CHILDREN'S LITERATURE AND ESL
by Sidney L. Jenson

The teacher is insulted, not the student. The teacher is bored, not the student. The teacher thinks the stuff childish, not the student. In a recent article (TESL Reporter, Winter 1974), Ted Plaister reported success in teaching English to twenty Japanese university graduates using Mother Goose

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Rhymes. These sophisticated Japanese were not offended by Plaister's use of children's literature. They knew that the end, in this case, justified the means. But more important, the students found the Mother Goose rhymes exciting work. Hearing and analyzing these rhymes was fun and challenging.

In our reading classes at the Church College of Hawaii with our off-campus programs, we have used the Harrison method (Grant Harrison, Beginning Reading 1, BYU Press, 1972) for beginning readers. The early part of Harrison's program uses stories like: "This is a fan. This is mush. The fan is in the sun. The mush is in the sun. I mash the mush. The fan is fun." This is not very exciting reading for adult readers--adults, that is, who can already read. We have taught graduate students from Japan and Taiwan, Samoa and the Philippines, who could not read or who read very poorly. They found the reading of "This is a fan" very exciting--fun and challenging.

But as we trained people to use the Harrison method, we had many adults say, "But aren't the kids offended by this stuff?" None of the children I worked with, and none of the adults with whom I worked was offended.

There is a great concern and a growing demand for "adult" reading material for the lower grades. The Hawaii Department of Education, for example, is concerned about this "problem," they lack easy, adult reading materials. I do not see a serious problem.

My answer is, any material will work as long as it is the proper grade level for the student. It does not have to be "adult" material.

This semester I am working with nineteen second language students ranging in ability from fourth grade to seventh grade in reading ability. Some are college graduates from Japan and Taiwan; some have never been to high school. The program[1] we are following

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has two major components: a one hour intensive in-class section and a one hour extensive out-of-class section. The in-class reading material ranges between grades five and seven. As a group we discuss vocabulary, syntax, rhetoric, culture, and meaning. This material is usually "adult" material with controlled vocabulary.

In the out-of-class section we spend our time in the library, in the children's section. I select the material for the in-class work; the student selects the material for the out-of-class reading. The student is encouraged to find a book that interests him, and is relatively easy for him to read. For example, if he is now reading on a fifth grade level, he should find books in the second, third and fourth grade levels. The student is encouraged not to use his dictionary, but to make predictions or educated guesses from the context clues to discover work meanings. Some students will select books far below their measured reading ability; but they will read ten or twenty books in a week. Some of our students had never read an entire book, cover to cover, before. The finishing of a book, no matter how easy, gives them a sense of accomplishment and success they have rarely, if ever, experienced.

Our objective in this class is rapid, silent reading--not translation. Unless one reads at 200 words per minute or faster, he cannot really comprehend total meaning. If a student does not know almost all of the words on a page, he cannot really know what a new word means, even with a dictionary. Reading is not a science; it is an art. None of us really knows how anybody reads. As Wallace Stegner has said, we attempt to analyze the experience of reading, but ultimately we cannot explain the reader's experience any more than we can explain the creative principle or act of the writer.[2]

Because of this, teachers really do not teach reading. Teachers encourage reading. Students must teach themselves. Teachers can teach some basic skills such as phonics or analysis of rhetorical modes. But ultimately we all must "learn ourselves" how to read. A teacher's main role is a guide, helping a student avoid what often is a boring and terribly frustrating experience. The teacher can help (1) help the student find material that is interesting; (2) help the student find material that suits his reading ability; and (3) encourage the student to read plenty of it. Plenty of reading, or what I call "mileage," is really the key. The only way to develop an extensive vocabulary is through reading; and obviously the only way to develop the habit of reading is by reading.

Our library at the Church College (Brigham Young University--Hawaii Campus) has many children's books which fulfill requirements one and two. I am trying to fill the third. For an hour each day, I and three other student assistants sit with the class in the library. The students come to us and ask any questions they like. For five hours a week we do this, and I have always been able to find a book I enjoy reading from the children's section. Maybe this says something bad about my interests and intellect. But what I think it really says is that I enjoy reading and that there are many good books in the children's literature section. With a little luck, the students also might acquire a taste for reading and develop a life-long craving for the stuff.

[1]For a description of a similar program see David E. Eskey, "A Model Program for Teaching Advanced Reading to Students of English as a Foreign Language, *Language Learning,* 23, 169-85.

[2]Wallace Stegner, "One Way to Spell Man," *The Saturday Review,* 41 (24 May 1958), 43.

A TESL GAME for Constructing Sentences

by Alice C. Pack

OBJECTIVE: To give students practice in creating acceptable sentences using the articles, singular forms, plurals, and prepositions necessary in particular situations.

MATERIALS: Stacks of different colored file cards. One color indicates location, another color indicates time, another lists nouns or verbs (nouns are given in either singular or plural forms). White cards have determiners listed i.e., definite, indefinite, possessive, or demonstrative.

PROCEDURE: Game may be used for individual or team play. If teams are used there should not be over five members on each team and class members should be randomly divided into teams. Cards are shuffled and stacks of each are placed in front of each student or team. At the command *GO*, each student or one member of each team draws one card from each of the stacks and, using the lexicon which the cards indicate, writes his sentence on the board. Students are free to choose a verb if a noun is given on the card or a noun if the card gives a verb and may also add any other words, (nouns, verbs, connectors, etc.) that they desire. Students have the choice to use the noun drawn as either the subject or the object of the sentence. (If team play is used, all members of the team may suggest or correct their team's entry before it is placed on the board). At the command *STOP*, all work must cease and then, in turn, each sentence is given aloud by the student who wrote it. If another student or the other team thinks another's entry is incorrect, a correction may be submitted. Corrections should then be made and scores tallied.

Students must have everything correct in order to score the 5 points given for a completed sentence. Corrections add 2 points to the individual or team score of the person or team suggesting the correction.

Time limits should be determined by the instructor on the basis of class proficiency (students should have some opportunity to succeed).

The prepositions may be added to the location on the cards (at home, in the garden, on the lawn, etc.) for very elementary students only, and should be eliminated as soon as possible so students will learn to use prepositions meaningfully.

Additional cards giving adjectives and adverbs might be added to increase the difficulty of the game as students become proficient in constructing simple sentences. Also other cards giving the choices of affirmative and negative questions or statements may be added.

SUGGESTED LEXICON

First color Time	Second color Location	Third color Verb	Noun	White
Yesterday	home	go	boy	
This morning	library	read	girl	definite *(the)*
from time to time	beach	play	baby	
frequently	lawn	come	basket	indefinite *(a, an)*
this afternoon	garden	walk	house	
last week	classroom	eat	boys	possessive *(my, your, our, etc.)*
next Friday	car	sleep	dog	
tomorrow	city	study	cats	demonstrative *(this, that, these, those)*
always	boat	like	fish	
Every Tuesday	room	swim	banana	
right now	table	dance	friends	

ENGLISH CONVERSATION THROUGH CLASSROOM DRAMATICS

by William Gallagher

Several students in the English Language Institute of the Church College of Hawaii this past semester, participated in an experimental approach to developing greater fluency in English conversation.

It is fairly established that language students acquire language skills by observation and participation. With this in mind, the conversation classes were asked to write and produce four classroom dramas or skits.

One student was chosen as the director. It was he who directed the writing and production of the drama. Under his leadership, with some limited teacher direction, the class outlined the plot and wrote the lines. In addition to taking roles, the ELI students arranged for props, sound

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effects, costumes etc. Invitations and programs were also mimeographed and distributed by the students. One group even appointed a business manager who "sold" tickets.

Before turning the students loose, the students wrote and acted out two short dramas in front of the classes in order to show the students how the writing and acting could be done.
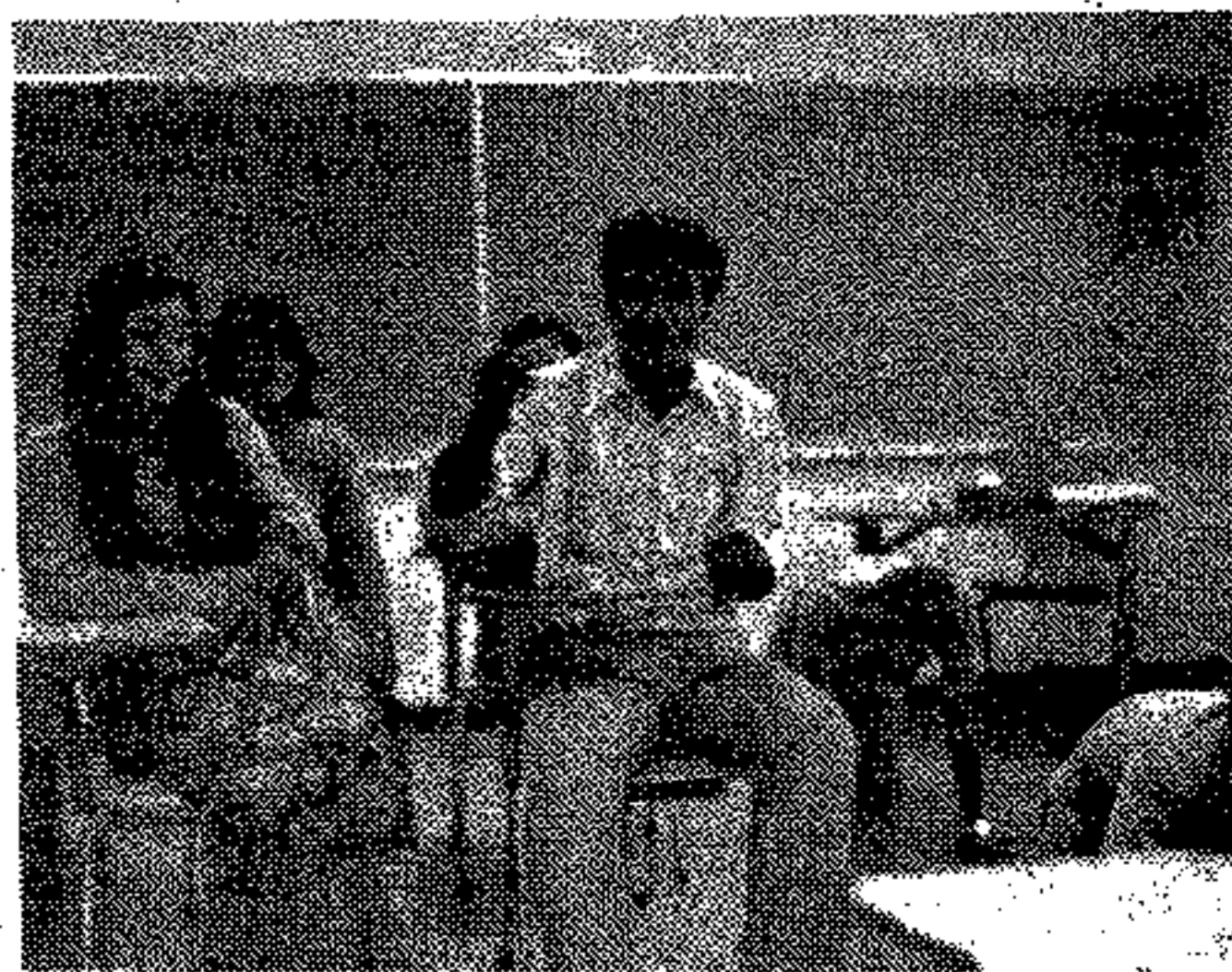
In writing a classroom drama, it was found helpful for the teacher to suggest a "typical" student problem for the first scene, such as no money, no date for the dance, or a lost text book two days before the big test. The next scene would show a solution to the problem which in the final scene often proved to be a false solution.

For example, if the problem was "no money", the second scene had a friend loan him some money which, in scene three, was found to be counterfeit!

The students thoroughly enjoyed themselves in this activity. In addition to the English the students learned by memorizing their lines, their most valuable activity linguistically, was in the conversation necessary for the planning, writing, securing props, and providing invitations and programs.

When Viliami and Susana took their "children" for a ride in the country, one by one the "tires" went flat and they had to hitchhike back to school.
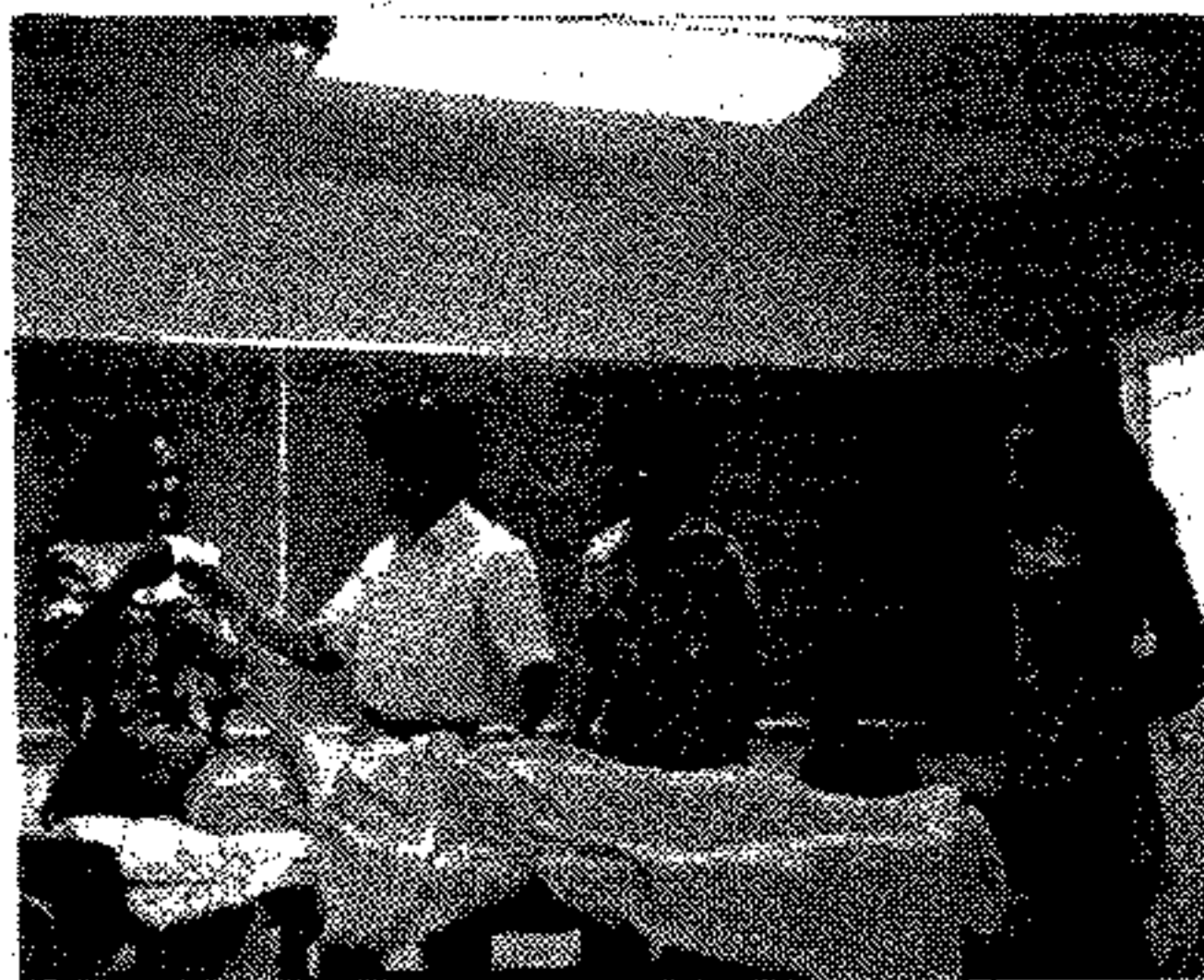
David got a headache and was taken to the hospital where a nearsighted "doctor" removed his appendix!

CARRYING A GOOD THING TOO FAR

by Walter P. Allen

All teachers worth their salt discover effective lessons and teaching devices. A class becomes electrified and the activity of the learning process can be gauged in the happy, interested faces. Among the examples of such phenomena appearing recently in the *TESL Reporter* are Alice Pack's "Pronoun Chart" (reprinted in Fall 1973, p. 13) and Ted Plaister's "Mother Goose and ESL" (the lead story in Winter 1974). Most of us have probably developed articles, at least in our minds if not on paper, describing our brilliant strokes of genius. (I speak from personal experience.)

Often the profession is the loser when these advances in teaching are not made available through the journals. However, there are also dangers when an idea is rushed to print too soon. The enthusiasm of the moment may be so dazzling that the innovator fails to pay attention to the warning signals. In the first flush of success there is the danger of imagining more power in the method than is justified. The new method may have filled an immediate need so beautifully that it is deemed adequate for other situations, which may be quite different. Also it may have been the enthusiasm of the teacher with a new gimmick, rather than any value in the method, which caused the increased learning. Again, striking success in the first use of the novel lesson plan may lead to the danger of ignoring difficulties which are inherent in the method. As long as the students are swimming so well, the teacher fails to note the rough water ahead. Most important, the success of a plan may lead the teacher into the danger of failure to teach essentials of the language which are not involved in the bright new method. Language is very complex, with many aspects, and mastery is only achieved by gaining control of all aspects, not of just one. Vocabulary, for example, must be supported by syntax, semantics, rhetoric, and all the other aspects of language.

A case in point is the two articles by Kelly Harris, Jr. which recently appeared in the *TESL Reporter*: "Using Crossword Puzzles in TESL" (Fall 1973) and "A Lesson on Synonyms, Antonyms, and Homonyms for ESL Students" (Winter 1974). The Winter article begins with a fundamental misconception of language: "Sounds and meanings of words are most important in English" (p. 11). Although there is no *the* before *most*, the implication is clear that other aspects of English are *less* important. This is indeed very cavalier treatment of morphology, syntax, and other aspects of language. In fact, limiting vocabulary study to synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms will hardly provide complete coverage even for phonology and semantics. Fortunately the same issue of *TESL Reporter* also carries articles by Yao Shen on tense carriers and by Alice C. Pack on functions of HAVE.

Anyone who has taught ESL knows that students usually believe that a lack in vocabulary is their only obstacle to fluency. At the same time the teacher is aware that more control of word order, form classes (parts of speech), agreement, inflectional and derivational affixes, and prepositions is basic to improving communication in the new language. Obviously no lesson can teach everything, but conversely, no lesson can claim to be everything, or even the most important thing.

My wife once compiled a list of more than 250 pairs and triplets of homonyms in playing a game with her eight year old niece, so I consider her somewhat of an expert on the subject. But when I tried "I *see him* every day" and I sing a *sea hymn* every day," I drew a blank. At least in our dialect, *sea hymns* are not likely to cause confusion with *see him*, because *sea hymns* don't occur.

Some homonyms are real trouble-makers for people learning English, such as: there - their - they're, to - too - two, your - you're, and even words like bare - bear. These sets give our student enough problems. We don't have to invent others just to extend a pet

system.

Some TESL methods, notably Basic English, strive for efficient teaching by avoiding synonyms. The beginning lessons of the Michigan materials used to speak only of *pocketbooks*, never of *purses, wallets,* or *handbags*. Even these controlled vocabulary methods must eventually face the problem of introducing synonyms. ESL students are especially aware of the problem of synonyms because their bilingual dictionaries give a string of English words for every word of their own language. Since the students know the differences between synonyms in their own language, they are likely not to recognize them as such and think that it is only English which has "so many words with the same meaning."

The two problems with teaching synonyms are 1) showing the shade of difference between synonyms and 2) the suitability of different words in various contexts. An example of two words not really having the same meaning is Harris' use of *join* as a clue for *mate*. The *Concise Oxford Dictionary* (just like five American dictionaries I consulted) gives "join in marriage" as a definition of *mate*, v.t. 7 i. In the Fall 1973 crossword clue, *(in animals)* is added to join, but *The Concise Oxford* only tells of birds mating. Unless the class has read a story in which animals mate, the lesson on synonyms and the crossword clue are misleading.

Similarly, *slipper - shoe - sandal* may all mean *footwear*, but they are certainly not interchangeable. In fact, they are as different as *Cougar* and *Jaguar* are to an auto mechanic.

Earthly and *terrestrial* are examples of synonyms which are appropriate in different contexts. The Latinate *terrestrial* is most likely to fit in formal, scientific, or theological settings. At the other extreme, *earthly* can be used as an expletive (which does not have to be deleted): no earthly chance (*Concise Oxford*).

The makers of Alka-Seltzer used to advertise that their product contained *acetylsalicylic acid,* which is a scientific name for *aspirin.* The advertisement successfully used the unfamiliar term to deceive the public, for the term belongs in a chemistry class or a pharmacopeia. Perhaps another company will try $C_9H_8O_4$.

Antonyms are defined as words of opposite meanings, but it appears that some antonyms are more opposite than others. True antonyms are found in *hot - cold* and *up - down* (at least in the common use of these terms, though physicists or astronauts might disagree). But to say that the opposite of *man* is *woman* is to perpetuate a sexist stereotype. Why not give *boy*, or *dinosaur*, or *rock*? Obviously students will have to be trained in the type of partial

opposition shown by pairs such as *man - woman*. Harris' example of *holy - unholy* opens a whole new bag of cats. *Possible - impossible, correct - incorrect,* and *happy - unhappy* immediately come to mind. Clearly a whole new lesson can be developed on negating words, training students to build their own antonyms. From there the study could proceed to the role of prefixes in English.

The usefulness of the words is another point which Harris has not weighed sufficiently in his search for synonyms, antonyms, and homonyms. One way of determining the usefulness of a word, and so whether it should be taught earlier or later, is to find how often it is used by people who speak English. A considerable body of factual evidence on this point is available to a lesson planner in any of several frequency counts. Although frequency counts do not prescribe an absolute order for learning words, yet they do give some idea of what words should be learned first and which can be put off till later.

The puzzle on page 11 of the Fall 1973 *TESL Reporter* has many words in both the clues and the answers which were found to be used most frequently in the 18 million words counted for the Thorndike and Lorge study published as *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (New York, 1944). (I refer to this book because it is within reach.) Less frequently used words include the following:

from the second thousand: unite, cease, holy, beast, journey;

from the third thousand: mate, sacred, preach, climate;

PROBLEMS IN CLOZE TESTING
by Roger K. Williams

Many authors and teachers have hailed cloze tests as the easiest and best method of testing the reading skill. No doubt this type of test *can* be the easiest. A teacher chooses a passage from a book, types it on a page deleting every sixth, seventh, or *n*th word, and requires his students to fill in the correct answers. He may give credit for only those answers which match the original, or he may give partial or full credit for "acceptable" answers, those which fit the slot semantically.

Whether cloze tests are the best method of testing the reading skill is another matter. Some cloze tests can be very good. Others may contain flaws which affect the validity and reliability of the tests. Teachers who are considering using this method should be aware of several problems. In avoiding these problems, they may find that good cloze tests are about as easy to construct as good comprehension (paragraph and questions) tests.

The first problem is that cloze tests only partially parallel the reading process. Reading is primarily the decoding of written symbols into meaning. Filling in blanks requires encoding or production. In reading regular prose, both native and non-native readers, of course, often encounter unfamiliar words or phrases, and must employ inferential encoding procedures to arrive at a meaning, but if there are too many unfamiliar words or phrases encoding or filling in blanks correctly becomes quite difficult and frustrating. Therefore, a cloze test may approximate a situation in which students are reading material far beyond their level more than a situation in which they are reading material on their level.

Because cloze tests require production, scoring can become a problem if the teacher chooses to give credit or partial credit for answers which, though different from the original, are "acceptable". It is quite possible that students may write words which are acceptable semantically but not grammatically. Consider these: "within

one year *between* each other," "stuck *in* home a lot," and "the older twins are being *eaten* at the same time the younger . . ." The students who made these responses may have understood the passage perfectly, but

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how much credit should each response be given? Is this a grammar test or a reading comprehension test or both?

One author suggests that a cloze test should be given to native students first and that non-natives would then be graded according to the native responses.[1] This is certainly a possibility when testing very advanced non-natives, but the "errors" cited above would likely not be made by natives and yet are in a sense acceptable. So this matter of grading reponses is not easily resolved.

The second problem is that there seems to be a special talent involved in being successful on a cloze test. Carroll maintains that because natives vary widely in their ability to perform well on cloze tests and because this ability correlates with their ability in second-language cloze tests, their scores in the latter should be adjusted when used in comparison with the scores of other students.[2] He further states that

cloze procedure tests depend to a considerable extent upon cognitive ability variables which are completely extraneous to foreign language success. That is to say, even an individual who has good mastery of a foreign language may not be able to demonstrate this mastery on a cloze procedure test if he lacks certain other intellectual qualities such as reasoning ability and ideational fluency.[3]

Carroll concludes that because success in the usual types of cloze tests is independent of

language proficiency and more dependent on intellectual functioning, cloze tests should be modified if used. The blanks should be, he suggests, linguistic cues rather than crucial semantic cues, or they could be multiple choice items or items with part of the word present.[4]

This brings us to the third problem, the blanks themselves. One reason that natives vary in their ability to fill in the blanks is that when every *n*th word is deleted, a high number of crucial content words may be deleted. Often these cannot be supplied by looking at the context. Sometimes a student who is quite familiar with the subject matter can fill in these crucial content words while those lacking his special background cannot.

Deleting every *n*th word often causes no problem in an easy passage with high redundancy, but other passages should perhaps receive a different treatment. It might be better for test constructors to delete function and content words which should be apparent from context. For example, suppose a teacher is selecting a passage to use as a cloze test and he finds an article on the speed of sound. It is on or slightly below his students' reading level and is long enough to have sufficient blanks for an accurate measure. Part of the passage reads:

The speed of sound in air at ordinary temperatures is about 1,100 feet per second, which is about one mile in five seconds or about 700 miles per hour. The speed of sound increases slightly with a rise in temperature and falls with a decrease in temperature. It is not affected by the pressure of the air.[5]

What problems can be anticipated? First, there is the problem of subject matter. Students who have not previously been exposed to these concepts may do poorly. Secondly a good physics student may be able to supply the numbers, whereas other students might find them or any calculations difficult. If it is determined that this subject is no problem for this particular group and it is decided to leave in the numbers, which words could be omitted? The phrase "the speed of sound" is repeated, and students should reasonably be expected to supply any one of those four words by comparison to the other phrase. The phrases "increases . . . with a rise in temperature" and "falls with a decrease in temperature" are parallel contrasting ideas. The second *with* and

temperature should be easy to supply, as should one of the four words, *increases, rise, falls, decrease.* Of course, one must expect equivalent content words in this case-- *drops, decreases,* or *declines,* instead of *falls,* for example. Perhaps the third *about* could be deleted.

It would seem that native speakers should be able to get a high or perfect score on a cloze test designed for non-natives. If they do not, perhaps factors besides reading ability are being tested. Here is another example which is part of a longer passage. Natives can fill in the blanks readily; intermediate non-natives might vary according to reading ability.

As the _____ circled over the airport, everyone sensed _____ something was wrong. The plane _____ moving unsteadily through the air, and although the passengers had fastened their seat belts. _____ were suddenly thrown forward. At that moment, the air-hostess appeared. _____ looked very pale, but was quite calm. Speaking quickly but almost in a whisper, she informed everyone that the pilot had fainted _____ asked if any _____ the passengers knew anything _____ machines--or at least how _____ drive a car. After a moment's hesitation, a man got up and followed the _____ into the pilot's cabin.[6]

In short, passages should be carefully chosen according to passage level and content, and blanks might be chosen according to the ease with which they can be filled by looking at the context or the structure patterns.

Although this method of testing reading has yet to be perfected, cloze tests can be a useful supplement to vocabulary tests, tests of grammatical structures common to written English, and passages with questions. The teacher who experiments with cloze tests should find them an exciting and inventive way of testing the structural aspect of reading.

[1] Donald K. Darnell, "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, October 1968), pp. 1-10.

[2]John B. Carroll, *An Investigation of Cloze Items in the Measurement of Achievement in Foreign Languages*, College Entrance Examination Board Research and Development Reports (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, April 1959), p. 52.

[3]Ibid., p. 114.

[4]Ibid., p. 117

[5]G.C. Thornley, *Easier Scientific English Practice*. (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1964), p. 68.

[6]L.G. Alexander, *A First Book in Comprehension, Precis, and Composition*. (London: Longmans, Green and Co., 1965), p. 61.

NEW BATESL REQUIREMENTS

Changes in the curriculum for the BATESL degree at the Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus have been approved and new courses will begin September 1974. Complete details of this program will be given in the Fall 1974 *TESL Reporter*.

BOOK REVIEW

Patricia E. Matthews and Sabattat Tura, *Practice, Plan and Write: Guided Composition for Students of English, 1, 2.* American Book Company. 1973 paperback. $1.92

The purpose of Matthews and Tura's new text, *Practice, Plan and Write*, is to give students of English as a second language a controlled guide to composition. Each of the sixteen units of Books 1 and 2 are divided into four major parts, including 1) a Model Paragraph, which the students repeat aloud after the instructor, and which introduces new grammatical structures for the students to practice and base their writing upon; 2) Language Practice, which presents basic sentence patterns that accustom the students to acceptable grammar and syntax; 3) Form and Organization, which includes tips on good paragraph writing as well as rules for punctuation and capitalization; and 4) the Unit Writing Assignments, which are patterned after the Model Paragraph at the beginning of the unit. The books are designed for more advanced students, "who have acquired oral control of the most basic grammatical patterns and the vocabulary of English," but unless students have also had a good deal of experience in reading and writing English, they may have trouble with the material.

The basic idea behind the text is that once students have become familiar with the rudimentary and repeating patterns of the English language, they can substitute words and phrases into those patterns and thus generate their own sentences. Units consistently capitalize on this idea and the patterns become more complex as the units progress. Sentences illustrating new formulas are boxed off in phrases, allowing the student to see the similarities of the substitutions. The exercises then challenge the student to substitute correct word forms in sentences. Paragraph assignments throughout the books encourage the student to pattern his writing after the Model Paragraphs. It is a carefully controlled approach which allows the student little freedom in experimentation or creating. But it is also a successful approach, and the positive reinforcement for the student as he works so much with the proper forms of the languages is invaluable.

Practice, Plan and Write is a well thought out and very practical text that presents a lot of English language patterns very simply, and reinforces them with examples and exercises that will lead any diligent student to greater skill with the language.

Steven Goldsberry

TEACHING ENGLISH IN KOREA

by Bill Eggington

In a recent "Needs Assessment for Korea" discussion held at the Church College of Hawaii, it was pointed out quite forcibly by Koreans present that there is a great need for a strong TESL programme in Korea. Learning spoken English is looked upon as a method of social and economic advancement. At the present time, this desire is being channeled into semi-effective to ineffective programmes; thus frustration is common among Korean English learners. This paper will be a general overview of the problems and solutions that a TESL teacher would face if he were to teach in Korea.

As already stated, there is high motivation to learn English. Korea is becoming more and more westernized, and in particular, Americanized. English speaking companies are moving into many aspects of Korean life, thus causing a need for English speaking Korean businessmen and technicians. Higher education is also moving in the direction of western thought and thus western influence and inter-communication. Because of this, the English teacher will never lack good, highly motivated students.

However, many Koreans find English a very hard language to master. Hei Sook, Lee, in an article in "Language Learning", says that

> since Korean people who are now learning English, or intend to learn it, have the preconception that it is a very difficult language, they usually feel discouraged. The author believes it is urgent to destroy this preconceived notion.[1]

He states that one of the most effective methods of overcoming this discouragement is to start off the English programme with English cognates that are very common in the Korean language. I will discuss cognates later in this paper.

The English learner in Korea also must overcome a series of man-made handicaps before he can begin to master English. His largest problem is "forgetting" the English he has already learnt from the Government Educational systems. Many of the teachers of English cannot speak or understand the spoken form of the language they are teaching.[2] If spoken English is learnt in Korea without the assistance of a native speaker, it is almost a separate language again from English or Korean. Korean English teachers, knowing their inadequacy in spoken English, often compensate by turning the class into a translation exercise from one language to another, and to get the flavour of a true academic exercise, they explain the grammatical "niceties" of the language.[3] This

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makes the student an expert in grammar, but unfortunately, that is as far as his English abilities go. There is also a scaricity of good, "modern scientifically acceptable teaching materials."[4] Most of the books dive into traditional grammar explanations and use outmoded concepts. Many of the books are based on British English of the 1950's, or equally "strange" dialects of American English. All these things hinder the student in his ability to learn the language.

Perhaps the only real solution to these problems would be an influx of trained native English speakers for a period that would allow Korean teachers to become masters of their field. Of course before the trained native English teachers could be effective, they would have to know certain things regarding the Korean language and especially Korean customs. Mari-Luci

[1] Hei Sook Lee, "English Korean Cognates" in *Language Learning*, 1958, 8, No. 4, p. 57.

[2] James W. New, "English Teaching on the Rim of Asia," in *Language Learning*, 1963, 8, No. 3, p. 69.

[3] New, p. 69.

[4] New, p. 69.

Jaramillo has stated that she believes "that wherever we are teaching, at home or abroad, understanding cultural differences is just as important as having an excellent curriculum, knowing appropriate technique, or having adequate materials in the classroom."[5]

In Korea the classroom, student-teacher relationship is quite different from our more relaxed atmosphere. Korean students are used to a strict teaching technique with little emphasis on discussion. In this kind of atmosphere "sometimes the informality of North Americans is interpreted to mean that we do not really much care about anything."[6] So the teacher should be careful of creating the wrong atmosphere and be aware of cultural taboos that exist in the culture of his students. This, however, does not mean that the teacher should become completely "Koreanized" in his teaching methods. Language is so closely related with culture that we should not only teach English, but also the culture of our Western ways. It is a good thing to discuss cultural differences in the classroom. This will bring about good communication and understanding and also prepare the students for an experience in the English speaking world.[7]

As stated, the TESOL teacher should also be aware of certain problems caused by the Korean language that will influence his students' English learning ability. The Korean language uses a "semi-syllabary" as its phonetic basis.[8] As may be expected, "it is difficult to teach English pronunciation to Koreans, because the phonemes are different phonetically in English and Korean."[9] Following is a Korean-English Phonemic chart which shows certain important differences in the phonemic structures of the languages.

The English /t/ has a voiced flapped allophone in certain positions. The English vowels have allophones of different length. Phonetically English /e/ and /o/ have an upward glide.[10] As can be seen, the following English sounds do not exist in Korean: labio dentals (f), (v); inter dentals (o), (j); alveolar fricative (z), also (ž) does not exist. Koreans front the following sounds (t), (d), (s), (n) and (r). Koreans have great difficulty with the English rounded [r]. The Korean [r] is unrounded. In Korean aspiration is a significant phonetic feature, whereas in English it is not.[11] So phonetically, there are some major difficulties to be overcome.

One way of doing this would be to concentrate on English-Korean Cognates, thus bring about confidence for the beginner. Hei Sook Lee has compiled a list of cognates, but since then it has no doubt changed.[12] However, this list would still be valuable in overcoming the initial lack of confidence in a student. Naturally, cognates such as 'gas' and 'card' are pronounced in the Korean fashion - kasu and kardu, but with practice, a good English pronunciation could be created. An interesting morphemic feature of the cognates is that they are only used in the singular form. In Korean there is no morpheme like the English bound plural morphemes -[s]. There is the plural morpheme -[dul] that can be attached to nouns, pronouns or adverbs, but it can be omitted if the sentence or phrase contains a word which is plural in meaning; [han caek] - one book, [du caek] or [du caek dul] - two books. Thus, the cognates are only used in the singular form. Other morphemic features of the language exist that the TESOL teacher would be wise to know so he can be an effective teacher.

Korean sentence order has the verb at the end of the sentence with the next most important word next to it, and so on. Usually, if all words are of nearly equal importance, the order is time, subject, place,

5 Mari-Luci Jaramillo, "Cultural Differences in the ESOL Classroom," in *TESOL Quarterly*, 7, 1, Mar. '73, p. 57.

6 Jaramillo, p. 57.

7 Jaramillo, p. 57.

8 Allen D. Clark, *Korean Grammar for Language Students*(Seoul: The Christian Literature Society of Korea, 1965, p. 6.

9 Lee, p. 63.

10 Lee, p. 64.

11 Lee, p. 64.

12 Lee, p. 69.

THE SEARCH FOR UNITY – A UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE PROBLEMS

by Lopeti Foliaki

Ed. Note: *Although only indirectly related to the teaching of English as a Second Language, this article should prove interesting to all who work with Second Language English speakers.*

"Speech, which sets man apart from the rest of creation and is his greatest social asset, serves paradoxically to separate him from his fellow humans. What amounts to a binding tie inside the family, the tribe and the nation, acts as a barrier between those groups and others constituted a short distance away."[1]

This quotation from a lecture by Professor Jose Martel, of the College of the City of New York, shows the essence of the language problem. Men are not much better than deaf-mutes when they meet humans belonging to a different language group. To bridge the gap from one language group to another, a bridge language, a Universal language is needed.

In San Francisco, on June 25, 1965, the twentieth anniversary of the United Nations, the President of the General Assembly declared: "We must give tools to man to enable him to make a better world for his children." What tool could be more basic than language? President Lyndon B. Johnson, speaking immediately afterwards on the same occasion, named ignorance, together with hunger and disease among "the ancient enemies of all mankind."[3] Ignorance must be overcome by knowledge and understanding. This means, first of all, literacy and education, but it also means the ability to communicate with people beyond the narrow borders of countries and nations.

The language problem has many facets. Its implications in education, science, business and politics are innumerable. There has been a growing awareness of the fact that increased emphasis on foreign language study, though useful and urgent, will not suffice, but that for worldwide use a practical, neutral and easy-to-learn world language is necessary.

The use of five official languages by the UN points up the inherent difficulty of a situation wherein all major addresses have to be interpreted from the language in which they are made into four other tongues, and all important documents have to come out in quintuplicate, (English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese) at the cost of enormous amounts of time labor and money.

The language difficulties at all international conferences are enormous. The selection of participants is strongly influenced by linguistic considerations. Many otherwise perfectly qualified persons refrain from attending conferences because they feel that their knowledge of foreign languages is inadequate. Many countries send delegates who are good linguists, though their other qualifications are sometimes only second-rate.

A great variety of devices has been used to overcome the language obstacle. Speeches are often secured in advance, translated into different languages, mimeographed, and distributed among delegates. Sometimes members are seated according to language groups and asked, after each speech, to withdraw into neighboring rooms where translations in several languages are given simultaneously. Obviously, discussions and proceedings are very slow with these translations, because the whole conference has to wait for the translator who is slowest. Other delays are due to the fact that people, talking in a foreign language with which they are not thoroughly familiar, are likely to need more time for making themselves clear. Their speeches become stammered, long-winded, repititious, and hard to follow, consuming the nerves as well as the time of

A PROPOSAL OF INSTITUTING
TO HELP UNRAVEL WORLD

their fellow delegates. (It is an art to express oneself briefly, forcefully, and concisely, even in one's own language.)

The most important technical advice invented for the facilitation of international conferences is the Filene-Finlay Speech translator, sometimes called the "earphone system." In this system interpreters for different languages are placed in glass-enclosed booths and talk into microphones while the speaker is delivering his speech. The seats of the delegates are equipped with earphones connected with the translators' microphones. By pressing a button, a delegate can choose the langauge in which he wishes to hear the speech.

This system has limitations and disadvantages. The most serious obstacle lies in the physical and nervous limitations of translators. It is more difficult to listen to a speech through a machine than it is to listen to the interpreter directly. Mistranslations slip through more easily than with other systems under which there are always a few persons in the audience who have understood the original speech and can check the translator and obtain rectifications when serious mistakes occur. It is also rather disconcerting to see a speaker talking and gesticulating while hearing through the earphone a translation, not of what he is saying, but of what he said a while ago.

The Filene-Finlay system is of no help outside the assembly hall. At most international conferences, personal contacts between delegates from different countries are more important than speeches and official discussions. It is a sad, but unfortunately a common experience, to see delegates take their meals and spend their leisure hours in the company of colleagues from their own countries.

Another deterrent is the high cost of the Filene-Finlay system. Theoretically the number of languages in which simultaneous translations are possible is unlimited. Practically, however, only four or five, at the utmost six, languages can be used as it is enormously expensive to make arrangements for such potential needs as translation from Polish to Chinese, from Italian to Norwegian or from Portugese into Bulgarian. So the Filene-Finlay system, even under the most efficient management, is unable to eliminate the monopoly of a few major languages.

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Neither the Filene-Finlay Speech Translator nor any other system of translations can overcome the basic inequality between delegates speaking their mother tongue and those who have to express themselves in a language not their own. Therefore the need for a universal language. A universal language will not of itself prevent international conflict, but it will remove areas of deliberate or accidental misunderstanding. It will clear up muddled situations. Above all, it will aid man in his search for the truth, now so frequently distorted by factors which, though often planned, are almost as often of a fortuitous nature.

Great as is the use of translators and interpreters by diplomatic and governmental agencies, these agencies are far outstripped by business houses dealing with imports and exports. Government agencies prepare dictionaries and phasebooks for the fields that concern them; but they connot even begin to vie with the numerous technical, legal, financial, professional and commercial

lexicons that are produced each year for the exclusive use of firms engaged in private enterprises involving two or more countries.

As the volume of international trade grows, the need for linguistic understanding becomes greater. With the increase in number and variety of products, with the greater complexity of machinery and equipment that is sent out from one country to another, the need for precision and accuracy increases. Haphazard translations of business letters and written instructions for the use of machinery, casual interpretations of arrangements between importer and exporter, are no longer sufficient, in fact, they may be extremely harmful.

Our systems of interpretation and translation improve as time goes on, and as more and better commercial and technical dictionaries become available. Yet it is a curious fact that they always lag behind the need. The specialized vocabulary of trade and technology changes rapidly in each language, innovations appear everyday, and the dictionary that was adequate ten years ago is hopelessly behind the times today.

Add to this the local differences of terminology within what passes for one language; a term used by an Englishman in a certain meaning may have an entirely different meaning to an American; the Spanish of Spain and that of Argentina, though basically the same language, may use altogether different terms for an object, product, or mechanical part. The complexity of present-day business terminology on the international level thus becomes even more apparent.

A single language, carefully governed by a single international language academy would prove an inestimable boom to trade among nations. It would eliminate uncertainties along with the multiplicity or language forms and translations. The importer in Tonga would know at once and precisely what the exporter in San Francisco has to offer. There would be untold economy of time, effort, money and manpower.

From the standpoint of the host country, the tourist is almost invariably a gift from the gods. He brings in and spends foreign currencies which would be difficult to procure by trade, save at the cost of cutting imports and pushing exports to the point where it hurts.

If there were a language common to the tourist and the countries he sees, the possibility of pleasant contracts, conversations, enlightenment as to local conditions and problems, and absorption of the native culture would be enhanced at least tenfold. For lack of such a tongue, the tourist must go begging for someone who speaks his language.

Religion is a field in which the multiplicity of human tongues has always been recognized. Ever since the command laid upon the Apostles to go forth and preach in different tongues, missionary work has been done with missionaries acquiring the language of the locality to which each is assigned. It might even be claimed that the original linguists were missionaries, since in many instances it is to them that we owe grammars, dictionaries and Bible translations of many obscure tongues.

What would be the impact of a universal language upon churches. It would undoubtedly facilitate their work on a purely material plane, making accessible to them, without linguistic effort and training on their part, masses of humanity which are at present hard to reach.

A common language would serve to clarify differences in interpretation of doctrine which ultimately lead to confusion and religious strife. But above all if man is truly to be set free he must have access to truth. The barriers which cut him off from this truth are often not of his own making and universal language would serve as a bridge, enabling him to find truth more readily.

Literary works are normally produced in one of the many existing literary tongues. If they are found to have merit, then they are translated and republished in other languages. This is a slow, expensive and unsatisfactory process. It is often the case that works of true literary merit go untranslated by reason of limited commercial appeal. It just as often happens that a work which is a literary gem in the original loses a great deal of its flavor in translation because the work is handled by a translator who is technically, but not literarily competent. True literary translation is not a trade, but an art.

It is one of the most standard arguments of opponents of the international language that it's establishment will lead to a loss of literary values. Actually a universal tongue would lead to an enhancement of such

values. Instead of the present hit or miss system, every book appearing in a national tongue would also appear in a single translation which would serve the entire world.

It would be far easier to create a body of truly competent literary translators into the universal language than it is to secure suitable translators into the very numerous literary languages of the world.

The argument that a universal language not having grown and developed out of centuries-old human experience would be unsuited to carry literary values is raised only against constructed languages. But proponents of this fail to remember that a constructed tongue, evolving out of existing languages, would not be subject to the handicaps of having to evolve painfully out of a material into a spiritual civilization. It would rather spring full-grown out of its parent tongues-like Minerva out of the forehead of Jupiter-and at once fall heir to the blended cultural values and literary devices of the most developed languages. That this is both possible and true is proved by the most thoroughly established of our present constructed language, Esperanto, in which a considerable body of literature, both original and in translation, has already appeared.

Since the seventeenth century days of Descartes, Dalgarno and Wilkins, it is estimated that six hundred different proposals have been advanced for the world's linguistic troubles. The proposals can be classified into five groups. First comes the proposal to use a given language just as it stands. Select a given language, make it the official international tongue throughout the world, put it into the schools on a parity with the national languages, and let it serve, just as it is, for the purposes of global communications.

Next come suggestions to use two or more natural languages, either as zonal tongues to serve certain areas of the earth, which would not give us an international language, but a series of geographically separated international languages or to be learned and used bilingually or trilingually by all the peoples of the earth.

Thirdly, it has been proposed to have national languages modified, in one fashion or another, to make them more accessible to foreign speakers, or even to their own.

It has been suggested that language -mixtures, where two tongues are combined, be used. Last of the five proposals is the use of constructed tongues which may be either

a priori language or a posteriori language

A priori language is one which has no connection with pre-existing tongues, but rather endeavors to link language with logical thought.[4] Commercial codes used for economy in sending telegraphic messages are good examples, while on a more limited scale one may refer to musical notation, or to astronomical, chemical or other symbols. As applied to an international tongue, the great advantage of a priori system lies in its complete neutrality, since it favors or resembles none of the known languages.

One such system in use today are the universal graphic symbols known as Glyphs. Glyphs are the only universal graphic communications devices that are in public use. They are beginning to appear on highways, in world's fairs, at hotels and inns and on machines and appliances the world over.[5] The advantages of glyphs are twofold-they don't require knowledge of a language, written or spoken. The message of the glyphs is unambiguous, simple, and understandable to anybody who has learned it. Glyphs create a direct and immediate impact and thus permit immediate response. This applies as well to those who know a language as to those who do not.

However glyphs will not suffice for our

need for a universal language which will enable people from any part of the world to communicate with people from any other part. It has been suggested in recent years that the language of the deaf which conveys concepts independently of the words of a particular language does in action, in face-to-face communication what a written ideational language could do for speakers of different languages.[6]

A posteriori language is by definition one constructed on the analogy of existing tongues. This does not mean, however, that it may not have arbitrary features, particularly in the matter of grammar. All existing natural tongues display irregularities of one sort or another, which complicate the language for the learner and make language study a chore. The elimination of irregularities is a predominant feature of practically all constructed tongues. Aside from that, they may or may not borrow grammatical structure from the languages on which they draw. One might for example, copy the grammar of Spanish, at the same time regularizing it, to this extent. All nouns shall be masculine or feminine, with all masculine nouns ending in O and all feminine nouns ending in A. The plural of all nouns shall be formed by adding S to the singular. Now we have a language which, so far as nouns are concerned, is modeled on Spanish, yet displays regularity, which Spanish does not. If to this selection of grammatical rules we added a vocabulary drawn from Spanish, we have a posteriori language.

Esperanto is probably the best known of the posteriori languages devised to solve the communication problem. Invented in 1887 by Dr. L.L. Zamenhof, a Polish Jew who was a physician, it is a melange of European languages glued together by a very simple grammar. Unlike natural languages, which are laced with maddening irregularities, Esperanto is almost scientifically precise and consistent.[7]

Phonetic spelling is one of the most important features of Esperanto. Because every letter of the alphabet corresponds to one, and only one, sound and vice-versa, coupled with a simple syllabic arrangement, Esperanto is a harmonious tongue, easy to speak, read and spell. One drawback that has often been criticized is the use of accented letters of which there are six c, g, h, j, s, and u. The main stream of criticism is that this complicates matters for printers in countries speaking languages, such as English, which do not use accented letters.[8]

The Esperanto definite article is la, invariable like English "the." All nouns without exception, end in -o, all adjectives in -a, all adverbs in -e, all infinitives in -i. Nouns and adjectives are made plural by the addition of -j; an accusative form is provided by adding -n in both singular and plural: la bona patro and la bonan patron mean "The good father", the first as subject, the second as object; "the good fathers," is translated by la bonaj patroj and la bonajn patrojn. A verb, which ends in -i in the infinitive shifts to -as in the present, -is in the past, -os in the future, -us in the conditional, -u in the imperative (ami, "to love," miamas, "love"; vi amis, "you loved," li amos, "he will love"; si amus, "she would love," amu, "love')[9] The vocabulary is a blend of Germanic and Latin-Romance,with plenty of Greek and Latin roots and very little in the way of other groups.

Points which favor Esperanto are that it is a completely regular language, based upon only 16 grammatical rules. It is claimed to be simple enough to be mastered by a person of moderate intelligence in just six months, yet flexible and powerful enough to handle the most difficult subtleties of legal jargon. It is composed of some 900 root words capable of expansion into a vocabulary of over 20,000 words, a vocabulary that by its very structure automatically simplified subject-heading and indexing.[10] Esperanto is being used by hundreds of thousands of people all over the world in a great variety of fields. It is already of tremendous practical use and well worth an investment of time, effort and money. Those learning it acquire a key to the world, an instrument of great practical value, a treasure of cultural enrichment, and make at the same time a real contribution to the cause of international understanding and world peace.

However to say that a universal language, be it Esperanto or any other linguistic choice, will establish world unity and abolish wars forever is wishful thinking. History reminds us of the many civil wars among peoples speaking the same tongue. The most that we can expect is that the universal language will, through the removal of linguistic misunderstanding and through the creation of a healthy atmosphere wherein men regard one another as fellow human

beings endowed with the capacity of intelligible speech, effectively aid world peace.

A universal language may help to prevent such accidents as the drowning of a Japanese tourist in Tonga, who, warned of a strong undertow but unable to understand, went swimming in a dangerous area. The disasters of the *Titanic* and *Andrea Doria* both involved heavy loss of life due to language misunderstanding between passengers and crew.

But without going into the comparatively rare instances of the difference between life and death made by knowledge of another tongue, a world language would mean that any immigrant, tourist, or traveller coming from one country to another would be able to understand and be understood by those around them, to the evident comfort and general satisfaction of all concerned.

A world language would do away with necessity for publishing a magazine in seven languages, and conducting conferences in four or five different languages. We should no longer need elaborage schools for UN simultaneous interpreters and foreign service translators if we had a world tongue. In science and technology, a world language would enable man to make the entire world output directly and immediately available to everyone. Important discoveries and inventions would not have to wait for slow, difficult and often inexact translations. To attempt to cover all the advantages a universal language would bring, would be a separate paper in itself. However I would like to mention one last advantage of considerable importance. A universal language would help solve the internal problems in countries having large and numerous linguistic minorities, or in which many languages are at present official. In a country like Switzerland, with its official German, French and Italian, there are language difficulties, because not all the inhabitants speak all the official tongues of the country with equal fluency.

But there are far larger and more important national units than Switzerland to which the world language would be a distinct boon in internal affairs - nations like India, the Soviet Union, Indonesia, and the Philippines.

In India alone, there are over 225 languages and dialects, with 24 major tongues accounting for 96 percent of the population. Hindi is the official language (with English the trade language) but there has been violent opposition. There have been "walkouts" on the part of members of the Indian Parliament from Southern India in protest against the use of Hindi which they cannot understand. There have been violent language riots in many parts of the country. The Indian government, powerless to solve the language problems, has been endeavoring, with little success, to divide the country into provinces that would follow language lines, but there are often no clear-cut linguistic lines, and entire regions are in dispute. There is no doubt that a universal language would prove an inestimable blessing to India.

What the advent of a universal language would mean to India and similar areas can only be estimated. All the people, regardless of dialect, could use it among themselves without the haunting fear that one group would thereby obtain predominance over the others. It would also give these groups a means of communicating with the entire world and give them a means of quickly enriching their knowledge and information.

There remains one last problem. Would national languages be displaced by the international language and die out? Or would they exist side by side with the new language? I feel that, because the international language would be valid at all times and in all places, it would probably progress at the expense of national languages. As time goes on, there might be less use of national tongues and more use of the international language. Writers would prefer the new medium, which would give them access to world markets without the need of difficult and expensive translations. Dante admitted that the main reason that led him to write his *Divine Comedy* in Italian rather than in the Latin of his day was that he wished to reach a broader public.[11]

The final outcome seems clear. The national languages of today will live on for centuries, but their use will tend to become more and more restricted. Ultimately they will turn into cultural relics, like Greek and Latin of today. Is this good or bad? Consider that language is forever changing and that the English for the year 2500 will differ significantly from the English of today in any case. The people of tomorrow will evolve their own forms of life-political, economic and cultural. Many imperfections

of the present day are glaring. Why should we wish to impose them upon future generations? It is conceivable that some might not wish to pass on some of our political and economic institutions, but few indeed would be those who would not wish to pass on to them the advances we have made in the fields of science, medicine and technology, the tools to human happiness and progress. To these, let us add one more tool - a tongue that will permit all of our descendants regardless of color, race, nationality, or religion, to exchange thoughts freely.

"An international language is rapidly ceasing to be a luxury that can be put off into the future; it is becoming an immediate necessity. If we are wise, we shall anticipate the acute need of the future and provide for it, just as wise city planners make provisions for expansion of their growing city and the traffic problems that growth will involve."[12]

[1] G.A. Connor, *Esperanto, the World Language,* 1966, p. 6.

[2] Ibid.

[3] Ibid.

[4] Mario Pei, *One Language for the World,* 1958, p. 141.

[5] M. Mead & R. Modley, "Communication Among All People, Everywhere." *Natural History* 77: (August 1968), p. 57.

[6] Ibid; p. 62

[7] Robert Reinhold, "900 Adherants Paroli in Esperanto," *New York Times* 27:1 (August 5, 1972); p. 16.

[8] G.A. Connor, *Esperanto, the World Interlanguage,* 1948; p. 28.

[9] Mario Pei, *One Language for the World,* 1958, p. 162.

[10] M.P. Wilson "Viewpoint" *Library Journal* 94:1599 (April 15, 1969) p. 1599.

[11] Mario Pei, *One Language for the World,* 1958; p. 245.

[12] Mario Pei, Need for International Language for All", *Intellect* v. 101 (October 1972) p. 10.

CARRYING A GOOD THING TOO FAR

   from the fourth thousand: mist;
   from the fifth thousand: earthly, devour;
   from the sixth thousand: petty;
and from the eleventh thousand: terrestrial. Considered from this light, the last word above hardly seems suitable for a high school class. To add to the difficulty of the lesson, one of the least frequently used words, *devour,* has a clue definition which I could not find in any dicitonary.

   A reminder that one cannot always rely on these word counts of printed material for TESL purposes is in the words *nought* and *zero,* which are listed in the seventh and sixth thousandths, respectively, in the Thorndike and Lorge count. Of course *nought* is British and would not be used frequently by Americans, and *zero* is rarely spelled out in print. This instance demonstrates that caution and common sense must be used in applying information from any frequency count.

   After considering the dangers to be avoided in promoting a new teaching device, I would like to close with some positive advice: When you work up a lesson which really clicks, use it to the full advantage of your students. Then count to ten slowly and do your homework. Before you use it again, or suggest it to someone else, first check its fundamental philosophy and then make sure you have not been carried away by the method and so introduced new problems. Above all, determine the area in language teaching where your device does the most good and remember that you don't have a cure-all for the whole field of ESL. When your new idea passes these tests, you can join the ranks of those who have contributed to TESL.

TENSE USES IN ENGLISH
by Alice C. Pack
Uses of the Present Tense

Tense (present) + Verb

1. **Perception or feelings of state or condition at moment of speaking.**

   Examples: *see, hope, hear, smell, feel, seem, look, want, remember, forget, prefer, appear.*

   Sentence examples: He seems distressed.
   I forget his name.
   I want something to eat.
   I remember the facts now.
   The cheese smells bad.
   The hamburger tastes delicious.

2. **Ability.**

   Sentence examples: She swims very well.
   I teach music.
   Mary plays the piano, but John plays the trombone.
   He jumps over three feet.

3. **Customary or habitual action.**

   Time expression used with the action: *annually, always, every day, usually, rarely, often, frequently, occasionally, sometimes, never.*

   Sentence examples: I often go to town.
   John rarely comes to see me.
   He usually attends the meetings.
   He frequently swims at four o'clock.
   He jogs every morning.
   He comes all the time.

4. **General truths.**

   Sentence examples: The administration sets the fees.
   The planets revolve around the sun.
   Water freezes at O° Centigrade.
   The moon circles around the earth.

5. **Future time.**

   Examples: *leave, begin, arrive, come, start, get back, go play, sing, drive, speak.*

   Use with future time expressions such as: *tomorrow, next week, next summer, Monday, Tuesday, etc., in January, in February etc., at 8 o'clock, before 6 o'clock.*

   Sentence examples: We leave tomorrow
   The train arrives at ten tonight.
   James starts his trip next week.
   Mary gets home in the morning.

Tense (present) + have + past participle + verb

1. **Activities which began in the past and continue up to the moment of speaking.**
   (and will probably extend beyond this time.)
   Examples: I have listened to the choir broadcast for years.
   We have known these students for a long time.
   I have always liked that girl.
   She has been in Tonga since she left here.

2. **Activities that have existed or occurred sometime before the time of speaking, but the exact time is not always indicated.**
   Frequency words such as *several times, often, at least, etc.* may indicate one or more times, but the exact time is not always indicated.
   Examples: I have read that book several times.
   She has written three essays.
   This is one of the best assemblies I've ever attended.
   She has been at CCH since last September.
   I've been in ELI far too long.

3. **Activities completed a relatively short time before the time of speaking.**
   "Just" is often used to indicate or emphasize this recent time.
   Examples: I have just finished my last assignment.
   They have just arrived.
   I've eaten already.
   They have just returned from a trip to the Orient.
   We've heard the news.
   I haven't heard from my parents recently.

4. **Activities completed in the past but closely connected with future or present events.**

   Examples: I have received some money from my parents so I can buy
   some new clothes.
   She has studied all day so she can relax now.
   She's completed all her assignments, so she won't have to go
   to class tomorrow.
   He has passed the test so he can go to Freshman English
   next semester.

5. **Used with questions or statements with yet or ever.**
   (to indicate completion before the present time or to indicate recent completion.)
   use never only with affirmative.
   ever with either negative or affirmative.

   Examples: Haven't you ever been there?
   He has never been there.
   Hasn't he ever met her?
   He's never met her.
   Has she come yet?
   Have you had lunch yet?
   Have you ever been there before?
   Has he met her?

Tense (present) + be + -ing + Verb

1. **Activities in actual progress at the moment of speaking.**

   Examples:　Mary is watching television.
   　　　　　　John is swimming in the pool.
   　　　　　　The movie is playing now.
   　　　　　　Mr. Jones is speaking now.
   　　　　　　She is listening to the concert.

2. **Activities that began a while before and will continue a while after the moment of speaking.**　(Not necessarily taking place at moment of speaking.)

   Examples:　I'm having a lot of trouble this semester.
   　　　　　　The newspaper is presenting a series of John's articles.
   　　　　　　He's doing biological research.
   　　　　　　She is teaching a course in English at the college.
   　　　　　　The office is collecting funds for the Aloha Center.
   　　　　　　They're having a lovely courtship.

3. **Future activities.**

   Often used with time expressions indicating future: *Tomorrow, next year, this evening, tonight, etc.*

   Examples:　We're going to the Mainland next summer.
   　　　　　　I'm having Bill and Mary over on Sunday.
   　　　　　　The girls in Dorm 1 are giving a party.
   　　　　　　We're leaving for Europe next week.
   　　　　　　I'm starting on a diet tomorrow.

Uses of the Past Tense

Tense (past) + Verb

1. **Past activities that existed or occurred.**　A definite time in the past is often indicated by time expressions such as *yesterday, last week, ten years ago, etc.*

   Examples:　She went home an hour ago.
   　　　　　　I thought I recognized her.
   　　　　　　The baby cried during the performance.
   　　　　　　We were sorry to hear of your illness.
   　　　　　　I received a package from home yesterday.
   　　　　　　Our team won the game.
   　　　　　　Mary played the piano while Jane sang.

2. **Past activities that existed or occurred over a period of time.**

   Examples:　They played for several hours.
   　　　　　　I was in Tonga during the interim semester.

He played rugby while he was in college.
He was in the army from 1968 to 1971.
I waited for her all afternoon.
During the semester break, the students went home.

3. **Past activities that existed or occurred at intervals.**
(Time expressions *just before,* and *already* are frequently used.)

Examples: She was usually late to the meetings.
He visited his mother from time to time.
She walked to school every day.
I heard the chimes regularly.

Tense (past) + have + past participle + Verb

1. Activities that occurred or existed before another activity in the past.
(Before is often used)
Examples: I had just finished my assignment when Bill arrived.
I had already finished my assignment when he invited me to complete my work in his office.
I had done my work before the bell rang.

2. Activities that occurred or existed before a point of time in the past.
Examples: I had never heard that story before. (Implies he had not heard it at a time in the past.)
She had studied English before she entered college

Tense (past) + be + -ing

1. Past activity in progress at a specific time in the past.
(Time expressions giving past point of time are generally used.)
Examples: When I saw her last, she was walking toward the library.
I was working in the lab when the tornado struck.
It was raining last night.
I was living in Samoa at that time.

2. Past activities in progress at the time of another activity in the past.
While is frequently used to introduce the be + ing clauses.
When is frequently used to introduce the other activity.
Examples: Mary was sleeping and John was studying.
(Notice the slight difference between this and Mary slept and John studied.)
John was swimming while Joe was playing tennis.

3. Past activities in progress at the same time.
Examples: I thought about her while I was walking home.
The blowout occurred while we were passing another car.
He was steering the boat when the wave turned it over.

ENGLISH IN KOREA
(continued from page 10)

indirect object, verb.[13] Thus, the TESOL teacher must spend a lot of time on sentence word order. I have found that this is one of the most difficult things for Koreans to master.

It is the nature of the Koreans to never give up in face of hard work. The TESOL teacher will be amazed by their desire to learn and try. He could be discouraged by their lack of confidence, but through an effort on both sides, this can be overcome.

[13] Anthony V. Vandesande and Francis Y.T. Park. *Myongdo's Korean '6 2 Part 1* (Seoul: Myngdo Institute, 1968) p. 67.

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PHONEMIC CHART

Summaries of English and Korean
Phonemic Systems

English	Korean

CONSONANTS

English:

p	t	k
b	d	g

f θ s š   h
v đ z ž

č
ǰ

m	n	ŋ

l
r

w   y

Korean:

p
pʰ   tʰ   kʰ
b   d   g

s s   h
sʰ

č
ǰ

m   n   ŋ

r

w   y

VOWELS

English:

i   u
ɨ   u
e   ə   o
ɛ   ɔ
æ

a

Korean:

i   ɨ   u
ɛ   ö   o
æ   a

DIPHTHONGS

English:

ai, au, oi

Korean:

ya, yɔ, yo, ua, uɔ, iae,
iɛ, ui, ɨi, uae, uɛ.

Letter to the Editor

It was gratifying to see my *Easy Crossword Puzzles* and *More Easy Crossword Puzzles* referred to in the Fall 1973 *TESL Reporter* in the article by Kelly Harris, Jr. Crossword puzzles can certainly be used in many ways in teaching English, and many people have developed methods which tie in with their teaching methods, but I do object when my puzzles are called "negative" and "detrimental."

Harris' first objection is that I did not provide a list of words for the students to work from. I am sorry that he does not have a copy of Thorndike and Lorge, *The Teacher's Word Book of 30,000 Words* (New York, 1944), but I am sure the University of Hawaii Library could supply him with a copy. Even that is not necessary, however, since any frequency count that turns up a list of the 500 most frequently used words will of necessity produce a nearly identical list. A Michael West list would do. Of course any frequency count applies only to the materials counted, and may not be suitable for different application, such as an ESL class, but it is almost impossible to know a little English without knowing the 500 most frequently used words. The students for whom my puzzles were developed were foreign students at the Universities of Miami and Houston who already had recognition vocabularies of several thousand words and had production vocabularies of well over 500 words. There-fore I did not consider lists necessary as aids to the students' recall and active practice of their vocabularies. Any observation of teams of three or four students discussing the possible solutions to the clues will prove that crossword puzzles do stimulate language use in a real situation.

The process of language learning involves mastering many language skills simultaneously. (See Bradford Arthur, *Teaching English to Speakers of English,* New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, 1973, p. 24) Making exercises based on one or two aspects of the language may be very handy for the teacher, but the students, if they are learning anything, will be learning several skills simultaneously. Therefore puzzles which ask not only for synonyms and antonyms, but also for morphological function words such as prepositions and conjunctions are only aiding the natural language learning process, and can in no way be labled "detrimental."

Many thanks to you, Mrs. Pack, for editing your stimulating magazine and keeping us in TESL informed of theories and applications useful to the daily practice of our profession.

Sincerely yours,

WALTER P. ALLEN
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University of Houston