductory expression, the teacher may select a different opening statement, and so on.

Many times just the prospect of a game acts as a motivator. Often ESOL teachers fail to take full advantage of their students' spontaneous spurts of heightened interest when a prospective game is announced. Such heightened interest can yield positive results when coupled with an appropriate English utterance which is consistently reinforced.

During competitive games in which points are awarded, team efforts must be periodically assessed. Here again, a variety of English sentences can be subtly introduced such as:

"I wonder who's winning?"
"How many points does Team B have?"
"How many points does Team A need to win?"
"What's the score?"

On occasion the entire class may even participate in counting points. Such choral practice reinforces number concepts in a most meaningful way for young children.

It cannot be overstressed that, in addition to the language game proper, many expressions can be taught to the second-language learner if a primacy of consistency in presentation is maintained. By so doing, we can begin to capitalize more fully on the almost limitless versatility of the language-teaching game.

[1] Faye Bumpass, *Teaching Young Students English as a Second Language* (New York: American Book Company, 1963), p. 143.

Morphological and. . .

(continued from page 12)

Words in sentences occur in strings. However, it is important to remember that among words there can be morphological and syntactic complementations or both. It is therefore hoped that this article has demonstrated this point. The examples used are two modals and three auxiliaries as they occur in sentences.

BOOK REVIEW

Eugene J. Hall.
English Self-Taught: A Multimedia Programmed Course in English as a Second Language.
New York: Regents Publishing Company Price $ 3.95.

English Self-Taught (EST) boldly claims to teach a student how to "...speak, read, and write English without a teacher, without translation, and at his own pace." Twelve volumes, accompanied by correlated tape recordings, comprise the course. Each book contains six units, and each unit is divided into sections for conversation and dialog (to develop understanding and speaking skills), grammar and reading (to aid comprehension and writing skills), and a short mastery check. Each book also has a longer examination the students take before progressing to the next volume.

Mr. Hall has done an excellent job in providing the students with explicit instructions. In the conversation portion, students respond to the recordings of tasks printed with illustrations in colored boxes. For feedback, the students then look at matching colored boxes to the side which contain the completed versions of the tasks. The answer boxes must be covered with a mask before checking. Dialogs are done in comic-strip format which I think the students will like. Grammar exercises are usually fill-in or multiple choice items with numerous examples. The readings (in the earlier stages) are descriptions of illustrations contained in the students' books followed by comprehension questions.

I like the numerous exercises contained in EST. They involve the students, so there will be no "sitting in the back of th classroom." On the other hand, poorly motivated learners will gain little from this self-instructional approach. It's too easy to look at the answer boxes before thinking the problems through. And while EST contains some pronunciation help, all self-teaching materials usually fail to provide the assistance needed to correct pronunciation errors students don't perceive.

Michael E. Foley

TESL WORKSHOP
SUMMER 1975

The department of Continuing Education of Brigham Young University-Hawaii Campus has announced a 2 week, 3 credit hour summer workshop in *TESL Methods and Materials* in June 1975 with Alice C. Pack as the instructor. Details will be published in the Spring 1975 TESL Reporter.

TESL REPORTER
Box 157
Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus
Laie, Hawaii 96762

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