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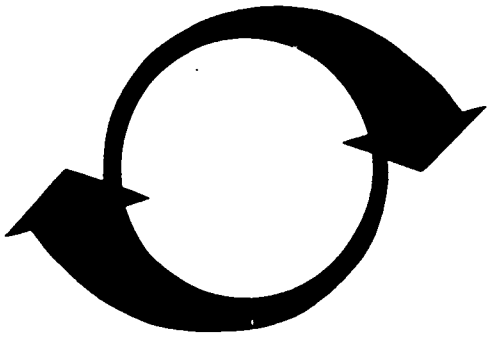
ABSTRACT

This manual is designed to assist teachers of adult education in the task of modifying commercially available ESL materials as a means of providing their students with sufficient, meaningful practice. The manual is divided into two parts. Part 1 is an introduction to the basic principles underlying sentence structure. This theory is considered essential for teaching the language effectively. Part 2 presupposes a working knowlege of the theory presented in Part 1, and provides practice in the application of the theories to the process of modifying typical ESL materials. A companion publication, "Placement Guide to Accompany 'Modifying English as a Second Language Materials,'" contains objectives for the manual, quizzes to measure the degree to which objectives have been realized, and means of locating the reader's appropriate point of entry into the course of study. It also allows the package to be used as a programmed self-study course. (Author/AM)

Modifying English as a Second Language Materials



(For Instructing ABE Students)

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FOREWORD

Instructors of English as a second language who are teaching in Adult Basic Education and other adult programs are often faced with the grim prospect of having to use materials that are not appropriate for their students. Either the texts are geared for college age international and foreign exchange students or, even less happily, they are written for children in the primary or secondary schools. Both in tone and in content, then, such materials are not suitable for the adult learner and his communication needs.

Typically, the adult E.S.L. student lives in an urban setting — a setting demanding special communication skills. For example, the adult must know how to apply for jobs which are often in areas for which he was not trained in his home country. He must be able to cope with people and situations (often of an emergency nature) in his new community. Thus, he needs to learn not only basic principles of sentence formation, but also pertinent vocabulary and idiomatic expressions which will be of immediate use to him in his daily task of interacting with the very real, here and now, world about him. One searches in vain for such content in the texts most often used for these students.

The teacher therefore finds himself in a dilemma: should he simply go along with the lesson material, irrelevant as it often is, or should he disregard it entirely and set out on his own? Neither alternative is particularly attractive nor necessarily effective. A third alternative is proposed in this manual: to adapt and supplement whatever the teacher may already be using. This manual, therefore, is designed to assist teachers in the task of modifying commercially available "English as a second language materials," as a means of providing their students with sufficient, meaningful practice.

Donald W. McKeon, assistant professor, Department of English, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, wrote the original manuscript from an outline he developed in cooperation with Robert Poczik, associate with the Unit on Basic Continuing Education. Anne Pizzicara, of the Claremont Media Center, New York City; Edwin A. Agresta, coordinator of Adult Basic Education at the Washington Irving Education Center, Schenectady, and Richard Henry, instructor at the same center, offered additional suggestions during the initial planning stages.

George K. Tregaskis, associate in the Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development, directed the entire project and prepared the manuscript for publication.

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MESSAGE TO THE INSTRUCTOR

A cursory examination of the contents of this publication will reveal that the subject of modifying English as a second language materials has been developed along two major divisions. Part One is an introduction to basic sentence structure; the principles underlying the formation of sentences. Part Two is a discussion of techniques for adaptation and supplementation.

It will be noticed that Part One is quite lengthy for a manual which purportedly is designed to aid the teacher in the task of modification. It is intended to be as explicit as possible, yet not complicated. It treats the familiar subject matter of "grammar" from a different vantage point which incorporates the linguistic research of the last 15 years. Perhaps the reader will be familiar with many or all of the concepts presented in Part One. If he is, he will be sympathetic to the view that one must understand the underlying properties of sentences in order to teach the language effectively. Little is gained if the teacher is satisfied to treat the sentences he presents for practice in an impromptu manner.

English, as any language, is an extremely complex system of knowledge: most of the mental processes that underlie the formation of sentences are far below the level of awareness. This state of affairs, of course, does not affect our use of the language. We easily interact with others, creating new sentences in various situations as well as understanding equally new sentences. But if one is to *teach* the language to others, he must become knowledgeable of the principles that he puts to use in order to guide his students in their learning. He must know what sentence structure is so that he can present it in an appropriate way, the simpler before the more complex, and so provide the kind of practice needed in the problem areas.

The teacher also needs to understand the basics of sentence structure in order to assess what needs to be changed in the text or texts he is using. This is fundamental. One cannot make adaptation without having a reference point. It is clear that in the present case, the reference point is the underlying structure of the language; hence, the necessity for Part One which deals largely with theory. Part Two presupposes a working knowledge of the facts in Part One and provides the reader with practice in applying the theories to the process of modifying typical E.S.L. materials. The reader is therefore encouraged to test his understandings of what he has read by completing the exercises contained in Part Two, as well as those in Part One.

Objectives for this manual, plus quizzes that measure the degree to which the objectives have been realized, are contained in a companion publication: *A Placement Guide to Accompany Modifying English as a Second Language Materials*. This companion publication can be used by the reader as a means of locating his appropriate point of entry into the course of study set forth in the following pages.

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LIST OF DIAGRAMS

PART ONE: ENGLISH SENTENCE STRUCTURE

I. INTRODUCTION: INSUFFICIENT VIEWS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

In order to come to an understanding of what sentence structure is, it may be helpful to point out two inadequate views of the sentence: (a) that it is merely a string of words, and (b) that it is a sequence of various parts of speech, or patterns of word classes.

I. A. A STRING OF WORDS

First of all, a sentence is not simply a group or string of words. Notice the difference between examples (1) and (2):

(1) Our dog ran after a cat.
(2) After ran dog cat our a.

The second example can hardly be considered more than a jumbled bunch of words, even though the meaning of each word is clear.

Obviously, there is more to sentence formation than merely stringing words together. There is an organization exhibited in example (1) which is definitely lacking in example (2).

I. B. PATTERNS OF WORD CLASSES (PARTS OF SPEECH)

Traditional grammarians have for centuries taught that the thousands of individual words of a language belong to a limited number of classes called *parts of speech*. Thus, in (1) there are examples of nouns (*dog*, *cat*), a verb (*ran*), determiners (*a* = an article, *our* = a possessive adjective) and a preposition (*after*).

Of course, example (2) also contains these very word classes. The crucial difference, it appears, is the order of the words. We can now compare the word order of these two examples in terms of word classes, as follows:

(3) For example (1):

Determiner	Noun	Verb	Preposition	Determiner	Noun
Our	dog	ran	after	a	cat.

(4) For example (2):

Preposition	Verb	Noun	Noun	Determiner	Determiner
After	ran	dog	cat	our	a.

One of the most common activities of grammar classes has been that of identifying the parts of speech in sentences (known as *parsing*). This description holds for many so-called "linguistic" grammar classes. In any event, the identification of word classes is an attempt to describe

sentences by referring to a set of categories (noun, verb, etc.) which are not actually mentioned in the sentences themselves. Lists of permissible sequences of word classes are then drawn up. They are often called *sentence patterns*.

Here are some more examples of such formulas, along with actual sentences illustrating them:

(5) Determiner Noun Verb Determiner Noun
The guy threw an egg.

(6) Determiner Noun Verb Adverb
My cousin returned yesterday.

(7) Noun Auxiliary Verb (Pro)noun
Joe can help us.

(8) Determiner Adjective Noun Verb Adjective
Some young fellow is sick.

It is apparent, however, that such sentence patterns can be quickly multiplied; indeed there is no reason to suppose that we can draw up a limited list of these formulas any more than we can list all the possible sentences themselves. Notice, for example, how easily we can expand the patterns given in (5) - (8):

(9) Determiner Noun Noun Verb Verb Determiner Noun
The guy Joe knows threw an egg.

(cf. (5))

(10) Determiner Adjective Noun Preposition Determiner Noun
My young cousin from the West

Verb Adverb
returned yesterday. (cf. (6))

(11) (Pro)noun Verb Noun Auxiliary Verb (Pro)noun
I think Joe can help us.

(cf. (7))

(12) Determiner Adjective Noun Verb Conjunction Adjective
Some young fellow is as sick

Conjunction (Pro)noun Auxiliary Verb
as he can be. (cf. (8))

How is it that a child, by the time he is ready to enter school, has the ability to utter sentences of such staggering variety? He certainly hasn't memorized all the possible sentence patterns, for these are so numerous as to put a strain on a computer. What he learns must be much more basic principles that are limited in number yet of great generality; i.e., abstract principles which determine the organization of words into sentences. The following description of these principles is based on the *transformational* theory of language of Noam Chomsky.

It is important that E.S.L. teachers be convinced that sentence structure is more basic than the enumeration of sequences of word categories. This abstract organization characteristic of sentence structure is so crucial to the teacher's understanding that we will discuss the main aspects of it in considerable detail in the following sections.

II. THE EXISTENCE OF PHRASES

II. A. INTRODUCTION

To see that a sentence is more than a pattern of word classes or parts of speech, consider the following examples:

(13) Maria and Carlos went to the dentist.
(14) My friend and her husband went to the dentist.
(15) Maria and her husband went to the dentist.

In example (13) the conjunction *and* joins two words of the same class—two nouns. Yet in example (14) *and* joins two sequences of words—determiner plus noun. However, in example (15) *and* does not join either two words of the same class or two similar sequences; that is, it joins a noun and a determiner plus noun. Why is it that (15) is an acceptable sentence to any native speaker of English, just as (13) and (14) are, whereas (16) is not? In (16), as in (15), *and* does not join similar sequences.

(16) *My friend and with Carlos went to the dentist.

(The reader will note that example (16) has been marked with an asterisk. This notation here and throughout the manual indicates to any native speaker of English an unacceptable sentence whether it is spoken or written.)

Thus, we cannot explain the use of the conjunction by referring only to the individual word classes or even to sequences of word classes.

We can, however, account for the fact that (13)—(15) are acceptable sentences while (16) isn't if we appeal to a more abstract level of sentence organization or structure. This level deals with *phrases*—groupings which incorporate various word classes.

In the first three examples, phrases of the same type are joined by *and;* in the fourth example, the phrases joined by *and* are not of the same type. We will discuss these and other types of phrases below.

Hence, we can describe the nature of conjunctions by appealing to the *phrase structure* of sentences: only phrases of the same type may be joined by *and.*

II. B. DEFINITION OF A PHRASE

We have referred to phrases rather informally. What exactly is a phrase?

A phrase is a restricted unit of words consisting of certain required and other optional word classes, arranged in a particular order. We will see later that there are specific principles that determine the formation of phrases, and ultimately of sentences, whether spoken or written.

A phrase, then, is not just any group of words that may occur together in a sentence. For instance, in example (17) it will be found that the first two words *my back* belong to one phrase but not the first three words, *my back has*, nor the second and third words, *back has*.

(17) My back has bothered me all day.

Notice that the first two words may be moved to the end of the sentence, along with some other changes, resulting in an acceptable sentence, example (18), but the first three words may not be so moved—example (19) is unacceptable.

(18) What has bothered me all day is my back.
(19) *What bothered me all day is my back has.

Likewise the last two words form a phrase but not the last three words. Proof of this comes from the fact that we may move the last two words in (17) to the front of the sentence, example (20), but not the last three words, example (21):

(20) All day my back has bothered me.
(21) *Me all day my back has bothered.

The reader may find the term *phrase* familiar to him. But it can be an elusive term. If it is unclear to the E.S.L. teacher what a *phrase* is, how much more so for the students. Therefore, our description of phrases that follows will be as explicit as possible.

II. C. TYPES OF PHRASES

In almost all cases, the phrases we will focus on will be named according to one particular word class that must occur; e.g., a *noun phrase* will contain a noun plus other optional elements; a *verb phrase* will contain a verb plus other optional elements. In describing each phrase we will refer informally to specific principles of organization, or *rules* of formation.

II. C. 1. NOUN PHRASES
II. C. 1. a. OVERVIEW

A noun phrase consists of a noun which, we can loosely say, is the center or focus of the phrase. Except for cases with proper nouns or pronouns, all noun phrases must also contain a determiner which precedes the noun. A determiner is itself a general word class that includes articles, demonstratives, possessive (adjectives) and quantity words like numerals.

In example (22) the noun phrase is complete without a determiner, but in example (23.a) it is not; so the sentence is unacceptable. Adding a determiner to the noun phrase, as in example (23.b), makes the sentence correct:

(22) Roberto is sleeping.
(23) (a) *Boy is sleeping.
(b) That boy is sleeping.

II. C. 1. b. THE DETERMINER

The determiner system in English is very complex. Space does not allow us to go into all the aspects. To give an overview of it, however, we present the following chart. The choice of determiner in large measure depends upon the kind of noun: either *count* or *non-count*. *Count* nouns are those that can be pluralized, like *boy* above. *Non-count* nouns cannot be pluralized. They may be either *mass* nouns like *milk*, *lumber*, *sand*, etc., they may be *abstract* nouns like *beauty*, *freedom*, *friendliness*, etc.

Varieties of Determiners

Type of Noun: →	Count		Non-Count
	Singular	Plural	
Type of Determiner: ↓			
1. Article			
a. Definite	*the*	*the*	*the*
b. Indefinite	*a(n)*	no form/*some* (unaccented, pronounced s'm)	no form/*some* (s'm)
2. Demonstrative	*this, that*	*these, those*	*this, that*
3. Possessive	*my, your, her, his, our, their, John's*, etc.	*my, your, her, his, our, their, John's*, etc.	*my, your, her, his, our, their, John's*, etc.
4. Quantity Word			
a. Numeral	*one*	*two, three, . . .*	(none)
b. Other	*some* (accented) *each, every*	*some, several, a few, many, all, a lot of*, etc.	*some, a little, much* (with negative verb forms), *a lot of, a bit of*, etc.

CHART 1

The notation "no form" for the indefinite article occurring with plural count and non-count nouns refers to the absence of an article in cases where the general sense of the noun phrase is intended:

(24) Eggs are becoming extremely expensive.
(25) Muriel enjoys coffee in the morning.

If, instead, a limited or specific amount is the sense intended, then for the same types of noun phrases, the indefinite *some*, pronounced s'm, with little accent, is used:

(26) I want some eggs.
(27) Would you like some coffee?

For singular count nouns, *a(n)* is used for both the general and the specific sense: (28) illustrates the former, (29) the latter:

(28) An egg is full of protein.
(29) I'd like an egg now.

Some of the complexities of our determiner system can be seen in the above examples. Even the terms *indefinite* and *definite* article are deceiving. In fact, as already illustrated, there are various identifying functions of these articles, as there are of the other determiners.

Consider the so-called definite article. Basically, its use is dependent upon the speaker's and hearer's understanding of their environment. If the speaker thinks a particular object is known to the hearer; i.e., that it has been previously identified, then he will use the definite article, rather than the indefinite one. It may be that the speaker has identified the object in a previous sentence, as in this sequence:

(30) I was watching a movie on T.V. last night. The movie was a re-run.

Or, its use may be occasioned by their common knowledge:

(31) Where did you put the ashtray?

Or, finally, the object may be considered unique in reference:

(32) The sun is bright today.

Since almost every second language learner has some difficulty with determiners (articles in particular), it should be clear that the teacher must understand the basis of the system in order to give students appropriate practice as well as needed explanation.

II. C. 1. c. OTHER ELEMENTS IN NOUN PHRASES

Noun phrases may contain optional elements like an adjective or verbal form between the determiner and the noun:

(33) A little boy is crying.
(34) That broken vase was expensive.
(35) The sickening smell is coming from over there.

There may also be several optional elements present in a noun phrase, as in the following:

(36) My old dilapidated green car finally broke down.

These optional elements expand the basic noun phrase, adding semantic information to, or modifying, what is given by the required components: the determiner and the noun.

We can represent this structure with the following diagrams:

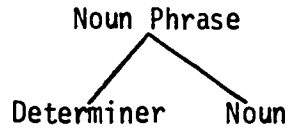


Diagram 1

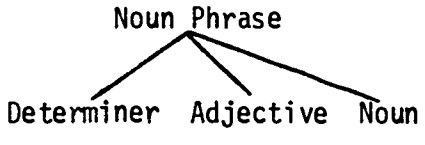


Diagram 2

Diagram 1 represents a basic noun phrase; i.e., one with the required elements only, while Diagram 2 represents a somewhat expanded noun phrase with an optional element, an adjective.

Diagram 1 can be read as follows: a noun phrase consists of a determiner and a noun following it, because both the determiner and the noun are traced directly back to the noun phrase. Therefore, the determiner and noun together *are* a noun phrase; similarly for Diagram 2, the difference in this case being that there is an optional adjective as part of the noun phrase.

There are other kinds of optional elements in a noun phrase, expanding it in one or another way. One such element is itself a phrase—a prepositional phrase, underlined in the following examples.

(37) The doctor from the clinic is here.
(38) Henry is a man of many talents.

The prepositional phrase contains a noun phrase following the preposition, schematically:

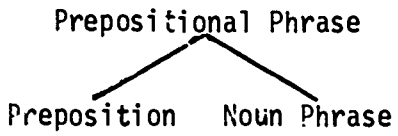


Diagram 3

Thus, the noun phrases in (37)-(38) would have the following structure:

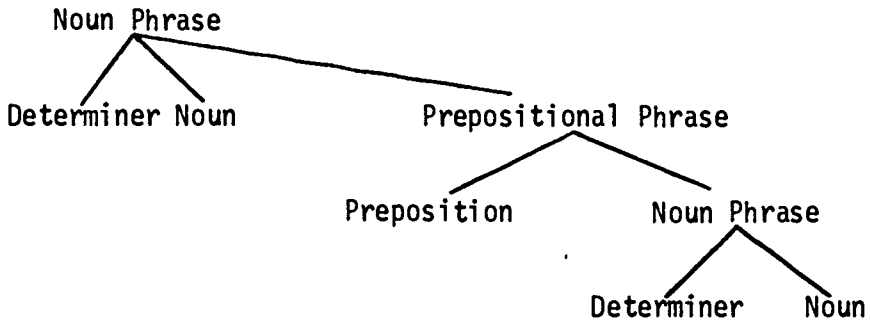


Diagram 4

Here we begin to see a fundamental quality of phrase structure: that there are levels of phrases, that is, phrases contained in other phrases.

There are other kinds of optional elements in a noun phrase, expanding the basic phrase in one way or another. We will discuss another important kind of expansion in Section IV. A.

In summary up to this point, a noun phrase has the structure of a determiner plus a noun as required elements, but if the noun is a proper noun or pronoun, there is no determiner. There may be optional elements of various kinds, expanding the basic noun phrase in certain ways. We looked at single word modifiers, adjectives and verbals, occurring between the determiner and the noun, as well as prepositional phrases following the noun.

Exercise:

Identify the uses of the determiners underlined in the following sentences:

(a) The table which I bought is an antique.
(b) That boy won a prize.

Answer:

In (a) the definite article is used because the following relative clause identifies the noun (see discussion of relative clauses in Section IV. A. 2. pp. 26-27).

The indefinite article in (a) has the general sense; the noun phrase refers to a general class of objects.

In (b) the demonstrative *that*, like the definite article, identifies uniquely the object (*boy*); *that* and *this* are like "pointing" definite articles.

The indefinite article in (b) has the specific sense; the noun phrase refers to a *certain* object.

II. C. 2. VERB PHRASES
II. C. 2.a. OVERVIEW

In the following examples, the underlined parts are verb phrases:

(39) Grandpa stays here periodically.
(40) He stayed yesterday.
(41) He is staying.
(42) He had stayed voluntarily.
(43) He has been staying lately.
(44) He could have stayed last week.

Obviously, each verb phrase contains a verb. Some form of *stay* is present throughout. But are there any other required elements in these verb phrases? Notice that the verb phrase in example (41), an acceptable sentence, is the only one without some adverbial element. Thus, we can say that adverbs are not required in a verb phrase, in the same sense that a verb is. Extracting the verb from any of the above sentences would result in a non-sentence, but this would not be true if any of the adverbs were omitted.

II. C. 2. b. THE AUXILIARY

Notice the various auxiliary forms in (41)-(44). In (41) there is a form of *be* followed by the *-ing* form of the verb *stay*. In (42) there is a form of *have* followed by the *-en* (past participle) form of the verb *stay*. In (43) there is a form of *have* immediately followed by the *-en* form of *be*; moreover, the form of *be* (in *been*) is immediately followed by the *-ing* form of the verb *stay*.

The auxiliary *have* must be followed by the *-en* form of the next auxiliary (*be*) or the main verb itself, if there is no auxiliary *be* following *have*. In addition, the auxiliary *be* will be followed by the *-ing* form of the verb. (We are considering only *active voice* verb phrases here, where the *subject* of the verb is generally the *agent* of the action; see p. 13 for discussion of *passive* verb phrases.) Notice that we cannot have any other combinations:

(45) (a) *Marta has stay.
(b) *Marta has staying.
(46) (a) *Fran is stay.
(b) *Fran is stayed.

Linguists have therefore grouped *have* plus *-en* together, as well as *be* plus *-ing*, and formulated a particular rule (see Section V) which attaches the *-en* or *-ing* form to the *following* auxiliary or verb. We may represent the operation of this rule in the following chart:

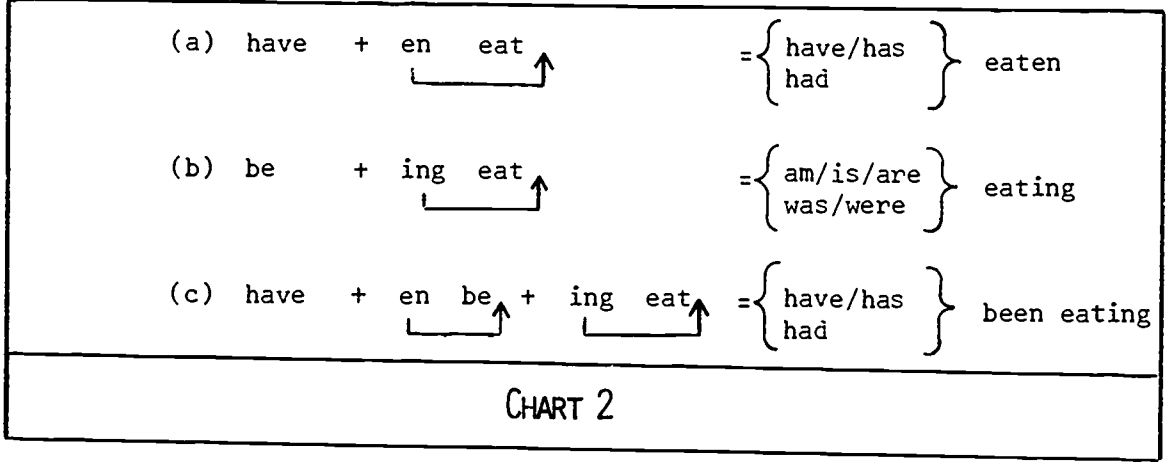


CHART 2

Thus, *have* plus *-en* is a two-part auxiliary which signals the perfect aspect of the verb, while *be* plus *-ing* is a two-part auxiliary which signals the continuous aspect of the verb. (More on the meaning of the various auxiliaries will be given below in this section.)

Now what about examples (39) and (40)? These sentences do not have the auxiliaries present in (41)-(44). Yet each contains an obligatory element in addition to the verb itself. In (39) there is the present tense *-s* ending to the verb, while in (40), there is the past tense *-ed* ending. These tense endings are obviously necessary. But, observe that they also occur in the verb phrases in (41)-(43). In (41) and (43), the present tense ending occurs on the first auxiliary form, *is* and *has*, while in (42), the past tense ending occurs on the first auxiliary form, *had*. Let us consider the tense marking, present or past, to be part of the auxiliary, although like *-ing* and *-en*, the tense itself is not a separate word.

That leaves example (44). If we consider *could* to be the past tense of *can*, then we can make the generalizations that the auxiliary is a required part of all verb phrases, and that it must be minimally represented by the tense.

Following the analysis for (41)-(43), as summarized in Chart 2, we can say that the tense is also attached to the following auxiliary form (the first auxiliary in the verb phrase), or to the verb itself if there is no other auxiliary; the next chart summarizes the complete operation of the rule mentioned above, thereby forming the verb forms in (39)-(44):

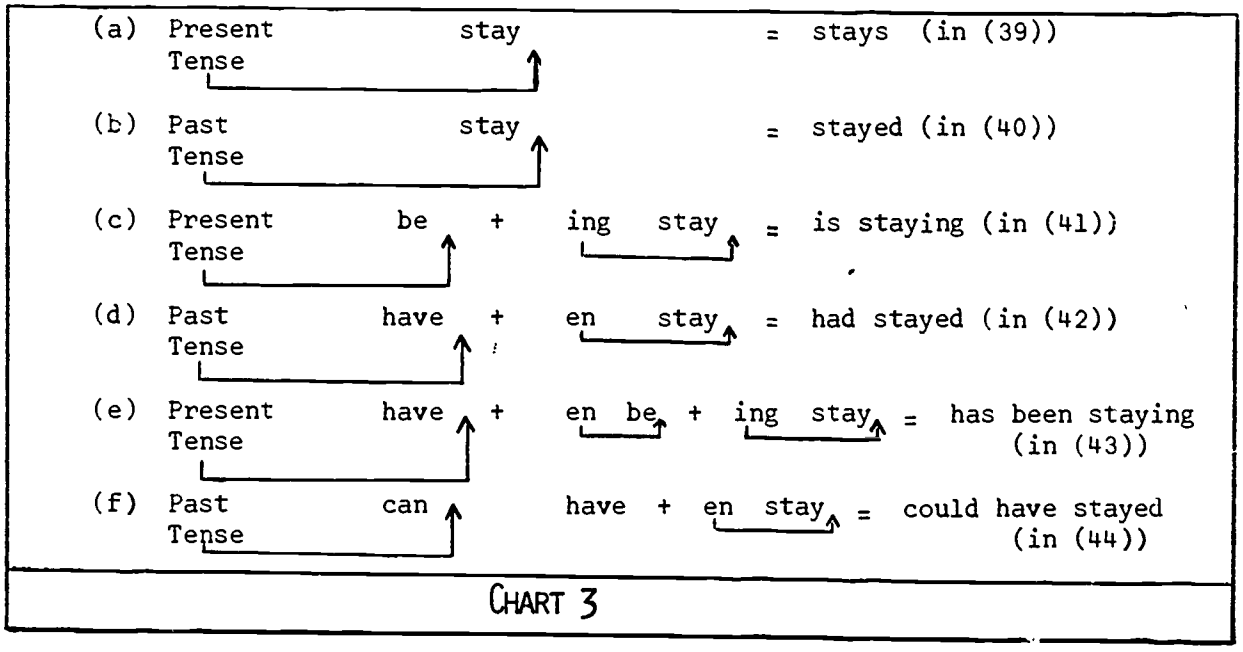


CHART 3

Just as we consider *could* the past of *can*, we also consider *would* the past of *will*, *might* the past of *may*, and *should* the past of *shall* (*shall* being a modal auxiliary mostly limited to questions in every day usage); *must* does not have any different past form. Accordingly, we may consider *can*, *will*, *may*, *shall* and *must* as present, or perhaps nonpast, forms, leaving aside the question of the tense-time relationship for the moment (see the following subsection).

Exercise:

Identify the various parts of the auxiliary in the following sentences:

(a) Chan was looking for a job.
(b) Miss Liu has been keeping busy.
(c) The doctor should have given you a prescription.

Answer:

In (a) the past tense attached to *be* is irregular in form, but predictably *be* is followed by *-ing* attached to the next form, the verb.

In (b) the present tense is attached to *have* plus *-en* on the following form (*been*), followed by *be* (in *been*) plus the *-ing* form of the verb.

In (c) the modal *should* can be considered a past tense of *shall*, in which case past tense is attached to *shall*; and so forth.

II. C. 2. b. (1) NOTES ON THE RELATIONSHIP OF TENSE AND TIME

As these last examples would indicate, we are using the term *tense* in a formal sense, not in a semantic sense. Thus, we can call *could* the past of *can*. The following sentence is ambiguous due to the dual interpretation of *could*.

(47) Carlos could swim for a mile.

The past tense element in *could* may signal past time, thus indicating past action. On the other hand, the past tense element in *could* may signal a change in mood, namely, a lessening of probability. Thus the ambiguity is resolved if we extend sentence (47) in one of two ways:

(48) (a) Carlos could swim for a mile when he was seventeen.
(b) Carlos could swim for a mile if he had to.

And so it is with various past forms of modal auxiliaries; very often they do not signal a corresponding change in time. Notice in the following examples, present tense is clearly marked but the time that is signaled is not present.

(49) Mark leaves tomorrow.
(50) Aldo is coming over later.

The relationship between the formal signaling of tense and the resultant semantic interpretation is quite complex. Often there is more than a change of time indicated when a tense is changed; compare the following two sentences:

(51) (a) I am going to see a dentist.
(b) I was going to see a dentist.

The second one signals not only a change in time, but also a change in the mood of the speaker; i.e., a change of intention. We can see, then, a general characteristic of the English auxiliary system, namely, that there is no one-to-one relationship between tense and time.

These examples serve to point out an even more pervasive characteristic of language in general—that there is no simple or direct relationship between the form of sentences and their meaning. In example (47) above, we saw that one form, the form of the whole sentence, signaled two different meanings. This is an example of *ambiguity* in language.

The very opposite relationship between form and meaning may, and often does, result. Two or more forms (different sentences) may have one meaning as in the following:

(52) (a) Tina brought up some important issues.
(b) Some important issues were brought up by Tina.

Sentences (52.a) and (52.b) show the relation of *paraphrase*, or sentence synonymy.

Thus, the complex relation between form and meaning in language is exemplified by these two phenomena, ambiguity and paraphrase, as diagramed below:

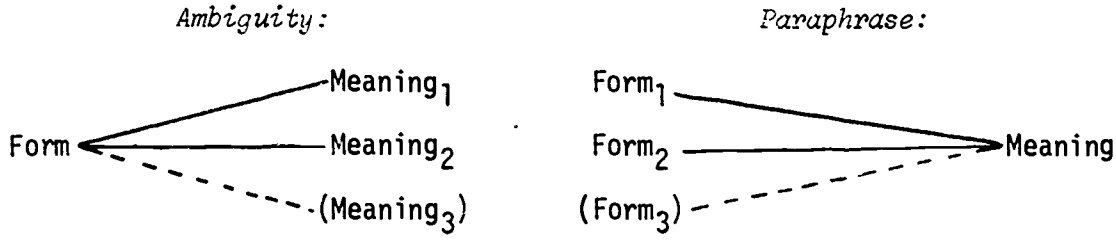


Diagram 5

We will have more to say on the significance of this complexity at the end of the chapter in Section V.

Sentence (52.b) is significant for another reason. The auxiliary contains an element that we did not consider above. Notice that there is a form of *be (were)* plus an *-en* form attached to the immediately following word, the verb *bring*. This *be* plus *-en* element signals a *passive* verb phrase. We will also consider further the passive construction below in Section V.

II. C. 2. b. (2) SUMMARY

The following chart summarizes the auxiliary system with respect to both form and meaning. The passive form is included in A. 2 to show its relation to the whole.

Summary Chart of the English Auxiliary System

A. Forms

1. All Active Verb Forms (with tense and modal constant)

Tense	Modal	Perfect Aspect	Continuous Aspect	Main Verb	
PRES	may	have + en	be + ing	work	= may have been working
PRES	may	have + en		work	= may have worked
PRES	may		be + ing	work	= may be working
PRES	may			work	= may work
PRES		have + en	be + ing	work	= have/has been working (Present perfect continuous)
PRES		have + en		work	= have/has worked (Present perfect)
PRES			be + ing	work	= am/is/are working (Present continuous)
PRES				work	= work/works (Simple present)

2. All Passive Verb Forms (with tense and modal constant)

Tense	Modal	Perfect Aspect	Continuous Aspect	Passive	Main Verb	
PAST	can	have + en		be + en	show	= could have been shown
PAST	can			be + en	show	= could be shown
PAST		have + en		be + en	show	= had been shown (Past perfect passive)
PAST			be + ing	be + en	show	= was being shown (Past continuous passive)
PAST				be + en	show	= was shown (Simple past passive)

B. Basic Meaning/Uses

Modals (PRES)	have + en (PRES)	be + ing (PRES)	be + en (PRES)	Verb (PRES)
will: future; intention may: permission (pres/future); possibility (pres/future), (past, w. have + en) can: ability (pres/fut); permission (pres/fut); shall: advice (in questions only) must: necessity (pres/fut); strong possibility or assumption (pres), (past, w. have + en) (have to = must, but not have to = lack of necessity)	action or condition continuing up to present; action in unspecified past affecting the present	action taking place at present moment or during present period of time; immediate future (usually w. verbs of travel); w. be going to, future	same as all active verbs but w. subject as semantic object of verb; focus on semantic object or "receiver" of action, or on action itself	habitual or general action; expresses a truth, fact or condition
(PAST)	(PAST)	(PAST)	(PAST)	(PAST)
would: "past" future; hypothetical action, situation; past habit; polite request might: possibility (pres/fut), (past, w. have + en) could: ability (past; remote past in affirmative statements); possibility (hypothetical w. have + en) should: advice (pres/fut); obligation (pres/fut; unfulfilled w. have + en); expectation (pres/fut) (ought to & had better = should)	action or condition occurring prior to (or up to) another point in past	action taking place while another event occurred in past	same as all active verbs but with same focus given above	completed action or condition, usually w. a definite time expression

The auxiliary system, although regular in form, is nevertheless extremely complicated, especially in respect of the form-meaning relationship. Thus, a good deal of the teacher's time should be spent on providing appropriate instruction and practice with these structures. Regardless of their level of proficiency, it always seems that students need additional practice with the auxiliary and verb forms in English. The teacher must, therefore, know the system well if he is going to guide his students.

Having considered the structure of the auxiliary, we will now examine other aspects of the verb phrase.

II. C. 2. c. OTHER ELEMENTS IN VERB PHRASES
II. C. 2. c. (1) THE NEGATIVE ELEMENT

To begin our description of other aspects of verb phrases in English, let's observe where the element *not* occurs in the following negative sentences:

(53)	(a)	Ken cannot take a vacation.	(can't)
	(b)	The kids have not returned yet.	(haven't)
	(c)	Mr. Shastri is not going to Bombay.	(isn't)
	(d)	We will not be leaving with the group.	(won't)
	(e)	Guillermo has not been feeling well.	(hasn't)

In each example, *not* appears after the first auxiliary in the verb phrase, whether in its full form (in emphatic negative sentences) or in its contracted form, *n't*.

But what if there is no auxiliary (besides the tense) to attach the negative element to? (54) is no longer acceptable in contemporary English.

(54) *He cares not for the music.

Instead, a form of the auxiliary *do* (present forms *do/does* or past form *did*) appears in such negative sentences:

(55) He doesn't care for the music.

Notice again that *not* appears after the first auxiliary, but that *does* itself contains the tense marking. Thus, the auxiliary *do* occurs in the auxiliary phrase to bear the tense in case there is no other auxiliary to do so; in negative sentences, then, *not* occurs after the first (tensed) auxiliary.

The use of the purely functional auxiliary *do* is not commonly paralleled in other languages. Hence, the formation of negative statements and questions (see Section III below) poses a great problem for beginning students; that is, they are more likely to say something like the following instead of (55):

(56) *He no care(s) for the music.

II. C. 2. c. (2) NOUN PHRASES AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Sentences like the following contain a familiar element in the verb phrase:

(57) Roger found the file promptly.
(58) Your answer surprised me.

In these verb phrases are noun phrases, which, for the verbs, are required elements. Traditionally, verbs like *find* and *surprise* have been classified as *transitive* verbs, while verbs like *stay* in examples (39)-(44), p. 9 have been classified as *intransitive* (not taking noun phrases after them).

Again, these sentences serve to show an extremely important feature of phrase structure: a phrase may be contained *within* another phrase; that is, there is a *hierarchy* to phrase structure. This can be shown schematically as follows:

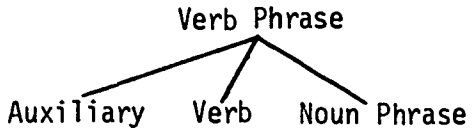


Diagram 6

This diagram can be read as follows: a verb phrase consists of an auxiliary, a verb, and a noun phrase. That is, the verb phrase is a more general phrase that incorporates these other phrases. Here we can see the hierarchy of structure: phrases within other phrases.

This feature of language structure is not peculiar to English. The hierarchical arrangement of phrases is a general property of any human language. Thus, understanding this property is fundamental to understanding how we form sentences.

It will be found that the noun phrases contained in verb phrases exhibit the same kind of structure as those we considered in Section I—noun phrases that are on the same level as verb phrases. (Noun phrases of the latter type are called *subject* noun phrases, while those of the former type are called *object* noun phrases; see Section III for a discussion of these notions).

Now observe the following pair of sentences.

(59) (a) The teller handed an application to Tony.
(b) The teller handed Tony an application.

Again, the examples in (59) exhibit the paraphrase relation. The verb phrase in (59.a) has a noun phrase plus a *prepositional phrase*, another phrase within a (verb) phrase.

In (59.b) we see that the noun phrase contained in the prepositional phrase in (59.a) is located to the left of the other noun phrase, *an application*, resulting in two noun phrases in the verb phrase. In traditional grammar, the first such noun phrase in (59.b), *Tony*, is called the *indirect object*, while the second, *an application*, is called the *direct object*. These terms, like the term *subject*, refer to the *function* of these noun phrases in terms of a relation to another category. In this case the two noun phrases function as objects of the verb.

Thus in the following configuration, the first noun phrase functions as the indirect object, whereas the second functions as the direct object:

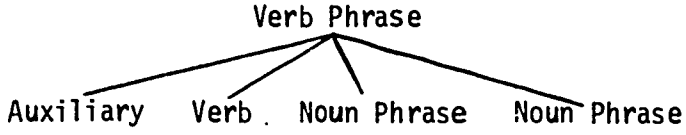


Diagram 7

Equivalent to Diagram 7 is Diagram 8 which represents the organization of the verb phrase in example (59.a):

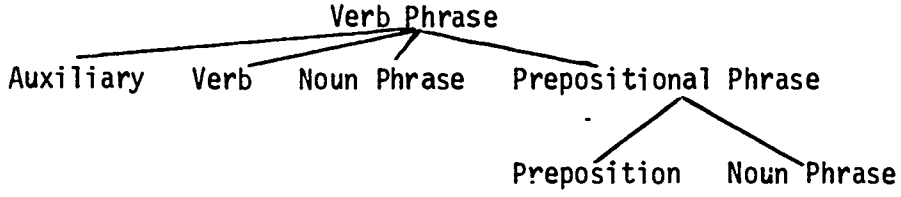


Diagram 8

The noun phrase belonging to the prepositional phrase is the indirect object of the verb.

Teachers will find that many beginning and intermediate students have difficulty in placing the indirect object in relation to the direct object.

II. C. 2. c. (3) ADVERBIAL PHRASES

We have talked about adverbs but not specifically about *adverbial phrases*. This type of phrase, as mentioned above, may or may not be present in a verb phrase.

What is its internal structure? As seen in examples (39)-(44), p. 9, the adverbial phrase may consist of an adverb only. Often the adverb is accompanied by another kind of word, an *intensifier*, which functions as a modifier of the adverb. The underlined words below are intensifiers:

(60) Miguel thought very carefully.
(61) Maria misses home rather badly.
(62) You speak too softly.

Adverbial phrases and adverbs are usually classified according to semantic type—*place, manner, duration, time, frequency,* and *reason* being the main types. Those above are examples of manner adverbial phrases.

Adverbial phrases may vary in internal structure, containing prepositional phrases instead of an optional intensifier plus adverb. These prepositional phrases may be classified according to the semantic categories stated above:

(63) place: We stayed at the motel.
(64) manner: Alex left in a hurry.
(65) duration: The babysitter watched the kids for two hours.
(66) time: Wendy worked in the morning.
(67) reason: I stayed for John's sake.

Frequently, adverbial phrases consist of a limited number of adverbs whose position varies more than the other types of adverbial phrases. For instance, frequency adverbs like *often* generally precede the verb (after the first auxiliary, if there is one), in addition to following the verb in the verb phrase.

(68) Marta often keeps the records on her desk.

In general, adverbial phrases may be moved around in a sentence; for example,time adverbials may be moved to the beginning of a sentence, as in (69); manner adverbials may be moved before the verb, as in (70):

(69) About a week ago John got a job.
(70) Mrs. Sanchez quietly left the room.

Although there is some variation to the order of these adverbial phrases, if two or more of them occur in a single verb phrase, they typically occur in the sequence given in examples (63)-(67), following any noun phrase objects.

(71) Marita visits the day-care center on Third Avenue regularly for two hours on Fridays for the experience.

Here in (71) we can see how a verb phrase may be expanded by the addition of different adverbial phrases. (Further kinds of expansion will be taken up in Section IV. B.)

The verb phrase in (71) has this structure:

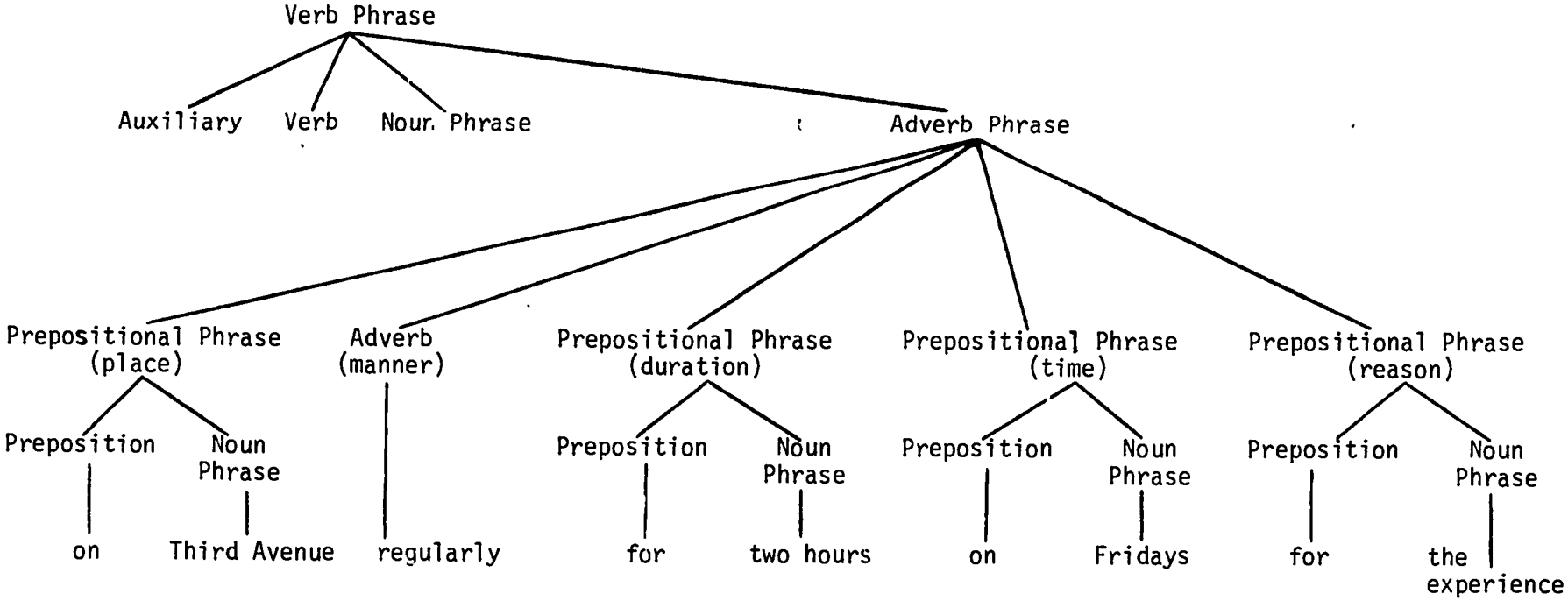


Diagram 9

Here is another area where many non-native speakers, including speakers of languages as diverse as Spanish and Chinese, have certain difficulties in placing these adverbial phrases in sentences, especially in relation to the direct object noun phrase.

II. C. 2. d. THE VERB *be* AND ADJECTIVE PHRASES

We will treat *be* as a separate class of verbs, for various reasons. One is that another kind of phrase may occur with *be* in the verb phrase, as can be seen in these examples:

(72) Charlie was rather angry.
(73) John's supervisor is sick to his stomach.

The underlines phrases are *adjective phrases*. Adjective phrases, like one kind of adverbial phrase, may consist of an optional intensifier plus an adjective, as in (72). In (73) the adjective phrase is expanded, with a prepositional phrase following the adjective.

Of course, noun phrases may be part of the verb phrase with *be*, as in (74), but they are interpreted differently from noun phrases following other verbs.

(74) Juan is a student.

The noun phrase in the verb phrase serves to identify the subject noun phrase, *Juan*.

Finally, as is true of other verb phrases, adverbial phrases of place for the most part may occur in phrases with *be*.

(75) Nobody is here.
(76) The boss is at his desk.

There is a small class of verbs, called *linking verbs*, which are similar to *be* in that they take adjective phrases. However, the explanation for this construction is beyond the scope of this manual.

(77) You seem distant.
(78) Mr. Gonzales appears confident.

It is customary to think of sentences with the verb be as being simpler than sentences with other verbs. One invariably finds that the first lessons in an introductory E.S.L. text concern the verb be almost exclusively. However, as we have seen, it is not necessarily true that sentences with be are simpler. In fact, the opposite can more plausibly be argued: that such sentences are harder for the student to form correctly because be as the main verb behaves differently from other verbs. First, the auxiliary do does not occur in the question and negative statement constructions, contrary to the formation of these kinds of sentences with all other verbs. Secondly, the verb phrase expansions with be as the main verb are unique to this verb. Even linking verbs do not take the same full range of constructions that be does.

What *is* "elementary" about sentences with *be* is the basic utility of forming sentences and questions that refer to matters of identification of self, others, and objects. But this kind of simplicity should not be confused with structural simplicity (see Part Two, I. B. 2).

Exercise:

What problems do you forsee in presenting the following sentences together for practice?

(a) The manager is interesting.
(b) That clerk is listening.
(c) This book seems fascinating.

Answer:

There is a mixture of verb phrase constructions: (a) and (c) contain adjectives in *-ing* form, while (b) contains the present continuous (*be* plus *-ing*) auxiliary of the verb. Thus, in this respect only (a) and (c) are similar. Secondly, the corresponding negative sentences for (a) and (b) are formed the same way--*not* is placed after the tensed form of *be*, whether *be* is an auxiliary, as in (b), or the main verb, as in (a). But for (c), the corresponding negative is formed differently, with *do* being inserted to bear the tense and *not* being placed after it.

(d) The manager isn't interesting.
(e) That clerk isn't listening.
(f) This book doesn't seem fascinating.

In this respect only (a) and (b) are similar. We would reach the same conclusion if we studied the corresponding questions (see the next section).

Therefore, this is an unhappy mixture of structures so far as the verb phrases are concerned. We will discuss the importance of presenting unified constructions in Part Two.

III. THE SENTENCE

III. A. DEFINITION

The basic structure of a sentence should be apparent by now. What is essential to all of the following sentences is the occurrence of a noun phrase and a verb phrase, in that order.

(79) My toe itches.
(80) These alley cats are bothersome.
(81) The nurse will call the emergency room.
(82) The class gave Henrietta a lot of difficulty during the first class last week.
(83) The little boys in the next apartment may be playing stickball outside now.
(84) Fred's bright pink shirt on the line could easily have been blown away by the strong wind this morning.

These sentences display an increasing degree of expansion of noun phrases and verb phrases, but all have the basic structure diagramed below:

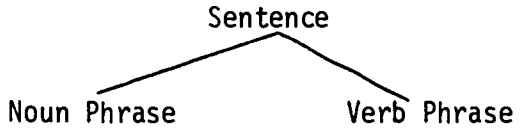


Diagram 10

According to the manner of interpretation of the diagram (see p. 7), both the noun phrase and the verb phrase form a sentence. The noun phrase immediately under *Sentence* functions as the *subject* of the sentence. Compare the position of this noun phrase with the direct object noun phrase given in Diagram 6, p. 17. Filling out Diagram 10 with the structure given in Diagram 6, we get the following:

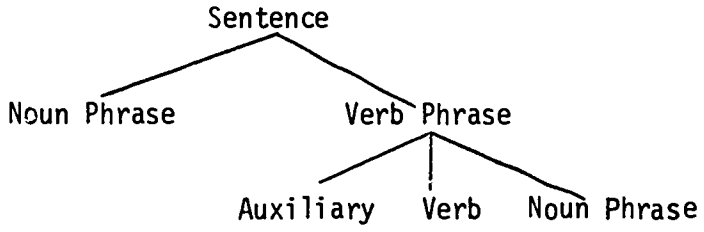


Diagram 11

Notice that the subject noun phrase traces back to *Sentence*, whereas the object noun phrase traces back to *Verb Phrase*. This diagram represents, roughly, the structure of sentence (81).

A sentence, then, is a structure whose essential components are a noun phrase (functioning as *subject*) and a verb phrase (functioning as *predicate*). We will consider apparent exceptions to this principle below in Section V.

III. B. VARIETIES OF FORM

Consider the following sentences:

(85) Is Julio feeling pain?
(86) Has Kim been waiting for the next bus?
(87) Will William be on the subway?
(88) Were the passengers afraid during the blackout?

These are questions obviously. Notice, though, that each one has a subject noun phrase and a verb phrase. What is different about these is that part of the auxiliary—the first element of it—is moved around the subject noun phrase. (Compare these questions with corresponding statements,

in order to determine the formation of questions.) If a tensed form of *be* occurs as the main verb, as in example (88), then that form is moved around the subject noun phrase. Let's call (85)-(88) examples of *simple* or *yes-no questions*.

Now, consider this question:

(89) Did Johnny leave a note?

If the foregoing analysis is correct, then the associated statement would be (90).

(90) Johnny did leave a note.

Sentence (90) is, of course, acceptable, provided that it is pronounced with a strong accent or stress on the auxiliary *did*. The resulting interpretation contains a note of contrast, absent in (91):

(91) Johnny left a note.

Observe that in (89), as well as in (90), the auxiliary *do* bears the tense, while in (91) the verb itself bears it. Since in the formation of questions, the first auxiliary in the verb phrase (the one bearing the tense), is moved around the subject noun phrase, there is a problem in cases like (91) where there is no auxiliary besides the tense. Example (92), it is noted, is not an acceptable question in English:

(92) *Left Johnny a note?

Therefore, in the absence of any other auxiliary element to bear the tense, *do* is placed within the auxiliary to do so in the formation of questions.

Now, compare the following questions with (85)-(89):

(93) Where is Julio feeling pain?
(94) How long has Kim been waiting for the next bus?
(95) When will William be on the subway?
(96) Why were the passengers afraid during the blackout?
(97) How did Johnny leave a note?

Notice that the question words are placed in front of the first auxiliary in simple questions. These words signal the very categories of adverbial phrases given on p. 19. They can, therefore, be considered kinds of adverbials and moved to the front in these *information questions*. They solicit information that would be provided by the same adverbial phrases (place, manner, time, etc.) in statements.

Similarly, with the following information questions (98)-(100), there is an associated statement (101):

(98) Who gave that information to Mario?
(99) Who(m) did Sam give the information to?

(100) What did Sam give to Mario?
(101) Sam gave that information to Mario.

In these questions, the question words occupy the place of noun phrases: *who* in the position of noun phrase indirect object in (99); *what* in the position of noun phrase direct object in (100). Each one, then, requests the specification of those noun phrases whose place they occupy. Since *who* in (98) occupies the subject noun phrase position, there is no ultimate change in the word order from the corresponding statement.

Both of these kinds of questions, simple and information, are only partially different in form from statements. All of them are defined in terms of the two basic components: a noun phrase (subject) and a verb phrase (predicate).

The formation of questions is usually a troublesome area for beginning and even intermediate students—in particular, the placement of the first auxiliary (including do) before the subject noun phrase. Teachers will do well to give their students intensive practice with these forms which are an integral part of everyday communication.

To summarize, a sentence is composed of two basic components, a noun phrase, functioning as subject, and a verb phrase, functioning as predicate. If neither of these phrases is expanded by a sentence, then the sentence is a *simple sentence*. The sentences described in this section are all simple sentences, since none of them have noun phrases or verb phrases expanded by a sentence.

Exercise:

As a matter for consideration, examine the following sentences in light of the basic principle set forth in this section.

(a) Take two aspirin every four hours.
(b) There is a pain in my chest.

Are these sentences exceptions to the principle? The full answer will be the subject of Section V.

IV. EXPANSION OF SENTENCES: SENTENCES WITHIN PHRASES

We will now take up the matter of sentence expansion. A simple sentence may be expanded in one or another way by expanding the main components, the noun phrase and the verb phrase. We saw in Section II. C. 2. some ways in which verb phrases may be expanded, e.g., how optional elements in the auxiliary and in the adverbial phrase may be included.

Now we consider the expansion of noun and verb phrases through the addition of sentences: sentences may be *embedded* or contained within these phrases in certain specified ways. The resulting sentences have traditionally been called *complex sentences.*

IV. A. SENTENCES WITHIN NOUN PHRASES

IV. A. 1. COMPLEMENT SENTENCES

Study these sentences:

(102) The fact that I can't work today would bother my boss.
(103) My boss recognizes the fact that I can't work today.

In these sentences the noun phrases—the subject noun phrase in (102), and the object noun phrase in (103)—are each expanded by the sentence *I can't work today*, introduced by the word *that*.

How do we know *the fact that I can't work today* is all a noun phrase with the following structure?

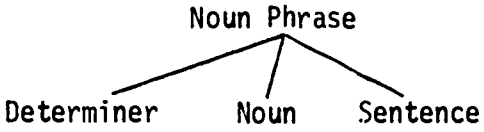


Diagram 12

If we form a question corresponding to (102), we note that the auxiliary form *would* is moved around the entire string of words, as predicted:

(104) Would the fact that I can't work bother my boss?

Embedded sentences like those in (102) and (103) are called *complement sentences*, or *noun phrase complements*. Typical nouns that take complement sentences are: *idea, belief, thought, view*, etc.

IV. A. 2. RELATIVE CLAUSES

Here are examples of noun phrases expanded by embedded sentences called *relative clauses:*

(105) The fellow who got me the job is over there.
(106) Frank gave me the book which I wanted.

Clearly, the relative clauses, underlined above, are part of the adjoining noun phrases. The words that introduce the clauses, *who* and *which*, are among the *relative pronouns*. As pronouns they have the same reference as the nouns they are attached to. In (105), *who* is itself the subject noun phrase of the clause; in (106), *which* is the direct object noun phrase of the verb *want* in the clause, as shown below:

(107) who (=the fellow) got me the job
(108) which (=the book) I wanted

Thus, a relative pronoun not only introduces the embedded sentence, but also has a function in the clause because it comes from a designated position

in it; e.g., in (106) *which* comes from the direct object noun phrase position as (108) shows. *This dual function of relative pronouns invariably causes difficulty for the intermediate student, with respect to either the form (e.g., who(m)* vs. *which) or the function (e.g., *who I know him* for *who(m) I know).*

Because these clauses serve to identify the basic noun phrases that they are attached to, they are also called *adjective clauses.*

IV. A. 3. NOUN CLAUSES

Another type of sentence expansion in the noun phrase is the "noun clause" (so termed in many E.S.L. grammar texts), underlined in these examples:

(109) I remember who gave that information to Mario.
(110) Ana forgot who(m) Sam gave the information to.
(111) Marta should know what Sam gave to Mario.

This type of embedded sentence is actually a variant of the first type, the noun phrase complement (see A. 1 p. 26), but we will not explore the matter in this manual. The following example is similar to both (109)-(111) and (103):

(112) My boss recognizes that I can't work today.

Now compare (109)-(111) with (98)-(100), pp. 24-25 (the information questions). Each of these information questions, as embedded sentences, is embedded in a verb phrase (as direct object of the verb), yielding sentences (109)-(111), respectively. But since these sentences are now embedded in a phrase, they retain the word order of other embedded sentences, usually called *statement word order,* instead of *question word order.*

Simple yes-no questions like (89), p. 24, are embedded with *whether* or *if* introducing the clause:

(113) I wonder { whether / if } Johnny left a note.

Finally, let's look at these related sentences:

(114) Do you remember who gave that information to Mario?
(115) Did Ana forget who(m) Sam gave the information to?
(116) Should Marta know what Sam gave to Mario?

These are called *indirect questions,* question forms of the statements with noun clauses. Note that these are structurally more complicated than the simple sentence information questions like (98)-(100).

Often teachers make the mistake of using sentences (either commands or questions) with such embedded clauses, at a rather early stage, in order to elicit simple yes-no or information questions from students. For example, (117.a) *would be the teacher's stimulus sentence for the intended student response in* (117.b):

(117) (a) Teacher: {Would you ask / Ask} Mr. Sanchez whether he studies at night?

(b) Student: Do you study at night?

But it is clear that the structure of the teacher's sentence is too complex for the student's level of ability and is confusing as a result. The student must be able to determine that whether signals an embedded simple question, as well as know how to change the word order in the embedded sentence to the appropriate order in his simple sentence.

We will consider ways of avoiding such errors in Part Two.

Exercise:

Identify the types of embedded sentences in the noun phrases in these sentences:

(a) My boss didn't agree with the thought that I had.
(b) My boss shuddered at the thought that I would quit my job.
(c) Aziz thought that I was sleeping.

Answer:

In (a) the noun phrase object is expanded by a relative clause: *that* is another relative pronoun (substitute *which* for *that;* consider the underlying form of the embedded sentence: that (= the thought) I had.

In (b) the noun phrase in the prepositional phrase is expanded by a complement sentence, not a relative pronoun. Try to substitute *which* for *that.*

In (c) the embedded clause is a noun clause, functioning as the direct object of the verb *think.* Ask the question, What did Aziz think? *(What* comes from the noun phrase object position.)

IV. B. SENTENCES WITHIN VERB PHRASES
IV. B. 1. WITHIN ADVERBIAL PHRASES
IV. B. 1. a. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES WITH SUBORDINATORS

A sentence may be embedded in a verb phrase, more specifically as part of an adverbial phrase.

The following sentences contain embedded sentences in the adverbial phrases. Like other kinds of adverbial phrases, they may be classified according to place, manner, time and reason:

(118) Place: Chen lived where his uncle had a shop.
(119) Manner: Sandy packed her bags as she liked.
(120) Time: I punched the clock when I got in.
(121) Reason: You should send the form by airmail because it's due in two days.

These embedded sentences in the adverbial phrase expanding the verb phrase are called *adverbial clauses*. They are introduced by various adverbs (or *subordinators*) like *when*, *because*, etc.

Moreover, there are other kinds of adverbial clauses indicating, among other things, *condition*, *opposition*, and *purpose*, as seen in these sentences:

(122) Sanchez won't leave on Tuesday if the money doesn't come in time.
(123) Sanchez will leave then although he can't afford the trip.
(124) Sanchez will leave at that time so (that) he can see his wife on Wednesday.

Typically, in these embedded sentences the auxiliary and verb forms are dependent upon those of the main sentence, as illustrated with these "unreal" (hypothetical) types of conditional sentences:

(125) Sanchez would leave today if the money were (was) coming.
(126) Sanchez would have left last Tuesday if the money had come in time.

Moreover, the conditional subordinator *unless* contains the negative element (that negates the embedded sentence), so that the verb phrase remains affirmative; compare (127) with its equivalent (122):

(127) Sanchez won't leave on Tuesday unless the money comes in time.

Such tense agreement restrictions usually pose problems for the intermediate and advanced learner. Conditional sentences especially require continual practice with the forms of the auxiliary.

Adverbial clauses, as embedded sentences within adverbial phrases, have, roughly, this structure:

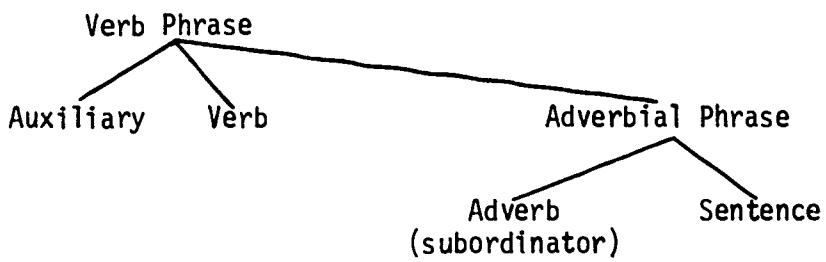


Diagram 13

As with other types of adverbial phrases, adverbial clauses may be moved to the front of the main sentence:

(128) When I got in I punched the clock.
(129) If Maria had worked overtime, she would have earned enough money for her trip.

IV. B. 1. b. ADVERBIAL CLAUSES WITH INTENSIFIERS—RESULT AND COMPARISON CLAUSES

An adverbial phrase with a manner adverb may be expanded with a sentence as follows (compare these with example (60) on p. 19).

(130) Miguel thought so carefully (that) he got a headache.
(131) Miguel thought as carefully as he could.
(132) Miguel can think {less / more} carefully than Enrique (can).

Notice the change in intensifier from one like *very*, as in example (60), to *so* ... (*that*) plus sentence in (130), to *as* ... *as* plus sentence in (131), or to *more* (or *less*) ... *than* plus sentence in (132). The embedded sentences following the paired intensifiers in (131) and (132) are usually shortened. The verb is omitted in cases where it is identical to the verb in the main sentence, leaving only the auxiliary bearing the tense (*could* in (131) and *can* in (132)). There will be more to say about the form of the embedded sentences in (131) and (132) in Section V.B.

The embedded sentence in (130) is a *result clause*, while the embedded sentences in (131) and (132) are called *comparison clauses*. In both types of adverbial phrase expansion, the focal word is an adverb. Other comparison clauses involve adjectives, as we will see in the next section.

IV. B. 2. WITHIN ADJECTIVE CLAUSES—RESULT AND COMPARISON CLAUSES

A verb phrase may be expanded in cases where the verb *be* takes an adjective phrase. As with manner adverbs, adjectives may be the focal point of a sentence expansion, producing either a result clause, as in (133), or an adjective comparison clause, as in (134)-(135).

Compare the following with example (72), p. 21:

(133) Charlie was so angry (that) he couldn't eat his dinner.
(134) Charlie was as angry as he could be.
(135) Charlie was {more / less} angry than Bill was.

These clauses are parallel to those we looked at for adverbs, examples (130)-(132), with the same intensifiers used as with the adverbial clauses, as well as a similar shortening of the embedded comparative sentence. What is omitted in these cases is either the identical adjective only, as in the above, or the form of *be* as well, as in (136). (See Section V.B. for more discussion.)

(136) Charlie is more angry than Bill.

Another characteristic of adjective comparison clauses deals with the form of the adjective itself. Notice that along with sentence (136) we have (137) as an equivalent:

(137) Charlie was angrier than Bill.

In this case, the *-er* ending is the intensifier, along with *than*. With adjectives like *angry*, the comparison clause may be formed either way. In cases where the adjective is a *monosyllable*, the *-er* ending on the adjective is required.

In so-called "superlative" adjective forms, either intensifier *most* or the ending *-est* is employed, according to the same restriction for *-er* and *more*.

However, the superlative form of the adjective is part of a noun phrase plus relative clause construction, as can be seen in the following example.

(138) Ali is the tallest student that I have ever met.

Now compare (139.a), which has the relative clause attached to the noun phrase containing a superlative adjective, with (139.b) which lacks the full clause.

(139) (a) Mahmoud was the happiest guy who was at the picnic.
(b) Mahmoud was the happiest guy at the picnic.

Thus, as expansions of noun phrases, the superlative construction requires the addition of the definite article to the basic noun phrase, as seen in (140):

(140) *Mahmoud was happiest guy at the picnic.

These examples point out the essential difference in structure between comparative and superlative constructions. The teacher should bear this in mind and be prepared to make the necessary distinctions in their respective presentations, rather than be tempted to treat them alike simply because the superlative is a logical extension of the comparative.

The last example of the reduced clause (139.b), as well as those reduced comparative clauses, examples (134)-(135), is indicative of the existence of an even more abstract level of phrase structure, which we will take up in the following section.

Exercise:

What intensifiers are permissible with adjectives or adverbs in comparative constructions, as in these sentences?

(a) Mr. Chan will be busier in the fall than he is now.
(b) Marcos works more effectively at night.

Answer:

Much is the only intensifier used with comparative adjectives or adverbs:

(c) Mr. Chan will be much busier in the fall.
(d) Marcos works much more effectively at night.

Try using *very*, *quite*, *rather*, etc. as intensifiers in place of *much* in (c) and (d).

V. HIDDEN STRUCTURE

There is still more to sentence structure. In this last section of Part One we will introduce a more abstract notion of the phrase structure of sentences, without which there would be many unexplained facts about the formation of sentences in English.

V. A. MISSING SUBJECTS

In Section III. B, pp. 23-25, when we were discussing varieties of sentence forms, it was obvious that we didn't include examples which appear to contradict the principle presented: that a sentence must have a subject noun phrase and a verb phrase. What comes most quickly to mind are imperative sentences which have no subject noun phrases:

(141) (a) Have a seat please.
(b) Turn left at the corner.

Suppose, however, that we say there is a *hidden structure* to such sentences. In this structure, then, a subject noun phrase is present, but it is subsequently dropped in the formation of imperative sentences. This view of imperatives in particular is by no means novel. Traditional grammar refers to the "understood" subject in commands. Observed use of imperatives suggests that the subject noun phrase is *you*.

Now let's see if this position is warranted. Notice that if we expand sentence (141.a) with a *tag question*, underlined in (142), the subject noun phrase *you* "reappears" just as with other cases of tag questions attached to sentences:

(142) Have a seat, won't you?
(143) Mary will have a seat, won't she?

Notice that no other noun phrase will produce an acceptable sentence:

(144) *Have a seat, won't { I / we / he / they } ?

These examples give evidence that there is indeed a subject noun phrase, *you*, in the hidden or underlying structure of imperatives. With this basic assumption about sentence structure we can *explain* why we would say sentences like (142) but not (144).

Moreover, we find that imperative sentences do not constitute an exception to the principle of the essential components of a sentence; instead, they *support* the principle. But in the process we have introduced a more abstract structure to sentences, a *hidden* phrase structure, as opposed to the *apparent* phrase structure. (Or *deep structure* verses *surface structure*, as described by transformational grammarians).

Let's look at other cases of missing subject noun phrases:

(145) I want to find a job.
(146) Jack appreciates taking a day off.

These sentences contain verbal objects of the verb. In (145) the verbal is an *infinitive*, in (146) a *gerund* (an *-ing* form of the verb). Observe, though, that in each sentence there are actually two verbs: *want* and *find* in (145), *appreciate* and *take* in (146). In each case there is only one subject noun phrase. Compare these sentences.

(147) I want you to find a job.
(148) Jack appreciates Bill's taking a day off.

In (147) and (148), we find that a subject noun phrase for the second verb (in verbal form) is actually present and that it is different from the subject noun phrase of the main sentence in each case. On the basis of this evidence, we can say that there is a missing subject noun phrase for the second verb, or verbal form, in examples (145) and (146). Why is it missing? Because in each case it is identical to the subject noun phrase of the main sentence. That is how we *understand* these sentences. *More generally, the meaning of a sentence is determined by its hidden structure, which can differ, sometimes greatly, from its apparent structure.*

Thus, these verbal (infinitive and gerund) objects in the apparent structure of sentences like (145)-(148) are *reduced* forms of embedded sentences in the hidden structure. Although they are much different in apparent form from the embedded sentences described in Section IV, they are nevertheless quite similar to noun clauses in hidden structure (for noun clauses see Section IV. A. 3.).

This aspect of hidden structure is not peculiar to English. Other languages, like the Romance languages, have infinitive objects of verbs that are embedded sentences in the underlying structure. The difficulty posed for most E.S.L. students is that in English certain verbs (like *appreciate, admit, consider, deny, enjoy, miss* and *suggest*) require the verb of the embedded sentence to be in the *-ing* (gerund) form:

(149) Maria enjoys studying at night.
(150) *Maria enjoys to study at night.

The dropping of identical subjects in embedded clauses is not restricted to sentences like (145)-(146) and (149). Observe how relative clauses may be reduced in a similar way. The relative pronoun (which is identical to the preceding simple noun phrase) may be dropped, along with the tensed form of *be*. Compare the (b) examples with the (a) ones:

(151) (a) The man who is working on my car is competent.
(b) The man working on my car is competent.
(152) (a) The medicine which was taken from the shelf contained an antibiotic.
(b) The medicine taken from the shelf contained an antibiotic.

In these examples, the condition for dropping the subject of the embedded sentence, the relative pronoun, is that the verb phrase contain a form of *be*, which is also dropped.

Thus, to summarize so far, sentences may be missing subject noun phrases, either in the main sentence, as with imperatives, or in embedded sentences, as with reduced relative clauses and verbal objects. The form of the embedded sentence will accordingly be altered in particular ways, thereby not revealing the hidden structure by which we interpret such constructions.

V. B. MISSING NOUN PHRASES AND VERB PHRASES IN COMPOUND SENTENCES

The compound sentence, a familiar sentence type, has so far been left out of our description of sentence structure.

The compound sentence is a conjunction of two or more sentences, schematically as follows:

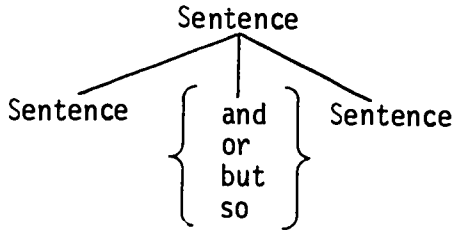


Diagram 14

The words *and, but, or* and *so* are familiar *conjunctions*.

Here are some examples of compound sentences:

(153) Terry works on the weekend and Sam works during the week.
(154) Fred takes the car in the morning, so Sam takes the bus.

If the subject or object noun phrase is the same in both sentences, a *pronoun* is used in the second:

(155) The doctor usually prescribes some pills for a fever or he gives an injection.

However, as is usually the case with spoken English, the subject noun phrase in the second sentence is omitted if it is identical to the first:

(156) The doctor usually prescribes some pills or gives an injection.

But if the verb phrase, not a noun phrase, in the second sentence is identical to that of the first, then another kind of change takes place:

(157) The doctor will be in to see you and the nurse will too.
(158) The patient got upset and the nurse did too.

Notice that only the first auxiliary is repeated in the second verb phrase; in (158) *do* is inserted to carry the tense because there is no other auxiliary in the verb phrase. But it is clear that the auxiliary in each case stands for the complete verb phrase of the first sentence: *will be in to see you* in (157) and *got upset* in (158). Thus, these reduced second sentences have the hidden structure of complete sentences (see also the comparative constructions in Sections IV. B.1. and 2, pp. 30-32).

Finally, even the auxiliary in the second sentence may be dropped:

(159) The doctor will be in tomorrow and the nurse too.
(160) The glasses broke and the frame too.

Compare the following set:

(161) Josie came late but Alicia didn't come late.
(162) Josie came late but Alicia didn't+
(163) Josie came late but not Alicia.

Since the auxiliary is even dropped in (163), the negative element *not* appears by itself, before the subject.

Tag questions, mentioned above, p. 32, are like reduced second sentences in a compound sentence:

(164) Josie is coming late, isn't she?
(165) Alicia went home, didn't she?

As questions, though, their function is to confirm the statement, affirmative or negative. But they must be the opposite of the statement with respect to negation:

(166) The dentist didn't pull the wrong tooth, did he?
(167) *The dentist didn't pull the wrong tooth, didn't he?

Tag questions are extremely functional and should be taught to students along with other kinds of questions. Like the other constructions presented in this section, a tag question has a hidden structure which differs considerably from its apparent form.

V. C. REARRANGED PHRASES

Often in the apparent structure of a sentence, the phrases are ordered differently from the arrangement in the hidden structure that determines the meaning.

Compare the passive sentences (a) with the active ones (b):

(168) (a) My wallet was found by a salesman.
(b) A salesman found my wallet.
(169) (a) Alberto is being interviewed by the company today.
(b) The company is interviewing Alberto today.

Earlier (p. 13), we discussed the addition of the *be* plus *-en* auxiliary for passive sentences. But notice also that the subject and direct object noun phrases have been switched. It is clear that the (a)-(b) pairs have basically the same meaning; i.e., that they are paraphrases of each other. However, their forms are quite different, especially the positions of the subject and object noun phrases. Of course, the difference between these phrases is crucial in determining the meaning of a sentence, as the following pair illustrates:

(170) Marta spanked Candida.
(171) Candida spanked Marta.

Thus, although the subject and object noun phrases in the pairs (168) and (169) are in opposite positions (the subjects in (b) are in the *by* phrases in (a)), there is no difference in meaning as there is in (170) and (171), both active sentences. More specifically, in (168) and (169), the *agent* of the verb in each pair is the same, as is the object of the verb. In the active (b) sentences, the subject noun phrase is the *agent* (or *semantic subject*). This is usually how we interpret the subject noun phrase. But in the passive (a) sentences, the subject noun phrase is not the *agent;* rather it is the *semantic object* of the verb, whereas the noun phrase in the prepositional phrase with *by* is the *agent*.

Thus, since both of the active and passive pairs in (168) and (169) contain the same semantic functions, we can assume they have the same hidden structures, which indicate these functions determining the meaning. For example, the pair in (168) have the following hidden structure:

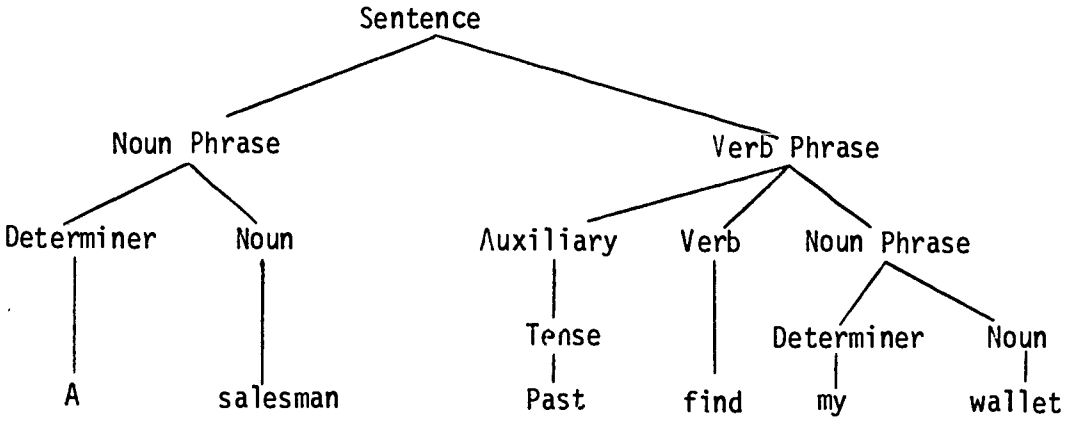


Diagram 15

In the hidden structure, then, the subject noun phrase *a salesman* is shown to be the agent or semantic subject, and the object noun phrase is shown to be the semantic object.

Finally, among the principles or rules of sentence formation, there are those that alter the form of hidden structures, yielding the various apparent structures. In linguistic theory, these rules are called *transformations*. Hence, there is a *passive transformation*, just as there is an *imperative transformation* (see pp. 32-33), a *relative clause reduction transformation* (see pp. 33-34), and so forth. These and other rules (including those alluded to in Section IV) change the underlying form of a sentence, containing the phrase structure that determines the meaning, to the apparent structure, which therefore may not reflect the order and arrangement of phrases crucial to determining the meaning.

As another example of the difference between hidden and apparent structure, consider the following:

(172) There is a fly in my soup.

What is unusual about this sentence (consider the discussion in Section III)? The word *there* is not a subject noun phrase, although it is in the subject position, as the corresponding question indicates:

(173) Is there a fly in my soup?

Now compare (172) with (174):

(174) A fly is in my soup.

Clearly, in this sentence, the subject noun phrase is a *a fly*.

Again, both (172) and (174) have the same meaning. If sentence (172) had the same hidden structure as (174) does, then (172) would not constitute an exception to the principle that every sentence in its hidden structure has a subject noun phrase followed by a verb phrase. Indeed, it can be shown that there is a transformation that alters the underlying structure common to (172) and (174) to shape the phrase structure of (172)—a rule that moves the subject noun phrase to a position after the verb *be* and inserts *there* in the empty subject position.

Therefore, to conclude, there is at the basis of a sentence a phrase structure that determines how that sentence is understood—the hidden structure; the apparent structure of the sentence may look quite different because various transformations have been applied to alter the form.

We have not talked about these rules in any serious theoretical framework; simply we have alluded to their existence and to certain features of their operation in order to give a better understanding of the central fact in this section: that there is a deeper or more abstract organization to a sentence which determines its meaning.

V. D. HIDDEN STRUCTURE AND THE FORM-MEANING RELATION

V. D. 1. EXPLAINING THE COMPLEXITY OF THE RELATION

Now return to the problem of the complex relation between form and meaning, discussed on p. 12 and elsewhere. How is it that two sentences—two different forms—can have one meaning; i.e., be synonymous? We can explain this phenomenon by discovering a hidden structure that is common to both sentences and by stating one or more transformational rules that have altered that structure in one way or another to produce two different apparent forms. For example, we have seen that sentences (168.a) and (168.b), different in apparent structure, come from the same hidden structure, given in Diagram 15. A passive transformation has applied to this hidden structure to produce the apparent structure for (168.a); but if that transformation has not applied, the apparent structure for (168.b) will result. For further examples, see sentences (161)-(163), (172) and (174).

Regarding the phenomenon of ambiguity—one form with two or more meanings—it can be shown that an ambiguous sentence is developed from two different hidden structures. For the following ambiguous sentence we may find two different hidden structures, each of which determines a different meaning:

(175) The guys have broken toys in the box.

One hidden structure will indicate that the verb phrase has the elements for *have broken*, while the other will indicate that *broken*, as a modifier of *toys*, comes from an embedded sentence (roughly, *someone broke the toys*). Leaving out the details, there will be certain transformations which alter that embedded sentence so that the past participle form *broken* will occur before the noun *toys*, thus giving the same order of words as in the first case.

V. D. 2. RECOGNIZING HIDDEN STRUCTURE

We have observed that the apparent structure of a sentence may not accurately reflect the semantic functions that are indicated in the hidden structure; for example, in passive sentences, the semantic object will appear as the subject of the sentence, while the semantic subject will appear either in a prepositional phrase, as in (176.b), or not at all in the apparent structure, as in (176.c):

(176) (a) Someone robbed Kostas.
(b) Kostas was robbed by someone.
(c) Kostas was robbed.

Notice that not only are these sentences synonymous, but also that (c) is understood as having the same agent phrase as (a) and (b), even though it is missing in the sentence. Such sentences as (176), as well as the rest in this section, are by no means out of the ordinary. We may therefore conclude that quite often the apparent structure of a sentence *conceals* many of the aspects of structure that determine its meaning.

Two questions can be asked to get an approximate idea of what the hidden structure of a sentence might be: (i) Do the functions in the apparent structure indicate the semantic functions? (ii) Does the apparent structure indicate *all* the semantic functions, including those in embedded sentences?

To explain the native speaker's ability to relate form and meaning in the complex ways he does, we thus assume that his subconscious knowledge of the language includes a specification of hidden structure for any sentence he produces or interprets. Only by distinguishing hidden structure from apparent structure can we discover the basic regularities of English.

These facts have important implications for teaching the language. Presenting English on the basis of the apparent structure only will miss many of these regularities, thereby making it more difficult for the learner to grasp the basic principles that are at work in the language. Similarly, teaching materials that do not pay heed to the hidden similarities and differences in sentences will not be providing the kind of practice necessary for learners to internalize these principles most efficiently. It is important, then, for the teacher to be aware of this fundamental feature of language: distinct from the apparent phrase structure of a sentence, there is a hidden phrase structure which determines its meaning.

Cognizant of this generalization, the teacher will not, for example, teach active and passive sentences like the following in the same way; i.e., as if they were similar in structure:

(177) John was working.
(178) John was robbed.

For a native speaker of a language like Chinese, distinguishing between active and passive forms is definitely a problem. The teacher will, therefore, need to separate these forms in his presentation in accordance with the structural differences.

Exercise:

In light of the discussion of this section, how can we account for the synonymy of the following pairs, with the preposition — like words *up* and *over* being moved to the end of the sentence *without* changing the meaning?

(a) (1) I looked up the new words.
    (2) I looked the new words up.
(b) (1) Jamie thought over your solution.
    (2) Jamie thought your solution over.

Answer:

We can assume that each pair has the same hidden structure, and that a transformation is responsible for the difference in form.

More specifically, the hidden structure in both cases will indicate that there is a *verb* plus *particle* combination, called a *two-word verb.* Each of the many two-words verbs in English has an idiomatic meaning — Part Two, I. B. 2. c.(1); *look up* means "search for a reference", while *think over* means "consider."

The particle, though appearing to be a preposition, is unlike a preposition in that it may be shifted around a noun phrase object, as can be seen in the (2) examples. Thus, a *particle-shift* transformation is responsible for the difference in form between (1) and (2).

English has scores of these two-word verbs (see Part Two, I. B. 2. c.(1) for more examples); most of them are subject to this particle movement transformation. Two-word verbs are especially common in every day usage and are, accordingly, very important for the E.S.L. student to learn regardless of his level of proficiency.

SUMMARY OF PART ONE

1. A sentence is composed of phrases—the essential phrases being the noun phrase, functioning as subject of the sentence, and the verb phrase, functioning as predicate. These phrases are formed according to definite principles or rules. Thus, it can be said that sentences are formed by principles which collectively represent a native speaker's *intuitive knowledge* of English.

2. Underlying every sentence is a phrase structure that determines the meaning of the sentence. We have called it the *hidden structure.* The *apparent structure* may not accurately reflect the hidden structure because various rules (called *transformations*, representing abstract mental processes) operate on the underlying structure to alter the final form of the sentence.

3. The main phrases of a sentence may be expanded in certain specific ways, according to the rules. If a phrase is expanded by an embedded sentence, a complex sentence results.

4. Sentence structure is therefore *hierarchical:* phrases, and even sentences, may be contained within other phrases. At the top of the hierarchy there is always a subject noun phrase and a verb phrase in the hidden structure.

5. The elements that optionally expand a noun or verb phrase add complexity to the sentence structure, and, correspondingly, to the semantic interpretation of the whole sentence.

6. The more the E.S.L. teacher understands English sentence structure, the more qualified he will be to present the language in the classroom. Furthermore, he will be better qualified to make modifications of materials which, for one reason or another, are ill-suited to the communication needs of his adult students. In Part Two we will see how this can be done.

PART TWO: TECHNIQUES FOR MODIFYING EXISTING MATERIALS

With the main concepts of English sentence structure being understood, the E.S.L. teacher can now consider techniques of modifying the material he is presently using to meet the needs of his adult students.

However, in order to determine what course to follow in making changes, the teacher must first be able to assess the appropriateness of the materials. In order to do this, he needs to follow certain criteria which Part One supplies, since sentence structure is inextricably involved in whatever is being presented in a lesson.

I. ASSESSING THE APPROPRIATENESS OF EXISTING MATERIALS

I. A. INTRODUCTION

Following are some major criteria that are deemed important in evaluating a classroom text or other materials. There are doubtless other considerations which could be brought out but are perhaps less crucial.

The criteria will be divided into two main areas: (a) the presentation and (b) the design of teaching materials. The former deals with the organizational makeup of a lesson; the latter with the assessed usefulness of it. The criteria will be applicable to the evaluation of individual lessons as well as to a text as a whole.

In addition to our concern for sentence structure, we will focus attention on vocabulary—the items that appear in sentence constructions.

There is yet another major component of language, the sound system that determines how a sentence with its apparent structure is to be pronounced. A discussion of this component would necessitate an additional chapter along the dimensions of Part One simply to introduce the basic principles underlying the phonetic form of words and, ultimately, of sentences. In lieu of this, the reader is referred to the sources in the Bibliography which would serve as an introduction to the subject.

I. B. ASSESSING THE APPROPRIATENESS OF PRESENTATION

Here we are concerned with the organization of a lesson or a whole text, with respect to the clarity of focus of the lesson or text, and the sequencing of the material.

I. B. 1. CLARITY OF FOCUS

I. B. 1. a. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Part One provided the basis for identifying the sentence structures presented in any lesson. Having identified the kind or kinds of structure, we ask what the focus of the lesson is. Is there a particular structure that unifies the lesson? If there are several structures introduced, are they related in terms of similarity of hidden structure? For example,

sentences (1) and (2) of Part Two have the same hidden structure, as discussed in Part One, but (1) and (3) do not.

(1) Is there a doctor around?
(2) Is a doctor around?
(3) I would like to know if there is a doctor around.

All three of these sentences are related semantically and functionally, but sentence (3) clearly cannot be related to either (1) or (2) because its hidden structure is much different from the one underlying both (1) and (2).

Therefore, we must distinguish structural relatedness from semantic or functional relatedness. To confuse the two is, ultimately, to bring confusion to the students.

In determining the structural focus of a lesson, it is necessary to check not only the introductory statement, if there is one, but also the entire lesson to see what structures are presented, *even in the directions to the students.* As mentioned in Part One IV. A. 3, p. 27, the directions themselves may be much more complex in structure than those ostensibly being practiced. We will take up the matter of revision of such out-of-place directions in Section II. B. 1, p. 64 ff.

Within a particular lesson we must check the structural focus of individual exercises such as dialogs or pattern drills. Is there a definite focus to the *new* material being presented? Are there sentences which don't have the same underlying phrase structure? Analyzing sentences in terms of their hidden structure may reveal a lack of structural focus to a set of sentences presented for practice, even though the apparent structure may not indicate this.

Exercise:

Here is part of a pattern practice exercise which students are asked to repeat after the teacher:

(a) John wants a book.
(b) He wants to read.
(c) Mary loves books.
(d) She loves to read.
(e) Tom likes books.
(f) He likes to read.

Is there a clear focus to this exercise? If not, why not?

Answer:

Ostensibly this drill is to practice the third person singular ending *-s;* however, it contains different kinds of structures. Sentences (b), (d), and (f) have embedded sentences with the apparent form of an infinitive, while (a), (c), and (e) are simple sentences.

What problem is there specifically in presenting (a)-(f) for practice? Suppose the student wants to make a sentence with the verb *suggest*. On the basis of this exercise, he might say something like the following:

(g) *My brother suggests to watch TV.

Clearly, verbal objects coming from embedded sentences must be taught separately because of the special problems attendant with such structures (see Part One, V. A, pp. 33-34, for discussion).

I. B. 1. b. VOCABULARY

When we speak of the focus of the vocabulary in a lesson, we judge whether the items in the lesson are related to a topic (e.g., parts of the body, everyday food items), that may be used in a typical social situation; e.g., going to a hospital clinic, or to the supermarket.

Often a lesson might have words and expressions pulled from an assortment of topics, and thus have no particular focus. Texts that purportedly are based on a rigid presentation of sentence structures often introduce vocabulary merely to "fill in the slots" — to make sentences that illustrate the patterns. For example, proper nouns are often used instead of common nouns that could be related to a topic; i.e., sentence (4) with a proper noun might be used to illustrate the formation of questions with *be*.

(4) Where is Mr. Smith?

Compare (4) with (5) which has a common noun in the subject noun phrase:

(5) Where is the lobby?

Sentence (5) could well fit into a dialog entitled, "Getting around in an office building," a not too uncommon problem for an adult living in a metropolitan area.

It should be mentioned that we are talking about *content* vocabulary—words which belong to one of the following classes: noun, verb, adjective, and adverb. Words which belong to the auxiliary or determiner are often called *structure* or *function* words. Other *structure* words include conjunctions, prepositions, and words introducing embedded sentences. See Part One, IV pp. 25-32 for various examples.

But it must not be thought that structure words have no intrinsic meaning apart from their function structurally. The adverbs introducing adverbial clauses certainly have meaning. *Because* and *although*, both structure words of the same kind, have the opposite meaning. The former can be paraphrased as "on account of the fact that..."; the latter as "in spite of the fact that...." Similarily, *above* and *under*, both prepositions, are opposites. In Part One, we discussed the meanings of the various determiners (II. C. 1, pp. 4-6) and of the various auxiliaries (II. C. 2, pp. 9-10).

However, we exclude these structure words from the scope of the present discussion because they are introduced more on the basis of structural criteria than on semantic (topical) criteria.

Allowance must also be made for certain *basic vocabulary* that may be drawn from one of two popular lists: Thorndike and Lorge, The Teacher's Work Book of 30,000 Words; or Michael West, A General Service List of English Words. Each of these works presents a list of words according to a frequency count; unfortunately they include structure words, most of which, not surprisingly, appear on the first 1,000 most common words on both lists.

Sometimes a text may introduce only those vocabulary items that fall within a certain frequency range, as determined by one of these lists. Graded readers usually follow this practice.

The point must be made, however, that the whole notion of a basic or core vocabulary is somewhat controversial, and one cannot accept any list without questioning whether certain items are particularly useful for his students.

I. B. 2. SEQUENCING OF MATERIAL
I. B. 2. a. INTRODUCTION

It is a truism that simpler material should be presented before the more complex; that what is simple be the basis for learning the more complex. However, amid the variety of classroom activities, the self-evident can easily be overlooked.

The notions *simple* and *complex* are deceptively transparent. They need a reference point — simple or complex with respect to *what?* On the basis of the theory developed in Part One, we can use these terms with a certain amount of descriptiveness in discussing sentence structure.

There is yet another related dimension: *simple* versus *difficult*. This is not to be confused with simple versus complex with respect to a theory of language structure. Rather, it is simple versus difficult with respect to the learner. What we will consider briefly is the native language of the learner, since the E.S.L. teacher soon learns that what may be "simple" for one student may be "difficult" for another of a different language background. Personal and psychological differences among adults (as opposed to children, adolescents, and young adults) also need to be taken into account in assessing difficulty.

However, on a general level we can say that difficulty may stem from any one of three areas, related to the whole concept of what language is.

[i] Difficulty with respect to form (or formal difficulty)
[ii] Difficulty with respect to the relationship between form and meaning (see Part One, Diagram 5, p. 13)
[iii] Difficulty with respect to meaning (semantic difficulty)

Teachers may confuse complexity and difficulty, as well as form and meaning. For example, they may treat a structurally complex sentence as both formally and semantically difficult. It may or may not be formally

difficult for a student depending largely on whether his native language has similar rules related to the construction in question. On the other hand, the meaning of the complex sentence might be relatively simple for him. For example, sentence (6) with an adverbial clause of reason is structurally more complex than simple sentences; yet it is not formally or semantically difficult for, say, a Spanish speaker.

(6) I came because I need a job.

On the other hand, a sentence like (7) is not structurally complex, but for a Spanish speaker it is formally difficult (though not semantically so).

(7) It is hot today.

The gradation of vocabulary may be approached along the two dimensions, complexity and difficulty. Complexity concerns formal considerations. See I. B. 2. c. (1), pp. 48-49 below. But the question of difficulty is again complicated, involving not only the same three aspects (difficulty with respect to form, form and meaning, and meaning) but also the question of frequency of usage.

I. B. 2. b. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

In light of the treatment of Part One, it is logical to ask whether the structures that have been identified are presented in an order that reflects increasing complexity. It will be remembered that the more optional elements there are in the main phrase components of a sentence, the more complex the sentence is. Thus, a sentence with an embedded sentence or sentences, is more complex than one with no embedded sentence. Furthermore, a sentence with optional elements like a phrase expanding the main components is more complex than one with no such optional expansion of its main components. As can been seen, we are using the term *complex* in a general sense here.

The following questions should be asked concerning each lesson and lessons in juxtaposition throughout an E.S.L. text:

- Are there structures present in a given lesson that are in fact built upon structures previously presented? Or,
- Are such structures really built upon others not yet presented?

In other words, are the structures appropriately sequenced? The use of the term *appropriately* is deliberate. We cannot justifiably say that there is one and only one order in which to present the numerous sentence structures. It is a pedagogical matter, not a theoretical one. Certainly there is room for variation.

Ironically, many texts present a rather rigid order of sentence constructions. A sketch of a typical order that would be used by textbook writers is as follows:

[i] Generally, simple sentences are introduced first, followed by compound and complex sentences.

[ii] More specifically, simple sentences with *be* as the main verb come first. Implicitly the appeal to presenting such sentences first lies with the apparent "simplicity" of forming questions and negative statements. See discussion in Part One, II. C. 2. d. p. 21. There is also an appeal to the usefulness of practicing sentences with *be*, an appeal that at least has more legitimacy.

[iii] Simple sentences with other verbs are categorized into "patterns" according to the following factors:

a. The kind of verb — transitive or intransitive; the order of presentation varying.

b. The tense of the verb and other elements in the auxiliary — all subsumed under the category "verb tenses," typically as follows:

- simple present
- present continuous
- simple past
- simple future
- continuous future
- present perfect
- modal auxiliaries with simple verb form
- modal auxiliaries with other aspects of the verb (perfect and continuous)

Note: Past continuous and past perfect are usually introduced with complex sentences.

c. Affirmative statements first, followed by simple questions and negative statements; information questions postponed until later lessons; reduced second sentences in compound sentences also introduced midway in the presentation of simple sentences.

d. The kind of noun, count or non-count, requiring different determiners; count nouns typically presented first; non-count nouns left until later lessons.

e. Optional elements expanding both the subject noun phrase and the verb phrase; usually adverbial phrase expansions presented earlier than other types; single word modifiers (adjectives) presented before phrasal (prepositional phrase) expansion of noun phrases.

f. Verbal expansion of noun and verb phrases — including reduced embedded sentences as objects of verbs and reduced relative clauses as noun phrase modifiers.

[iv] Full embedded sentences (in apparent structure) in noun and verb phrases (*complex* sentences) are then presented, typically in the following order:

- relative clauses
- comparison clauses
- adverbial clauses — time and reason clauses usually first; conditional clauses usually last
- noun clauses — with indirect or reported speech, or with the main verb *wish*

Comments:

It is apparent that the various elements of the auxiliary, including the tense, are primary factors in determining the patterns presented on the elementary level. Part of the difficulty for beginning students lies with the forms; e.g., third person singular *-s*, the introduction of the auxiliary *do* for questions and negative statements if there is no other auxiliary, etc. The other part of the problem concerns the significance of the forms of the auxiliary. What does present perfect or simple past signify, and when should one or the other be used?

The present perfect verb phrase is especially difficult for the student to use appropriately, irrespective of his level. But it must be pointed out that it need not be a matter of *semantic* difficulty for the student — that the concept conveyed by the forms is difficult — but rather that the concept is not expressed similarly in the student's native language; i.e., it is difficult with respect to form *and* meaning.

Considering the interplay of several factors in assessing difficulty, one could allow for a certain degree of variation in the order of presentation of structures that are progressively more complex especially with respect to features of the verb phrase (see ii and iii. a & b) for beginning and intermediate students, and with respect to types of embedded sentences (see iv) for more advanced students. For example, one could conceivably start with the present continuous verb phrase since it is much lower in difficulty [ii], p. 44, for students than is the simple present. Moreover, the former may have more "utilitarian" value for beginning students since they can express what they are doing at the moment of speaking, as opposed to what they do in general.

These criteria are guidelines for evaluating the quality of sequencing of sentence structures in texts.

Exercise:

The following is a dialog that illustrates inappropriate grading of structure, since it is intended to teach future (simple and continuous) verb phrases.

(a) Where will you go next week?
(b) I'll be going to Boston.
(c) Do you think you'll enjoy it there?
(d) I hope I will.

What is out of place and why?

Answer:

Lines (c) and (d) each contain embedded sentences; (c) is an indirect question with statement word order in the embedded clause; (d) looks simple enough but if one attempts to substitute the verb *want* or even *wish* for *hope*, an unacceptable sentence results. Students often make such mistakes.

I. B. 2. c. VOCABULARY

As mentioned in the introduction to this section, p.44 , there are two partially independent criteria by which we can approach the matter of the gradation of vocabulary: complexity and difficulty.

I. B. 2. c. (1) ON FORM AND COMPLEXITY: AN OVERVIEW
I. B. 2. c. (1). (a) A BRIEF LOOK AT WORD FORMS

A word is composed of a *stem*, which contains its basic meaning, plus one or more endings called *affixes*, which modify the stem in one or another way. Affixes in English include *prefixes* and *suffixes*. There are two kinds of affixes, *inflectional* and *derivational*.

Inflectional affixes structurally modify words of a particular class. For example, *-s* on nouns pluralizes them; *-s* on verbs makes the third person singular ending for present tense.

Derivational affixes change a form into a word of a particular class. An affix attached to a stem which is not yet a full word will make a full word. An affix attached to a full word of a particular class will change it to a word of another class. To illustrate:

(8) (a) en (= prefix for verbs) + force (= stem, a noun) → enforce
(b) enforce (= stem, a verb) + ment (= suffix for nouns) → enforcement
(9) (a) oper (= stem, not a full word) + ate (= suffix for verbs) → operate
(b) operate (= stem, a verb) + ion (= suffix for nouns) → operation
(c) operation (= stem, a noun) + al (= suffix for adjectives) → operational
(d) operational (= stem, an adjective) + ly (= suffix for adverbs) → operationally

A summary of the major derivational processes is found in Appendix 1, page 85.

There are, of course, other less common derivational affixes. There are also affixes which are solely semantic, not changing the word class when added. For example, *re-*, usually prefixed to verbs, adds the sense "again"; *un-*, prefixed to a word, adds the sense "not", as does *in-*, or *im-*.

As the reader will recognize, many of these affixes are highly *productive*, that is, they may be attached to large numbers of stems to form words. There are definite restrictions, however, on what combinations are permissible. What is crucial is the derivation of the stems and affixes. Generally, forms of different language sources may not be combined. There are two main sources of English vocabulary. The first is the native source, which is Germanic. The second source is Latinate: Latin and Greek either directly or derivatively through French. A history of the development of English reveals the conditions that precipitated the borrowing of vase numbers of words from these languages.

Space does not allow us to go into this history nor to delve into the restrictions on combinations of word forms.

Since students tend to experiment with attaching affixes to stems, often resulting in non-words, the teacher should be careful in discussing affixes in isolation. They should be singled out for mention only in the context of actual words.

I. B. 2. c. (1) (b) COMPOUND WORDS

There are hundreds of two-word combinations that must be taught as units.

There are *compound nouns* consisting of two words (sometimes joined) with a special pattern of stress or accent. The first word, whether a noun, verbal, or adjective, receives stronger stress than the second words, invariably a noun. Here are some examples:

(10) doghouse
cookie jar
catnap
greenhouse
rocking chair
dining room

There are also compound verbs called *two-word verbs*, which we identified in the exercise in Part One, V, pp. 39-40.

To review, two-word verbs consist of a common, single syllable verb plus a particle. Together the unit has an *idiomatic* meaning not deducible from the sum of the parts.

(11) call up = "telephone"
call down = "scold"
call in = "invite"

look over = "examine"
look up = "search for a reference"

A certain structural property of two-word verbs was discussed in Part One, pp. 39-40, namely, that the particle may be shifted around the object noun phrase.

In addition to these (and many other) two-word verbs, there are a number of verb and preposition combinations which are idiomatic but which do not have the same structural property as two-word verbs do. Here are two examples:

(12) call on = "pay a visit"
(a) I called on Frank yesterday.
(b) *I called Frank on yesterday.

(13) look into = "investigate"
(a) We looked into the suspicious situation.
(b) *We looked the suspicious situation into.

Words like *into* and *after* are only prepositions, not particles, so that they cannot be moved around the noun phrase object, as illustrated in (13.b.). However, *on* is both a preposition and a particle, but the combination in (12) is a verb plus preposition, so that *on* may not be moved around the object, as illustrated in (12.b). Thus, the transformation that applies to two-word verb constructions only moves a particle, not a preposition.

Some E.S.L. texts label all of these idiomatic verb forms as "two-word verbs," but distinguish those in (11) from those in (12)-(13), calling the former "separable" and the latter "inseparable" two-word verbs.

I. B. 2. c. (1). (c) IDIOMS - FIXED EXPRESSIONS

Finally we come to other types of lexical units that vary in length as well as in word or phrase type. These are fixed expressions with meanings not deducible from the sum of the parts. Here are some examples, underlined in the following sentences.

(14) It rained cats and dogs.
(15) Joe hit the ceiling when I told him about the accident.
(16) Your explanation doesn't hold water.
(17) The lawyer came with a chip on his shoulder.

Quite often idioms are figurative in meaning; many of them originated from metaphorical extension of literally interpreted expressions. In (17), for example, the literal meaning of *to hold water* was extended to describe the condition of an abstract system: thus, a "leak" in one's logic or reasoning. Many now are so fixed and so commonly used that they have become *cliches*.

Exercise:

Identify the phrase structure of the idioms in (14)-(17).

Answers:

In (14) it is a noun phrase direct object, but the idiomatic sense is adverbial (*heavily*).

In (15) and (16) they are verb phrases.

In (17) it is a noun phrase in a prepositional phrase (which is an an adverbial phrase of manner).

Exercise:

Identify the stems and affixes in the following words:

(a) fashionable
(b) impatient
(c) argumentative
(d) mislead

Answer:

(a) fash = stem, not a full word
ion = noun suffix
able = adjective suffix

(b) im = prefix meaning "not," variant of *in-*
pati = stem, not a full word
ent = adjective suffix

(c) argu(e) = stem, a verb
ment = noun suffix added to verb
ive = adjective suffix (Note: a syllable (at) links the two suffixes)

(d) mis = prefix meaning "not"
lead = stem, a verb

Exercise:

Following are typical verbs that form the base of two-word verbs, plus the participles, some of which may occur with each verb. Match them and determine their meaning.

Verbs		Particles
look	take	in, up, on, over,
see	bring	about, back, down,
put	give	off
call	set	
talk		

Most current desk dictionaries will list the possible two-word verb combinations, along with their meanings, under the listing of the individual verb; e.g., *look up* and *look over* will be listed under *look*.

I. B. 2 c. (1). (d) COMPLEXITY

Having surveyed some of the formal aspects of English vocabulary, we will take up the question of complexity. How complex is a word? On formal grounds, we would have to say that the more affixes attached to a word, the more complex it is. Consider the following "family" of words with industry as the stem. Each word along the diagram is formally more complex because of the additional suffix. Words on the same level, although not on the same "branch" are equally complex:

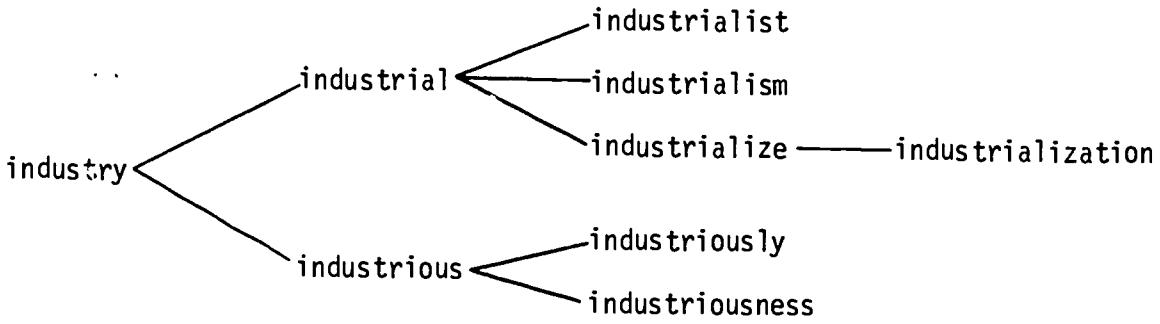


Diagram 16

Although the right-most word in the diagram, *industrialization*, is formally the most complex, it is debatable whether there is a concomitant increase in difficulty; i.e., is it more difficult for students to learn *industrialization* than a formally less complex word like *industrialism*, which is also an abstract word?

What we are bordering on, so far as teaching is concerned, is the more important question of difficulty, which will now be considered.

I. B. 2. c. (2) MATTERS OF DIFFICULTY

As discussed in connection with sentence structure, there is difficulty with respect to form, form *and* meaning, and meaning for students learning vocabulary in English.

Difficulties with form obviously involve formal complexity, but depend mainly on the student's familiarity with our system of word formation prior to the task of learning, a familiarity which must come from the student's knowledge of his native language. A student whose native language is a Romance language has prior knowledge both of the method of word formation (attaching affixes to stems), and of the substance of word formation; i.e., many or most of the Latinate affixes and stems would be familiar to him.

Difficulties with form and meaning depend on the percentage of *cognates* versus *false cognates* that English and another language have. A *cognate* is a word which in one language has a similar form and meaning to a word in another language; e.g., English *house* and German *haus;* English *education* and Spanish *educación;* English *agreeable* and French *agréable;* English *disturb* (verb) and Italian *disturbare.*

False cognates, on the other hand, *interfere* with the learning of vocabulary in English, since the learner will mistakingly associate the wrong meaning with a familiar form. Fortunately, though, there are usually fewer false cognates than cognates, given any two languages.

However, just because two languages like English and Spanish have a large number of cognates in common, it must not be assumed that the task of the Spanish-speaking learner is solely to learn the false cognates and the noncognates, or totally unfamiliar words of English. He must learn how to use the cognate words in *English* sentences, in addition to learning both new meanings to the familiar words and new pronunciations.

Thirdly, there is the matter of semantic difficulty. Here we are dealing with the system of meanings which, to some extent, involves cultural patterns of an English-speaking society, particularly, urban American society.

The use of the adverb *tomorrow* by a Spanish speaker to mean "in the future" reflects a different concept of time from what is normally understood by a native speaker of English. On the other hand, the use of the pronoun *you* by an English speaker in both the familiar and the formal sense (in reference to both close friends and family on the one hand, and occupational superiors on the other) reflects a somewhat different attitude in interpersonal relations between Spanish and English-speaking societies.

Accordingly, for a Spanish-speaker, learning to restrict the usage of a word, as with *tomorrow*, or not to restrict the usage, as with *you*, may involve semantic difficulty.

Finally, the whole notion of a basic vocabulary is contingent upon the supposed frequency of occurrence. This is not the place to discuss the validity of the notion; however, it should be pointed out that a basic or core vocabulary is assumed to be so general in usage as to be independent of any particular context. Every teacher who uses a text employing such a list must make a judgment about this claim of frequency with respect to each vocabulary item on it.

If there is any validity to the organization of a thesaurus, then it appears as if most vocabulary items can be categorized into more general groupings or topics. Given a particular context of discussion, then, we could assume that a certain set of words is likely to be employed. But within that set, certain words are more likely to be used than others, given the information about the education and experiences of the speakers involved.

To be more concrete, consider two doctors talking about a patient. They will use medical terms largely unfamiliar to the layman. But now consider the same two people talking about a car that has mechanical problems. They may or may not use many technical terms to describe the problem. Think, now, of two auto mechanics talking about a car. Doubtless their vocabulary will be more specialized than that used by the two doctors. In like manner, the two mechanics talking about a sick friend will use far fewer specialized terms than the doctors in the same situation.

Thus, we have, rather informally, dichotomized vocabulary related to a topic into *general* and *specialized* vocabulary. A general term usually has a wider range of significance than a specialized term does. For example, there are many specialized words that are covered by the general words *illness, sickness* and *pain*. There are also various modifying expressions that particularize the significance, like *acute* or *chronic*. One who is educated in a particular field knows the specialized terms of that area of knowledge.

Pairing off the discussants differently, a doctor and a mechanic, consider what vocabulary would be used if the topic were the mechanic's illness; then consider what vocabulary would be used if the topic were the doctor's malfunctioning car. It is likely in each case that more general terms would be used than in the former cases.

The adult E.S.L. student's vocabulary needs are analogous to the mechanic's in the doctor's office, and to the doctor's needs at the garage. There is a certain, admittedly vague, level of vocabulary that others expect the student to know in various situations in which they deal with him. This *general* vocabulary that we are talking about is not unrelated to particular contexts; rather it reflects various realistic verbal exchanges.

At this point we can discuss the matter of sequencing of vocabulary within a particular framework. Here are some guiding principles:

[i] less complex before more complex
[ii] less difficult before more difficult
[iii] general before specialized

Thus, with regard to [i], less formally complex nouns like *industry* should be presented before more complex *industrialization* (see Diagram 16 p. 52); *person* before *personality; resource* before *resourcefulness*.

With regard to principle [ii], a non-related word is more difficult for a student than a cognate word and a false cognate is more difficult than either. Hence, if possible, a large percentage of the vocabulary presented at the beginning level should be cognate words.

There is certain to be some conflicting overlap . A less complex word might in fact be more difficult to a particular student. On the other hand, a less difficult word might not be a general one, but a specialized one.

In general, if there is a conflict of principles, principle [ii] should take precedence over [i] and [iii] over [ii].

I. B. 2. d. THE PLACE OF CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS

For many years it has been a basic principle of second language teaching to emphasize certain aspects of the language being learned that are *predictably* difficult for the students. The basis for making such decisions comes from *contrastive analysis*, a systematic comparison of two languages; e.g., the native language of a student and the language he is learning, the target language. Where the two languages are notably different in structure

with respect to corresponding areas, it is predicted that the student's knowledge of his native language will *interfere* with his learning of the new structure(s) in the target language. Before internalizing the new principles, he tends to rely upon the system of principles he knows *intuitively*, that is, the system of principles of his native language.

For example, a Spanish-speaking student learning English, prior to mastery of the structure in question, will say something like (18) instead of (19).

(18) *I no live in that apartment.
(19) I don't live in that apartment.

The lack of a purely functional auxiliary like *do* to bear the tense in negative statements and questions in Spanish causes interference for the student in learning how to form these constructions in English.

Contrastive analyses have been developed, in varying degrees, between English and many other languages; a few of these studies are mentioned in the Bibliography. Teachers should make reference to them if they are not familiar with the native language of the students. Where points of difference between the two languages are foreseen, the teacher should be prepared to give extra practice to the students and to offer succinct explanations where possible.

If a class is not homogeneous with respect to language background, the teacher must judge whether to give that extra practice to the whole class for the sake of those who do need it. If he decides to do so regularly, because the majority of the students are of one language background, then he should not neglect the other students' interference problems. He should give as much individual attention as possible to students with special problems, especially to one who may be the lone speaker of a given native language. The balance between class work and individual work, in and out of the class, must be determined by the teacher in view of the diversity of language backgrounds represented.

The more acquainted the teacher becomes with particular problems of interference, the more adept he will be in providing the right amount of additional practice and explanation in or out of the class. He must be able to seize the opportunity to help those students with special problems without, at the same time, neglecting the other students who do not have those particular problems.

I C. ASSESSING THE APPROPRIATENESS OF DESIGN

The ultimate goal of any language course is to help students function effectively in the target language outside the class; that is, to be able to understand common speech and writing, and to speak and write, all in accordance with their needs. As their proficiency in the language increases, students will be able to interact verbally in more and more social situations with increasing facility. Yet, obvious as it should be, the goal can easily become obscured when discussing teaching methods and materials. Therefore, there is need for explicating those factors that determine the design of materials.

I. C. 1. HELPING STUDENTS COMMUNICATE AT BEGINNING STAGES

I. C. 1. a. THE AUDIO-LINGUAL APPROACH

At the beginning stages of language learning, the frustration experienced by adult students is invariably greater than at any other stage, as evidenced by the dropout rate in beginning E.S.L. classes.

It is crucial, therefore, that adult students be able to make meaningful use of what they learn in class, even if it is extremely limited.

The *audio-lingual approach* to second language teaching was developed in the 1940's and 1950's with a view to having the students *practice* using the language through various kinds of *pattern practice exercises* (to be illustrated in the following section, I. C. 1. b. pp. 56-58) with the teacher as the model. The approach was developed as a reaction against the *grammar-translation* methods, familiar in public education for well over a century. These latter methods put listening and speaking skills either well in the background or aside altogether, substituting discussion *about* the target language (usually in the native language) for practice with the structures of the target language.

But skeptics of the audio-lingual method as well as former advocates have, in recent years, pointed out the limited effectiveness of pattern practice in its various forms. The basic problem observed by many a teacher is that students can successfully respond within the very structured limits of such drills, but are quite unsuccessful in utilizing the structures practiced outside of that limited framework.

Thus, different kinds of exercises have been advocated, some of which we will discuss in Section II. B. p. 64 ff. They are designed to give students more freedom in responding in class, with a corresponding decrease in the teacher's control over the students' responses.

However, there is a problem not only in finding less controlled exercises, but also in finding ones with substantial content. As mentioned previously, students often practice drills which have virtually no relevant content to them, while purportedly practicing sentence structure.

The above may explain why the dialog — a structured conversation as advocated by the audio-lingual approach — has been more highly regarded than any other one structured exercise. The dialog offers the potential of representing a more realistic sample of the language. We discuss the matter of increasing the potential of the dialog in Section II. B.

I. C. 1. b. SOME FACTORS

Here are some factors that should be taken into consideration in evaluating the usefulness of materials in helping beginning students to communicate on their own.

[i] First of all, there should be a variety of exercises for practice, calling for different kinds of student responses. For example, some exercises require the student to make a limited change of the teacher's sentence. Others require the student to form a sentence given a fragment of such a sentence (in the form of a cue). Still others require the student to form his own sentence in response to a question. The question may be framed in such a way as to elicit either a controlled or a noncontrolled response.

[ii] The exercises should be arranged in decreasing degree of teacher control over the response — equivalently, in increasing degree of originality of response from the student.

Here, for example, is a short list of oral drills beginning with the most controlled to the least.

- repetition: students simply repeat the sentences modeled by teacher, first chorally, then individually;
- simple substitution: students substitute a word or phrase of one class (given as a *cue*) for another word or phrase of the same class in the previously formed sentence, starting with the teacher's model sentence;
- multiple substitution: students substitute a word or phrase of different classes for another of the same class in the previously formed sentence.
- conversion: students alter the teacher's sentence to form a related sentence; e.g., given a statement, students make a question or negative sentence; sometimes called a "transformation drill";
- combining: students form one sentence out of two parts (or more) supplied by the teacher; e.g., given two simple sentences, students make a compound sentence;
- response drill: students answer the teacher's structured questions, which are designed to elicit a particular construction or constructions;
- chain response drill: similar to the response drill, except that each student who answers a question asks another student the next question;
- expansion drill: students complete the teacher's sentence on their own, based on the structural focus of the lesson;
- response drill based on a reading selection: like the response drill except that (nonbeginning) students may paraphrase the answers given in the reading material;
- topical response drill: students respond more or less freely to questions related to a particular topic.

In general, the more freedom of choices the students has in forming his responses, the less predictable the responses will be. Obvious as this may be, it is nonetheless a factor that has deterred some teachers from moving their students away from the rigid controls of repetition and substitution drills — the basic *pattern practice* drills. Language behavior under these conditions is unlike the normal creative use of language.

[iii] The exercises should contain meaningful content. As much as possible, the statements and questions should refer to identifiable characters in the community, and to the students themselves, rather than to the fictitious "Mr. Smith" or "Mrs. Brown."

We will return to these three principles in more detail when we consider the possibilities of adaptation and supplementation (Section II. B.).

Therefore, in an E.S.L. class there should be a steady progression from carefully controlled exercises to less controlled ones in any one lesson. In addition, there should be the concomitant emphasis on providing more realistic contextual material for practice.

I. C. 1. c. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Question and answer drills should comprise a high percentage of the practice of sentence structure. In the early stages, students should be taught how to form questions, both simple yes-no and information types. Unfortunately, many E.S.L. students fail to learn how to make correct information questions until they are at some advanced stage. How often has the reader heard something like this from his students:

(20) *Why you (don't) say...?

Yet it is clear that the principles of forming information questions must be mastered by beginning students if they are going to function effectively outside of class.

The question must be asked, then, whether existing materials provide adequate practice with simple and information questions in the earlier lessons.

Furthermore, certain modal auxiliaries like *can* and *would* (in *would like*) are extremely useful to beginning students and should be introduced separately even before modal auxiliaries are studied as a unit. Think of the favorable effect of a request made with *would like* instead of one with *want*.

(21) I want some information about....
(22) I'd like some information about....

I. C. 1. d. VOCABULARY

Returning briefly to the matter of a basic vocabulary used in elementary texts, it is frequently assumed that classroom words should be included. Words like *blackboard, chalk, eraser,* etc. are convenient to use in classroom drills because, as object words, their referents (what the words refer to) can easily be pointed out. However, outside the class, such words are quite restricted in usage, that is, restricted to contexts in which the student would talk *about* the classroom environment to another person. In other words, these words do not have immediate reference *outside* the class.

Consider how much of the vocabulary used in any elementary text is restricted in usage.

I. C. 2. HELPING STUDENTS FUNCTION IN VARIOUS SOCIAL SITUATIONS

As has been emphasized in the Introduction to this manual, it is a fact that adult E.S.L. students living in urban communities must function in social situations that bear little resemblance to the kinds of contexts, if any, presented in most E.S.L. texts. Consequently, after practicing with such materials, these adult students still lack the vocabulary to interact adequately. Even more unfortunate is the fact that the students may not really learn the principles of English sentence structure for any one of a number of reasons. Perhaps the practice exercises are artificial — as suggested in the previous section; perhaps the students feel that the material is ill-suited to their needs, and are thus hindered in learning the structures.

At this point, we might reflect on what kinds of situations the adult learner must face in an urban setting. Here are some:

- Looking for a job; being interviewed in a crowded employment agency
- Trying to get unemployment insurance if laid off, or on welfare; dealing with a social worker
- Visiting a planned parenthood center; discussing matters with a nurse
- Going to a hospital clinic for a checkup, or to an emergency room; communicating symptoms to a nurse or doctor
- Informing the police of an emergency
- Looking for an apartment; dealing with the building superintendent about problems with the apartment
- Filling out forms in the above situations

This is not to say that urban life is altogether different from sub-urban, rural, or campus life, but it is true that the communication needs of each person in his respective environment will vary, at times substantially.

Consider what kinds of needs are common to one living in New York City and one on a midwestern campus, both of whom are elementary E.S.L. students:

- Identifying oneself
- Telling time
- Referring to parts of the body
- Buying food and clothes

• Going to the post office or the bank

There is a good deal both students have in common with respect to communication needs. But the differences are enough to warrant certain modifications to meet the special needs of the adult who is not a full-time student.

Texts which are geared toward international students will be more easily adaptable if they adequately and realistically cover topics like those in this latter set.

With regard to the evaluation of existing materials, the teacher should judge how the topics presented in each lesson compare with those given above. How realistic are the dialogs? To what extent do they contain useful, up-to-date terms and expressions for the learner? If the lesson contains a reading selection, how closely does the topic tie in with urban life?

Even if a special reader is being used, the teacher should judge its overall relevance with respect to the needs of his students, especially beginning and intermediate students. Of the total number of selections in the book, how many of them are potentially useful for the students?

Exercise:

The following is a dialog similar to one found in an E.S.L. practice book.

Ann: Good morning, John.
John: Good morning Ann. It's late. Where's breakfast?
Ann: It's on the table.
John: It's eight o'clock. Where are the children?
Ann: Peter! Jane! Breakfast is ready!
John: Hurry! I'm hungry.

Does such a dialog meet the communication needs of the adult student? To answer this, consider whether the E.S.L. student would converse with his or her spouse in English.

II. MODIFICATION OF EXISTING MATERIALS

II. A. SELECTION OF RELEVANT MATERIAL: TOPICS AND STUDENTS' NEEDS

The teacher should assess the needs of his students in preparation for drawing up a list of topics. He may subdivide the list according to everyday needs and special needs related to the urban environment. Then for each of these situations, the teacher should identify the kind of person the student would talk with.

In addition, the teacher should make a list of terms and expressions, according to word class, that might be employed in any given situation (topical vocabulary). He should also make note of any sentence structures that might be used in such a situation.

The teacher should then make note of any social or cultural values associated with a particular social setting, as well as any helpful information; e.g., how to deal with a salesman, especially a high pressure type.

In the end, the teacher will have a chart like the following, which he can expand as he becomes more cognizant of the particulars.

Social situations requiring communication will suggest interesting dialogs.

1. Some Everyday Needs

Topic	Characters	Topical Vocabulary					Structures
		Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives/ Adverbs/etc.	Determiners		
Shopping -Food	Cashier/Clerk Stockboy Bagger Delivery boy Manager Customers	meat products beef (ground) steak liver pork chops chicken lamb chops shoulder chops etc. dairy milk butter margarine eggs yogurt etc. Vegetables & Fruits peppers carrots corn rice potatoes etc. General label price change aisle counter	(would) like have need cost find stock carry check-out	chopped frozen fresh how much (amount) off expensive cheap special no-return returnable	a pound(s) of a box(es) of a quart(s) of a bag(s) of a jar(s) of a dozen any (in questions) Expressions on sale day-old per pound apiece	Sample question forms like: Do you have...? Information question forms like: How much is...? Where can I find...?	
		cash register check-out line discount shelves		stamps additive			

CHART 4

2. Special Needs

Topic	Characters	Topical Vocabulary			
		Nouns	Verbs	Adj./Adv., etc.	Expressions
Apartment Repairs	Superintendent of apartment building: the "super"	rent	leak	above	in the lease
		lease	break	below	to come apart
		landlord	(broken)	clean	by accident
	Janitor	thermostat	shut	dirty	rent-control
	Tenants	floor	turn off (on)	automatic	by (+ point of time)
		ceiling	repair	damaged	roach-infested
		stairs	install	cracked	by hand
		hall (hallway)	raise		
		fire escape	guarantee		
		fire hose			
		lock			
		window			
		noise			
		neighbor			
		Items in each room: e.g., bathroom:			
		faucet			
		tub			
		shower			
		sink			
		toilet			

Structures

Verbs plus Verbal like
... needs fixing
Passive Verb Phrase like
... is broken

CHART 5

The teacher may also seek input from other people in the community who have occasion to deal with the students; e.g., employment officers, social workers, visiting nurses, staff in an out-patient clinic or day care center, and others.

II. B. KINDS OF MODIFICATION

Having laid a foundation for evaluating the appropriateness of existing materials, we will take up two types of modification: adaptation and supplementation. The first makes use of existing materials as a basis; the second goes beyond them. The use of either approach to the problem depends on the amount of revision the teacher thinks is necessary in light of the criteria presented in Section A. If the existing materials contain sufficient or nearly sufficient exercises, both in number and in type, and are properly sequenced, then perhaps they need only be adapted and given more suitable content. If the exercises are insufficient in the above ways, they may be adapted and supplemented with additional ones.

II. B. 1. ADAPTATION

II. B. 1. a. SENTENCE STRUCTURE

II. B. 1. a. (1) REPLACING ILL-SUITED SENTENCES

For any given lesson there should be a limited number of new structures presented. As we have seen, they should be clearly related to one another in terms of complexity and difficulty.

Out-of-place structures should be replaced by others that relate more closely to the focus of the lesson.

In the exercise on p. 48, we examined a dialog, reproduced in (23) below, that contained ill-placed structures: specifically, there were two lines (c) and (d) with embedded sentences, structures which, for the level, were too complex. Now the problem is to replace those sentences with less complex sentences.

(23) (a) Where will you go next week?
(b) I'll be going to Boston.
(c) Do you think you'll enjoy it there?
(d) I hope I will.

Since this dialog is aimed at presenting the simple and continuous future verb phrases in simple sentences, we can rather easily eliminate the complexity and still preserve (even sharpen) the focus of the dialog. We would replace sentence (c) with (e) and (d) with (f):

(e) Will you enjoy it there?
(f) I probably will.

It will be observed that we haven't replaced lines (c) and (d) with complete paraphrases. The tentative sense to the indirect question (c) is lost as is the tentative answer (d). However, the focus has been sharpened becau the new lines afford practice with simple questions with *will*, as compared with the information question with *will* in (a). Sentence (f) contains a short answer with an adverb.

Exercise:

Here is another dialog that requires similar revision. What lines need to be changed? Supply new sentences. Try as much as possible to keep the sense of the original lines. The dialog is designed to teach the so-called future substitute *be going to*.

(a) Are you going to take your medicine soon?
(b) No, I'm not.
(c) Are you supposed to take it regularly?
(d) Yes, I am.

Answer:

At first glance line (c) looks as if it fits in with the rest; there is a form of *be* plus an infinitive following a form of the verb suppose. But the verb phrase is actually passive, unlike the *be going to* construction. Thus, elementary students often make the mistake of assuming the verb phrase with *suppose* is, or can be, in simple present active, (with the meaning of obligation). They will say something like the following:

(e) *Do you suppose(d) to take it regularly?

Clearly the *be supposed to* construction is useful but it should be presented separately because of the special problem attendant with it.

Or, it might be presented with similar passive constructions like *be* {*required*, *expected*} plus infinitive; these two examples in fact are paraphrases of *be supposed to*.

A possible substitute for line (c) would be (f) or (g):

(f) Are you going to take it regularly?
(g) Aren't you going to take it regularly?

Both sentences keep the structural focus. While (g) adds the negative element to the question, it comes a little closer to preserving the sense of obligation than does (f).

Exercise:

Here is a typical dialog illustrating the present tense that one can find in an E.S.L. text:

Lois : Our teacher speaks English very well.
Charles: He is an American. His native language is English.
Lois: I mean he speaks clearly. It is easy to understand him.
Charles: Yes, I understand everything he says.
Lois: I want to speak English well. I hope to study in the United States. I study every night.

How might we adapt it in order to keep the structural focus on the simple present tense in simple sentences?

Answer:

Change line 3 because of the embedded sentences; e.g.,
Mary : He speaks clearly. I understand him easily.

Change line 4 for the same reason; e.g.,
Carl: Yes, I understand everything too.

Change line 5 for the same reason; e.g.,
Mary: I don't speak English very well now. But I study every night.

II. B. 1. a. (2). EXTENT OF REPLACEMENT

One may find an exercise and even an entire lesson that has little or no focus at all, requiring extensive revision. One must therefore decide whether the amount of material requiring adaptation warrants the effort.

Below is a substitution drill on the pluralization of nouns, similar to one found in a popular beginning text:

(24) (a) The man reads English well.
(response) The men read English well.

(b) The woman appears busy.
The women appear busy.

(c) The boy often sings at school.
The boys often sing at school.

(d) The child plays in the yard during the day.
The children play in the yard during the day.

(e) The girl likes to run.
The girls like to run.

Exercise:

Identify the different sentence structures exemplified in (24).

Answer:

(a) Verb phrase with direct object
(b) Verb phrase with linking verb and adjective phrase
(c) Verb phrase with intransitive verb and two elements in the adverbial phrase
(d) Verb phrase with intransitive verb and two other kinds of elements in the adverbial phrase
(e) Verb phrase with infinite phrase object from an embedded sentence

Since it is the verb phrases which vary so much from example to example, the teacher must decide which type of verb phrase expansion to keep constant, in substituting other sentences for the above. This decision would be determined by the sequencing of verb phrases in the adjacent lessons. If transitive and intransitive verbs have been presented prior to this point, then the verb phrases in sentences (b) and (e) should be adapted by replacing them with either an intransitive verb plus adverbial phrase or a transitive verb plus a noun phrase direct object. Such replacement is not overly extensive but it does sharpen the focus of the exercise appreciably.

We may take the word *extent* to refer to scope as well. In this sense, every aspect of the lesson should come under scrutiny, including the instructions.

We saw in Part One, IV. A. 3. p. 27 that instructions often are phrased more complexly than the responses sought.

Exercise:

How might we alter these instructions which are typically found in response drills?

(Teacher) Ask me if I have a sister.
(Response) Do you have a sister?

(Teacher) Ask me if I have a son.
Do you have a son?

(Teacher) Ask me if I have an old apartment.
Do you have an old apartment?

(Teacher) Ask me if I have a new car.
Do you have a new car?
etc.

Answer:

The instructions should be phrased in terms of a simple sentence, but they may be in the form of a cue plus a simple imperative:

Teacher: Ask me a question with *have*. (Cue word) sister.

Student: Do you have a sister?

II. B. 1. b. VOCABULARY
II. B. 1. b. (1) REPLACING "NEUTRAL" VOCABULARY

Previously, we mentioned that exercises can contain "neutral" vocabulary which is used to "fill in the slots" of sentence structure. This need not be confined to pattern practice exercises only; dialogs are often characterized similarly. Such "neutral" or non-focused terms and expressions should be replaced by those that relate to a particular topic in accordance with the factors that determine difficulty, discussed in Section I. B. 2. c. pp. 52 ff.

Here is an elementary dialog, comparable to one found in a well-known series, illustrating short answers with *be*.

(25) (a) Fred: Are you Chris Miller?
(b) Chris: Yes, I am.
(c) Fred: Are you and Mary friends?
(d) Chris: Yes, we are.
(e) Fred: Is Spanish easy?
(f) Chris: Yes, it is.

In this dialog, the structural focus is clear. What it needs, however, is an improved content, with a definite vocabulary focus. Notice the use of proper nouns in lines (a) and (c), and (e) as well; also the sudden break in topic between lines (d) and (e).

In adapting this dialog a topic depicting a particular social situation needs to be selected from the list developed, as mentioned in Section II. A. pp. 60 ff. With the accompanying list of related vocabulary items the teacher can then replace the "neutral" terms. Since the dialog is an ideal type of exercise for introducing idiomatic and other special expressions, the teacher should capitalize on this potential. He should be aware of the type of phrase each idiom is, and try substituting one for any non-focused word or phrase in the original dialog. For example, in dialog (25) line (c) the idiom *fair-weather friend(s),* a noun phrase, may replace the noun phrase *friends*.

As a sample adaptation of the above dialog, let's choose the topic developed under "Special Needs" in Chart 5, p. 63. Since the dialog is intended for beginning students, we must select new terms that are not too difficult for them.

Here is how the above dialog may be adapted:

(26) (a) Mr. Ramos: Are you the super?
(b) Super: Yes, I am.
(c) Mr. Ramos: Is this apartment for rent?
(d) Super: Yes, it is.
(e) Mr. Ramos: Are the appliances new?
(f) Super: Yes, they are.

This revised dialog offers as much varied practice with short answers with *be* as the original one. Yet it also provides useful vocabulary, including the expression *for rent,* for a student who may have to face the problem of finding an apartment in the city. Obviously, the dialog is not complete. Subsequent dialogs or practice drills can add more content. The vocabulary list associated with a particular topic can be incorporated into a number of exercises within one lesson and even over several lessons.

As many methodology texts have advocated, there should be accompanying aids to get the meaning of the dialog across. For dialog (26) a picture or perhaps two pictures, one of the "super" outside the apartment and one of the kitchen, would be necessary.

The teacher would point to the objects in the picture(s) when saying each sentence for the students to understand. Then he would say the whole dialog again, as the sentences would normally be pronounced, making sure the students understood the meaning. Then he would have the students repeat each line after him, whether he strives for complete or partial memorization of the dialog. He can move on to the next line only after he is satisfied with their mimicry of his pronunciation. The teacher should give the students an opportunity to dramatize the dialog.

For more discussion of dialog techniques, see pp. 127-129 of The Resource Handbook for Teaching and Administering Americanization Programs available from the Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development, State Education Department, free of charge.

Below is a typical substitution drill that contains neutral vocabulary — in this case "classroom words." It is intended to give students practice with imperative sentences.

(27) Give me a book.
a pencil.
a pen.
the book.
the big book.
the English book.

Such a drill seems to lend itself to presenting vocabulary related to the topic of a health examination; the sentences could illustrate typical requests made by a doctor or nurse.

(28) Give me your arm.
your leg.
your elbow.
your hand.

A multiple substitution drill could then be added, with different verbs, typically used by a doctor or nurse in an examining situation.

(29) Hold out your arm.
Lift up your arm.
Lift up your leg.
Put down your leg.
Put down your elbow.

Such drills could be used with articles of clothing as well, along with two-word verbs *take off, put on,* etc.

Given the same topic, an imperative substitution drill like (27) could be adapted to include typical requests by a receptionist at a clinic. This would be a more advanced exercise since it contains more difficult vocabulary items — compound nouns.

(30) Give me your birth certificate.
Give me your social security card.

Give me your social security number.
Give me your phone number.
Give me your driver's license.

II. B. 1. b. (2). REPLACING POORLY SEQUENCED VOCABULARY

In light of the criteria regarding complexity and difficulty pp. 44-54, the teacher should be able to judge whether the vocabulary presented in any lesson is within the range of his students' current abilities. If he finds any terms that are too difficult in a lesson whose topic he wants to retain, he should substitute appropriate synonyms. This procedure is not at all uncommon in the classroom. Teachers often find themselves giving synonyms for difficult words in various kinds of material, in effect, replacing more specialized terms with more general ones.

Exercise:

Sometimes in a vocabulary exercise or structural substitution drill, a text will offer synonymous expressions which are not on the same level of difficulty.

Examine the following short substitution drill:

It was a(n) { very / extremely / unusually / terribly } interesting time.

Notice the range of complexity. What problem might there be in presenting *terribly* as a synonym of *very?*

Answer:

Extremely and *terribly* are on the same level of complexity (as regards their forms), but *unusually* is more complex, having an additional negative element, *un-*. However, *terribly*, in addition to its derivational sense of "in a fearful manner," also has the popular sense of "badly." Thus, because of these other meanings, *terribly* would probably be harder to learn as a synonym of *very* than would the other adverbs, *extremely* and *unusually*.

II. B. 1. b. (3). EXTENT OF REPLACEMENT

There are two questions the teacher should ask in deciding on how much new content to add to a given lesson: (a) How much can be added before the drill gets bogged down? (b) How natural is the altered material, especially a dialog or short reading selection?

The first question deals with a sort of "saturation level." It is possible that an exercise, say a dialog, can contain too many new words and expressions, thereby rendering the whole too difficult to understand. There should be enough familiar vocabulary for the students to feel they have a basis for learning new vocabulary. Perhaps no more than one new word or expression per line in a dialog should be added. There is no hard and fast rule. Teachers must judge for themselves from classroom experience.

It should be pointed out, though, that there are two general uses of dialogs: one is to introduce new sentence structures at the beginning of a lesson; the other is to review the structures at the end of a lesson. Texts will vary in their use of dialogs accordingly.

If a dialog is an introductory one, then less new vocabulary should be introduced as replacement items than if it is a concluding one. Is is hoped that by the end of a lesson students will have gained enough facility with the structures so that they can absorb more vocabulary in a dialog.

Regarding pattern drills, it has been the practice of most audio-lingual textbook writers to use totally familiar vocabulary, or "neutral" vocabulary. The justification offered is that students can then focus all their attention on the structure. This position has been challenged in this manual.

Pattern drills may contain some new vocabulary provided that the theme of the lesson is enhanced *and* that there are sufficient contextual clues to help the student in understanding the sentences he produces. Pictures are one such aid, as is acting out the sentence, if possible. Another type of practice drill, a *paraphrase drill* will be presented in the next section.

The second question (how natural is the altered material?) is directed toward the revision of dialogs. Too many new words may put the dialog out of the students' range. It may also make the dialog seem contrived. The lines are fitted more to the vocabulary rather than the vocabulary fitted into the lines. This danger is further increased when there is an overload of idiomatic expressions.

Exercise:

One of the dangers of a substitution or conversion drill is that there may be some sentences in the middle of it which sound quite artificial, at least more so than the initial ones.

Here is a simple substitution drill very much like one found in a practice text:

bookstore:	There are two bookstores, but one is no good.
jar:	There are two jars, but one is no good.
school:	There are two schools, but one is no good.
egg:	There are two eggs, but one is no good.
taxi:	There are two taxis, but one is no good.
bottle of milk:	There are two bottles of milk, but one is no good.
closet:	There are two closets, but one is no good.
chair:	There are two chairs, but one is no good.
bed:	There are two beds, but one is no good.
theater:	There are two theaters, but one is no good.

Which sentences could be altered? Now try modifying the drill further by retaining only cue words that relate to one topic. You will probably need to add to the topical vocabulary.

Answer:

Sentences with *eggs* and *taxis*, for example, sound artificial. If the topic chosen were, say, places in the neighborhood, then sentences with *bookstore, school,* and *theater* could be retained. If, however, the topic were the setting of an apartment, then sentences with *closet, chair,* and *bed* could be retained.

II. B. 2. SUPPLEMENTATION

We have discussed at some length specific factors in determining the quality of presentation and design of a text. Recall the factors given in determining the appropriateness of design (p. 55). To review:

[i] There should be a variety of exercises for practice.
[ii] The exercises should be arranged in decreasing degree of teacher control over the students' responses; i.e., from a situation in which the students only repeat sentences to one in which they respond on their own.
[iii] The exercises should contain meaningful content.

Having exhausted the possibilities of adapting a lesson that lacks in any of these areas, the teacher should then decide on whether the lesson needs to be supplemented as well. More than likely, additional exercises will be in order.

In this section we will present some techniques for developing certain exercises that can be used with the dialog. Since many texts do not even have dialogs, we will begin by discussing techniques of dialog writing.

If any one lesson lacks certain types of exercises, it is usually the case that the whole text lacks those very types; i.e., particular deficiencies are characteristic of general ones.

For all of the exercises to be developed, the teacher can draw his material from the topic charts, as discussed in Section II. A. pp. 60-63. Before starting to develop extra exercises for any one lesson, he should decide on how many topics he wants to cover in the course and to what extent. If he decides to cover more topics he should limit the amount of content that he will introduce in each lesson. This suggestion holds for both adapting and supplementing lessons. Given the possibility of having the majority of the students in the *next* course, the teacher could employ a *spiral* approach, returning to the same topics but introducing more difficult structures and vocabulary.

But whether the teacher decides to present more content in fewer topics or to cover more topics and less content, he should sequence both the sentence structures and the vocabulary properly.

II. B. 2. a. WRITING DIALOGS
II. B. 2. a. (1) TOPIC OF CONVERSATION

From a more general topic taken from the charts, a specific setting should be selected. The setting should provide a social context which allows for a specific topic of conversation, one which the student might himself engage in. For example taking the "Special Needs" topic, "Apartment Repairs" (Chart 5, p. 63), we might select a specific setting like "Asking for a new door lock," or "Asking about the lease."

II. B. 2. a. (2) CONTENT

By *content*, we refer to both the new structure and the new vocabulary being presented in the dialog.

As mentioned previously, one new structure should be introduced in a dialog; two structures if they are related, as with a simple question and negative sentence in the simple present or past tense, both employing the auxiliary *do*.

A structure that could be used in the context of a particular topic might be taken as the structural focus of the dialog, provided that it fits in with the structural focus of the rest of the lesson.

The amount of vocabulary content that should be introduced depends on which type of dialog is being written: initial or concluding. If the former type is desired, then less new content should be selected from the topical vocabulary list than if the latter type is chosen.

The same factors discussed in connection with the extent of revision of existing dialogs are involved in the creation of new dialogs (see subsection B. 1. b. 3, p. 70). Briefly, one new vocabulary item or expression per line seems advisable. The teacher may increase or decrease this amount depending on the response of his students, the level, the type of dialog, etc.

To avoid oversaturation or unnaturalness, the teacher may wish to construct two dialogs for a lesson, an initial one and a concluding one, thereby spreading out the content over two learning units of the same type.

II. B. 2. a. (3). CHARACTERS IN A DIALOG

The characters depicted in the dialog should satisfy the following criteria:

[i] The student should be able to identify with one of the roles; for example, with a tenant, or a patient, or a client in a bank, supermarket, etc.

[ii] The other character should be one whom the student would need or care to talk with, like the "super," a nurse, or a bank teller.

Thus, a dialog which has as its two characters a husband and a wife would fail to meet the second requirement because rarely do E.S.L. students speak to their spouses in English, unless the spouse happens to be English speaking.

II. B. 2. a. (4). LENGTH OF DIALOG

A length of four to six lines is usually advocated by writers, since anything longer tends to make the goal of memorization, whether complete or partial, harder to attain. A dialog of eight lines is not unreasonably long for more advanced students.

Remember that the same topic may be extended over two or more dialogs so that the writer does not need to worry about the incompleteness of any one conversation.

II. B. 2. a. (5). LENGTH OF LINES

The factor of repeatability is involved in the question of sentence or line length. But the number of words in a sentence is not the sole factor: sentence length interrelates with sentence structure and type of sentence expansion.

Quite naturally, one would expect that simple sentences tend to be shorter than complex sentences. Although there is more latitude with simple sentences as regards some fixed word limit, it must be remembered that new structures in simple sentences are taught to those who have less command of English.

Complex sentences should not be any longer than what is warranted by the construction in the embedded sentence. In any event, the sentences illustrating the new structure, or structures, should not seem artificial insofar as the topic and setting of the dialog are concerned.

Exercise:

Below is the beginning of a dialog on the specific topic "Asking for directions to the post office." Complete it with four more lines, using some of the adverbial phrases listed below. Notice the level of sentence structure; the structural focus is introductory *there* with *be* verb phrases.

Stranger: Is there a post office nearby?
Man on the street: No, there isn't any in this neighborhood.
Stranger:

Adverbial phrases:

(to/on the) left
right

how(far, long,...)
where

straight ahead
over there
(for) # of blocks
near the _____

Guidelines:

All your sentences should be simple sentences. You should have used a different adverbial phrase in each sentence.

II. B. 2. b. WRITING QUESTIONS ON THE DIALOG

In order to insure comprehension of a dialog as well as afford additional practice with the sentences, the teacher may wish to ask questions about it. Depending on the level of the students, the questions may be framed so as to elicit the dialog lines exactly as they are or with certain modifications. For example, taking the incomplete dialog in the previous exercise, the following question is designed to draw out the first line as it is.

(31) What is the stranger's question?

The following question is designed to elicit a response with the sense of the first line.

(32) What is the stranger looking for?

For the second line, question (33) is designed to elicit the line as it is; question (34) is intended to prompt a modified version of it.

(33) Is a post office nearby?

(34) Is there a post office in the man's neighborhood?

The questions must be framed within the structural range commanded by the students and must elicit answers within that same range.

Exercise:

Construct a question for each of the lines in your completed dialog so that the responses will approximate the sentences in the dialog.

II. B. 2. c. WRITING SUBSTITUTION EXERCISES BASED ON THE DIALOG

In *simple* and *mixed substitution* exercises, the teacher may incorporate more vocabulary content.

In a simple substitution exercise, words or phrases of the same class are interchanged. In the following example, based on the dialog above, adverbial phrases are varied.

(35) (a) Is there a post office nearby?
(b) Is there a post office on the next block?
(c) Is there a post office around the corner?
(d) Is there a post office in the neighborhood?
etc.

In a mixed substitution drill, words or phrases of different classes are interchanged, but again the new item replaces one of the same class in the sentence preceding it:

(36) (a) Is there a post office nearby?
(b) Is there a bank nearby?
(c) Is there a bank near here?
(d) Is there a drug store near here?
etc.

These drills are not difficult to construct if the teacher works from a carefully laid out topic chart (e.g. Charts 4 and 5, pp.62-63) which lists the vocabulary according to word classes; see Exercise, p.74 , for the crucial adverbial phrases of place.

Whether the class is practicing a simple or mixed substitution drill, the teacher gives the variable word or phrase as a cue and then calls on a student to say the new sentence with the substitute item in it. For correction purposes, the teacher may say the sentence after the student. He then gives another cue word or phrase, and calls on a second student to alter the previous one, and so forth.

Exercise:

Construct a simple substitution and a mixed substitution drill using the following sentence as a basis.

I have a sharp pain in my back.

Substitute words for the three different underlined words. Be sure to keep the topic constant. Such sentences could be uttered in a health clinic situation.

Answer:

Here are some words you could have used: for the adjective *sharp — strong, dull, slight,* etc; for the noun *pain — ache, soreness* (more restricted), *irritation* (more complex and more restricted); for the noun *back — shoulder, neck, ankle, leg,* etc.

II. B. 2 d. WRITING PARAPHRASE DRILLS

Another kind of substitution exercise is what we might call a *paraphrase* drill. In a simple paraphrase drill synonymous expressions of the same word class or simple phrases of the same class, except verb phrases, are interchanged. Again, one of the sentences from the dialog can serve as a basis for the practice.

(37) (a) No, there isn't any in this neighborhood.
(b) No, there isn't any nearby.
(c) No, there isn't any around here.
(d) No, there isn't any close by.
(e) No, there isn't any in this area.

This drill can be practiced in the same manner as the substitution drills.

A complex paraphrase drill is really practice in paraphrasing a whole sentence, and may involve substituting a sentence with a different structure for the basic one. This kind of drill can be used only with students who have achieved a higher level of proficiency. For example, the second sentence in the dialog on p.74, repeated in 38 (a) can be paraphrased as follows:

(38) (a) No, there isn't any in this neighborhood.
(b) No, there is none in this neighborhood.
(c) No, I know of none in this neighborhood.
(d) No, I don't know of any in this neighborhood.
(e) No, no post office is in this neighborhood.

All these paraphrases are simple sentences. We may increase the set by embedding any of them in a verb phrase.

(39) No, I don't think there is one in this neighborhood.
etc.

Notice that there is a degree of tentativeness added to the sense of (39) that is missing in the sentences in (38).

Other complex paraphrase drills may include sets of sentences having essentially the same hidden structure. For instance, an active and a passive are essentially paraphrases — different in apparent structure but not in hidden structure.

(40) (a) Mr. Lee runs the drugstore.
(b) The drugstore is run by Mr. Lee.

Such an exercise is often called a *conversion* (or "transformation") drill. The teacher says the first sentence and a student responds with the second.

The teacher may wish to preface a paraphrase drill with an opening sentence which serves as a contextual basis, as in the following, in which sentence (41) provides the context for the paraphrases in (42).

(41) Jose is going to the dentist this afternoon.

(42) (a) He seems anxious.
(b) He seems nervous.
(c) He seems worried.
(d) He seems concerned.
(e) He seems edgy.

The contextual sentence can come from the dialog or at least the variable word *anxious* can.

At a later stage, a paraphrase drill may be conducted in which the teacher gives only the basic sentence and then asks individual students to offer a paraphrase, using the structures they have previously learned.

Exercise:

Construct a complex paraphrase drill for the following question — one which a doctor or nurse would ask a patient.

What's been bothering you?

Construct a simple paraphrase drill for the following answer to the above question by substituting verbs synonymous with *bother* in the verb phrase:

My back bothers me.

Answer:

For the complex paraphrase drill, you might include questions like these:

What's the matter?
What's ailing you?

For the simple paraphrase drill, you might include statements like these:

My back { hurts / is hurting } me.

My back { annoys / is annoying } me.

II. B. 2 e. WRITING QUESTIONS RELATED TO THE GENERAL TOPIC

The teacher may construct questions which deal with the same subject matter of the lesson, but at this point eliciting original responses from the students. Again, the questions should be framed in terms of the known sentence structures using the vocabulary presented earlier in the lesson. If the teacher decides to use new vocabulary at this point, it should be made clear from the context. Moreover, while the students will give various answers to the questions, they should be encouraged to frame their sentences in terms of the principles that they have learned. Much depends on the structure of the questions.

For example, with the topic of asking directions, the teacher could ask the students questions like the following:

(43) Where is the { bank / drug store / post office } in your neighborhood?

(44) How do you get there?

Students can also ask similar questions of one another, as a kind of *chain question drill*. A chain drill is one in which a student asks a second student a question; the second answers the question and, in turn, asks a third student the same question, etc.

II. B. 2. f. PREPARING FOR ROLE PLAYING

As a final exercise, students may engage in role-playing. The teacher offers situational cues to two students who act out specific roles. Having practiced the previous exercises, the students have enough of a verbal repertoire to express themselves in the situation within the sphere of the known structures. The teacher oversees the short conversation, making limited correction as he sees necessary. For example, one student may play the role of employer while another student plays that of a job seeker. Students are encouraged to use vocabulary already familiar to them, for example, as given in Chart 6.

Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	Expressions
employment	minimum	pay	carefully	per hour
wage(s)	maximum	work	promptly	on duty
benefits	hourly	interview		off duty
occupation	skillful	contact		after hours
clerk	skilled	apply (for)		overtime
electrician		punch (the clock)		sick pay
custodian				on-the-job training
bookkeeper				
secretary				
etc.				
reference(s)				
application				
interview				
experience				
ad(vertisement)				

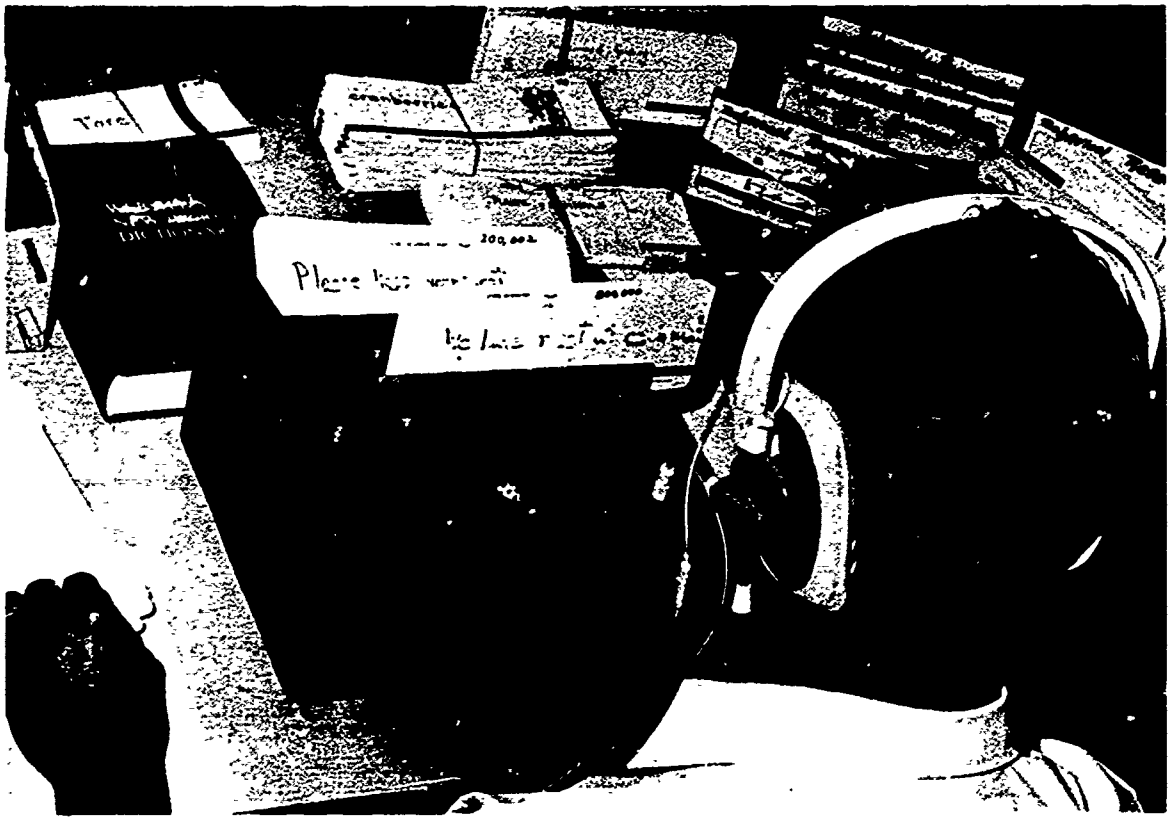
CHART 6

Role playing is more workable, and enjoyable, with students having greater proficiency. However, it can be done on a very limited basis, with limited vocabulary and structure, even with beginning students. For example, in the customary beginning lessons on introductions, the students can introduce themselves to one another, instead of merely introducing fictitious characters in a dialog. Students are encouraged to learn more as they realize they can put to use what they have practiced.

II. B. 2. g. SUMMARY

All of these exercises, from the dialog to role playing, are designed to meet the three criteria on pp. 57-58. They are varied; they allow for more student originality of response, and they concern relevant content. There

are other types of exercises that the teacher may wish to use in supplementing a lesson. There is no limit to the number of beneficial activities that the teacher may devise for his students.



Practicing the new language

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The following is a brief, annotated list of publications grouped according to the following headings: Introductions to Language Theory, Methodology Texts, Teaching Texts for Beginning Adults, and Contrastive Analyses.

For a longer, but unannotated bibliography, see the following:

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Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development
State Education Department
Albany, N.Y. 12234

INTRODUCTION TO LANGUAGE THEORY

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  Although slightly dated, this book presents, simply and clearly, the theory of transformational grammar somewhat differently from the treatment in Part One. It describes many of the same rules discussed in Part One in notational terms.

- Fromkin, Victoria, and Robert Rodman. *An Introduction to Language.* New York, N.Y. Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1974.

  This is a clear and up-to-date general introduction to the theory of transformational grammar.

- Jacobs, Roderick, and Peter Rosenbaum. *English Transformational Grammar.* Waltham, Mass. Blaisdell Publishing Co., 1968.

  This text gives a more detailed formulation of a transformational grammar of English.

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  This is a good introduction to the general study of language, providing a framework which every language teacher should have. It also includes a concise description of the English sound system.

METHODOLOGY TEXTS

- Dacanay, F. R. and J. Donald Bowen. *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching.* Dobbs Ferry, N.Y. Oceana Publications, 1963.

  Written at the Philippine Center for Language Study, with particular reference to the teaching of English to Filipino children, the book offers many practical suggestions for imaginative exercises on sentence structure, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

- Hines, Mary. *Role-Playing: Controlled Skits in English as a Second Language.* New York, N.Y. Regents, 1973.

  This is a fresh approach to teaching E.S.L. to beginning and intermediate students, based on the author's experience in an evening adult program at New York University's American Language Institute.

- Preston, Dennis R. "English as a Second Language in Adult Basic Education Programs." *TESOL Quarterly,* V (September 1971), 181-96.

  This article discusses some realistic problems peculiar to E.S.L. Adult Basic Education classes and offers some techniques to remedy them.

- Rivers, Wilga. *Teaching Foreign-Language Skills.* Chicago, Ill.: University of Chicago Press, 1968.

  This book critically evaluates audio-lingual methodology in light or more recent linguistic and psychological theories, as well as offers much sound advice for effective classroom practice.

- Stevick, Earl W. *Helping People Learn English.* Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press, 1957.

  A methods text for the untrained teacher, it offers both practical suggestions and sample materials.

- Stevick, Earl W. *A Workbook in Language Teaching With Special Reference to English as a Foreign Language.* Nashville, Tenn.: Abingdon Press. 1963.

  It provides guidelines for the teacher in training, dealing with the teaching of English sounds and sentence structure. The background material on the sound system (phonology), though somewhat out-moded now, will be helpful.

- Stevick, Earl W. *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons,* 1973. Order from:

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- University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development. *Handbook for Teaching and Administering Americanization Programs*, Preliminary Edition, 1970.

  Chapters 2 and 4 provide an introduction to the basic audio-lingual methods. Appendix II offers suggestions for both the content and the presentation of dialogs. (Available free)

- University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Bureau of Basic Continuing Education. *Teaching English as a Second Language: A Self-Instructional Course*, 5 Units. Revised Edition, 1974.

  Units II and III present various audio-lingual techniques; Unit IV deals with English sounds and methods of teaching them. (Available free)

TEACHING TEXTS FOR BEGINNING ADULTS

- University of the State of New York, State Education Department, Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development. *Basic Lessons in Beginning English for Americanization Teachers*, 1969.

  This is a graded set of 100 lesson outlines that can be easily adapted and supplemented. (Available free)

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  The volumes listed below comprise the series to date. They compare English and either Spanish, Italian, or German with respect to aspects of grammatical structure or sound structure. (Each is in paperback.)

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  - Agard, Frederick B. and Robert J. Di Pietro. *The Sounds of English and Italian*, 1965.
  - Kufner, Herbert. *The Grammatical Structures of English and German*, 1962.
  - Moulton, William G. *The Sounds of English and German*, 1962.
  - Stockwell, Robert P., J. Donald Bowen, and John W. Martin. *The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish*, 1965.
  - Stockwell, Robert P. and J. Donald Bowen. *The Sounds of English and Spanish*, 1965.

- Board of Education, City of New York, The Puerto Rican Study. *Teaching English to Puerto Rican Pupils in the Secondary Schools* (Language Guide Series), 1957

  Besides presenting audio-lingual methodology, this text lists a number of contrastive structures in English and Spanish.

- Board of Education, City of New York Bureau of Curriculum Development. *Teaching English as a Second Language in the Middle Grades* (Curriculum Bulletin, 1969-70, Series No. 7), 1971.

  This methods text also provides a shorter list of contrastive points between English and the following languages: Spanish, German, Slavic languages (in general), and Chinese.

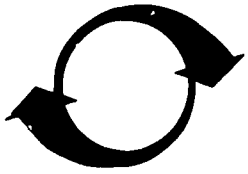
APPENDIX 1

			Example
1. Noun affixes:			
verb	+	ment	entertainment
verb	+	ance ence	assurance recurrence
verb	+	ion	confusion
verb	+	al	refusal
	+	er	teacher
		or	professor
adjective	+	ness	carelessness
adjective	+	ity	clarity
adjective	+	y	jealousy
2. Verb affixes:			
en	+	noun adjective	encourage enable
adjective	+	en	dampen
adjective	+	ize	visualize
3. Adjective affixes:			
noun	+	al	procedural
noun	+	ly	friendly
noun	+	ish	bookish
noun	+	able ible	reasonable edible
noun	+	ful	careful
noun (with ance) ence	+	t (replacing last sound)	insistent (compare noun insistence)
nouns (with (t) ion)	+	ive (replacing noun suffix)	active (compare action)
noun	+	ous (often replacing a noun suffix)	cautious (compare caution)
4. Adverb affixes:			
adjective	+	ly	carefully

A PLACEMENT GUIDE

TO ACCOMPANY

Modifying English as a Second Language Materials



(For Instructing ABE Students)

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THE STATE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT
Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development
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FOREWORD

This publication was developed as a supplement to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials. Its purpose is to assist E.S.L. instructors of adults in identifying those sections of the parent manual that would be beneficial for them to study.

Following a programed format, the reader is introduced to the broad goals for each of the two major divisions of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, plus the specific objectives for each section. Interspersed throughout this placement guide are short tests which the reader can use to assess his/her knowledge of the concepts or mastery of the skills being focused upon. These tests might also serve as a comprehensive review of the subject by one who has elected to complete the entire course of self-study set forth in the parent manual.

Because this is a publication that will likely challenge the reader to respond to some, if not all, of the assessments of learning, s/he is encouraged to have on hand several pencils, a pad of paper, and a copy of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials.

Donald W. McKeon, assistant professor, Department of English, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, developed the original manuscript. Robert Poczik, associate with the Unit on Basic Continuing Education, reviewed the earlier drafts and made helpful suggestions. The entire project was directed by George K. Tregaskis, associate, Bureau of Continuing Education Curriculum Development.

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CONTENTS

GENERAL STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES FOR PART ONE OF MODIFYING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE MATERIALS

Part One is an introduction to the principles of sentence structure in English, and is based on the work of contemporary transformational grammarians, as led by Noam Chomsky. Many of the insights presented in Part One can be attributed to Chomsky, although in many instances they have been simplified for this manual.

The general objectives of Part One are:

1. To acquaint the reader with the basic principles of English sentence structure

2. To assist the reader in applying these principles to the analysis of English sentences

3. To show the reader that successful second language teaching depends on the teacher's understanding of the organization of the language he teaches

4. To prepare the reader for Part Two, in which he will be guided by his knowledge of the structure of English in considering why and how to modify E.S.L. materials

- *If the above describes a course of study that you know you are in need of, read no further; but rather, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and begin with page 1. When you have completed Part One of that manual, you may wish to return to this publication and assess what you've learned by completing the exercises on pages 6, 9, 12, 14, and 18. Then continue in this publication at page 21.*

- *If you are uncertain of your competencies in the areas generally described thus far, turn to the next page.*

- *If you feel that before making this decision you need more specifics regarding the concepts presented in Part One, turn to the Summary on page 40 of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials. After reading the summary, return to page 6 of this publication.*

Focus of instruction for Part One, Section I:

1. To show that a sentence in English is not simply a random combination of words

2. To show that sentence patterns can be determined by identifying the word classes (parts of speech) in varying sequences

3. To show, however, that these sentence patterns do not adequately describe English sentence structure because they are virtually limitless

- *Perhaps these objectives have clarified for you that you need all of Part One of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials. If so, turn to page 1 of that manual and work through to page 40. Then return to this publication and assess your learning by completing the exercises on pages 6, 9, 12, 14, and 18. Then turn to page 21 of this publication.*

- *If you are certain you do not need Part One, turn to page 21 of this publication.*

- *If you still remain in doubt regarding your familiarity with the concepts referred to in the above objectives, test your knowledge with the following assessment:*

Assessment of learning for Part One, Section I:

1. Identify the word classes (parts of speech) in the following sentences.

   (a) A nice little old man walked his well-trained red Irish setter.
   (b) Some doctors should be working on that ward.
   (c) John said you thought I was rather lazy.
   (d) I met the man who found the dog which Maria lost.

2. Why do these particular sentences show that we cannot list all the word class sequences (sentence patterns) in English?

- *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part One, Section I:

1. (a) Determiner Adjective Adjective Adjective Noun Verb
(A nice little old man walked

Determiner Adverb Past Participle Adjective
his well-trained red

Nominal Adjective Noun
Irish setter.)

(b) Determiner Noun Modal Auxiliary Auxiliary Verb + ing
(Some doctors should be working

Preposition Determiner Noun
on that ward.)

(c) Noun Verb Noun Verb Noun Verb Adverb (Intensifier)
(John said you thought I was rather

Adjective
lazy.)

(d) Noun Verb Determiner Noun Relative Pronoun Verb
(I met the man who found

Determiner Noun Relative Pronoun Noun Verb
the dog which Maria lost.)

2. As can be seen from these examples, it is not at all difficult to expand any sentence in the language; e.g., to expand the modification before nouns, as in sentence (a), or to expand the auxiliary verbs, as in (b), or to add to the number of noun or pronoun-verb combinations, as in (c) and (d). And yet, we can still expand these sentences, without any difficulty. In the process, the number of sentence patterns is quickly multiplied.

- *If you did well on this assessment, turn to the next page.*
- *If you did poorly on this quiz, then you probably should turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and review pages 1 and 2, and then return to page 8 of this publication.*

Focus of instruction for Part One, Section II:

1. To present some evidence for the existence of phrase structure

2. To show what phrase structure is: what a phrase is and how phrases are hierarchically arranged in a sentence

3. To explore the primary characteristics of the principal phrases, with special attention given to the determiner and auxiliary phrases in English

- *If these statements refer to instruction you feel you could profit from, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and begin with page 3. Work through page 22. Then try the assessment of learning on page 9 of this publication.*

- *If you feel that you are already familiar with these concepts, test your knowledge with the assessment of learning, page 9 of this publication.*

Assessment of learning for Part One, Section II:

1. Is the underlined sequence of words a phrase? Why or why not?

   The man will buy a train ticket.

2. Why is the following sentence unacceptable to a native speaker of English?

   *Victor found and Carlos the answer.

3. What must every phrase with a common noun have?

4. What are the determiners in the following sentences and what do they signify?

   a. The boy found a dog.
   b. Books are becoming expensive.

5. What feature of phrase structure is evident in the following sentence?

   The woman from the consumer agency gave some advice to the storekeeper.

6. Identify the parts of the auxiliary in the following sentences. What do they signify?

   (a) Julio has been thinking about Maria.
   (b) Yao should have left in the morning.
   (c) Tom may be working now.
   (d) Mario didn't help Sam.
   (e) Your watch could have been broken.

7. Identify the types of adverb phrases in this sentence:

   Last year Alberto usually took a cab to his office with great reluctance.

• *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part One, Section II:

1. No, man is part of a noun phrase, whereas will is part of the verb phrase.

2. It is unacceptable because the conjunction and does not join two phrases of the same kind; furthermore, Victor found is not a complete phrase (sentence) because the verb phrase is not complete; the noun phrase the answer is part of the verb phrase (found the answer is the complete verb phrase).

3. Every noun phrase with a common noun must have a determiner, followed by the noun itself.

4. a. The is a definite article, and is used because the identification of the noun is assumed; a is an indefinite singular article, indicating a specific object, but one which has not been previously introduced or identified.

   b. The indefinite article for plurals, represented as Ø because there is no signal, occurs before the noun books, indicating a nonspecific reference.

5. This sentence illustrates the hierarchical structure of phrase structure; i.e., that phrases may be contained within other phrases. Thus, there is a prepositional phrase (from the consumer agency) within the first noun phrase; there is also a noun phrase (some advice) and prepositional phrase (to the storekeeper) within the verb phrase.

6. (a) In has been thinking, we find the following parts of the auxiliary:

   Present tense (attached to have), have plus -en (attached to be), be plus -ing (attached to the verb think); meaning: repeated or continued (mental) action up to the present and likely to continue in the future.

   (b) In should have left:

   Past tense (attached to shall), the modal shall, have plus -en (attached to the verb leave); meaning: past obligation (to leave) that was unfulfilled.

   (c) In may be working:

   Present tense (attached to may), the modal may, be plus -ing (attached to work); meaning: possible action occurring at the present.

(d) In didn't help:

Past tense (attached to do); the functional auxiliary do is placed into the auxiliary phrase to carry the tense; meaning: negative of past action at a particular time.

(e) In could have been broken:

Past tense (attached to can), the modal can, have plus -en (attached to be), be plus -en (attached to the verb break); meaning: past possibility in passive voice.

7. Last year is a time adverb phrase; usually is a frequency adverb; to his office is a place adverb phrase; with great reluctance is a manner adverb phrase.

- *If you did well on this quiz, turn to the next page.*
- *If you did poorly on this quiz, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, page 3, and review through page 22. Then return to page 12 of this publication.*

Focus of instruction for Part One, Section III.

1. To present a description of a sentence in formal terms

2. To show that all forms of sentences have a noun phrase (functioning as subject) followed by a verb phrase (functioning as predicate)

3. To consider the various forms of sentences and to show the interrelationships, especially between statements and questions

- *If these statements refer to instruction from which you feel you could profit, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and read pages 22 through 25. Then try the assessment of learning, page 12 of this publication.*

- *If you feel that you are already familiar with these concepts, test your knowledge with the assessment of learning, below.*

Assessment of learning for Part One, Section III:

1. What components must every sentence have?

2. How do the following questions differ in form from the corresponding statements?

   (a) Have the kids been sick? (The kids have been sick.)
   (b) Where is the guy from Jersey working? (The guy from Jersey is working someplace.)

3. How do the following examples seem to violate the principle concerning the required components in any sentence?

   (a) Be quiet.
   (b) To the store.

4. Can you explain why the sentences in question 3 are not really violations of that principle?

- *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part One, Section III:

1. Every sentence must have a noun phrase plus a verb phrase (in that order).

2. (a) The tensed form of have has been placed in front of the subject noun phrase the kids.

   (b) The tensed form of have has been placed in front of the subject noun phrase the guy from Jersey; the place adverb (and question word) where has been placed in the front of the sentence.

3. (a) There is no subject noun phrase in the sentence, a command (nor is there any auxiliary — minimally the tense — in the verb phrase).

   (b) There is no subject noun phrase, auxiliary or verb in the verb phrase; only the place adverb phrase is present.

4. (a) In order to interpret the command, we must supply a subject: you. This does not mean that we consciously process the sentence in this manner.

   (b) This phrase can only be understood if we supply a subject and an auxiliary plus verb, as, for example: He's going to the store. Thus, to the store is understood as an appropriate answer to a question like Where is he going? In such a case, any predictable information — e.g., identical subjects and parts of the verb phrase — may be missing in the answer.

   Our interpretation of these seemingly exceptional sentences, then, depends on more information than what structure is present in them. Section V explains more fully how they are not really exceptions to the principle that every sentence has a subject noun phrase plus a verb phrase.

- *If you did well on this assessment, turn to the next page.*
- *If you did poorly on this assessment, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, page 22, and review through page 25. Then return to page 14 of this book.*

Focus of instruction for Part One, Section IV:

1. To show that complex sentences are formed by embedding sentences within the major phrases

2. To illustrate some of the major ways in which sentences may be embedded within phrases to form various kinds of clauses — complement and noun clauses, relative clauses, comparison and adverbial clauses

3. To emphasize that an understanding of these principles or rules, which will be informally presented, is necessary for one to teach English effectively

- *If these statements refer to instruction that you feel would be beneficial to you, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and work from page 25 through to page 32. Then return to this page and assess your learning with the exercise below.*

- *If you feel that your grasp of these concepts is adequate, then test your knowledge with the following assessment.*

Assessment of learning for Part One, Section IV:

1. How is a complex sentence formed in English?

2. Identify the following types of embedded sentences:

   (a) I believe what you told me.
   (b) John lives in the neighborhood where I was born.
   (c) The thing I disagree with is that those guys don't do their work.
   (d) We were so sick of that program that we left in the middle of it.
   (e) Do you like the fact that Joe left the dishes?

3. Give an informal account of the rules that are responsible for the formation of the clauses in question 2.

- *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part One, Section IV:

1. A complex sentence is formed by embedding a sentence in a noun phrase or verb phrase; in other words, by expanding a noun phrase or verb phrase with a sentence.

2. (a) What you told me is a noun clause (direct object of the verb believe).

   (b) Where I was born is a relative clause, modifying the noun neighborhood.

   (c) I disagree with is a relative clause, without the relative pronoun (object); that those guys don't do their work is a noun clause (object or "complement" of the verb be).

   (d) So (sick...) that we left in the middle of it is an adjective result clause.

   (e) That Joe left the dishes is a complement sentence of the noun phrase the fact.

3. (a) Similar to the formation of the question, What did you tell me?, what originates as the object of the verb tell and is moved to the front of the embedded sentence. Since, however, it is an embedded sentence, the rule that forms a question by moving part of the auxiliary around the subject does not apply.

   (b) The relative clause is embedded in the noun phrase that is part of the prepositional phrase. The relative pronoun where (meaning the neighborhood) is moved from the adverb phrase position to the front of the embedded sentence.

   (c) The relative clause I disagree with is embedded in the noun phrase subject, with the relative pronoun which (meaning the thing) being omitted. (No subject relative pronouns may be dropped in relative clauses.) The noun clause that those guys don't do their work, introduced by the word that, is formed as simple sentences similar to it would be.

(d) The adjective result clause is introduced by the intensifier so before the adjective sick, followed by that plus the embedded sentence. Only the auxiliary in the embedded sentence is affected by the main sentence; the tense must be past because it is past in the main verb phrase.

(e) The complement sentence for the noun fact is introduced by that and is embedded within the noun phrase direct object. Like the noun clause in sentence (c), the complement sentence is formed as if it were a simple sentence.

- *If you did well on this assessment, turn to the next page.*
- *If you did poorly on this assessment, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, page 25, and review through page 32. Then return to page 17 of this publication.*

Focus of instruction for Part One, Section V.

1. To show that at the basis of every sentence in English there is a hidden structure which is distinct from, and more abstract than, the apparent phrase structure

2. To indicate how the hidden structure of a sentence determines its meaning; that the hidden structure expresses the semantic functions of the phrases

3. To show that there are definite rules, called transformations, which alter the form of the hidden structure of a sentence in various ways

4. To demonstrate, as a result, that the apparent structure of a sentence may not accurately reflect the order and hierarchical arrangement of phrases (in the hidden structure) determining the meaning of the sentence

5. To (informally) present some transformations which account for many of the differences between the two levels of phrase structure; e.g., rules which delete subject noun phrases or verb phrases; rules which add new elements or which rearrange phrases

6. To indicate how the complex relationship between form and meaning in English is explained in terms of hidden structure; in other words, that an ambiguous sentence has at least two different hidden structures, while two synonymous sentences (with different apparent structures) have one common hidden structure

7. To show, more generally, that many of the underlying regularities of the language can only be brought to light through the introduction of hidden structure into the analysis of English sentences

8. To convince the reader that the language must therefore be presented according to the features of the hidden structure of sentences, not of the apparent structure

9. To help the reader to identify the hidden structure of sentences in preparation for the task of determining how to go about modifying E.S.L. materials, as presented in Part Two.

- *If these statements refer to instruction that you feel would be beneficial to you, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and work from page 32 through to page 40. Then try the assessment of learning on page 18.*

- *If you feel that your understanding of these concepts is adequate, test your knowledge with the assessment of learning on the following page.*

Assessment of learning for Part One, Section V.

1. What is the significance of the subject and object noun phrases in hidden structure?

2. How do the following sentences show the need for hidden structure?

   (a) Sit down.
   (b) George has been doing well but not Sam.
   (c) Pablo was hired by the agency yesterday.

3. Give an informal account of the difference(s) between the hidden and apparent structures in the following examples:

   (a) The Almeidas expect to stay in Brazil.
   (b) I talked to the boy delivering the paper.
   (c) The boxes were needed by Eduardo.
   (d) Miguel will bring the problem up at the meeting.

4. Which of the following pairs have the same or similar hidden structures?

   (a) (i) John is forgotten.
       (ii) John has forgotten.

   (b) (i) Chen will be examined on Tuesday.
       (ii) Someone will examine Chen on Tuesday.

   (c) (i) We promised Bill to get the tickets.
       (ii) We expected Bill to get the tickets.

5. How are the following sentences ambiguous? Briefly describe the two different hidden structures for each.

   (a) Alberto told us that Kim was sick in the morning.
   (b) They have spoiled goods from the store.

• *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part One, Section V:

1. The subject noun phrase in the hidden structure is the semantic subject of the verb, or, as is usually the case, the agent of the verb; the object noun phrase is the semantic object of the verb.

2. (a) This imperative sentence has no subject noun phrase (nor auxiliary) in the apparent structure; yet we interpret it as having the underlying subject you, which is indicated in the hidden structure of the sentence.

3. (b) The second half of the compound sentence, (but) not Sam, is interpreted as meaning (but) Sam has not been doing well. Therefore, we can assume that this information is specifically given in the hidden structure of the compound sentence: there are two complete sentences joined by but, but because the verb phrase in the second sentence is identical to that of the first, it is deleted, leaving only the negative element and the subject.

   (c) In passive sentences like this one, the subject in interpreted as the semantic object of the verb, whereas the noun phrase in the by phrase is interpreted as the semantic subject. It is in the hidden structure of the sentence that these functions determining the meaning are expressed.

3. (a) The infinitive phrase to stay in Brazil comes from an embedded sentence (as the object of the verb expect) in the hidden structure. Since the subject of that embedded sentence is identical to the main subject, it is deleted, (and to is substituted for the auxiliary).

   (b) The -ing phrase is derived from an embedded sentence in the noun phrase containing the boy: the boy was delivering the paper becomes the basis for the relative clause who was delivering the paper, which may be reduced to the -ing phrase by deleting who was.

   (c) The hidden structure for this passive sentence will be the same as the one for the active counterpart: Eduardo needed the boxes. Thus, the subject noun phrase is Eduardo; the verb phrase consists of past tense as the auxiliary, followed by the verb need and the direct object noun phrase the boxes. The different placement of the two noun phrases, the insertion of by before the second noun phrase (the hidden subject), along with the inclusion of be plus -en at the end of the auxiliary are all part of the operation of the passive transformation.

   (d) The two-word verb (bring plus the particle up) will be together in the hidden structure: a transformation shifts the particle around the noun phrase object, the problem, in order to produce the apparent structure for this sentence.

4. (a) These two sentences have quite different hidden structures: the first sentence is a passive without the agent phrase (the hidden subject in the by phrase); an indefinite noun phrase someone is deleted along with by, after the passive transformation has applied to the hidden structure; someone is thus the subject in the hidden structure, while John is the object of the verb forget; the auxiliary contains only the present tense. In the second sentence, John is the hidden subject, with the present tense and have plus -en in the auxiliary phrase; however, the indefinite object noun phrase something or someone has been deleted.

   (b) These two sentences have the same hidden structure. (Notice that they have the same meaning, although they are very different in apparent form.) Like sentence (a.i), John is forgotten, sentence (b.i) is a passive without the agent phrase by someone. The indefinite noun phrase someone is thus the hidden subject of the sentence, while the noun phrase Chen is the hidden object of the verb. With the be plus -en auxiliary in (b.i) added by the passive transformation, we can see that both the active and the passive sentences have the same hidden structure.

   (c) These two sentences look alike in apparent form, with only the main verbs being different. Yet, in considering the semantic functions of the embedded sentences in each, we note that we is the semantic subject of the verb get in (i), whereas Bill is the semantic subject in (ii).

5. (a) In one hidden structure, the adverb phrase of time, in the morning, is part of the verb phrase of the embedded sentence, was sick in the morning. In the other hidden structure, the adverb phrase is part of the main verb phrase, told us...in the morning. Again, the two different hidden structures are responsible for the two meanings of the same string of words.

   (b) In one hidden structure, the auxiliary contains the present tense and have plus -en, the basis for the present perfect form of the verb, have spoiled; goods from the store is the object noun phrase. In the other hidden structure, the main verb is have, with goods from the store as the direct object. The modifier spoiled comes from an embedded sentence, approximately, someone (something) spoiled the goods. After the passive transformation has applied, the embedded sentence becomes the source of the past participle modifier spoiled (with a passive meaning) as well as a passive relative clause, which were spoiled.

- *If you did well on this assessment, turn to the next page which introduces you to Part Two.*

- *If you did poorly on this assessment, then turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, and review pages 32 through 40. Then return to page 21 of this publication.*

GENERAL STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES FOR PART TWO OF MODIFYING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE MATERIALS

Part Two of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials explains how a knowledge of the structure of English sentences can be applied in the task of modifying E.S.L. materials to meet the needs of adult students. Specific criteria for the instructor to follow in making changes in the materials are described, and guided practice in modifying various kinds of exercises and in constructing new ones is provided.

- *If you feel that you could benefit by this type of exposure and practice, turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials, page 41, and work through to page 80. Then return to this publication and assess your learning by completing the exercises in pages 23 and 27. Upon satisfactory completion of these exercises you will have finished the course. Congratulations!*

- *If you are uncertain of your abilities to develop appropriate adaptations of currently available E.S.L. materials, then turn to the next page.*

Focus of instruction for Part Two, Section I:

1. To show that the appropriateness of any E.S.L. materials can be determined by examining their presentation and design

2. To show that the appropriateness of presentation can be determined by considering how clear the focus is for any given lesson and how well sequenced the lessons are

3. To indicate how clarity of focus can be assessed for sentence structure and vocabulary; more specifically, (i) that the principles of sentence structure presented in Part One are crucial to determining whether any lesson has a definite structural focus; and (ii) that relatedness to a specific topic is crucial to determining whether a lesson has a definite vocabulary focus

4. To show how the quality of sequencing can be ascertained by considering matters of complexity and difficulty

5. To differentiate the principle of difficulty from that of complexity by showing how the former relates to an individual's problems in learning forms, meanings, and the relationship between form and meaning in the new language

6. To point out the need for the teacher to be aware of areas of difficulty for different language groups (i.e., points where the students' native language will cause interference in the learning of the new forms in English), and the value of contrastive analyses, where available, as a guide in predicting the problems in learning

7. To give an overview of the structure of English vocabulary by looking at word forms (stems and affixes), compound words, and idioms

8. To distinguish (roughly) two types of vocabulary — general and specialized — and to indicate some pedagogic implications of this distinction

9. To show that the appropriateness of the design of any material is ascertained in terms of its usefulness in expediting genuine communication among beginning students in contexts that would be familiar to them outside the classroom

10. To evaluate the basic audio-lingual approach in terms of the general goal of ease and effectiveness of communication; more particularly, to examine various pattern practice drills in light of three criteria: (i) there should be a variety of exercises for practice; (ii) the exercises should be arranged in decreasing degree of teacher control over the students' responses; (iii) the exercises should contain meaningful content; i.e., related to an everyday social context

- *Perhaps these objectives have clarified for you that it would be beneficial for you to work your way through Part Two. If so, turn to page 41 of Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and work through to page 60. Then return to the assessment of learning for Part Two, Section I which begins below.*

Assessment of learning for Part Two, Section I:

1. How is focus determined for sentence structure? How is it determined for vocabulary?

2. What principles should be kept in mind in assessing the sequencing of sentence structures and vocabulary? Which one takes precedence in determining an order of presentation of certain vocabulary items, for example?

3. How does difficulty differ from complexity?

4. Will a complex structure or word always be more difficult for a student to learn than a simpler one?

5. Given the following set of synonyms, in which order would you present them to, say, a group of Spanish speakers? Explain.

   offense, crime, felony, wrongdoing

6. Given the following sentences, which would you teach first? Why?

   (a) I've lived on Third Ave.
   (b) I'm living on Third Ave.
   (c) I enjoy living on Third Ave.

7. Which type of exercise would you use first? Why?

   (a) Response drill
   (b) Expansion drill
   (c) Multiple substitution drill

8. How would you complete the following question for use in a beginning class? Explain your choice.

   How do you like _____?
   (a) the lesson
   (b) the traffic
   (c) your coffee

- *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part Two, Section I:

1. Structural focus is determined by considering the relatedness of the hidden structures of the sentences in a lesson, and this involves understanding the principles underlying the formation of the hidden structure and the transformations that determine the apparent form. Vocabulary focus is determined by judging the relatedness of the items to a particular topic.

2. The principles of complexity and difficulty should be considered. The principle of difficulty takes precedence over that of complexity in ordering vocabulary; i.e., less difficult words should be presented before less complex (and before either, more general words).

3. Difficulty involves the background of the student in his learning of the language, including his linguistic background, since the aspects of his native language may either facilitate or interfere with his learning of the target language (English) — whether in the area of the form, or the meaning, or the form-meaning relationship. Complexity deals with the organization of the language.

4. A complex structure or vocabulary item will not necessarily be more difficult for a student to learn than a simpler one because the phenomenon of interference must be taken into consideration. For example, the word *opulence* is more complex than its synonym *wealth*, but for a Spanish speaker the latter is more difficult to learn because it is unrelated to Spanish (i.e., it is a noncognate), whereas the former is a cognate.

5. Crime is most general, so it should be given first; offence is least difficult, so it should be presented next; while wrongdoing is more difficult than felony, the latter is more specialized and so should be presented after wrongdoing.

6. Sentence b is less complex than sentence c, since the latter has an embedded sentence in its hidden structure; while sentence a is no more complex than sentence b, sentence a is definitely more difficult (regarding the form-meaning relationship) for most students. Therefore, sentence b should be presented first (that is, present continuous verb phrases before present perfect verb phrases).

7. A multiple substitution drill should be used first because it is a more structured drill than the others; on the other hand, an expansion drill allows for more originality of response than the others and thus should be employed last.

8. The lesson is classroom vocabulary and therefore should be used sparingly; the traffic is more suitable for an urban environment; if your coffee is added, the sentence becomes more complex than the other two. Consider an appropriate answer to the question, How do you like your coffee? E.g., I like my coffee hot. The teacher should be careful not to change the hidden structure of a sentence when substituting various items in a "slot."

- *If you did well on this assessment, turn to page 26.*

- *If you did poorly on this assessment, you should turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and review pages 41 through 60. Then return to page 26 of this publication.*

Focus of instruction for Part Two, Section II:

1. To offer guidelines for the teacher to modify any lesson, in either adapting it and/or supplementing it with additional exercises

2. To illustrate the manner in which a lesson can be based on a particular topic that reflects a social situation likely to be encountered by adult students living in an urban environment; more specifically, to show how to develop a topic chart for useful vocabulary and expressions, serving as a basis for enriching an exercise or developing a new one

3. To show how to adapt a lesson in terms of replacing ill-suited sentence structures and vocabulary items with more appropriately sequenced and pertinent ones

4. To offer some suggestions in determining how much material to replace

5. To demonstrate how to supplement a lesson by using the dialog as a basis; in particular, to suggest how to write a well-structured dialog with meaningful content, and how to write various kinds of exercises designed to give students an increasing degree of latitude in using what they have learned — including questions, substitution exercises, and paraphrase drills, all based on the dialog

- *If the above statements describe a course of study combining guidelines and practices in adapting E.S.L. materials to the needs of A.B.E. students that you feel would be profitable for you, then turn to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials and work your way from page 60 to 30. Then return to page 27 of this publication and test your knowledge with the assessment of learning.*

- *If you are uncertain of your competencies to make such adaptations and wish to test your abilities in this area, complete the assessments of learning on the next page.*

Assessment of learning for Part Two, Section II:

1. What general considerations would you keep in mind in constructing a topic chart?

2. Complete a general topic chart under the heading "Asking for directions around the neighborhood," from which more specific topics like "Asking for directions to the post office" can be drawn up as a setting for a dialog and related exercises. You should include a list of pertinent content vocabulary (nouns, verbs, adjectives and other modifiers, and adverbial expressions), idiomatic expressions, and structures that might be employed in a typical conversation. Assume that the student would be asking a stranger for directions.

3. Given the general topic, "Asking for services at a bank," specify some topics that could serve as settings for a dialog. Keep in mind any specific needs of your students. Indicate the person(s) that the student would likely talk to.

4. With the specific topic, "Opening a checking account" (which is one you could have identified in question 3), what specialized vocabulary would you introduce? What are some general terms that you would present as well?

5. Bearing in mind any special needs of your group of students, how would you complete the following topic — "Getting advice from _____"?

6. If you found the following sentence in a conversion drill (making a question, given a statement), what vocabulary items would you replace, supposing your topic for the lesson were "Buying a T.V."?

   The pencil is good.

7. In the following substitution drill on the use of must, there is a sentence which does not keep the focus. Which one is it? How would you adapt it?

   Paco must leave for work today.
   work hard
   be tired
   take a bus
   walk for ten blocks

8. The following dialog illustrates the difference between the simple present and the continuous present. However, one of the sentences is ill-suited. Identify it and give your reason(s); then replace it with a more suitable sentence.

   (a) Where are you staying these days?
   (b) In a three-room apartment on nineteenth street.
   (c) Do you like the neighborhood?
   (d) I don't think I do.

9. Given the topic, "Looking for a job," paraphrase the following rather tactless question of the job seeker:

   How much money can you give me?

10. Shorten and simplify the following answer to the question given in question 9, for an intermediate level group of students:

    We can probably pay you whatever you think you deserve.

11. Using the following brief exchange, make up a question about Ahmad's request for each of the three general levels of proficiency: beginning, intermediate, and advanced:

    Ahmad: Where can I get the express train?
    Train clerk: On that side of the platform.

12. One way to practice the use of prepositions of place and time — in, on, and at, for example — is to go through a simple substitution drill with the students, giving a place or time adverbial phrase as a cue, but leaving out the preposition so that the students have to supply the correct one. Construct such a drill, following this model:

    Directions: Complete each sentence by supplying the correct preposition — in, on, or at — before the place expression (or, time expression).

    Franz found the wallet on the floor.

    (cue) the hall:
    (response) Franz found the wallet in the hall.

13. List and illustrate different kinds of conversion drills for cue sentences like the following:

    Victor washes the dishes after every meal.

14. Give examples of different kinds of expansion drills by expanding the following sentence in various ways; i.e., with different types of embedded sentences.

    Wang filled out the application.

    (cue) because:
    (response) Wang filled out the application because he wanted a job.

• *Turn to the next page and check your answers.*

Answers to assessment for Part Two, Section II: (Page numbers refer to Modifying English as a Second Language Materials.)

1. You should keep the following in mind:

   (a) The types of social situations that the students encounter, in order to select topics that have considerable potential in terms of suggesting pertinent content vocabulary (See Part Two, I.C.2.,p. 59 and II.A.,p. 60.)

   (b) The level of proficiency of the students, in order to determine the range of complexity of structures and vocabulary to work within (See Part Two, I.B.2. a & b pp. 44, 45 and I.B.2.c. (1) (d) p. 52.)

   (c) The language backgrounds of the students, in order to determine the kinds and amount of difficult items to include (See Part Two, I.B.2.c. (2), p. 52 and I.B.2.d.,p. 54.)

   (d) General versus specialized words, with the former type presented before the latter; i.e., more general words taught to beginning or intermediate students (See Part Two, I.B.2.c. (2), p. 52.)

   (e) The major word and phrase classes, so as to categorize the vocabulary items and expressions (See Part Two, II.A.,p. 60.)

2. Here is a sample topic chart for:

   "Asking for directions around the neighborhood"

Nouns	Verbs	Adjectives (& other Modifiers)	Adverbs (& Adverbial Phrases)	Expressions
post office	find	large	close (by)	be handy
clinic	locate	local	near (by)	follow your nose
newsstand	be	cheap	around here	within walking distance
drugstore		inexpensive		
telephone (booth)				
luncheonette				

Structures

Question form with there; e.g., Is there a ....?

would like + infinitive; e.g., I'd like to find ....

3. Some specific topics concerning "Asking for services at a bank" are:

   "Opening a checking and/or savings account with a teller or bank clerk"

   "Asking for a car (travel, education) loan with a bank assistant"

"Asking for a mortgage with a bank assistant (See Part Two, II.B.2. a. (1), p. 73.)

4. Some specialized vocabulary for the topic, "Opening a checking account" is as follows:

Nouns/Compound Nouns	Verbs
(monthly) statement	deposit (general: put in)
(monthly) maintenance	withdraw (general: take out)
service charge	
deposit	
withdrawal	

(See Part Two, I.B.2. c. (2), p. 52.)

5. You might identify a social worker, a doctor or nurse, or a Legal Aid counselor, etc., as a person in the community from whom a student might seek advice. (See Part Two, II.B.2.a. (3), p. 73.)

6. Both the noun, pencil, and the adjective, good, could be replaced as follows:

Nouns:	Adjectives:
picture	clear
sound	sharp
color	true
etc.	fuzzy
	etc.

(See Part Two, II.B.1. b. (1), p. 67.)

7. The third sentence (Paco must be tired today.) does not mean necessity, but rather assumption; see Part One, Chart III.B. To keep the focus on necessity, the verb phrase, must be tired, can be replaced by something like must take a break later: Paco must take a break later today. (See Part Two, II.B.1.a. (1), p. 64 and I.B.1.a. p. 41.)

8. Line (d) is ill-suited because it contains an embedded construction which is peculiar in that the meaning is negative although the form is not. A simple sentence paraphrase would thus contain a negative element. Moreover, there is no new vocabulary in the sentence, despite its difficult semantic interpretation. A substitute sentence like either of the following would be more appropriate for the level:

I'm not certain.
I don't know for sure.

(See Part Two, II.B.1.a. (1), p. 64, and II.B.1.b. (1), p. 67.)

9. Here are two possible paraphrases:

What's the minimum wage?
How much do you pay per hour?

(See Part Two, II.B.2.d., pp. 76-78.)

10. Here is a shortened and much simplified version:

We can pay you around _____ per hour.

(See Part Two, II.B.1.a. (1), p. 64, and I.B.2.b., p. 45.)

11. Beginning level question: What does Ahmad want? (Answer: He wants the express train.)

Intermediate level question: What does Ahmad want to find? (Answer: He wants to find the express train.)

Advanced level question: What does Ahmad want to know? (Answer: He wants to know where he can find the express train.)

(See Part Two, I.B.2.a. & b., pp. 44 and 45.)

12. Here is a sample substitution drill, with cue words that you might have selected:

Franz found the wallet <u>on</u> <u>the</u> <u>floor</u>.

(cue)	(response)
the hall:	Franz found the wallet <u>in</u> the hall.
the room	" " " " <u>in</u> the room.
the table	" " " " <u>on</u> the table.
the sidewalk	" " " " <u>on</u> the sidewalk.
Mike's apartment	" " " " <u>in/at</u> Mike's apartment.
Tenth St.	" " " " <u>on</u> Tenth St.
215 Tenth St.	" " " " <u>at</u> 215 Tenth St.
that drawer	" " " " <u>in</u> that drawer.

(See Part Two, I.C.1.b., p. 56, and II.B.2.c., p. 75.)

13. Here are some types of conversion drills using the affirmative, active statement, Victor washes the dishes after every meal.
   (a) Statement to question: Does Victor wash the dishes after every meal? (See Part One, III.B., p. 23.)
   (b) (Affirmative) statement to negative statement: Victor doesn't wash the dishes after every meal. (See Part One, II.C.2.c., p. 16.)
   (c) Active statement to passive statement: The dishes are washed by Victor after every meal. (See Part One, V.C., p. 36.)
   (d) Direct to indirect speech: (Someone) said that Victor washed the dishes after every meal. (See Part One, IV.A.1. & 3, pp. 26 and 27.)

Note that in the third case, type c, since the active and passive sentences have the same hidden structure, the drill could also be considered a paraphrase drill (a complex paraphrase drill). (See Part Two I.C.1.b., p. 56 and II.B.2.d., pp. 76-78.)

14. Below are some types of sentence expansion, with the embedded sentences each introduced by a different adverbial subordinator (given as a cue word):

Wang filled out the application.

(cue)	(response)	
because:	Wang filled out the application	because he wanted a job.
while:	" " " " "	while I waited for him.
even though:	" " " " "	even though he didn't need a job.
before:	" " " " "	before I arrived.

Note that with a nonbeginning class, the students may provide their own expansions; otherwise, the teacher may do so with the net effect of the drill becoming a combining drill. (See Part Two I.C.1.b., p. 56 and Part One, IV.B.1.a., p. 28.)

- *If you did well on this assessment of learning, then you should consider yourself to be in possession of the concepts and skills necessary to adapt traditional E.S.L. materials to the needs of students in adult basic education classes. Congratulations!*
- *If you did poorly on this test, review those sections indicated in the answers to the questions you had difficulty with and try rewriting your answers.*