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# UNIT 1 - PHONETICS OF ENGLISH-I

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- 1.2 OBJECTIVES
- 1.3 ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE
- 1.4 PHONETICS
- 1.5 PHONOLOGY
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- 1.7 LEXIS
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- 1.9 THE INDIVIDUAL SOUNDS
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## NOTES

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### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

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Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that examines sounds in a language. Phonetics describes these sounds using the symbols of the **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**. The **IPA** uses a single symbol to describe each sound in a language. If a letter in a word is silent, there will be no **IPA** symbol used in the transcriptions. The **IPA** can be helpful for studying a language, especially languages that use letters that are silent or have multiple pronunciations. Languages like Arabic and Spanish are consistent in their spelling and pronunciation – each letter represents a single sound which rarely varies. English is different. It has many letters with two or more sounds and many letters that are silent.

NOTES

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## 1.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the elements of English language
- Understand the criteria for the description of consonants
- Identify the structure involved in the production of consonants
- Understand the place and manner of articulation of consonants
- Understand the criteria for the description of vowels and diphthongs

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## 1.3 ELEMENTS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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Language is like an onion bulb with many layers. The ‘existence’ of the outer layers is dependent on the presence of the inner layers. Similarly, the inner layers depend on the outer layers for protection. Language is conceived as “the totality of utterances that can be made in a speech community” (Chomsky, 1986:16) or “a system of conventional signs all aspects of whose structure serve the sovereign function of meaning” (Cruse, 1990:140).

Just like language under which it is subsumed, grammar is also hierarchical or systemic. The elements of this hierarchy are morphemes, words, phrases, clauses and sentences otherwise known as members of the grammatical rank scale. Our aim in this chapter is to explore the foundation of grammar, focusing on the elements of morphemes and words after a cursory look at the levels of linguistic analysis: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics. At the end of the chapter, we hope to have brought to the fore the rudiments of morphology and morphological processes with which the understanding of the higher systems of grammatical rank scale become enhanced and of course, provided a bird’s eye-view of the language phenomenon.

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## 1.4 PHONETICS

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Phonetics is the study of the production and perception of speech sounds. IT is concerned with the sounds of language, how these sounds are articulated and how the hearer perceives them. Phonetics is related to the science of acoustics in that it uses much the same techniques in the analysis of sound that acoustics does. There are three sub-disciplines of phonetics:

- **Articulatory Phonetics:** the production of speech sounds.
- **Acoustic Phonetics:** the study of the physical production and transmission of speech sounds.

- **Auditory Phonetics:** the study of the perception of speech sounds.

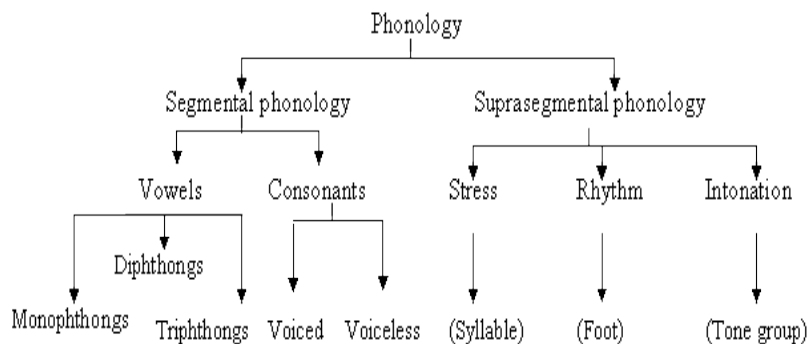
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## 1.5 PHONOLOGY

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Phonology is the study of the sound pattern of language. It is concerned with how sounds are organized in a language. Phonology examines what occurs to speech sounds when they are combined to form a word and how these speech sounds interact with each other. It endeavors to explain what these phonology processes are in terms of formal rules.

A diagrammatic representation of the phonological levels and classes is presented as follows




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## 1.6 MORPHOLOGY

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Morphology is the study of word formation and structure. It studied how words are put together from their smaller parts and the rules governing this process. The elements that are combining to form words are called morphemes. A morpheme is the smallest unit of meaning you can have in a language. The word *cats*, for example, contains the morphemes *cat* and the plurals.

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## 1.7 LEXIS

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Every language uses words to signal meaning. A word is usually defined as the smallest meaningful unit of sounds. In modern linguistics the minimum meaningful unit is called Morpheme. The Morpheme that can stand by itself is called a free morpheme and the one that cannot is called bound morpheme.

Presentation of Lexical words

- i) Use of the immediate and immediately usable class room contexts such as
  - a) Object, Pictures, Models, etc. in the class room.

## NOTES

- b) Actions and gestures.
- c) Situations that occur spontaneously in the classroom or contrived for the purpose of teaching meaning.
- ii) Use of the pictorial contexts: For things which are impossible to bring into the classroom we may use
  - a) Pictures, Picture cards, Wall pictures etc.
  - b) Black board sketches.
  - c) Using match stick figures.
- iii) Use of Verbal contexts.  
Verbal context is description of context in words. When pupils have learnt a certain number of words, known words may be used to teach new words.
- iv) Use of the Mother tongue: Using mother tongue for teaching English

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## 1.8 GRAMMAR

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Traditional Grammar was prescriptive; it attempted to provide universally valid rules to show how a language ought to be spoken or written. Descriptive grammar should record actual usage and formulate the rules where by sentences are generated and understood. Traditional grammar has always been a mixture of notional and formal elements, which has often led to inconsistencies and discrepancies. Traditional Grammarians accepted the categories of Greek and Latin in the role to establish what is common to all languages.

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## 1.9 THE INDIVIDUAL SOUNDS

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The description of a constant includes the following information:

1. The state of the glottis
2. The nature of the air-stream mechanism
3. The position of the velum or soft plate
4. The articulators involved and
5. The nature of the stricture.

For the production of English sounds we use an aggressive pulmonic air stream, that is, the air is pushed out of the lungs. Consonants can be voiceless or voiced, depending upon whether the vocal cords are held wide apart or in vibration. We have already discussed the difference between oral sounds (produced with the soft plate raised, thus blocking the nasal passage of air) and nasal sounds (produced with the soft plate lowered).

### 1.9.1 Articulators

We have now to discuss the various articulators or the organs speech above the glottis that are involved in the production of consonants. In every case one of the articulators called the active

articulator is moved towards another one called the passive articulator. The passive articulators are upper lip, the upper teeth, and the roof of the mouth and the back wall of the throat or pharynx. The active articulators are the lower lip and the tongue.

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## 1.10 PLACE OF ARTICULATION

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## NOTES

We usually classify consonants according to (i) the place of articulation and (ii) the manner of articulation. The place of articulation simply involves the active and passive articulators used in the production of a particular consonant. The manner of articulation refers to the type of stricture involved in the production of a consonant.

There are several types of consonants depending on the place of articulation. The label used in an adjective derived from the name of the passive articulator. Some of the important categories are given below,

1. **Bilabial.** The two lips are the articulators. θ  
e.g. [p] as in *spare*  
[b] as in *bed*  
[m] as in *man*
2. **Labio-dental.** The lower lip is the active articulator and the upper teeth are the passive articulator  
e.g. [f] as in *fine*  
[v] as in *veil*
3. **Dental.** The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the upper front teeth are the passive articulators.  
e.g. [θ ] as in *think*  
[ ð ] as in *bed*
4. **Alveolar.** The tip or the blade of the tongue is the active articulator and the teeth-ridge is the passive articulator.  
e.g. [t] as in *stick*  
[d] as in *day*  
[l] as in *lid*  
[n] as in *nose*  
[s] as in *sun*  
[z] as in *zip*
5. **Post –alveolar.** The tip of the tongue is the active articulator and the back of the teeth-ridge is the passive articulator.  
e.g. [r] as in *red*

## NOTES

6. **Retroflex.** The tip of the tongue is the active articulator, and it is curled back. The back of the teeth-ridge or the hard plate is the passive articulator. There is no Retroflex in English (of. Tamil s, o)

7. **palate-alveolar.** The tip blade, and front of the tongue are the active articulators and the teeth-ridge and hard palate are the passive articulators.

e.g. [ʃ] as in same

[ʒ] as in pleasure

[tʃ] as in chin

[dʒ] as in jam

8. **Palatal.** The front of the tongue is the active articulator and the hard palate is the passive articulator.

e.g. [j] as in yellow.

9. **Velar.** The back of the tongue is the active articulator.

e.g. [k] as in skull

[g] as in girl

[ŋ] as in sing

10. **Uvular.** The rearpart of the back of the tongue is the active articulator and the uvular is the passive articulator. There are no uvular sounds in English.

[Of. Tamil /]

11. **Glottal.** Produced at the glottis.

e.g. [h] as in hat.

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## 1.11 A MANNER OF ARTICULATION

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According to the manner of articulation consonants are usually classified as follows;

### 1) Plosive/stop

In the production of a stop there is a simultaneous oral and nasal closure. The active and passive articulators come in contact with each other forming a stricture of complete closure and preventing the air from escaping through the mouth. The soft plate is raised and thus the nasal passage is also blocked. This is called velic closure. The air behind the oral closure is compressed, and when the active articulator is removed suddenly

from contact with the passive one, the air escapes with an explosion.

e.g. [p] as in pin

[b] as in boy

## 2) Affricate

If the stop is not held for any appreciable time and released slowly, we get an affricate instead of a plosive.

e.g. [tʃ] as in chin, [dʒ] as in jam

## 3) Nasal

A nasal is produced by a stricture of complete oral closure but in this case there is no closure of the nasal passage. The soft palate is lowered and the air passes through the nose.

e.g. [m] as in mother

[n] as in nest

[ŋ] as in ring

## 4) Trill [or rolled consonant]

A trill is a consonant in the production of which the active articulator taps several times against the passive articulator. The stricture involved can be called a stricture of intermittent closure.

e.g. Scottish [r] in which the tip of the tongue strikes against the teeth-ridge a number of times.

An example is the Telugu word [gurramu] for 'horse'

## 5. Flap

For a flap the active articulator strikes against the passive articulator once only.

e.g. for /r/ in the word *very* the tip of the tongue strikes, against the teeth...ridge once

## 6. Lateral

A lateral consonant is produced by a stricture of closure in the centre of the vocal tract, but the air has a free passage on the sides.

e.g. [l] as in life.

## 7. Fricative

In the production of a fricative consonant the stricture is one of approximation. The active articulator is brought so close to the passive articulator that the passage between them is very narrow and the air passes through it with audible friction.

e.g., [f] as in fill

[v] as in van

## NOTES

**NOTES**

[l] as in three

[a] as in these

[s] as in sit

[z] as in zoo

[f] as in shoe

[ʒ] as in leisure

[h] as in has

**8. Frictionless continuant**

A frictionless continuant is produced with an open approximation of the articulators; so that there is no audible friction.

e.g. [r] as in red

**9. Semivowel.**

A semi-vowel is a vowel glide functioning as a consonant

e.g. [j] as in yet, [w] as in water

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Name the classification of the manner of articulation consonants.

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**1.12 DESCRIPTION OF CONSONANTS**

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The description of a consonant includes the following information:

1. The state of the glottis
2. The nature of the air-stream mechanism;
3. The position of the velum or soft palate,
4. The articulators involved; and
5. The nature of the stricture.

For the production of English sounds we use an egressive pulmonic air-stream, that is, the air is pushed out of the lungs. Consonants can be voiceless or voiced, depending upon whether the vocal cords are held wide apart or in vibration. We have already discussed the difference between oral sounds (produced with the soft palate raised, thus blocking the nasal passage of air) and nasal sounds (produced with the soft palate lowered).

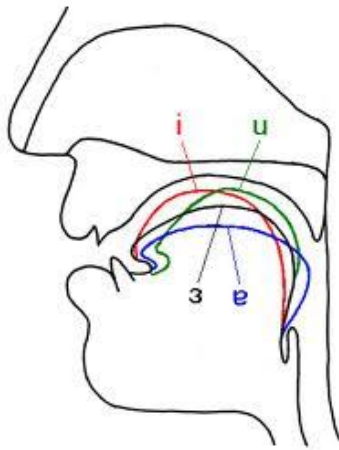


### 1.12.1 Articulators

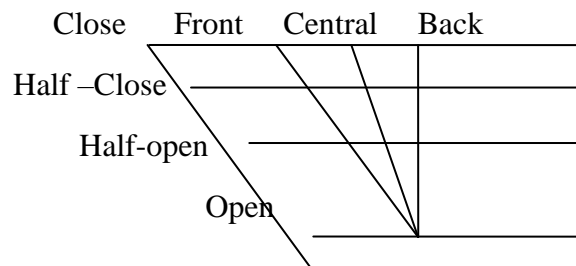
We have now to discuss the various articulators or the organs of speech above the glottis that are involved in the production of consonants. In every case one of the articulators called the active articulator is moved towards another one called the passive articulator. The passive articulators are the upper lip, the upper teeth, the roof of the mouth (divided into the alveolum or teeth ridge, the hard palate and the velum or soft palate) and the back wall of the throat or pharynx. The active articulators are the lower lip and the tongue.

### NOTES

### 1.12.2 Vowel diagram



The area obtained by joining these four points constitutes the vowel area. That is to say, we cannot produce vowel sounds if the highest point of the tongue falls outside this area. You will find a quadrilateral in most books on Phonetics and this quadrilateral (called the vowel diagram) can be used to describe a vowel. Look at the vowel diagram given below with appropriate labels.



The terms close, half-close, half-open and open are used by British linguists and by those who follow the British tradition. American linguists use three terms: high, mid, and low.

This vowel diagram, it is good to remember, does not give any information about the position of the lips. It gives us two pieces of

information regarding which part of the tongue is raised and the height to which it is raised.

### **Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

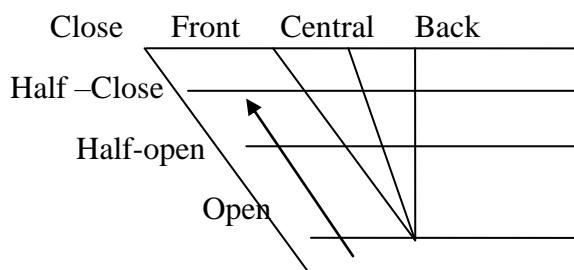
2. How can a vowel sound be produced?

## **NOTES**

### **1.13 DIPHTHONGS**

There are some vowels, the quality of which is not constant, but changes from one vowel to another. For example, compare the vowels in the English words car and cow. The vowel in car can be prolonged without any perceptible change in its quality. The vowel in cow, however, changes its quality. The first part of this vowel sounds like the vowel in the English word car and the second part sounds like the vowel in the English word put. This is because the tongue changes its position during the articulation of the vowel in cow. In the, Received Pronunciation of England (RP), to begin with, the back of the tongue is in the fully open position and the lips are not rounded. From this position the back of the tongue moves in the direction of a point which is between close and half-close and the lips, during the articulation of this second part of the vowel, become rounded. Such a vowel sound which changes its quality in a syllable is called a diphthong. A vowel (like the one in bee and do) that does not change its quality therefore be called a monophthong, or a pure vowel.

Diphthongs can be described by indicating the position of the tongue and lips at the beginning and at the end. For example, the diphthong in the English word fly can be described as a glide or movement from the front open unrounded position (this is the position during the articulation of the first part of the diphthong) to a front unrounded vowel just above the half-close position (this is the position during the articulation of the second part of the diphthong). This diphthong is indicated in the vowel diagram as follows:



## NOTES

The circle indicates the position of the tongue during the articulation of the first part of the diphthong and the arrow indicates the direction in which the glide takes place.

A diphthong always occupies one syllable. If two adjacent vowels belong to two syllables (like see - ing, the vowel represented by the letters ee belongs to the I syllable and that represented by the letter i belongs to the II syllable), they do NOT form a diphthong.

### Check your progress-3

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

3. What is monophthong and diphthong?

## 1.14 DESCRIPTION OF VOWELS

There are twenty distinctive vowel sounds in English according to the Received Pronunciation of England (RP). Of these, twelve are pure vowels or monophthongs and eight are vowel glides or diphthongs. These twenty vowel sounds are tabulated for your convenience.

### THESE TWENTY VOWEL SOUNDS

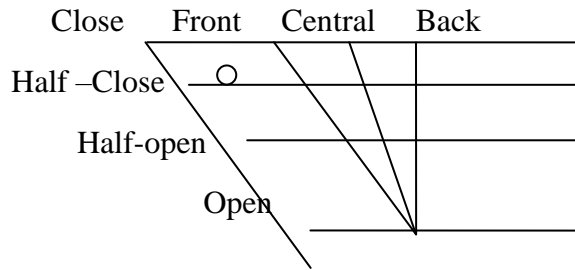
The description of each vowel will include information about:

1. the tongue – position, indicated in vowel diagram and
2. the distribution of each vowel in terms of its occurrence (i.e. initial, medial and final)

### Front Vowel / i: I, e, æ/

1. /i: / as in feel / fi:l/

**NOTES**



**Tongue – position of RP / i : / (indicated by a circle)**

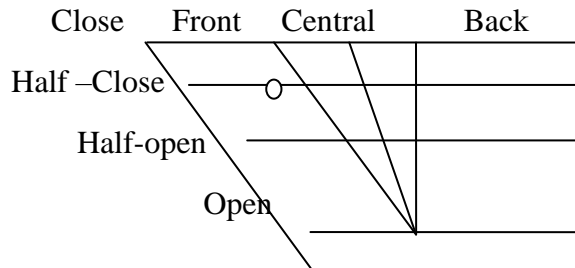
**Articulation**

In the articulation of this vowel, the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the, hard palate to an almost close position. The lips are spread. The tongue is tense. The vowel is comparatively long. We may describe it as a **FRONT CLOSE UNROUNDED** vowel.

**Distribution**

The vowel / i: / occurs initially, medially and finally as in eat / i:t/ (initial), meat / mi:t/(medial), and tea/ti: / (final).

**2. /j/ as in fill / fɪl /**



**Tongue – position of RP/ɪ/ (indicated by a circle)**

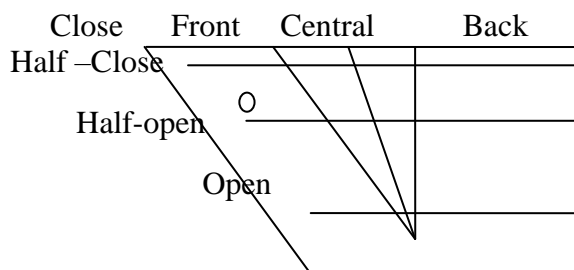
**Articulation**

During the articulation of this vowel the hinder part of the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate, to a position between close and half – close (nearer half – close than close (see figure)). The lips are loosely spread. The vowel / ɪ / can thus be described as a **FRONT UNROUNDED VOWEL BETWEEN CLOSE AND HALF CLOSE, S E.**

**Distribution**

/ɪ/ can occur initially, medially and finally as in it /It /, sit/ sɪt / city/ sɪtɪ.

### 3. / e / as in set /set /



**Tongue – position of RP /e/ (indicated by a circle)**

## NOTES

### Articulation

During the articulation of this RP vowel the front of the tongue is raised in the direction of the hard palate to a position half-close and half-open. The lips are loosely spread. RP / e / can therefore be described as a **FRONT UNROUNDED VOWEL BETWEEN HALF – CLOSE AND HALF-OPEN.**

### Distribution

**The vowel / e / occurs initially and medially as in egg / et /,bet / bet / . It does not occur finally. (eg. Resume' / resjume)**

### Check your progress-4

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

4. Describe the front vowels.

## 1.15 DESCRIPTION OF DIPHTHONGS

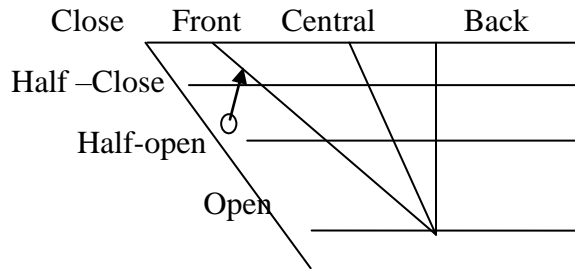
A diphthong is a vowel-guide (i.e. the tongue moves from one vowel position to another vowel position) in the same syllable. The description of each diphthong will include information about:

- i. the starting point and the direction in which the vowel-glide takes place. and
- ii. the distribution of each diphthong in terms of its occurrence (i.e. initial, medial and final)

**NOTES**

**Closing diphthongs /eɪ, aɪ, əʊ, aʊ, ɪ/**

1. /eɪ/ as in play /pleɪ/



**Tongue-position of word-final /eɪ / (indicated by a circle)**

You should note that the starting point of a diphthong is indicated by a circle and the arrow indicates the direction in which the glide takes place. This convention will be followed for plotting diphthongs on the vowel diagram.

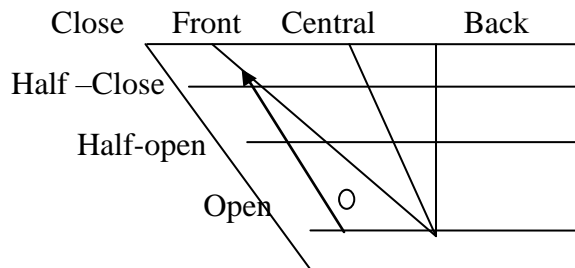
**Articulation**

The RP diphthong /eɪ/ begins just below the FRONT HALF-CLOSE UNROUNDED position and moves in the direction of RP /ɪ/ which is CENTRALISED FRONT UNROUNDED VOWEL JUST ABOVE THE HALF-CLOSE POSITION.

**Distribution:**

The diphthong /eɪ/ occurs initially, medially and finally as in aim /eɪm/, game/ geɪm/ and day/ deɪ/

2. /aɪ/ as in fly /flaɪ/



**Tongue – position of RP /aɪ/**

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**1.16 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we discussed how vowel sounds are produced. We also discussed about Elements of English language, phonetics, phonology, morphology, lexis, the individual sounds, place of articulation.

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## 1.17 UNIT END EXERCISES

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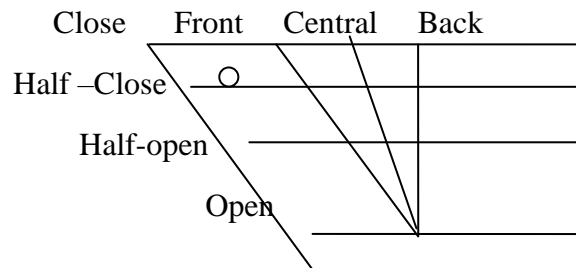
- Explain articulators and the place of articulation in detail.

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## 1.18 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Plosive/stop, Affricate, Nasal, Trill, Flap, Lateral, Fricative, Frictionless continuant and semi-vowel.
2. Vowels are produced with an open approximation of the articulators.
3. A vowel that does not change its quality is called a monophthong or a pure vowel and some vowels, the quality of which is not constant, but changes from one vowel to another is called diphthong.
4. Front Vowel / i: I, e, æ/  
/i: / as in feel / fi:l/



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## 1.19 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Gimson, A.C. (1989). An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.

Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

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## NOTES

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## UNIT 2 PHONETICS OF ENGLISH-II

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### STRUCTURES

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

#### 2.2 OBJECTIVES

#### 2.3 THE CONCEPTS OF THE PHONEME AND THE ALLOPHONE

#### 2.4 STRONG AND WEAK FORMS

- 2.4.1 Word stress
- 2.4.2 Rules of word stress
- 2.4.3 Content words
- 2.4.4 Structural words
- 2.4.5 Weak forms

#### 2.5 PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

- 2.5.1 English Pure Vowels
- 2.5.2 Diphthongs — compound vowels or impure vowels
- 2.5.3 Consonants
- 2.5.4 Cluster Sound Examples

#### 2.6 LET US SUM UP

#### 2.7 UNIT END EXERCISES

#### 2.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

#### 2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

---

Languages like Arabic and Spanish are consistent in their spelling and pronunciation – each letter represents a single sound which rarely varies. English is different. It has many letters with two or more sounds and many letters that are silent. Phonetics is the branch of linguistics that examines sounds in a language. Phonetics describes these sounds using the symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA). The IPA uses a single symbol to describe each sound in a language. If a letter in a word is silent, there will be no IPA symbol used in the transcriptions. The IPA can be helpful for studying a language, especially languages that use letters that are silent or have multiple pronunciations.



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## 2.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the concepts of the phoneme and the allophone
- Understand the criteria for the strong and weak forms
- Identify the structure involved in the phonetic transcription

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## 2.3 THE CONCEPTS OF THE PHONEME AND THE ALLOPHONE

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The human organs of speech are capable of producing a variety of sounds. The selection and organization of sounds in a particular language form the phonology of that language. The sound system of every language is made up of vowel and consonant sounds. They may be grouped into limited number of distinct sound units. The sound units are called the phonemes of that language. Phoneme means to refer to a generalized conception of speech sound belonging to a particular language.

Ex: beat, bit, bat, bert, but

In these words there are three sound segments. The second or middle sound segment differentiates all these words. The first and the third segments can be loosely called phonemes.

The substitution of /t/ in the place of /k/ in a word sky may change the word. But substitution of /ph/ for /p/ may not alter the meaning and they grouped together into one family called a phoneme. The phonemic symbol should be enclosed within slant lines. The phonetic qualities must be put within square brackets. So /p/ in English refers to both [ph] and [p] as used in pin and spin. The sounds that can be grouped together into a single phoneme are called allophones. A.E. Derbyshire defines it as a variation in the way phoneme is realized in actual speech.

The phonemic variations consists of assimilation, elision, liaison and juncture.

### **i. Assimilation:**

The manner in which sounds influence each other is called assimilation.

e.g. /b/ in 'rob' may be replaced by /p/ while pronouncing rob peter together.

The assimilatory changes may happen

## NOTES

## NOTES

- (i) within a word
- (ii) at word or morpheme boundaries

The assimilatory change can also be anticipatory. The feature of one phoneme may be altered due to the influence of the phoneme preceding it. This type of change is referred to as regressive assimilation.

E.g: In health the realization of /l/ as the voiced dental lateral happens under the influence of the following dental sound.

When the features of one phoneme is changed due to the influence of the phoneme following it is called a progressive assimilation. The phoneme /l/ becomes a voiceless alveolar lateral in the word 'please' under the influence of the aspirated voiceless bilabial plosive that precedes it.

### ii. Elision:

In continuous speech, while pronouncing the unaccented syllabus tepidly so as to maintain the rhythm certain sounds get elided.

E.g: Next day - /neks dei/

Last time - /la: s taim/

### iii. Liaison:

Liaison is the linking of two sounds resulting in the birth of a third sound.

Eg: When the word 'door' is pronounced, the final 'r' sound is left out. But when followed by an opened the door the r is pronounced.

door - /do/

door opened - /door oupnd/

This can be seen in expressions like 'my father and mother', here and there', the weather ought to improve etc.

### iv. Juncture:

Juncture refers to the manner in which the sounds of a language are joined together.

This can be seen in expressions like night/rate - nitrate. I scream / ice cream etc.

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## 2.4 STRONG AND WEAK FORMS

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### 2.4.1 Word stress

Stress is a very important feature of spoken English. Words are made up of syllable(s). If a word has more than one syllable, all the

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syllables are not equally prominent; one of the syllables is more prominent than the others. For example, the word *telephone* is made up of three syllables, *te*, *le* and *phone* but only the first syllable *te* is stressed: i.e., it is more prominent than *le* and *phone*. Similarly, in the word *pronunciation*, which is made up of three syllables, the syllable *a* is the most prominent. In the word *mountaineer*, which has three syllables, the last syllable *neer* is stressed.

As we have already said, stress in English is not tied to particular syllable, as it is in some other languages. You will, therefore have to refer to a dictionary to find out which particular syllable in a word is stressed. There are, however some rules of word stress, which can help you in locating stress.

### 2.4.2 Rules of word stress

Functional Shift of stress depends on whether the word is used as a noun, an adjective or a verb. When the word is used as a noun or an adjective, the stress is on the first syllable. When the word is used as a verb, the stress is on the second syllable. Some examples are given below:

<b>Noun /Adjective</b>	<b>Verb</b>
`absent	ab'sent
`object	ob'ject
`subject	sub'ject
`permit	per'mit
`record	re'cord
`progress	pro' gress
`produce	pro'duce
`perfect	per' fect
`increase	in'crease
`decrease	de' crease
`present	pre'sent

### 2.4.3 Content words

Content or lexical words are stressed.

Nouns

Main verbs

Adjectives

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Adverbs

Demonstratives

Interrogative Pronouns

**2.4.4 Structural words**

Structural or functional words are generally not stressed.

Articles

Auxiliary Verbs

Prepositions

Conjunctions

Personal and Relative Pronouns

**2.4.5 Weak forms**

<b>Auxiliary</b>	<b>Strong Forms</b>	<b>Weak Forms</b>
A	eɪ	e
An	æn	ən
The vowel)	ði:	ði   (before a consonant)
		ðə   (before a consonant)

<b>Auxiliary</b>	<b>Strong Forms</b>	<b>Weak Forms</b>
am	æm	əm
are	ɑ:	ər
can	kæn	kən
does	dʌz	dəz
had	hæd	həd
has	hæz	həz
have	hæv	həv
is	ɪz	z  ,   s
shall	ʃæl	ʃəl
was	wɒz	wəz

were	wɜ:	wə
will	wɪl	l
would	wʊd	wəd

must	mʌst	məs
------	------	-----

### **Conjunctions Strong Forms Weak Forms**

And	ænd	ən
as	æz	əz
than	ðæn	ðən
that	ðæt	ðət
but	bʌt	bət

### **Prepositions Strong Forms Weak Forms**

at	æt	ət
for	fɔ:	fə
from	frɒm	frəm
of	ɒv	əv
to	tu:	tʊ  (before a vowel)  tə  (before a consonant)

### **Pronouns Strong Forms Weak Forms**

You	ju:	jʊ
me	mi:	mɪ
he	hi:	hɪ
she	ʃi:	ʃɪ
him	hɪm	ɪm
her	hɜ:	hə
them	ðəm	ðəm

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## 2.5 PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

### 2.5.1 English Pure Vowels

NOTES

S.No.	Symbol	Key Words	Phonetic Transcription
1.	[i:]	feel, beat, see	fi:l  ,   bi:t  ,   si:
2.	[ɪ]	sit, pit, pin	sɪt  ,   pɪt  ,   pɪn
3.	[e]	bet, set, met	bet  ,   set  ,   met
4.	[æ]	have, bad, mar	hæv  ,   bæd  ,   mɑ:
5.	[ɑ:]	class, half, master	klɑ:s  ,   hɑ:f  ,   mɑ:stə
6.	[ɔ]	was, what, hot	wɒz  ,   wɒt  ,   hɒt
7.	[ɔ:]	all, taught, nor	ɔ:l  ,   tɔ:t  ,   nɔ:
8.	[u]	wolf, would, put	wʊlf  ,   wʊd  ,   'pʊt
9.	[u:]	lose, two, too, rule	lu:z  ,   tu:  ,   tu:  ,   ru:l
10.	[ʌ]	son, love, up	sʌn  ,   lʌv  ,   ʌp
11.	[ɜ:]	work, heard, bird	wɜ:k  ,   hɜ:d  ,   bɜ:d
12.	[ə]	about, alight, alike	ə:baʊt  ,   ə:lɑɪt  ,   ə:lɑɪk

### 2.5.2 Diphthongs — compound vowels or impure vowels

13.	[eɪ]	cake, came, day	keɪk  ,   keɪm  ,   deɪ
14.	[əʊ]	hope, no, boat	həʊp  ,   nəʊ  ,   bəʊt

15	[a i]	eye, cry, five	aɪ  ,  kraɪ  ,  faɪv
16.	[aʊ]	house, hour, how	haʊs  ,  aʊə  ,
17.	[ɔɪ]	toy, voice, boy	tɔɪ  ,  vɔɪs  ,
18.	[iə]	here, clear, dear	hɪə  ,  klɪə  ,
19.	[eə]	There, care, mare	ðeə  ,  keə  ,
20.	[ʊə]	tour, poor	tʊə  ,  pʊə
<b>2.5.3 Consonants</b>			
21.	[P]	pen, pocket, park	pen  ,  pɒkɪt  ,
22.	[t]	tea, top, term	ti:  ,  tɒp  ,
23.	[b]	bee, bag, bar	bi:  ,  bæg  ,
24.	[d]	did, stayed, dark	dɪd  ,  steɪd  ,
25.	[k]	come, cat, corn	kʌm  ,  kæt  ,
26.	[g]	go, get, got	gəʊ  ,  get  ,
27.	[m]	man, may, mark	mæn  ,  meɪ  ,
28.	[n]	now, nut, nor	naʊ  ,  nʌt  ,  nɔ:
29.	[ŋ]	sing, king, young	sɪŋ  ,  kɪŋ  ,
30.	[l]	live, lamp, like	laɪv  ,  læmp  ,
31.	[f]	foot, fan, fight	fʊt  ,  fæɪn  ,
32.	[v]	very, vivid, verb	veri  ,  vɪvɪd  ,

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33.	[θ]	Think, Thought	θɪŋk  , θɔ:t
34.	[ð]	This, these, then	ðɪs  , ði:z
		, ðen	
35.	[z]	is, zeal	ʃɪp  ,  ʃu:z  ,  ʃʌt
36.	[ʃ]	Ship, shoes, shut	ʃɪp  , ʃu:z
		, ʃʌnt	
37.	[ʒ]	measure, pleasure	meʒə  ,
		pleʒə	
38.	[r]	red, rat	red  , ræt
39.	[tʃ]	match, church	mætʃ  ,  tʃɜ:tʃ
40.	[dʒ]	Jump, June	dʒʌmp  ,
		dʒu:n	
41	[w]	one, well. Was	wʌn  ,  wel  ,  wɒz
42.	[j]	Yes, yet	jes  ,  jet

When two consonants are spoken together, we have a consonant cluster. A few examples of consonant clusters are:

**2.5.4 Cluster Sound Examples**

St - Storm, strike, street, still, student

Tr - tree, trend, trust, true, traffic

Pr - Prose, press, proud, prove, print

Gr - Green, grass, graph, grind, great

SK - sky, skin, skill

Si - slow, slate, sleep

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

**1.** Write down few examples of consonant clusters.



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## **2.6 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we discussed how vowel sounds are produced. We also discussed about Elements of English language, phonetics, phonology, morphology, lexis, the individual sounds, place of articulation, the concepts of the phoneme and the allophone, strong and weak forms, phonetic transcription in detail.

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## **2.7 UNIT END EXERCISES**

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- Explain articulators and the place of articulation in detail.
- Describe the word stress and the rules of word stress.
- Give the Phonetic Transcriptions of some English pure vowels.

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## **2.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. St - Storm, strike, street, still, student : Tr - tree, trend, trust, true, traffic

---

## **2.9 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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Gimson, A.C. (1989). An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.

Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

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## **NOTES**

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## UNIT 3 - FLUENCY

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**STRUCTURES****3.1 INTRODUCTION****3.2 OBJECTIVES****3.3 USE OF CONVENTIONAL FORMULA****3.4 DESCRIBING & INTERPRETATION**

3.4.1 Pictures

3.4.2 Tables

3.4.3 Graphs

**3.5 VARIOUS CONCEPTS & WAYS WHICH THEY ARE EXPRESSED**

3.5.1 Construction

3.5.2 Suggestion

**3.6 ORAL DRILLS****3.7 TYPES OF DRILLS**

3.7.1 Mechanical Drill

3.7.2 Repetition Drill

3.7.3 Substitution Drill

3.7.4 Various types of substitution Drill

**3.8 LET US SUM UP****3.9 UNIT END EXERCISES****3.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS****3.11 SUGGESTED READINGS**


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### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

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Fluency is the natural flow of words without any unnecessary pauses and repetition. This natural flow of words of smoothness of expression can come from the ability to compose and speak meaningful utterance by using appropriate vocabulary and grammar skills. In order to improve self-expression and achieve the desired clarity and fluency, articulation, pronunciation, voice quality, accent and intonation need to be improved. We should improve our communication skill for fluency.

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### 3.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Know about the uses of conventional formula like
  - (i) Greetings
  - (ii) Apology
  - (iii) Invitation

- Know about Describing& Interpreting Pictures, Tables, Graphs, Maps, Etc.
- Know about various concepts and ways in which they are expressed.
- Know about various types of drill.

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### 3.3 USE OF CONVENTIONAL FORMULA

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Greeting-apology-invitation-refusal-accepting-thanking are different types of conventional communication. Let us take up.

#### Greetings

On seeing known or unknown persons we want to greet them as a token of respect. Some examples are given below:

Greetings	When to use
Good morning	This greeting can be expressed at the first sight of a person irrespective of time. Even at night you can say, provided it is the first meeting of the day. Usually it is used in the morning.
2.Good afternoon	This can be used after 1p.m.to4p.m.
3.Good evening	From 4p.m.to sunset
4.GOOD night	Usually before going to bed and when the workers depart after the shift is over, they say 'Good night' even at 6.30pm/7.00pm.Normally at nights we use this.

#### Good bye

It means 'God be with you'. It is used between people on familiar terms when they part each other. 'Cheerio' is a slang term for Good-bye. 'Hello' is also a familiar term used when we want draw the attention of the person towards you or to register your presence. But this term could not be used to your senior, superior or elder persons.

#### Apology

All of us need to make apology from time to time' for no matter how careful we are, things do go wrong and arrangements break down. It is a statement of request for doing wrong, being impolite or hurting some

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others feeling. (Sorry, Very sorry, extremely sorry, excuse me, beg your pardon, forgive me, apologies) are the different degrees of expressing our feelings.

**Sorry**

It is used when a small mistake happened unknowingly. (e.g.) Our shoes touched others.

**Very sorry**

I we forget to do something which has to be done in one particular time.

**Extremely sorry**

When the affected person is a senior man/or respect-able person.

**Excuse me**

When we interrupt an occurrence/or disturbing the class by arriving late-this can be used. After sneezing, coughing in a crowd we can use.

**Pardon me**

In the class, if the sound of the teacher is not audible, or the language used by the teacher could not be followed by one we can use this type of apology. Instead of directly asking the teacher adverse remarks this is the decent way of expressing our grievances.

**Forgive me**

When we do harm to others or insult others, we have to use ‘forgive me’. To pacify the affected person, we can say ‘forgive me’.

**Apologize**

A crime purposefully done by you which created a lot of problem, you have to beg apology. (e.g.)Imagine you are a school pupil leader. You instigated a strike. But you are caught red handed by the head master/principal, then you will ask him to forgive you. They won’t believe you. They demand your parents to get TC from the school. At this stage, the authorities will demand apology in black and white not only from you, but also from your parents.

When we accept apology, we can make use any one of the following sentences given below:

- a. That’s all right
- b. It doesn’t matter
- c. Don’t worry
- d. Take it easy.

### **Invitation**

We, Tamils to celebrate any family functions or auspicious days with all our relatives, kith and kin, friends and well-wishers so we have to extend invitation.

- a. kindly attend and grace the function
- b. Expect you to be with us
- c. Would you mind having dinner with us!
- d. My joy knew no bounds if you could spare one hour with me.

These invitations can be accepted by saying; 'Thank you so much', 'thank you'. 'Very nice of you'.

### **Refusal**

One should not bluntly refuse. Even in refusing he should maintain politeness.

### **Examples**

Sorry, I can't.

No, Sorry madam/sir.

I am very sorry.

Well, that's very kind of you, but I am not free.

I am helpless.

It is called negation in the figure of speech.

It is negative in spirit and feeling.

### **Accepting**

### **Examples**

Yes, with pleasure.

Yes, certainly,

Thank you very much

Oh! Surely!

### **Thanking**

Among the English natives the two magical words which attract everyone are.

- a. Please

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b. Thank you

Thanking is the expression of gratitude to somebody else for some reason or help received.

**Example**

- i. Thank you
- ii. Thank you a lot
- iii. Thank you so much
- iv. That's very kind/good/nice of you.
- v. You are welcome
- vi. It's a great pleasure.
- vii. That's all right, etc.

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer  
 b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the different types of conventional communication?

---

**3.4 DESCRIBING & INTERPRETATION**

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**3.4.1 Describing and interpreting pictures:**

In a class room, pictures and objects are provided so as to create interests among the students and to develop their speaking ability. Different pictures include the students to practice spoken language. Here the timetable for x STD is given.

	Forenoon				Afternoon		
Monday	T	M	E	SS	SC	M	PT
Tuesday	T	M	E	SS	SC	E	E
Wednesday	T	M	E	SS	SC	Drawing	T
Thursday	T	M	E	SS	SC	Craft	T
Friday	T	M	E	SS	SC	M	PT

a. The teacher will ask questions regarding the subjects.

- 1. How many PT periods are there?
- 2. What are they placed at the last period?

3. How many languages are taught?
4. How many periods are allotted for English?
5. How many periods are allotted for Science period?
6. Is Maths a Science subject?
7. How many periods are there in the morning session?
8. Do you like Drawing period?

b. Asking the questions, the oral fluency is increased.

Picture (1)

1. What is the girl doing?  
She is dancing
2. How many plaits has she?  
She has two

Picture (2)

1. What type of chair is that?  
It is an armed chair.

Picture (3)

1. What are the birds doing?  
The birds are flying in the sky.
2. How many birds are there?  
There are five birds.

Picture (4)

1. What is the man doing?  
The man was sitting.

Picture (5)

1. Is he a young man or an old man?  
He is an old man.
2. What is he wearing?  
He is wearing spectacles.

In this way we can elicit answers from the students. It makes the class lively.

### **3.4.2 Describing and interpreting tables:**

From the tables we can describe many useful matters. It is like Reading & Understanding.

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No	Specifications	OC	OBC	BC	SC	ST
1.	Doctors	125	25	40	12	1
2.	Engineers (Mechanical)	50	20	30	8	-
3.	Electrical Engineers	100	20	25	6	-
4.	Computer Engineers	110	15	50	4	1
5.	Advocates	40	10	15	-	-

1. How many doctors are there in CBE?

There are 203 doctors in CBE.

2. How many mechanical engineers are working in MBC community?

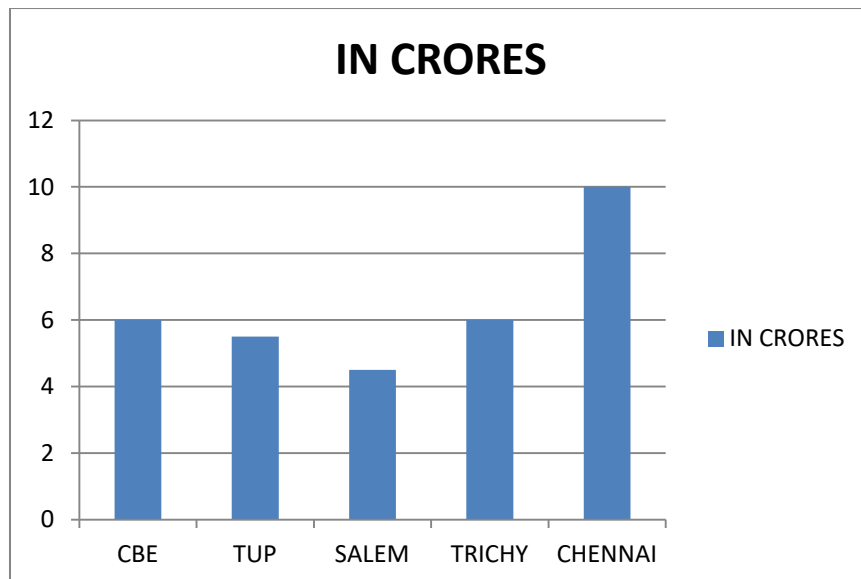
Twenty Mech. Engineers are working in MBC Community.

3. How many persons did totally get appointment from SC?

Thirty persons totally got appointment from SC Community.

4. Is there any ST candidate who got appointment as Computer Engineer?

Yes, only one ST candidate got appointment as Computer Engineer.



**3.4.3 Describing and Interpreting Graphs:**

Graphs can be of different types:

1. Vertical Bar



2. Horizontal Bar
3. Pie Diagram
4. Pictorial Graph

Bar diagrams are very easy to get the 10 contents.

Population chart Of 5 cities given in Crores.

1. Which city has more Population?

Chennai has more population i.e.10 crore people.

2. Which town has less Population?

Salem has less Population.

3. What is the difference between Salem and Chennai regarding population?

Salem has half of the population as Chennai population.

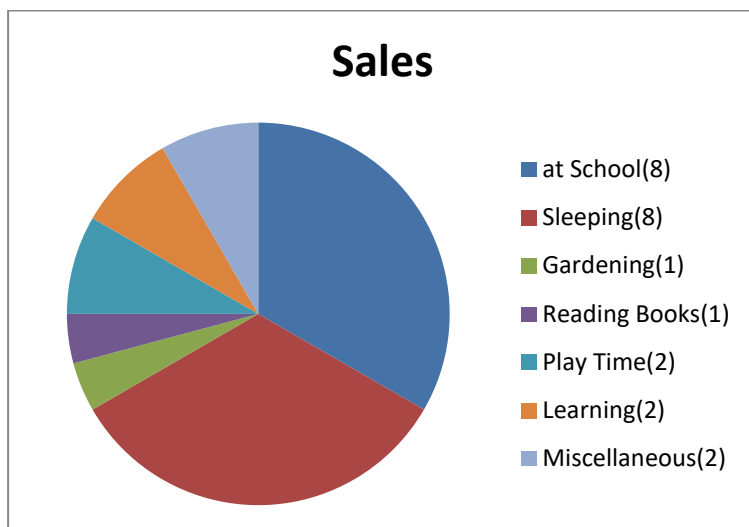
4. Which two cities have same population?

Coimbatore and Trichy.

5. Compare the Tirupur population with Coimbatore and Salem population

Tirupur has 1 crore population less than Coimbatore. At the same time Tirupur has 1

Crore populations more than Salem.



### 1. Horizontal Bar graph: Length of the River:

Length of rivers in kms (rounded to 50 kms)

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### Time Spent by Christopher

The pie diagram represents the time spent by a boy

1. How many hours did he spend in School?

He spent 8 hrs in School.

2. How many hours did he spend in sleeping?

He spent 8 hrs in sleeping.

3. On which items did he spend least time?

He spent only one hour in gardening and Reading books. That is the least time.

4. Compare the time spent on Learning and Miscellaneous items.

The time spent on learning is as much as the time spent by him on miscellaneous items.

5. How many hours spent by Christopher on playing games?

Christopher spent 2 hrs. On playing games

### NOTES

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### 3.5 VARIOUS CONCEPTS AND WAYS IN WHICH THEY ARE EXPRESSED

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Concepts are expressed in different ways. They are:

1. By the use of modal Auxiliaries.
2. By the use of certain sentence patterns.
3. By the use of certain categories of words such as verbs, adverbials, etc.
4. Other expressions: The auxiliary verbs are known as pre verbs or helping verbs.

They express the concepts like

commands, requests, invitation, conditions, suggestions, prohibition, permission, probability, likelihood, possibility, necessity, purpose, result, obligation, cause, contrast, supposition and comparison.

Auxiliary verbs are 24 in No. They are:

- a. Be form verbs- am, is, are, was, were-5 Nos.
- b. Do form verbs- do, does, did-3 Nos.
- c. Have form verbs- have, has, had-3 Nos.
- d. Modals- will, would, shall, should, can, could, must, may, might-9 Nos.

e. Semi modals-ought to, need to, dare to, used to 4 Nos.: Total-24 Nos.

*Fluency*

### **3.5.1 Construction**

It means interpretation. It can also be defined as arrangement of words. This has a special importance. Vocabulary can be enlarged. The sentences can be joined by using linguistic linkers like 'in addition to', 'besides', 'further', 'again', 'and' etc.

1. He has a car. He has a bike.

He has a car in addition to a bike.

2. Raja is a student. He works in a shop.

Besides being a student, Raja works in a shop also.

3. Ravi is my friend. He is my counselor.

Ravi is my friend and counselor.

### **3.5.2 Suggestion**

Must / ought to, Should, Shall, will be used for suggestion. To give strong suggestion, the word 'must' is used and for less suggestion we can use 'should'.

a. You must stop chewing tobacco

b. You should drive more carefully

c. You might go for walking everyday

### **1. Prohibition**

Prohibition means no permission to do something.

a. Smoking is prohibited

b. Pedestrians are prohibited to walk on lawns.

### **2. Permission**

The modal verbs can, may, could, should and might can also be used.

a. May I get in, Sir? (Asking Permission)

b. You can go home early, today (granting permission)

c. Could you help me to cross the Road?

### **3. Probability**

'Ought' is a defective verb. It indicates sometimes present or future. Also the modals express desirability, probability, obligation and duties.

a. Dhoni is probably the best T20 Cricket Captain.

b. You ought to come to school in uniform.

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**4. Obligation**

To express duty or obligation in all persons as

- a. The rich should help the poor
- b. One should keep his word
- c. To enter the exam hall you should bring your hall ticket.

**5. Necessity**

She ought to be present here.' Need' can be used to say what is not necessary at the time of speaking. Need I pay now?

Examples: She need not go out.

**6. Concession**

Though, although and even though are used for concession. When contradictory ideas are there we use this concept. May, despite and in spite of can also be used

Though he studied well, he got poor marks.

In spite of working hard, he earned low salary.

Despite his laziness, he is regular to the class.

Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. Name some of the activities to develop the speaking ability of the students.

3. Name some of the auxiliaries to be used for suggestion.

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**3.6 ORAL DRILLS**

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Drills play indispensable role in developing the four basic skills of the language. LSRW- Listening, Speaking, Reading & Writing. Learning is developed by regular practice. Drills lead to perfection. Once they are learnt, they remain with the learner for a long time.

**What is a drill?**

Drill is a device for fixing the subject matter in the minds of the pupils. It helps the students in clear and thorough understanding. In lower classes we give chorus drill. The students who are having problems may be individually given drill.

## Importance of Drills.

The Power of expression in a language is a matter of skill rather than of knowledge, it is a power that grows by exercise, not nearly by knowing meaning or rules"- Thomson and Wyatt.

Pronunciation can also be taught by using different types of drills.

## NOTES

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### 3.7 DIFFERENT TYPES OF DRILLS

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- **Mechanical Drills**
- **Repetition Drill**
- **Substitution drill**

#### 3.7.1 Mechanical Drills

When there is control of response and only one correct way of responding, the drill is defined as mechanical drill. Since there is complete control over the response there is no need for the learners to understand what is being drilled. **Repetition and substitution drills** to a certain extent are some types that come under this category. For students who can't understand the meaning due to the lesson being complicated, make the lesson easier by expanding it.

#### 3.7.2 Repetition Drill

The teacher speaks a word, a phrase or a sentence then the students repeat them. First they listen the pronunciation of the teacher, then they repeat by imitating. For teaching the sound |æ| the teacher should compute many words having the sound |æ|. Then he can give a model reading twice of the each word.

apple |æpl|

axe |æks|

cat |kæt|

rat |ræt|

The students on listening the pronunciation carefully and repeat the same.

#### 3.7.3 Substitution drill

A substitution drill is a classroom technique used to practice new language. It involves the teacher first modelling a word or a sentence and the learners repeating it. The teacher then substitutes one or more key words, or changes the prompt, and the learners say the new structure. In the classroom, Despite a move away from **drilling** as a classroom technique, many teachers still use it to provide practice. One way to move a drill away from being teacher-centered is to ask a learner to lead the activity.

Example

The following sequence is an example of a substitution drill:

Teacher: I have a new car Learners: Have you?

Teacher: I don't like fish Learners: Don't you?

Teacher: I love coffee Learners: Do you?

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Substitution drills work best at the beginning levels. They enable students to focus on structure while learning related vocabulary.

Teachers first teach a dialogue or sentence structure, then allow students to substitute different content words.

**Example:**

**A: It's \_\_\_\_\_ today.**

hot

cold

raining

snowing

**B: It sure is.**

**A: How about going \_\_\_\_\_?**

swimming

skating

shopping

skiing

**B: I went \_\_\_\_\_ last week.**

swimming

skating

shopping

skiing

**A: All right then. What should we do?**

**B: Let's stay home and watch TV.**

**3.7.4 Various types of substitution drill**

After acquiring the basic sentences by repetition, substitution drill becomes most powerful and useful to overcome the restricted ability of being able to speak only a set of sentences of the same structure.

The sentence is composed of segments within a frame, the position of which is in a fixed relation to the position of other slots. The general structure of the sentence is retained but there will be changes in the semantic content.

Sometimes, substitution introduced into one frame necessitated a change of one or more segments of the sentence. Substitution drill may be of various types according to the mechanism of operation and they are:

- (a) Simple substitution/Single slot substitution
- (b) Substitution in different slots/Mixed slot substitution
- (c) Substitution that forces a change in the structure
- (d) Substitution that calls for a change in the cue
- (e) Multiple slot substitution
- (f) Progressive slot substitution/Moving slot substitution

### **(a) Simple Substitution**

#### **Aim**

To enable the learners to begin to assimilate the structure and the variation in a single frame. It enables him to recognize and use the class of segments that can fit into a particular frame.

#### **Procedure**

The teacher presents the basic structure that needs to be practiced by the learners. A cue word to substitute in a slot is given and the learner is expected to give the new sentence retaining the same pattern. This is a simple substitution in the sense that neither the cue word nor the structure undergoes any change. The meaning of the words is already known. Some examples are given by the teacher himself to illustrate and then the learner is asked to proceed on similar lines.

#### **Illustrations:**

Tamil - siita oru nalla ponnu  
Sita one good girl

'Sita is a good girl'

## **NOTES**

Alakaana 'beautiful'

siitaa oru alakaana ponnu  
Sita one beautiful girl

'Sita is a beautiful girl'

## NOTES

Here the adjectives are substituted.

Hindi - maadhavi hosdiyaar lardkii he  
Madhavi intelligent girl is

'Madhavi is an intelligent girl'

Sundar 'beautiful'

maadhavi sundar lardkii he  
Madhavi beautiful girl is

'Madhavi is a beautiful girl'

### **(b) Substitution in various Slots/Mixed Slot Substitution**

#### **Aim**

To enable the learners to assimilate the grammatical category of the words with appropriate places of their occurrence.

#### **Procedure**

Here the substitution will be simple but in different slots with different grammatical categories. The learner has to know the grammatical category of the cue words. However, more complex items, such as gender, number, etc., will not be introduced.

#### **Illustrations:**

Tamil - avan puttakam padikkiraan  
he book reads

'He reads a book'

Naval 'navel'

Avan naval padikkiraan  
he novel reads

'He reads a novel'



Eluthuraan 'writes'

Avan naval eluthuraan  
he novel writes

'He writes a novel'

### **(c) Substitution that Forces a Change in the Structure**

#### **Aim**

To enable the learners to know that substitution in a slot sometimes forces a change in the structures.

#### **Procedure**

When the learners substitute the cue words, the filler sentence needs some changes, like changes in gender, person, number, etc.

#### **Illustrations:**

Tamil - avan paadam padichaan  
he lesson read-past

'He read a lesson'  
Avanga 'they'

Avanga paadam padichaanga  
they lesson read-past

'They read a lesson'

The above examples involve number-gender agreement. If the cue word is now, yesterday, or tomorrow, accordingly the filler sentence also needs some changes in the tense of the verb.

### **(d) Substitution that Calls for a Change in the cue**

#### **Aim**

To enable the learner to know which grammatical category would fit in the filler sentence. The learner is also expected to know the morphological variations of the cue word without separating them from syntax.

#### **Procedure**

In this type of substitution, the cue word itself is to be changed before substituting according to the requirement of the filler sentence. The cue word will be given and the learner will change it according to the requirements before substitution.

*Fluency*

## **NOTES**

NOTES

**Illustrations:**

Tamil - nii padikkanum  
you to read should (required)

'You should read'

Paar 'to see'

Nii paarkkanum  
you to see should (required)

'You should see'

Kodu 'to give'

Nii kodukkanum  
you to give should (required)

'You should give'

Here, the filler sentence needs the infinitive (in case of Tamil) forms of the verb. Therefore the learner has to change the verb form given accordingly before substitution.

**(e) Multiple Slot Substitution**

**Aim**

Since the learners have to choose the frame in which the substitution is to operate, they learn to distinguish between the different word classes. Thus they can explore the semantic variation within a given structural framework.

**Procedure**

Instead of substituting in only one frame, the learner has to do it in different frames without affecting any change in the grammatical structure.

**Illustrations:**

Tamil - viittil nereya porulgal irukkuthu  
in the house lot of things are

'a lot of things are in the house'

Koodaiyil 'basket (in the)',

kaaykari 'vegetables'

Koodaiyil nereya kaaykari irukkuthu

'there are lot of vegetables in the basket'

Multiple substitution can also be changed as simple substitution, substitution that forces a change in the structure and substitution that calls for a change in the cue.

### **(f) Progressive Substitution/Moving Slot Substitution**

#### **Aim**

To enable the learner to know that by substituting words in various slots, he would get a number of sentences, understand the order of their occurrence and the grammatical categories.

#### **Procedure**

This drill puts a double burden on the learners' memory. He must remember the preceding sentence in which he has substituted and he must make a new one according to the cue word given. The pattern of substituting in each succeeding slot is maintained.

#### **Illustrations:**

Tamil - avan netthu kaaleyil enga viittukku vantaan  
he yesterday morning our house to came

'He came to our home yesterday morning'

T : raaman 'Raman'

L : raaman netthu kaaleyil enga viittukku vantaan  
Raman yesterday morning our house to came

'Raman came to our home yesterday morning'

T : muntaanaal 'day before yesterday'

L : raaman munthanaal kaaleyile enga  
Raman day before yesterday morning our

viittukku vantaan

house-to came

*Fluency*

## **NOTES**

**NOTES**

'Raman came to our home day before yesterday morning'

T : maaleyile 'evening'

L : raaman munthanaal maaleyile enga  
Raman day before yesterday evening our

viittukku vantaan

house-to came

'Raman came to your home day before yesterday evening'

The advantage of substitution drills are providing opportunities for meaningful use of language; practice in the four language skills; usefulness at all levels of learning; diagnostic; offer genuine information gap.

**Check your progress-3**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

4. What is a drill?

5. What are the different types of drills?

---

**3.8 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we discussed about the uses of conventional formula like Greetings, Apology, and Invitation. We also studied about Describing& Interpreting Pictures, Tables, Graphs, Maps, Etc. About various concepts and ways in which they are expressed have been discussed in detailed manner. We understood about the various types of drill with some examples. In order to make the oral drills effective, the teacher may have to practice drills to help the students monitor their own progress and specially to edit their own speaking work.

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**3.9 UNIT END EXERSISES**

- Explain in detail about the uses of conventional formula.

- Prepare one table about the details of your class students and interpret with the help of graphs.
- Explain the various types of drill with some examples.

*Fluency*

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### **3.10 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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### **NOTES**

1. Greeting-apology-invitation-refusal-accepting-thanking are different types of conventional formula.
2. Describing & interpreting pictures, tables, graphs, maps, etc.,
3. Must / ought to, Should, Shall, will be used for suggestion.
4. Drill is a device for fixing the subject matter in the minds of the pupils.
5. Mechanical Drills, Repetition Drill and Substitution drill.

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### **3.11 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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## UNIT 4 ADVANCED GRAMMAR-I

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## NOTES

**STRUCTURES****4.1 INTRODUCTION****4.2 OBJECTIVES****4.3 THE NOUN PHRASE**

4.3.1 Head Word: (H)

4.3.2 Modifier (m)

4.3.3 Qualifier

**4.4 THE VERB PHRASE - TENSE FORMS AUXILIARY VERBS -****MODALS**

4.4.1 Lexical or Main verb:

4.4.2 Auxiliary Verbs:

3.4.3 Past Verb or Adverbial Modifier

**4.5 THE SENTENCE****4.6 TYPES OF SENTENCE****4.7 CLAUSES**

4.7.1 Subordinate clause

**4.8 SENTENCE PATTERN****4.9 ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE****4.10 LET US SUM UP****4.11 UNIT END EXERCISES****4.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS****4.13 SUGGESTED READINGS**


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### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

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We all know that communication is not a simple process. It includes four circles, each includes the other representing different types of meaning and different ways of organizing meaning. The first circle includes the basic meaning of grammar categories such as number, definite meaning, amount, time, manner and degree. The second circle represents the logical communication. The third circle involves that attitudes and behaviors of speaker and hearer. The fourth circle comprises the organizational aspect of communication. It provides chance to in what order we shall put our thought and how we shall bind them together in order to communicate them in the most appropriate way.

---

### 4.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the meaning of the noun phrase.
- Understand the meaning of the verb phrase - tense forms auxiliary verbs – modals.
- Identify the types of sentence.
- Understand the meaning of sentence pattern and its types.
- Importance of other grammar items.

---

### 4.3 THE NOUN PHRASE

---

The Noun phrase is also known as the noun group. It is defined as a group of words with a noun as its head word. It may be comprised of the head word alone. There are other constituents in a noun phrase like the modifier and the qualifier.

The            girl            wearing a red frock  
m            h                            q

#### 4.3.1 Head Word: (H)

The head word is the most important word in a noun phrase. It is usually a noun. But sometimes a pronoun. The noun used can be either singular or plural. A ground may also be used as a head word.

E.g. a nice cake

m    h

the teachings of Christ

h

the black jungle cats

n

#### 4.3.2 Modifier (m)

The modifier comes before the headword. Adjectives which qualify the head word can be called modifiers. There can more than one modifier in a noun phrase.

The nine little blackpigs

m                    m            m            m

The modifier may be an article, adjective, an adjective with an intensifier, a numeral, a passive adjective, a participle adjective, and a noun.

NOTES

### 4.3.3 Qualifier

The qualifier comes after, the head word. The qualifier also has something to say the head word. There are four types of qualifiers.

1. Adverb – The boy there
2. Infinitive – a book to read
3. Prepositional Phrase - the boy in the red shirt
4. Defining relative clause – The man whom I met yesterday.

---

## 4.4 THE VERB PHRASE - TENSE FORMS AUXILIARY VERBS - MODALS

---

Verb refers to the action or state of the subject. The verb phrase can be defined as a group of words referring to action or state.

### 4.4.1 Lexical or Main verb:

The main verb is make up of just one word. It can be the two forms of the present tense, past tense, present participle, past participle or the infinitive.

Root V - V - o - go, eat, sleep

Present Tense — V - s - goes, eats sleeps

Past Tense — V - ed - looked, guided, dreamt

Present P V - ing - going, eating, sleeping

Past P V - en - gone, eaten, slept

Infinitive V - to - to eat, to go, to sleep.

### 4.4.2 Auxiliary Verbs:

In modern grammar auxiliary verb is known as pre-verb. They are wenty four in number.

- 1) be forms - am, is, was, are, were
- 2) have forms - have, has, had
- 3) do forms - do, does, did
- 4) Modals - will, would, shall, should, can, may, might, must
- 5) Semi Models - used to, dare to, ought to, need to

### 4.4.3 Past Verb or Adverbial Modifier:

Past verb comes after the main verb. V-to, V – ing, V- en are commonly used post verbs. Want to speak, stop speaking, and feel insulated. In the V-o position all the normal verbal forms can be used.



I want	to speak
She planned	
He will try	
John has tried	

**NOTES**

The structure of the verbal group can be arranged in four main patterns

- i) lexical verbs alone
- ii) proverb + lexical verb
- iii) Lexical verb + Post Verb
- iv) proverb + lexical verb + post verb

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Define noun phrase and verb phrase.

---

## 4.5 THE SENTENCE

---

The sentence is a group of words with a complete sense. To construct a sentence we choose words from eight different types called parts of speech. They are noun, pronoun, Adjective, Verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection.

The sentence can be divided into two major sections

They are 1) Affirmative and 2) Negative

This is like classifying people like male and female on the basis of sex.

---

## 4.6 TYPES OF SENTENCE

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The sentence can also be divided into four types based on its mood.

- i) Assertive (or) Declarative or statement
- ii) Interrogative (Question) , could,
- iii) Imperative (commands and requests)
- iv) Exclamatory sentence

NOTES

**1. Assertive Sentence :**

An assertive sentence is also known as a declarative, sentence. It simply makes a statement. The statement can be either affirmative or negative.

I eat an apple.

I am not a lawyer.

Even if these sentences are in the negative they are calculated as assertive sentences.

**2. Interrogative sentence :**

It is a sentence which passes a question. There are two types of questions.

- i) Wh -questions and
- ii) Yes or no type questions

Wh-question begins with any one of the pronouns normally beginning with wh

e.g: who, which, what, whom, when, where, why and how.

This question expects an answer.

Who are you? Which poem does he like most?

Yes — or no type question has only yes or no as its answer. This type begins with an auxiliary verb.

e.g: Are you going to Delhi?

Do you understand English?

**3. Imperative sentence :**

This sentence expresses a command or a request. It begins with a verb itself.

Come here, please get out.

**4. Exclamatory sentence :**

This sentence expresses delight or shock or some such feeling. It is distinguished by the exclamatory mark (!)

How beautiful the rose is!

The four types of sentences can be identified with the help of the punctuation marks and other distinct features.

---

## 4.7 CLAUSES

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### NOTES

A phrase is a group of words with an incomplete meaning. It is only a part of a sentence. A clause is a group of words with a complete or incomplete meaning. It is also a part of a sentence. Sometimes it is the sentence itself. When a clause has a complete meaning it is known as main clause. When the clause has an incomplete meaning it is called the subordinate clause. It depends on the main clause for completion of its meaning. The subordinate clause can be of noun clauses, adjective clauses or adverbial clauses.

### 4.7.1 Subordinate clause

Noun clause	adjective clause	adverbial clause
i) that clause	i) Defining relative clause	i) Ad. Clause of time
ii) wh-interrogative clause	ii) Non defining relative clause	ii) Ad. Clause of place
iii) yes or no interrogative clause		iii) Ad. Clause of concession
iv) Nominal relative clause		iv) Ad. Clause of condition
		v) Ad. Clause of reason
		vi) Ad. Clause of purpose
		vii) Ad. Clause of result
		viii) Ad. Clause of manner
		ix) Ad. Clause of Comparison
		x) Ad. Clause of preposition and preference.

#### 1) Noun clause:

- i) that clause functions as a subject, object, complement, appositive and an adjective complement.  
I am sure that he will score high marks.
- ii) wh — Interrogative :  
I don't understand how he did it.
- iii) Yes-or no Interrogative :  
These clauses formed with conjunctions if or whether.  
Do you know if/whether he will come?
- iv) Nominal relative clauses:  
It is introduced by wh-element.  
I want to know who does the job.

NOTES

2) **Adjective clauses:**

They are introduced by subordinate conjunctions like who, whom, whose, which, that, when, where, why etc. The conjunctions are known as relative pronouns.

- I) Defining relative clause :  
This is the house that Jack built  
He is a leader whom people like must
- II) Non defining relative clause :  
Mr. Charles whom you have met earlier has come to see you,  
Madras which is the capital of Tamil Nadu is my native place,

3. **Adverbial clauses:**

They can occur in initial, medial or final positions. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like when, where, as, while, till, until, though, unless, because, since, after, before, than, so that etc. It has ten types.

- i) Adverbial clause of time :  
Wait until it is dark
- ii) Adverbial clause of place:  
Where there is smoke, there should be fire.
- iii) Adverbial clause of concession :  
Though he is poor, he is kind.
- iv) Adverbial clause of condition :  
Unless you run fast, you will miss the bus.
- v) Adverbial clause of reason :  
I lent him money because he needed it.
- vi) Adverbial clause of purpose :  
We eat so that we may live.
- vii) Adverbial clause of result :  
He is so weak that he cannot walk.
- viii) Adverbial clause of manner :  
He looks as if he is going to be ill.
- ix) Adverbial clause comparison :  
Raja is taller than Rakesh

- x) Adverbial clause of preposition and preference.  
As he grew restless, he committed more blunders.

**Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. Define sentence.

3. Name the four types of sentences.

**NOTES**

**4.8 SENTENCE PATTERN**

What are Sentence Patterns?

Sentence patterns can be understood as the way sentences are usually structured. It is important to learn the most common sentence patterns in English, as most of the sentences you will hear, write, and speak will follow these basic patterns.

There are a number of common sentence patterns used to write most sentences in English. The basic sentence patterns presented in this guide to sentence patterns will help you understand the underlying pattern in even the most complex English sentences. Parts of speech are put together to create sentence patterns in English.

When we make simple English sentences, we usually follow the Subject-Verb-Object pattern. Steps: 1. put the subject and the adjectives such as ‘fat’, ‘thin’ etc. or any words describing the subject at the beginning of the sentence 2. Put the verb and some adverbs such as ‘often’, ‘usually’ etc. after the subject 3. Put the object of the verb, the adjectives or other words describing the object and the adverbs describing the verb at the end of the sentence.

Subject	verb	object
Paul	often eats	biscuits.
Mary	ate	two apples quickly.
My father and mother	are eating	mangoes now.
The fat girl	has eaten	a watermelon.
That little boy	will eat	some bread soon

NOTES

## 5 Basic Sentence Patterns

- Subject + Verb  
I swim. Joe swims. They swam.
- Subject + Verb + Object  
I drive a car. Joe plays the guitar. They ate dinner.
- Subject + Verb + Complement  
I am busy. Joe became a doctor. They look sick.
- Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object  
I gave her a gift. She teaches us English.
- Subject + Verb + Object + Complement  
I left the door open. We elected him president. They named her Jane.

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## 4.9 ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

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In the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action: I aced the exam. Subject/actor verb object/thing acted on in the passive voice, the object of the action becomes the subject of the sentence, and the actor appears in a prepositional phrase, or is absent from the sentence: The exam was aced (by me). Subject verb actor/object of prepositional phrase

- Use the active voice when the actor's identity is important. Active: The butler did it. Passive: It was done by the butler. The first sentence is stronger; it sounds like an accusation. The second sentence is weaker; it sounds like the butler did nothing more sinister than a load of laundry.
- Use the active voice when you want to be direct and emphatic. Active: Management expects the staff to follow the rules. Passive: It is expected by Management that the rules will be followed by the staff. In this instance, the active voice delivers the message more effectively.
- Use the passive voice when you do not need to tell the reader who is acting. Active: Ned will prosecute trespassers. Passive: Trespassers will be prosecuted. In this case, it is not necessary to say who will be doing the prosecuting. Fear of being prosecuted, not fear of being prosecuted by Ned, will prevent most people from trespassing.
- Use the 'objective' passive for writing in disciplines such as the sciences. Active: Dr. Cranium considered the drug to be a medical breakthrough, but after he tested the drug further, he found that it had serious side effects. Passive: The drug was

considered to be a medical breakthrough, but after further testing, it was found to have serious side effects.

Writers in the sciences often use the passive voice when they want to sound objective. In the first sentence, the active voice suggests that Dr. Cranium made an error in judgment. In the second sentence, the passive voice delivers important information about the drug without implying anything (either positive or negative) about Dr. Cranium.

## NOTES

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### 4.10 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we discussed about the meaning of the noun phrase, verb phrase - tense forms auxiliary verbs – modals, and the types of sentence. We had also understood the meaning of sentence pattern and its types. Importance of other grammar items such as Active and Passive voices, Direct and indirect speech, Question forms were discussed in detail. We had learnt about the Analysis and classification of grammatical errors clearly.

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### 4.11 UNIT END EXERCISES

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- Explain the noun phrase in detail.
- Discuss the verb phrase - tense forms auxiliary verbs – modals with examples.
- Define subordinate clause and explain.

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### 4.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Noun Phrase is defined as a group of words with a noun as its head word.

The verb phrase can be defined as a group of words referring to action or state.

2. The sentence is a group of words with a complete sense.
3. The sentence can also be divided into four types based on its mood.
  - i) Assertive (or) Declarative or statement
  - ii) Interrogative (Question) , could,
  - iii) Imperative (commands and requests)
  - iv) Exclamatory sentence

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### 4.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## **UNIT 5 - ADVANCED GRAMMAR-II**

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*Advanced Grammar - I*

### **STRUCTURES**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

#### **5.2 OBJECTIVES**

#### **5.3 DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH**

#### **5.4 QUESTION FORMS**

5.4.1 Basic rules:

5.4.2 Question Types in English

#### **5.5 ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS**

5.5.1 Definition of Error Analysis

5.5.2 The Differences between Error and Mistake

5.5.3 The Causes of Error

5.5.4 The Kinds of Error

5.5.5 The Procedures of Error

#### **5.6 LET US SUM UP**

#### **5.7 UNIT END EXERCISES**

#### **5.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

#### **5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS**

### **NOTES**

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### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

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Advanced grammar is presented in such a way that students will assimilate the grammar points dealt with very easily, as they only have one piece of information in each section. In the revision exercises, however, they will have to go over the sections learnt earlier. Consequently, they will absorb all the contents given with extraordinary ease. Moreover, the cross-reference notes will help them to find any further details in other parts of the book.

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### **5.2 OBJECTIVES**

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the meaning of the direct and indirect speech.
- Understand the meaning of the question forms.

- Understand the analysis and classification of grammatical errors.

---

### 5.3 DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

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#### NOTES

When the actual words of the speaker are reproduced, it is called direct speech.

**Example:**

He said, 'I am going to school.' When the main idea of a speaker's words is reported by another person and the exact words are not quoted, it is called indirect speech or reported speech.

**Example:**

He said that he was going to school.

- Quotation marks or 'inverted commas' are used for direct speech.

**Example:**

'I have cut my finger!' cried Mrs Sharma.

- Quotation marks are not used for indirect or reported speech.

**Example:**

Mrs Sharma cried that she had cut her finger.

- Question marks and exclamation marks are not used in reported speech.

**Examples:**

'Is it bleeding very much?' Mr Sharma asked. (direct)

Mr Sharma asked if it was bleeding very much. (indirect)

- In reported speech, the reporting verbs like asked/enquired, commanded/ ordered/requested, advised/suggested, exclaimed/shouted, etc are often used in place of the reporting verb 'said' to convey the mood of the spoken words.

**Examples:**

Ramesh said, 'How hot the soup is!' (direct)

Ramesh exclaimed that the soup was hot. (indirect)

'Stir it with your spoon,' his sister said. (direct)

His sister advised him to stir it with a spoon. (indirect)

The son said to his mother, 'I shall never be rude to you.' (direct)

The son promised his mother that he would never be rude to her. (indirect)

‘Why has the clock stopped?’ thought Peter. (direct)

Peter wondered why the clock had stopped. (indirect)

- The tense of the verb in the reported speech is in the past tense. However, if the verb in the reported speech is stating a universal truth, a habit, a constant situation, the tense of that verb does not change:

**Examples:**

The boy said, ‘I brush my teeth every day.’ (Simple present tense)

The boy said that he brushes his teeth every day. (Simple present tense)

The teacher said, ‘The Sun rises in the east.’ (direct)

The teacher said that the Sun rises in the east. (indirect)

She said, ‘My son wants to be an actor.’ (direct)

She said that her son wants to be an actor. (indirect)

- In an indirect or reported question, the subject comes before the verb, not after it. You do not use the helping verb ‘do’ to form reported questions.

**Example:**

Paul said, ‘What time does the bus come?’ (direct)

Paul asked what time the bus came. (indirect)

Sarah said, ‘When does the show begin.’ (direct)

Sarah asked when the show began. (indirect)

- The pronouns are also changed in reported speech. Pronouns of the first person are changed as below:

**Examples:**

He said, ‘I am bored.’ (direct)

He said that he was bored. (indirect)

Mira said, ‘We are going to the movies.’ (direct)

Mira said that they were going to the movies. (indirect)

Rinki said, ‘My friends gave me a treat.’ (direct)

**NOTES**

## NOTES

Rinki said that her friends gave her a treat. (indirect)

Pronouns of the second person are changed as below:

### Examples:

He said to her, 'You are beautiful.' (direct)

He said to her that she was beautiful. (indirect)

'You must write neatly,' the teacher told her pupils. (direct)

The teacher advised her pupils that they must write neatly. (indirect)

Pronouns of the third person do not change:

### Examples:

I said, 'They have gone out.' (direct)

I informed that they had gone out. (indirect)

Leela said, 'These books are theirs.' (direct)

Leela said that those books were theirs. (indirect)

- While converting direct speech into indirect speech, the tense of the verb must change accordingly:

	<b>Direct speech</b>		<b>Indirect speech</b>
	Simple present	—	simple past
	Simple past	—	past perfect
continuous	Present continuous	—	Past perfect
	Present perfect	—	Past perfect
	Can	—	Could
	Shall	—	Would
	Will	—	Would
	May	—	Might

### Examples:

She said, 'I may attend the meeting.' (direct)

She said that she might attend the meeting. (indirect)

Renu said, 'I have finished my homework.' (direct)

Renu said that she had finished her work. (indirect)

- Words indicating ‘nearness’ of time and place are changed to words indicating ‘distance’ of time and place:

<b>Direct speech</b>	<b>Indirect speech</b>
This	— that
These	— those
Here	— there
Now	— then
Today	— that day
Tomorrow	— the next/following day
Yesterday	— the day before/the previous day

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Examples:

The interviewer said to the young man, ‘We will let you know our decision by tomorrow.’ (direct)

The interviewer said to the young man that they would let him know their decision by the next day. (indirect)

- When reporting a question, an order or a request, the connector ‘that’ is not used.

Examples:

The girl said, ‘May I come in?’ (direct)

The girl asked if she could come in. (indirect)

‘Pay your taxes,’ the king ordered his subjects. (direct)

The king ordered his subjects to pay their taxes. (indirect)

- In reported speech, the word/words or the sound used by the speaker to express an emotion is omitted.

Examples:

‘Wow! What a handsome man he is!’ the girls said. (direct)

The girls exclaimed what a handsome man he was. (indirect)

‘Hello!’ my friend said to me. ‘How are you?’ (direct)

My friend greeted me and asked how I was. (indirect)

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## 5.4 QUESTION FORMS

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### 5.4.1 Basic rules:

1. Questions are made by putting an auxiliary verb before the subject.

Have you received my letter of June 17th?

Is your mother coming tomorrow?

auxiliary	subject	main verb
have	you	received
is	your mother	coming

Note that only the auxiliary is put before the subject. The rest of the verb phrase comes after it:

Where are the president and his family staying?

2. When a verb phrase has no auxiliary its question form is made with do, followed by the infinitive without to.

Do you like Mozart?

What does 'periphrastic' mean?

3. Do is not used to make questions with can, must, should, may etc., or be:

Can you tell me the time? (not \*Do you can...)

Are you ready? (not \*Do you be...)

4. When who, what or which is the subject of a sentence, it comes directly before the verb, and do is not used:

Who left the door open?

If who, what or which is the object of a sentence, the normal rules are followed:

Who do you want to speak to?

The basic rule for asking questions in English is straightforward:

1. Invert the order of the subject and the first auxiliary verb.
  - It is snowing. = Is it snowing?
  - He can speak German. = Can he speak German?
  - They have lived here a long time. = Have they lived here a long time?
  - She will arrive at ten o'clock. = Will she arrive at ten o'clock?
  - He was driving fast. = Was he driving fast?
  - You have been smoking. = Have you been smoking?

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2. If there is no auxiliary, use part of the verb 'to do'.

- You speak fluent French. = Do you speak fluent French?
- She lives in Brussels. = Does she live in Brussels?
- They lived in Manchester. = Did they live in Manchester?
- He had an accident. = Did he have an accident?

3. Most questions with question words are made in the same way:

- How often does she use it?
- Why don't you come?
- Where do you work?
- How many did you buy?
- What time did you go?
- Which one do you like?
- Whose car were you driving?

4. Note *who*, *what* and *which* can be the subject. Compare:

- Who is coming to lunch? (who is the subject of the verb)
- Who do you want to invite to lunch? (you is the subject of the verb)
- What happened? (*what* is the subject of the verb)
- What did you do? (*you* is the subject of the verb)

5. Note the position of the prepositions in these questions:

- Who did you speak **to**?
- What are you looking **at**?
- Where does he come **from**?

#### **5.4.2 Question Types in English**

There are a number of question types in English:

1. Yes-No Questions
2. Wh-Questions
3. Tag questions

4. Choice Questions
5. Hypothetical Questions
6. Embedded questions
7. Leading questions

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### Yes / No questions

Most of them start with an auxiliary verb and expect an answer Yes or No.

Yes / No Questions	Answers
Do you like your new teacher? Can you help me? Have you ever been here before? Did you visit your aunt yesterday?	Yes / No (Yes I do / No I don't) Yes / No (Yes I can / No I can't) Yes / No (Yes I have / No I haven't) Yes / No (Yes I did / No I didn't)

**Note:** you can ask a yes / no question using the verb "to be" as a full verb (not an auxiliary) as well.

See Auxiliary Verbs

Are you from The United States?  
 Yes / No (Yes I am / No I am not)

### Wh-Questions

As you can understand from its name, most of them start with a question word such as:

What / Where / Why / Who / Whose / When / Which

Wh-questions	Answers
What is your name? When did you come? Who is your teacher? Whose book is that?	My name is Allen. I came yesterday. Mr. Jack is my teacher. That's mine.

**Note:** there are other question words that don't start with "wh" as well.

How / how many / how often / how far / how much / how long / how old  
 etc.



**Examples:**

How are you?            I am fine.

How old are you?      I am fifteen.

How much is it?        It is \$5.

**Tag questions (disjunctive or tail questions)**

They are mini-questions asked at the end of a statement to confirm it.

**Examples:**

You love her, **don't you?**

She has seen it, hasn't she?

Nobody knew the answer, did they?

Let's go, shall we?

**Choice Questions**

We use choice questions when we offer choices.

<b>Choice questions</b>	<b>Answers</b>
Would you like a house or a flat? Do you with your family or alone? Are you a little nervous or excited?	A house, of course. With my family. A little nervous.

**Hypothetical Questions**

We ask hypothetical questions to have a general idea of a certain situation (like a questionnaire).

**Examples:**

What would you do if you won the lottery?

Would you leave your country and your relatives behind to study abroad?

If you had a superpower, what would it be?

**Embedded questions (indirect questions)**

We use them in reported speech or in polite questions.

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### Examples:

She asked me if she could borrow my dictionary.  
She asked me where the nearest train station was.  
(not where was the nearest train station...)

**Note:** notice that the word order is affirmative.  
Could you tell me how I can go to The Central Park?

### Leading questions

We ask leading questions when we want to get the answer we desire.

### Examples:

What do you think of the terrible side effects of drugs?

Were you with your family at the time of the crime?

### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the 5 Basic Sentence Patterns?
2. Rewrite the following sentences by replacing passive verbs with active verbs, and by adding a subject if necessary.
  - i. The building has been left by Elvis.
  - ii. When I was prosecuted by Ned, I felt very foolish.
  - iii. A superb dinner was prepared by the famous chef.
  - iv. The dog was given a bath, and the cat was rescued from the tree.
  - v. The story of the albatross will be told many times by the ancient mariner.
3. What are two types of reported speech?
4. Name any three question types in English?

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## 5.5 ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION OF GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

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### NOTES

Writing needs well knowledge and hard thinking when the students produce words, sentences, paragraph at the same time with good English grammatical. English grammar is more complicated than any mother tongue grammar. Some mistakes are made when the students do not understand well about the English grammar. Many of the students commonly make grammar mistakes in their learning especially in writing. But, sometimes the teacher did not aware about students' mistakes. Then the students made their mistakes repeatedly because they do not have the correction and it was what we have called as error.

#### 5.5.1 Definition of Error Analysis

Errors in foreign language teaching especially in English are the cases which are difficult enough to avoid. Error analysis is the process of determinating the incidence, nature, causes, and consequences of unsuccessful language.

Richards et.al state that:

Error analysis is an activity to reveal errors found in writing and speaking. Error analysis also is the study of errors made by the second and foreign language learners.

Error analysis may be carried out in order to

- (a) find out how well someone knows a language,
- (b) find out how a person learns a language, and
- (c) obtain information on common difficulties in language learning, as an aid in teaching or in the preparation of teaching materials. This definition stresses the functions of error analysis.

Another concept of error analysis is given By Brown, he defined error analysis as the process to observe, analyze, and classify the deviations of the rules of the second language and then to reveal the systems operated by learner. It seems this concept is the same as the one proposed by Crystal i.e. Error analysis is a technique for identifying, classifying and systematically interpreting the unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a foreign language, using any of the principles and procedures provided by linguistics.

The three definitions above clarify that error analysis is an activity to identify, classify and interpreted or describe the errors made by someone in speaking or in writing and it is carried out to obtain information on common difficulties faced by someone in speaking or in writing English sentences. Another thing which should be noticed is the procedure of error analysis.

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### 5.5.2 The Differences between Error and Mistake

Sometimes we confuse to differentiate between error and mistake. If the learner is inclined and able to correct a fault in his or her output, it is assumed that the form he or she selected was not the one intended, and we shall say that the fault is a mistake. If, on the other hand, the learner is unable or in any way disinclined to make the correction, we assume that the form the learner used was the one intended, and that it is an error.

Mistakes can only be corrected by their agent if their deviance is pointed out to him or her. If a simple indication that there is some deviance is a sufficient prompt for self correction, then we have a first-order mistake. If additional information is needed, in the form of the exact location and some hint as to the nature of the deviance, then we have a second-order mistake.

Errors cannot be self-corrected until further relevant (to that error) input (implicit or explicit) has been provided and converted into intake by the learner. In other words, errors require further relevant learning to take place before they can be self-corrected.

Error is a systematic deviation, when a learner has not learnt something and consistently gets it wrong' It seems that the phrase 'systematic deviation' in these definitions is a key word which can be interpreted as the deviation which happens repeatedly.

Further, it is necessary to differentiate between error and mistake. A mistake is also a deviation of the norms of the language but is not systematic. It means that the use of the norms of the language in sentences is sometimes true and sometimes wrong.

Norrish says that a mistake is an inconsistent deviation that is sometimes the learner 'gets it right' but sometimes wrong. Richards et.al state that mistake is made by a learner when writing or speaking which is caused of lack of attention, fatigue, carelessness, or other aspects of performance. From these two definitions, it can be concluded that a mistake is made by a learner because he does not apply the rule (s) that he actually knows, in other words, a mistake is a non-systematic deviation from the norms of the language.

### 5.5.3 The Causes of Error

Norrish classifies causes of error into three types that is carelessness, first language interference, and translation. The three types of causes of error will be discussed briefly below.

#### 1) Carelessness.

It is often closely related to lack of motivation. Many teachers will admit that it is not always the student's fault if he loses interest, perhaps the materials and/or style of presentation do not suit him.

## 2) First language.

Norrish states that learning a language (a mother tongue or a foreign language) is a matter of habit formation. When someone tries to learn new habits the old ones will interfere the new ones. This cause of error is called first language interference”.

## 3) Translation.

It is one of the causes of error. This happens because a student translates his first language sentence or idiomatic expression in to the target language word by word. This is probably the most common cause of error.

Another expert who discusses the sources of error is Richards in Schumann and Stenson in his article “Error Analysis and Second language Strategies”. He classifies sources of errors into six points:

### 1) Interference

That is an error resulting from the transfer of grammatical and/or stylistic elements from the source language to the target language

### 2) Overgeneralization

That is an error caused by extension of target language rules to areas where they do not apply

### 3) Performance error.

That is unsystematic error that occurs as the result of such thing as memory lapses, fatigue, confusion, or strong emotion

### 4) Markers of transitional competence.

That is an error that results from a natural and perhaps inevitable development sequence in the second language learning process (by analogy with first language acquisition)

### 5) Strategy of communication and assimilation.

That is an error resulting from the attempt to communicate in the target language without having completely acquired the grammatical form necessary to do so

### 6) Teacher-induced error.

That is an error resulting from pedagogical procedures contained in the text or employed by the teacher.

## 5.5.4 The Kinds of Error

According to Corder, errors divided into four categories: omission of some required element, addition of some necessary or incorrect element,

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selection of an incorrect element, and miss-ordering of element. And here are the explanations:

### a. Omission

Certain linguistic forms may be omitted by the learners because of their complexity in production. Omission also occurs in morphology. Learners often leave out the third person singular morpheme –s, the plural marker –s and the past tense inflection –ed. A learner could say, for example: “I watch the movie last night”. Instead of: “I watched the movie last night”.

### b. Addition

Learners not only omit elements which they regard as redundant but they also add redundant element. For example: - I swims - The books is here Instead of: “I swim” and “The book is here”

### c. Selection

Learners commit errors in pronunciation, morphology, syntax and vocabulary due to the selection of the wrong, phoneme, morpheme, structure or vocabulary item. For example: “Fika is smartest than Femy”. Instead of “Fika is smarter than Femy”.

### d. Ordering

Miss-ordering can occur in morphological level. Miss-ordering of bound morpheme in English is perhaps less frequent, given their limited number, but in the example “He is got upping now”, the learners attaches the inflection –ing to the particle of the two words verb “get up”.

Students’ errors may be distinguished as follows:

a. Errors Performance is unsystematic and not very serious, because the students themselves can correct them when their attention is drawn to them. These errors are attributed to carelessness, lapse of memory, ill health, emotional health, etc., and they should not worry us.

b. Errors Competence is persistent and systematic and in consequence serious, and their treatment calls for careful analysis to discover their cause. These errors represent the learners’ traditional competence.

### 5.5.5 The Procedures of Error

Gass and Selinker stated that “A great deal of the work on error analysis was carried out within the context of the classroom. The goal was clearly one of pedagogical remediation. There are a number of steps taken in conducting an error analysis.

a. Identify errors, what is the error (e.g. incorrect sequence of tenses, wrong verb form, etc)

b. Classify errors. Is it an error of Tense? Is it an error in sentence pattern?

c. Quantify errors. How many errors of Tense occur?

d. Analysis of source/causes.

e. Remediation. Based on the kind and frequency of an error type, pedagogical intervention is carried out.

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### Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

5. What are the three types of causes of error?

6. Name the four kinds of error?

7. Write down steps taken in conducting an error analysis.

## 5.6 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we discussed about the meaning of the noun phrase, verb phrase - tense forms auxiliary verbs – modals, and the types of sentence. We had also understood the meaning of sentence pattern and its types. Importance of other grammar items such as Active and Passive voices, Direct and indirect speech, Question forms were discussed in detail. We had learnt about the Analysis and classification of grammatical errors clearly.

## 5.7 UNIT END EXERCISES

- Write down the rules to be followed in Direct and Indirect speech.
- Elaborately analyze the classification of grammatical errors.

## 5.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Subject + Verb, Subject + Verb + Object, Subject + Verb + Complement, Subject + Verb + Indirect Object + Direct Object, Subject + Verb + Object + Complement.

2. i. Elvis has left the building.

ii. When Ned prosecuted me, I felt very foolish.

iii. The famous chef prepared a superb dinner.

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- iv. Ben gave the dog a bath, and Jerry rescued the cat from the tree.
  - v. The ancient mariner will tell the story of the albatross many times.
3. Direct and Indirect speech.
- 4. i. Yes-No questions
  - ii. Wh-Questions
  - iii. Tag questions
5. Carelessness, First language and Translation.
6. Omission, Addition, Selection and Ordering.
7. Identify errors, Classify errors, Quantify errors, Analysis of source/causes and Remediation.

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## **5.9 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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# UNIT 6 - LEXIS

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## STRUCTURES

### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

### 6.2 OBJECTIVES

### 6.3 WORD FORMATION

6.3.1. Affixation

6.3.2. Conversion

6.3.3 Compounds

6.3.4 Minor devices

### 6.4 PATTERNS OF SPELLING

### 6.5 PHRASAL VERBS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

6.5.1 Qualities of a Phrasal verb

6.5.2 Prepositional Verbs

### 6.6 SENTENCE CONNECTORS

6.6.1 Devices for cohesion and coherence

### 6.7 LET US SUM UP

### 6.8 UNIT END EXERCISES

### 6.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

### 6.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

## NOTES

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## 6.1 INTRODUCTION

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English vocabulary has been enriched from time to time from other languages.

New words are either borrowed or coined. Roughly 70% of the words in English are borrowed or coined. T.C. Baruah says "A word is the smallest meaningful unit of sounds." Every language has its own distinctive patterns of combining morphemes to get larger units.

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## 6.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the rule of word-formation
- Understand the criteria for the patterns of spelling
- Understand the phrasal verbs and prepositional phrases

- Identify the structure involved in the sentence connectors

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## 6.3 WORD FORMATION

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A form to which a rule of word-formation applied is called a base. Once a base has undergone a rule of word-formation the derived word itself may become the base for another, deviation and by re-application. It is possible to derive words of considerable morphological and semantic complexity. There are three major processes by which the base is modified. They are

- i) Affixation
- ii) Conversion and
- iii) Compounding

There are some **other minor devices** also called reduplication, clipping, blending and acronym.

### 6.3.1. Affixation:

Change is the forte of any living language. Affixes are those used to form new words. These affixes are added either before or after the base form. It is of two types. Prefixation and suffixation.

#### Prefixes:

The fixes that are added before the base form are called prefixes. A prefix is a syllable **or** syllables placed at the beginning of a word to qualify its meaning and form a new word. It has its origin from Greek, Latin and Native English. The prefixes are classified as follows:

1. Negative Prefixes
2. Reservative Prefixes
3. Pejorative Prefixes
4. Prefixes of Degree or size
5. Prefixes of Attitude
6. Locative Prefixes
7. Prefixes of time and order
8. Number Prefixes
9. Other prefixes and
10. Conversion prefixes.

#### 1. Negative Prefixes:

a) The negative prefix ' — 'in' is used-with words of Latin origin — UN is found in English Unfortunate, injustice

b) The exact opposite meaning is brought by the prefix Dislike, disloyal

c) Latin and French non-meaning not is used Non-violence, non-committal

d) A — means lacking, a moral, and asymmetry

## **2. Reversive Prefixes (Reverse of Action)**

a) Un - means to 'reverse action.' Added to verbs

Untie, unseat, and unload

b) De - means to reverse action added to abstract noun

Defrost, deforestation

c) Dis - to deprive of is added to verb s, participles and nouns.

Disconnect discolored, discontent.

## **3. Pejorative Prefixes: (Depreciatory)**

Depreciatory means diminish in value.

a) miss -'wrongly'

Misinform, misconduct, misleading

b) Mal - - means 'badly'

mal treat, mal function, mal formed, malodorous

c) Pseudo means false

Pseudopodia, pseudo-intellectual

## **4. Prefixes of Degree or size:**

a) Arch - highest, chief Archbishop

b) Super - means above, more than, better superman, super market, and

supernatural

c) Out - means to do something, faster, longer.

Out run, out live

d) Sur - means over and above surtax

e) Sub - means lower than, less than sub human, substandard, subordinate

f) Over - too much over real, over dressed, over confident

g) Under - means too little under took

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h) Ultra - means extremely ultraviolet, ultra-modern

i) Mini - means small or little miniskirt

**5. Prefixes of Attitude:**

a) Co - with or joint co-operative, co pilot

b) Counter - means in opposition to countant, counter —  
revolution

c) Anti means against. Antisocial, anticlockwise, antimissile.

d) Pro - means of the side of Pro-communist

**6. Locative Prefixes:**

Super - Over - super structure

Sub - means beneath - subway subconscious

Inter means between - international interactions

Trans - means across - transplant, translation

**7. Prefixes of time and order:**

Fore - means before - fore tell

Pre - means before - pre-war, pre-planned

Post - means after - post —war

Ex - means former - ex-minister

Re - means again - rebuild, resettlement rewrite

**8. Number Prefixes**

Uni, mono means one - unilateral, monotheism

Bi, di means two - bi lingual, dipole

Tri means three - tripartite Poly,

Multi means many - multi racial, poly syllabic

**9. Other Prefixes:**

Semi means half - Semi circle

Vice means deputy - Vice president

Auto means self - Auto biography

Neo means new - neo — gothic

Pan means world wide - Pan — Americal

Prato means first - prototype.

### 10. Conversion Prefixes:

Be, en and a

Be spectated (Participle adjective)

Bewitch (transitive verb)

Enslave (verb)

Afloat (adjective)

### Affixation: Suffixes:

The affixes that are added after the base — form are called suffixes. A suffix is a syllable or syllables placed at the end of a word which qualify its meaning and form a new word. Derivational suffixes are used to derive new words from the base form. Inflectional suffixes merely modify a word as in the book — books etc.

#### a) Occupational suffixes :

- Ster — person engaged in - gangster
- EER — an occupation – engineer
- ER in habitant Londoner.

#### b) Diminutive or Feminine:

- Let means small - booklet, piglet
- ETTE means small – Kitchenette

Compact - Statuette

Imitation - Flannelette

Female - Usherette

- Ess means female - Waitress, hostess, etc
- Y, - IE means - daddy, auntie.

#### c) Status, Domain:

- HOOD means status - boyhood, childhood
- SHIP means status – friendship
- DOM means domain kingdom, stardom
- OCRCY means system of Government - democracy

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- EYR means behavior -slavery

-Abode- nunnery

Collectivity -machinery

**d) Other suffixes:**

**i) Noun/Adjective:**

- ITE means faction - Israelite, socialite

- (i) AN means pertaining to — Indonesian, republican

- ESE means nationality – Chinese

- IST means occupation - Violinist, Organist

- ISM means attitude - idealism Political movement - communism.

**ii) Noun Suffixes:**

-ER, OR means instrumental - - driver, actor

-ANT means agentive - - inhabitant

- EE means passive - - employee

-ATION means institution - -- organization

-MENT means action - -- amazement

- AL means action - - refusal

-ING means activity - - driving

-AGE means result of activity -- drainage

-NESS means quality - - happiness

-ITY means quality -- - sanity

**iii) Verb Suffixes:**

- IFY means causative - - simplify

- IZE means causative - - popularize

- EN means become X - -- deaden

**iv) Adjective suffixes:**

FUL - ful means having -- useful

LESS - means without -- childless

- LY means quality -- cowardly
- LIKE means quality - - childlike
- Y means covered with-- hairy
- ISH means belonging to -- Turkish
- IAN means in tradition of -- Darwinian
- ABLE means 'worthy to -- readable
- Ed means having -- balconied

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### v) Adverb suffixes:

- LY means in a manner, aimlessly, lovingly
- CE once, twice, thrice
- ST amidst, amongst,
- LONG - headlong, sidelong
- THER - hither, thither, whither
- WARDS - backward, upward, (means direction)
- WISE - in the manner of - lengthwise, weather-wise

### 6.3.2. CONVERSION:

Conversion is the derivational process whereby an item changes its word class without the addition of either a prefix or suffix. In this process the same word is made to serve different grammatical functions. According to Zandvoort, many English words belong to more than one part of speech. Ex: hope, love, work may be nouns as well as verbs. In addition to this there is a deliberate transfer of a word from one part of speech to another. He calls it a conversion.

#### i) Verb - Noun conversion:

- a) State - State of mind/sensation/doubt, love etc.

#### ii) Adjective - Noun conversion:

- He seemed average (adjective)
- The average was eighty (noun)

#### iii) Noun - Verb conversion:

- a) To put in/on noun bottle (to put into a bottle) corner, floor.

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b) To give or to provide with something coat - to give a coat of paint - mask.

**iv) Adjective Verb conversion:**

They were very humble (adjective)

They humbled him (Verb)

**v) Adjective-Adverb Conversion:**

The poem reads the roads Well (adjective)

He reads the poem well (adverb)

**vi) Stress shift:**

con'duct (v)

Pro'duce (v)

**6.3.3 COMPOUNDS**

English has a genius pattern for the formation of very expressing, compound words. A compound word. is a unit that consists of two more words. There is no formal criteria that can be used for a gener:1 definition of compounds.

Orthographically they are written as one word (bedroom) sometimes they are hyphenated (tax-free) and sometimes as two words without - hyphen (reading room) compounds may be classified on the basis of their syntax.

**A. Noun compounds**

**1) Subject and verb compounds**

The sun rises: Sunrise

The day breaks: Day break

The girl dances: Dancing girl.

**2) Verb and object compounds**

x calls the girl : call girl

x chews gum : chewing gum

x pays taxes : Tax payer

x see sights : sight seeing

**3) Verb and Adverbial compounds**

x swims in the pool : swimming pool



x sits with the baby : baby sitter

x Works at home : Home work

#### 4) Noun + Noun (Verb less compounds)

Ashtray, Wind mill, Toy factory, Blood strain, Oak tree, girl-friend, motorcycles

#### **B. Adjective compounds:**

##### a) Verb +Object compounds:

Man - Eating - x eats man

- heart breaking

- self defeating

-breath taking

##### b) Verb +Adverb Compounds

x goes across oceans

x feels it in the heart

x Works hard

### 6.3.4 MINOR DEVICES

#### 1. Reduplicative

Reduplicative are compounds which have two or more elements either identical or only slightly different,

e.g: goody-goody (affectedly good)

The difference between the two elements may be in the initial consonants as in walkie-talkie or in the medial vowels e.g: criss-cross. Most of the reduplicative are highly informal or familiar.

##### a) to imitate sounds :

tick-tack, bow-vow, ding-long, ping-gong, flip-flap

##### b) to suggest alternative movements .

sea-saw

##### c) to identify tip-top

d) to disparage by suggesting instability, nonsense, insincerity, vacillation etc.

e.g : higgledy - piggedly

wishy - washy

hurry- burry

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hanky - panky

## 2. Clipping

It is formed by the people who are fond of brevity. The term clipping denotes the subtraction of one or more syllables used in informal style.

The shortening may occur at

- a) the beginning of the word:  
Omnibus - bus  
Aeroplane - plane
- b) The end of the word : Photo - Photograph,  
Mike - Microphone  
exam - examination  
Movies - Moving pictures  
add - advertisement

C) at both ends of the word

flue - flu

## 2. Portmanteau

A **portmanteau word**, also called a **blend** in linguistics, is a combination of taking parts (but not all) of two (or more) words or their sounds (morphemes) and their meanings into a single new word. The word comes from the English term "portmanteau luggage" for a piece of luggage with two compartments, itself derived from the French *portmanteau* (from *porter* [to carry] and *manteau* [coat]). Nowadays these terms are false friends as the French term has since evolved to mean a coat rack, while the English term still refers to the specialized piece of luggage. (In the past, the French term also referred to a suitcase or bag for clothes.) A portmanteau word fuses both the sounds and the meanings of its components, as in *smog*, coined by blending *smoke* and *fog*, or *motel*, from *motor* and *hotel*. In linguistics, a portmanteau is defined as a single morph which represents two or more morphemes.

The definition overlaps with the grammatical term contraction, but a distinction can be made between a portmanteau and a contraction by noting that contractions are formed from words that would otherwise appear together in sequence, such as *do* and *not*, whereas a portmanteau word is formed by combining two or more existing words that all relate to a singular concept which the portmanteau describes. Portmanteaux should also be distinguished from compounds, which do not involve the truncation of parts of the stems of the blended words. For instance, *starfish* is a compound, not a portmanteau, of *star* and *fish*.

- from beef and buffalo (progeny of), from lion and tiger (progeny of male lion and tigress), from sheep and people, from education and entertainment, from news and broadcast, from breakfast and lunch
- cheeseburger, from cheese and hamburger, from fantastic and fabulous, from binary and digit
- blog, from web and log

### 3. Onomatopoeia

Onomatopoeia is defined as a word, which imitates the natural sounds of a thing. It creates a sound effect that mimics the thing described, making the description more expressive and interesting. For instance, saying, “The gushing stream flows in the forest” is a more meaningful description than just saying, “The stream flows in the forest.” The reader is drawn to hear the sound of a “gushing stream” which makes the expression more effective.

4. In addition to the sound they represent, many onomatopoeic words have developed meanings of their own. For example, “whisper” not only represents the sound of people talking quietly, but also describes the action of people talking quietly.

#### Common Examples of Onomatopoeia

- The buzzing bee flew away.
- The sack fell into the river with a splash.
- The books fell on the table with a loud thump.
- He looked at the roaring sky.
- The rustling leaves kept me awake.

The different sounds of animals are also considered as examples of onomatopoeia. You will recognize the following sounds easily:

- Meow
- Moo
- Neigh
- Tweet
- Oink
- Baa

## NOTES

## NOTES

## Groups of Onomatopoeic Words

Onomatopoeic words come in combinations as they reflect different sounds of a single object. For example, a group of words reflecting different sounds of water are; plop, splash, gush, sprinkle, drizzle, drip etc.

Similarly, words like growl, giggle, grunt, murmur, blurt, chatter etc. denote different kinds of human voice sounds.

Moreover, we can identify a group of words related to different sounds of wind, such as; swish, swoosh, whiff, whoosh, whizz, whisper etc.

## Function of Onomatopoeia

Generally, words are used to tell what is happening. Onomatopoeia, on the other hand, helps the readers to hear the sounds the words they reflect. Hence, the reader cannot help but enter the world created by the poet with the aid of the words. The beauty of onomatopoeic words lies in the fact that they are bound to have an effect on the readers' senses whether they are understood or not. Moreover, a simple plain expression does not have the same emphatic effect that conveys an idea powerfully to the readers. The use of onomatopoeic words helps create emphasis.

## 5. Loan words

A **loanword** (or **loan word** or **loan-word**) is a word borrowed from a donor language and incorporated into a recipient language without translation. It is distinguished from a calque, or *loan translation*, where a meaning or idiom from another language is translated into existing words or roots of the host language.

Examples of loan words in English include: café (from French *café* 'coffee'), bazaar (from Persian *bāzār* 'market'), and kindergarten (from German *Kindergarten* 'children's garden'). The word *loanword* is itself a calque of the German term *Lehnwort*,<sup>[1]</sup> while the term *calque* is a loanword from French.

Problems with the term 'loanword'

Lexical adaptations are frequently in the form of phrases, for which the term "loanword" is less apt, e.g. *déjà vu*, an English loan from French. For simplicity, *adopt/adoption*, *adapt/adaptation*, or *lexical borrowing* are thus used by many linguists.

Strictly speaking, the terms *borrow* and *loanword*, although traditional, conflict with the ordinary meaning of those words since something is taken from but nothing is returned to the donor languages. This metaphor

is not isolated to the concept of loanwords, but also found in the idiom "to borrow an idea," and even in the mathematical term "borrowing" used in subtraction.

#### Changes in meaning when loaned

Words are occasionally imported with a different meaning than that in the donor language. Among the best known examples of this is the German word *Handy*, which is a borrowing of the English adjective *handy*, but means mobile phone (and is hence a noun). (See also: Pseudo-anglicism.) Conversely, in English the prefix *über-*, taken from German, is used in a way that it is rarely used in German. An abundance of borrowed words taking on new meaning can be found in Rioplatense Spanish. For example, the English gerund *camping* is used in Argentina to refer to a *campsite*, and the word *wok*, borrowed from the Cantonese word meaning pan, is used to mean *stir-fry*.

Idiomatic expressions and phrases, sometimes translated word-for-word, can be borrowed, usually from a language that has "prestige" at the time. Often, a borrowed idiom is used as a euphemism for a less polite term in the original language. In English, this has usually been Latinisms from the Latin language and Gallicisms from French. If the phrase is translated word-for-word, it is known as a calque.

#### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the three major processes by which the base is modified?
2. How many types of prefixes are classified?
3. Name any two of the minor devices?

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## 6.4 PATTERNS OF SPELLING

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English spelling is troublesome to students of English. There are 26 alphabets and forty four basic sounds. So English is not an easy language to spelt. We consider certain patterns of spelling in English.

**NOTES**

**1. The final y:**

- a) The final y of a word changes to 'I' before any ending excepting if it is preceded by a consonant.

Try - trying - tried

- b) The final -y remains unchanged before any ending if it is preceded by a vowel

Spray - spraying - sprayed

- c) When we make plural or adding the ending of third person singular of the simple present tense

- i) Y preceded by a consonant changes - i and study - studies, try-tries aides - es  
ii) Y preceded by a vowel letter remains unchanged and add - s

Pray – prays, day - days

**2. Doubling the consonants**

- a) Words of one syllable that end in a consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before an ending beginning with a vowel letter.

Whip – whipped

Run – running

Rob – robber

- b) Words of more than one syllable follow the above rule if the word is accented on the last syllable.

for'got – forgotten

Omit – omitted.

- c) If a word already ends in two consonants or a consonant does not double before any ending.

Long-longes, reap – reaping

- d) Words of one syllable with one vowel letter do not end with the single consonants –s-

F-c-l-x-z-kiss, -stiff, -hell, -jazz.

- e) Words of one syllable with one vowel letter cannot end in – C alone but require ck.

Knock, trick, pick, and prick.

Words of one syllable with two vowel letters cannot end in – ck but require k alone.

Rook, took, book, seek, weak, week

f) Words of one syllable and one vowel letter never end in a single I. words of one syllable but two vowel letters never end in – II.

Still, stall, fill, till, feel, peel, stool, steel

### 3. The doubling of – I

Words of more than one syllable that end in one vowel letter and – I, even if the accent is one of the first syllable, double the – I before an ending beginning with a vowel.

Fulfilled, jeweler, quarreled, marvelous

### 4. Words with a silent – e

Words which end with silent e drop the e when they add a suffix beginning with a vowel

Live-living, fire-firing, love-loving

b) Words ending in –ce and –ge retain the silent e when adding endings other than those beginning with – e or – I

Replace – replacing – replaceable

C) Final e is not normally dropped before a Consonant

Hopeful, likeness, movement.

d) Words ending in -ee do not drop an -e before a suffix

Foresee - foreseeing - foreseeable –

Agree - agreed -agreeing - agreement

### 5. The ending- le

a) The common ending - le lengthens the vowel before it in the same way as a silent e if there is only one consonant before it.

Bridle - title able, Bible.

b) The vowel remains short if there are two consonants before - le  
dribble, kettle, goggle, and buckle.

### 6. Plurals

a) Words ending in -f and some ending in -fe make the plural by adding s or by changing the f to -ve before the plural ending.

## NOTES

## NOTES

Chief - chiefs, proof – proofs

Leaf -Laves, wife - wives.

b) Words ending in o in English are all words borrowed from other languages. Some make their plurals with -es and others with -s

Tomato- tomatoes, negro- negroes

Tango - tangoes, studio – studios

### 7) Words ending in -mg and -ge

a) Words ending in ‘ce’ and ‘ge’ retain the e before a suffix beginning with a, o or u

Courage - courageous, manage - manageable,

Peace peaceable, trace traceable.

b) Words ending in ce change the e to i before ous.

Vice - vicious, grace - gracious

### 8. The suffix - fu!

a) When full is added to a word the second - l is dropped.

Beautiful = beautiful (But beautifully)

Joy+ full = joyful (but joyfully)

Use+full = useful (but usefully)

b) If The word to which the suffix is added ends in -ll the - l dropped here also.

Will + full = wilful

Full+fill = fulfill

Skill+full = skilful

### 9. Silent letters:

1. Some of these words begin with silent K

Knight, knew, knock, knead, knife

2. Some of these words end with a silent b

Comb worm, limb lamb

3. Some of these words have a silent - l



Folk, stalk, could, should, palm

4. Some words have silent g

Sign, design, benign, sovereign

5. Some words have silent w

Wreck, wrong, wretched, wry

6. Some words have a silent t or an s

Wrestle, hasten, rustle, listen, gossip, vessel, fossil lesson.

### **10. Words with Greek roots**

Words using Greek roots often contain certain characteristic letters or groups of letters which are not usually found in words of English or Latin origin.

Ps - psychology

ph - photography

rh - rheumatism

ch - archive

ae - hematology

Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

4. List out some of the patterns of spelling in English.

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## **6.5 PHRASAL VERBS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES**

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Phrasal verbs is a special type of compound verbs. Prepositions may combine with verb to form this class.

Verb+ preposition goes by several names two-part verb, composite verbs, and phrasal verbs. Prepositional adverbs generally termed as particle, are thirty in numbers.

About, away , above, across , along, around, back, backwards, before , behind, below, between , aside, by ,down ,downwards , forward, in, Inside, Off, on, out, outside, over,past,round, though, under, up and upwards.

## NOTES

### 6.5.1 Qualities of a Phrasal verb:

1. The phrasal verbs contain one or more or the adverbial practices. These adverbial particles also used as prepositions.

2. Sometimes the meaning of phrasal verb is direct and clear.

e.g. Look at some times it has idiomatic meaning.

Give up means stop doing.

He gave up smoking

Call on - visit a person

Carry on - continue

Turn in - go to bed

set on – attack

go off - explode

3. Phrasal verbs may be transitive or intransitive. If it is transitive care should be taken to put the object in the correct place.

The soldier took off his hat. (transitive) The plane took off at six 'O' Clock (intransitive)

4. If the object is a pronoun it usually comes after the verb and before the adverb or preposition

e.g. I will put you up for the night. He gave it away.

5. If the phrasal verb has a noun or noun phrase as its object, the particle may go before or after the object

e.g: He took his groves off.

She gave her money away.

6. In some cases the phrasal verb is non separable.

e.g.: She looked after the boy.

7. In some cases if the phrasal verb separated the meaning becomes different

e.g: get over a thing - recover from, overcome get a thing over done with it, to do something unpleasant.

8. Some phrasal verbs are used as nouns and adjective:

e.g. Her make-up was fine. (noun)

We must have a follow-up programme (adj)

To conclude let us say that there are four types of phrasal verbs.

Type 1: Verb + Preposition + Noun Phrase

e.g. The soldiers came across an old inn.

I will go through your application.

Ramesh looks after his father.

Type 2: Verb+ adverb particle

An epidemic of influenza has broken out.

Don't stop, play on

Type 3 Verb+Object+adverb particle

Your room is very untidy. You must clear it up.

Type 4 Verb + Particle + Preposition NP

The master is fed up with the servant's foolery.

### 6.5.2 Prepositional Verbs

Many prepositions used after verbs are not actually part of the verb but are required after the verb and before, the noun that follows it

apply for a post

listen to the radio

wait for somebody

approve of an action

Such constructions are called prepositional verbs. Since prepositional phrases function as object of the verbs they are also referred to as prepositional Objects.

Prepositional verbs take personal or relative pronouns after the preposition and admit an inserted adverb.

## NOTES

**NOTES**

The following is a set of prepositional verbs: allow for, apply for, approve of, attend to, comment on, congratulate on, live on, object to, part with, refer to, and take to.

There are phrasal prepositional verbs. Such combinations are non-separable.

e.g: come up with, drop out of, do away with, look down on, look f. up to, look forward to, put up with.

**Check your progress-3**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

5. Name the four types of phrasal verbs.

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**6.6 SENTENCE CONNECTORS**

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By the term 'text' we refer to a passage consisting of different sentences written in continuous prose. It could be just a paragraph. When we read the paragraph we can understand what is said and we can be able to follow the thinking of the writer. If we are not able to follow we can say that the concerned paragraph lacks cohesion and coherence. Composition promotes three types of skills namely lexical skill, grammatical skill, and discourse skill.

**6.6.1 Devices for cohesion and coherence**

It is a skill of presenting ideas and arguments of the writer logically. If this skill is developed we come to know what is coherence and cohesion. Every line has a logical link with the previous one in the text or paragraph which is called the link between sentences in a paragraph. They are

1. Topical
2. Grammatical
3. Logical.

This type of link or inter connectedness is known as cohesion. Topical cohesion is lexical in nature. Logical cohesion is known as coherence.

### **1. Topical cohesion :**

In a text only one topic is dealt with. It has collocation of related words. Whenever we are writing on a particular topic we make use of appropriate register. So register is the term used to denote the variety of language which depends on its particular use. But using proper register is a hallmark of advanced mastery of the language. Hence it is sufficient to learn collocation rather than register. Topically connected words and its repetition is seen in the text. Synonyms are freely used.

### **2. Grammatical cohesion :**

Here sentences can be interconnected by grammar. Grammatical relationship can be brought about by the use of pronouns appositives etc.

### **3. Logical cohesion (coherence) :**

A sentence in a text should be logically connected. Logical cohesion is achieved by the use of certain words and expressions. There are about a dozen logical devices used to promote cohesion.

#### **i) Addition:**

We add one sentence to another by using linguistic markers I and, besides, in addition, moreover, further, again etc.

e.g: He has a car. In addition he own a bike

#### **ii) Amplification:**

Amplification means adding details to the text. It is more or less like .The same linguistic markers are used here also.

e.g: He came to see me moreover he brought good news.

#### **iii) Comparison:**

Here the first sentence states something. A similar idea is expressed in the second sentence. Markers used are similarly and likewise.

e.g: Rama got his degree. Similarly Gopal also got his degree.

#### **iv) Contrast:**

The second sentence strikes a contrast with the first sentence making use of linguistic markers like 'but, however, whereas, etc,

e.g: He is poor but he is kind.

#### **v) Concession:**

The second sentence makes a concession on the basis of the first sentence. The linguistic markers used are through, although, even though.

e.g: He is poor. Though he is poor he is kind.

**NOTES**

**vi) Condition:**

The second sentence puts forth a condition based idea with reference to the first sentence if, unless, as long as are used,  
e.g: If you work hard, you will pass.

**vii) Cause and effect:**

The first sentence states the cause or reason. The second sentence refers to the effect of that cause. As a result, therefore are used as linguistic markers. School

e.g: He is suffering from fever. Therefore, he has not come to school

**viii) Enumeration:**

The sentence making use of this device draw up a list. The markers used are 'first, to begin, finally etc.

e.g: He was persistently asking me for a loan. Finally he went away.

**ix) Exemplification:**

The second sentence gives an example for what is stated in the first sentence. The linguistic markers used are 'for example, for instance etc.

e.g: The government has implemented a number of good schemes. For example adult education has been given great importance.

**x) Temporal Relationship:**

The second sentence refers to a time factor connected to the first sentence. 'before, after, during, meanwhile etc are used.

e.g: We were discussing the problem. Meanwhile the problem has worsened.

**xi) Conclusion:**

The second sentence arises at a conclusion based on the idea expressed in the first sentence. The markers used are" to conclude, to sum up, in brief etc.

e.g: He has no clear alibi, to conclude he is the culprit.

**xii) Reformulation:**

The second sentence 'remarks the first sentence. The markers used are in the other words, he is dishonest etc.

### Check your progress-4

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

6. Define cohesion and coherence.

## NOTES

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### 6.7 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we discussed about the rule of word-formation, the criteria for the patterns of spelling, the phrasal verbs and prepositional phrases, Qualities of a Phrasal verb, the structure involved in the sentence connectors and Devices for cohesion and coherence in detail. The rules of word-formation are useful to learn English in a better way.

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### 6.8 UNIT END EXERCISES

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- Discuss about the rule of word-formation in detail.
- Explain the criteria for the patterns of spelling.
- Explain Qualities of a Phrasal verb.
- What do you mean by sentence connectors?
- Explain the logical devices used to promote cohesion.

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### 6.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Affixation, Conversion and Compounding.
2. Ten.
3. Reduplicative, Clipping.
4. The final y, Doubling the consonants, the doubling of – I etc.
5. Verb + Preposition + Noun Phrase ,Verb+ adverb particle, Verb+Object+adverb particle and Verb + Particle + Preposition NP
6. The link or inter connectedness is known as cohesion and the Logical cohesion is known as coherence.

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### 6.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Gimson, A.C. (1989). An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.

Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

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# UNIT 7 - LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH-I

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NOTES

## STRUCTURES

- 7.1 INTRODUCTION
- 7.2 OBJECTIVES
- 7.3 THE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH
- 7.4 PRINCIPLE OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH
- 7.5 BEHAVIOUISM AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING
- 7.6 CAUSES FOR DIFFERENCE AMONG LEARNERS
- 7.7 LET US SUM UP
- 7.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES
- 7.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
- 7.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## 7.1 INTRODUCTION

---

Language acquisition is one of the central topics in cognitive science. Every theory of cognition has tried to explain it; probably no other topic has aroused such controversy. Processing a language is the quintessentially human trait; all normal humans speak, no nonhuman animal does. Language is the main vehicle by which we know about other people's thoughts, and the two must be intimately related.

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## 7.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the language acquisition research.
- Discuss the principle of language acquisition research.
- Identify the behaviorism and second language learning
- Discuss causes for difference among learners

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## 7.3 THE LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH

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Although scholars have kept diaries of their children's speech for over a century (Charles Drawin was one of the first), it was only after probable tape-recorders become available in the late 1950's that



children's spontaneous speech began to be analyzed systematically within development psychology.

*lexis*

Language acquisition begins very early in the human lifespan, and beings, logically enough, with the acquisition of a language's sound patterns. The main linguistic accomplishments during the first year of life are control of the speech musculature and sensitivity to the phonetic distinctions used in the parents language. Interestingly, babies achieve these feats before they produce or understand words, so their learning cannot depend on correlating sound with meaning. That is, they cannot be listening for the difference in sound between a word they think means bit and a word they means beet, because they have learned neither word. They must be sorting the sounds directly, somehow tuning their speech analysis module to deliver the phonemes used in their language. The module can then serve as the front end of the system that learns words and grammar.

## NOTES

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### 7.4 PRINCIPLE OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH

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**1. A class of languages:** One of them is the -target" language, to be - attained by the learner, but the learner which it is. In the case of does not\_ of course, know – children, the class of languages would - consist of the existing and possible human languages: the target language is the one spoken in their Community

**2. An environment:** This is the information in the world that the learner has to go on in trying to acquire the language. In the case of children, it might include the sentences parents utter, the context in which they utter them, feedback to the child (verbal or nonverbal) in response to the child's own speech and so on. Parental utterances can be a random sample of the language, or they might have some special properties: they might be ordered in certain ways; sentences might be repeated or only uttered once, and so on.

**3. A learning strategy:** The learner using information in the environment, tries out -hypotheses" about the target language. The learning strategy is the algorithm that creates the hypotheses and determines whether they are consistent with the input information from the environment. For children. it is the "grammar-forming\*\* mechanism in their brains; their language acquisition device."

**4. A success criterion:** If we want to say that "learning" occurs, presumably it is because the learners' hypotheses are not random. - But that by some time the hypotheses are related in some systematic - way to the target language. Learners may arrive at a hypothesis - identical to the target language after some fixed period of time; - they may arrive at an

approximation to it; they may have a waiver among a - set of hypotheses one of which is correct.

**NOTES**

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Name any two principles of language acquisition research.

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**7.5 BEHAVIOUISM AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING**

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Behaviorists believe that people learn a new language according to the very same principles that they identified to child language acquisition- they imitate small bits of the new language, are rewarded when people understand what they say(positive reinforcement) and thus use the same bits of language again and soon, these bits become “habit” and are therefore learned.

Behavioristic view of language acquisition simply claims that language development is the result of a set of habits. This view has normally been influenced by the general theory of learning described by the psychologist John B. Watson in 1923, and termed behaviorism. Behaviorism denies nativist accounts of innate knowledge as they are viewed as inherently irrational and thus unscientific. Knowledge is the product of interaction with the environment through stimulus-response conditioning.

Broadly speaking, stimulus (ST) – response (RE) learning works as follows. An event in the environment (the unconditioned stimulus, or UST) brings out an unconditioned response (URE) from an organism capable of learning. That response is then followed by another event appealing to the organism. That is, the organism’s response is positively reinforced (PRE). If the sequence UST --> URE --> PRE recurs a sufficient number of times, the organism will learn how to associate its response to the stimulus with the reinforcement (CST). This will consequently cause the organism to give the same response when it confronts with the same stimulus. In this way, the response becomes a conditioned response (CRE). The most risky part of the behavioristic view is perhaps the idea that all leaning, whether verbal (language) or non-verbal (general learning) takes place by means of the same underlying process that is via forming habits. In 1957, the psychologist

B.F. Skinner produced a behaviorist account of language acquisition in which linguistic utterances served as CST and CRE.

*lexis*

When language acquisition is taken into consideration, the theory claims that both L1 and L2 acquirers receive linguistic input from speakers in their environment, and positive reinforcement for their correct repetitions and imitations. As mentioned above, when language learners' responses are reinforced positively, they acquire the language relatively easily. These claims are strictly criticized in Chomsky's "A Review of B.F. Skinner's Verbal Behaviour". Chomsky (1959) asserts that there is "neither empirical evidence nor any known argument to support any specific claim about the relative importance of feedback from the environment". Therefore, it would be unwise to claim that the sequence UST --> URE --> PRE and imitation can account for the process of language acquisition. What is more, the theory overlooks the speaker (internal) factors in this process. Brief, Skinner's view of language acquisition is a popular example of the naturist ideas. Behaviorism, as known by most of us, was passively accepted by the influential Bloomfield a structuralist school of linguistics and produced some well-known applications in the field of foreign/second language teaching – for instance, the Audio-lingual Method or the Army Method. The theory and the resulting teaching methods failed due to the fact that imitation and simple S-R connections only cannot explain acquisition and provide a sound basis for language teaching methodology.

## NOTES

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### 7.6 CAUSES FOR DIFFERENCE AMONG LEARNERS

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No two pupils are alike. They differ from each other in hundred and one respects. They differ in age, sex, hereditary potential, intelligence, achievement, interests, and aptitudes, needs physical, social, emotional and developmental. If there are forty pupils in a class there are forty problems to solve, if the teacher wants to be effective.

For example, one child may listen to the teacher's words of advice, the other may not be at all hearing them: one may be a hard worker, the other may be lazy and lethargic one may do the home work quickly, the other may not submit it even after repeated warnings one may be intelligent, the other may be mentally retarded. Each child is a unique individual and differs from every other and presents individual problems. Individual differences among children are related to their developmental state at any time. The developmental state refers on the one hand to the level of maturation and on the other to the resultant of the process of growth and effects of experiences. The causes of individual differences are:

**NOTES**

**1. Difference in Growth Rate**

Some children grow rapidly and some grow slowly. Some grow mentally at a faster rate, some at a very slow rate. Some grow physically and mature early; some grow late. The different parts of the organism grow at different rates. Each child has his own growth rate. The result is the variety of ages that a child possesses. The different ages that a child has at one time may be a chronological age, a mental age, an educational age, a social age, a dental age, a grip age, an organism age and so on.

**2. Difference in Socio-Economic Backgrounds**

Some of the differences are caused by differences in socio-economic backgrounds. These differences are seen in pupils' reaction patterns. Differences in socio-economic backgrounds may lead to differences in diet, cultural opportunities, ideals, attitudes and adjective actions or in family behavior habits.

**3. Interaction of Heredity and Environment**

A large number of individual differences are caused by the interactive process of heredity and environment. To each child heredity provides a potential and the dynamic forces of environment act upon that a potential in a different way.

**4. Physiological Differences**

The layman and the scientist both realize and recognize that differences exist among individuals in the innate ability to learn. Certain, a mongoloid or a micro cephalic do not learn with the facility of a normal individual. It is a fact though it may not be obvious that among the pupils who appear to be normal, there are also enormous differences in degrees of ability. These differences are attributed to basic physiological differences.

The basic physiological differences may be, for example, due to visual difficulty or hearing difficulty or other sensory disability or glandular dysfunction or dietary deficiency. A child who appears to be normal may be having any or some of these difficulties with the consequent impairment of learning.

For example, visual difficulty which is evidenced by rubbing the eyes, leaning forward to see the board, tilting the head, hearing difficulty which is displayed by turning one side of the head towards the source of sound, asking that questions be repeated, and other sensory difficulties like speech defects, inattention and listlessness cause individual differences in learning.

Teachers must recognize that some of the individual differences arise because of basic physiological differences. They must recognize that these differences exist and demand that teachers should not force all children to learn at uniform rate.

When children begin to show indifference, failure, boredom inattention, tantrums, they indicate through these symptoms that teachers are expecting too much or too little from them. Pupils with sensory difficulties should be given differential treatment.

## NOTES

### Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. In what ways do the individual differ from each other?

3. List out the causes of individual differences.

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## 7.7 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we discussed about the language acquisition research and the principle of language acquisition. We also studied about the behaviorism and second language learning, discussed causes for difference among learners.

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## 7.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES

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- Explain the principles of language acquisition.
- Discuss the causes for difference among learners.
- Explain language learning as elaboration of a simple code.

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## 7.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. A class of languages and a learning strategy.
2. They differ in age, sex, hereditary potential, intelligence, achievement, interests, and aptitudes, needs physical, social, emotional and developmental.
3. Difference in Growth Rate, Difference in Socio-Economic Backgrounds, Interaction of Heredity and Environment and Physiological Differences.

lexis

**NOTES**

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## 7.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Teaching of English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.EvangelinArulselvi, SarathaPathipagam, Chennai.

BERNSTEIN B (1971) *Class, Codes and Control vol 1* London; Paladin

LanguageCodes[http://www.doceo.co.uk/background/language\\_codes.htm#ixzz3YKJjbxU](http://www.doceo.co.uk/background/language_codes.htm#ixzz3YKJjbxU)

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# UNIT 8 - LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH-II

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*Language Acquisition  
Research - II*

## STRUCTURES

## NOTES

### 8.1 INTRODUCTION

### 8.2 OBJECTIVES

### 8.3 MODELS OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

8.3.1 as creative construction (The Monitor Model)

8.3.2 as acculturation

8.3.3 as elaboration of a simple code

8.3.4 as a form of skill learning

8.3.5 as a form of social learning

### 8.4 SUBCONSCIOUS AND CONSCIOUS ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

### 8.5 LET US SUM UP

### 8.6 UNIT END EXCERSISES

### 8.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

### 8.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

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## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

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Every time we speak we are revealing something about language, so the face of language structure is easy to come by; these data hint at a system of extraordinary complexity. Nonetheless, learning a first language is something every child does successfully, in a matter of a few years and without the need for formal lessons. With language so close to the core of what it means to be human, it is not surprising that children's acquisition of language has received so much attention. Anyone with strong views about the human mind would like to show that children's first view steps are steps in the right direction.

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## 8.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand models of second language learning

NOTES

- Discuss the subconscious and conscious aspects of language learning

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### 8.3 MODELS OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Several linguistic models attempt to explain the development of second language acquisition. The three most common models are

- The Universal Grammar Model,
- The Competition Model, and
- The Monitor Model.

**The Universal Grammar Model** refers to the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are properties or elements of all human languages. At the same time, each language has grammatical rules that vary from one language to another. Thus, different languages have a limited possibility of different grammatical structures (Chomsky, 1975). Therefore, second language learners base their second language acquisition on universal principles common to all languages, and on the constraints of the particular rules of each language. For example, adjectives in English usually precede nouns. By contrast, in Spanish adjectives follow nouns. Although adjectives in both languages have the same function, their position depends on the constraints of each of the languages.

**The Competition Model** is based in the assumption that forms of natural language are created to communicate. Thus, second language learners are faced with the conflict between native language and target language cues and cue strengths. Learners will first resort to their native language interpretation strategies, and when these do not match the target language, then they resort to a universal selection of meaning based on cues as opposed to syntax-based cues. Positive and negative evidence is necessary for learners to realize which cues are correct for the target language (Bates & MacWhinney, 1982).

**The Monitor Model** (Krashen, 1985) has been very influential in school settings. This model is based on five hypotheses: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis; and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.

#### 8.3.1 as creative construction (The Monitor Model)

The CCH emerged in the 1970s. It was based on a critical appraisal of the role of interference in **second language acquisition**. According to the CCH, the native language of a learner does not have much influence on the acquisition of another language.

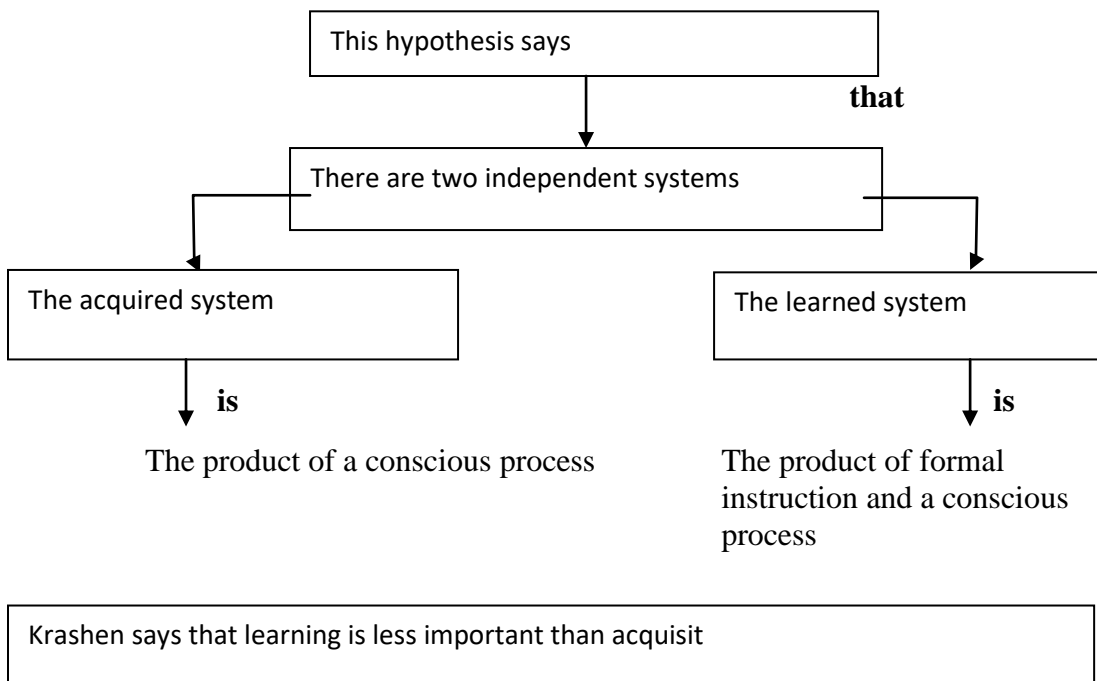
Creative Construction Theory is based on five hypotheses



1. The Acquisition – learning hypothesis
2. The Natural Order Hypothesis,
3. The Monitor Hypothesis,
4. The Input Hypothesis; and
5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

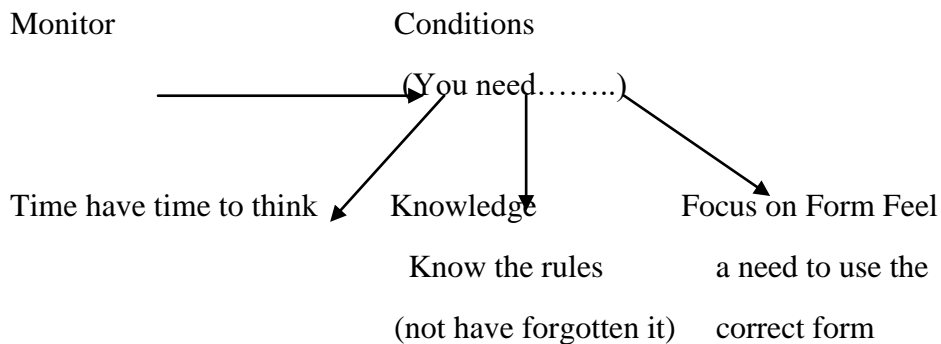
## NOTES

### THE ACQUISITION – LEARNING HYPOTHESIS



### THE MONITOR HYPOTHESIS

Every one has a monitor that tells them when something is good or bad. It requires these conditions: time, knowledge and focus on form



**NOTES**

**TYPES OF LEARNERS THAT USE MONITOR**

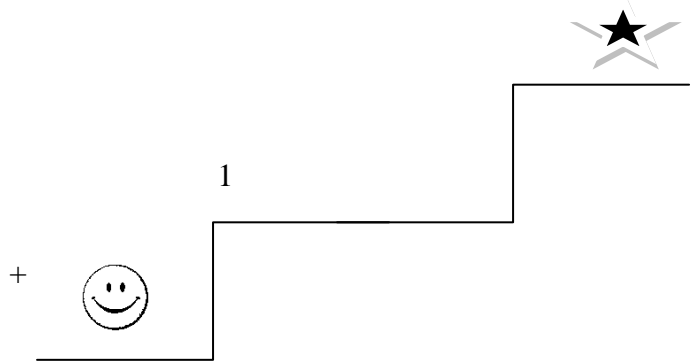
- Optional Monitor User      Uses the monitor
- Under Monitor User        Does not care about correcting
- Over Monitor User         Uses the monitor all the time

**THE NATURAL ORDER HYPOTHESIS**

This is a natural, predictable order in which people acquire language. It is the same for each person and independent of the instruction program.

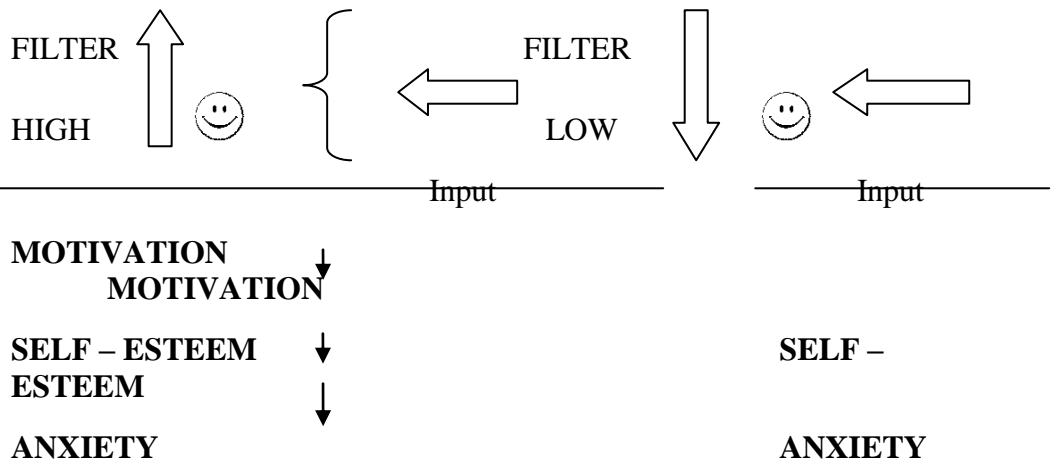
**THE INPUT HYPOTHESIS**

People acquire a language by receiving comprehensible input. This input should be slightly ahead of a learner's current state of knowledge (i+1)



**THE AFFECTIVE FILTER HYPOTHESIS**

When the learner is experiencing high anxiety, low-esteem or low motivation, the filter turn on and causes the learner to block out input



### **8.3.2 as acculturation**

The long and slow process of psychological and social development of the child is called socialization. Man is always described as a social animal. The most important and interesting aspect of man's social nature is related to how it is formed. An individual's personality and behavior patterns are determined to a large extent by the culture in which his/her early socialization took place. The human infant is born with the potential for developing in a vast number of different ways. The culture in to which she/he is born functions as an environment which provides the opportunity and support or learning various things associated with being with the person and member of society. At the same time it restricts what is learnt by the child. Thus the language of the child is exposed to in the home and neighborhood becomes the LI, and the culture of that particular community is what the child learns and accepts as his/her own. Thus the language and culture of the community in which socialization takes place, influences the social nature and identify if the individual in important ways.

In Second language acquisition, the **Acculturation Model** is a theory proposed by John Schumann to describe the acquisition process of a second language (L2) by members of ethnic minorities that typically include immigrants, migrant workers, or the children of such groups. This very acquisition process takes place in natural contexts of majority language setting. The main suggestion of the theory is that the acquisition of a second language is directly linked to the acculturation process, and learners' success is determined by the extent to which they can orient themselves to the target language culture.

The process of acculturation was defined by Brown as "the process of being adapted to a new culture" which involves a new orientation of thinking and feeling on the part of an L2 learner. According to Brown, as culture is an integral part of a human being, the process of acculturation takes a deeper turn when the issue of language is brought on the scene. Schumann based his Acculturation Model on two sets of factors: social and psychological. Schumann asserts that the degree to which the second-language learners acculturate themselves towards the culture of target-language (TL) group generally depends on social and psychological factors; and these two sorts of factors will determine respectively the level of social distance and psychological distance an L2 learner is having in course of his learning the target-language. Social distance, as Ellis notes, concerns the extent to which individual learners can identify themselves with members of TL group and, thereby, can achieve contact with them. Psychological distance is the extent to which individual learners are at ease with their target-language learning task.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

### 8.3.3 as elaboration of a simple code

A code can be defined as “an arbitrary pre- arranged set of signals”. A language is merely one special variety of code. The word ‘code’ is normally used in place of speech variety, language or dialect. People also use ‘code’ when they want to stress the uses of a language or language variety in a particular community.

The construct of elaborated and restricted language codes was introduced by Basil Bernstein in 1971, as a way of accounting for the relatively poor performance of working-class pupils on language-based subjects, when they were achieving as well as their middle-class counterparts on mathematical topics. Interestingly, it was stimulated directly by his experience of teaching in further education.

It is frequently misunderstood, largely because of Bernstein's unfortunate choice of labels. The "restricted" code does not refer to restricted vocabulary, and the "elaborated" code does not entail flowery use of language. There is an issue of "linguistic impoverishment" in the educational problems of some pupils, but Bernstein is not on the whole concerned with such extreme cases.

One of Bernstein's research studies involved showing a group of children a strip cartoon and recording their account of what it depicted. Some said things like:

“They’re playing football and he kicks it and it goes through there. It breaks the window and they are looking at it and he come out and shouts at them because they’ve broken it. So they run away and then she looks out and she tells them off”

While others said:

“Three boys are playing football and one boy kicks the ball and it goes through the window the ball breaks the window and the boys are looking at it and a man comes out and shouts at them because they’ve broken the window so they run away and then that lady looks out of her window and she tells the boys off”.

As Bernstein points out, the first account makes good sense if you have the strip cartoon in front of you, but means much less without it. This is an example of restricted code. The second can "stand on its own", and is an example of elaborated code. See Bernstein's own work for detailed accounts of the research behind the construct. The essence of the distinction is in what the language is suited for. The restricted code works better than the elaborated code for situations in which there is a great deal of shared and taken-for-granted knowledge in the group of

speakers. It is economical and rich, conveying a vast amount of meaning with a few words, each of which has a complex set of connotations and acts like an index, pointing the hearer to a lot more information which remains unsaid.

### Differences between Elaborated code and Restricted code

Elaborated code spells everything out: not because it is better, but because it is **necessary** so that everyone can understand it. It has to elaborate because the circumstances do not allow speakers to condense. ("Condensed" might have been a better label for the restricted code.)

Restricted/condensed code is therefore great for shared, established and static meanings (and values): but if you want to break out to say something new, particularly something which questions the received wisdom, you are going to have to use an elaborated code. Bernstein's research argued that working-class students had access to their restricted code(s) - but middle-class students had access to both restricted and elaborated codes, because the middle classes were more geographically, socially and culturally mobile.

#### 8.3.4 as a form of skill learning

**Skill-based theories of second-language acquisition** are theories of second-language acquisition based on models of skill in cognitive psychology. These theories conceive of second-language acquisition as being learned in the same way as any other skill, such as learning to drive a car or play the piano. That is, they see practice as the key ingredient of language acquisition. The most well-known of these theories is based on John Anderson's adaptive control of thought model.

The adaptive control of thought model assumes a distinction between declarative knowledge, knowledge that is conscious and consists of facts, and procedural knowledge, knowledge of how an activity is done. In this model, skill acquisition is seen as a progression from declarative to procedural knowledge. Adaptive control of thought is a general model of cognition, and second-language acquisition is just one application of a wide area of research in cognitive psychology. Second-language acquisition is seen as a progression through three stages, declarative, procedural, and autonomous.

Language is absolutely central to your learning: without it, you cannot make sense or communicate your understanding of a subject.

You will need to develop your language skills, and specifically, your academic English, in order to:

- understand and make the most effective use of your study materials

## NOTES

## NOTES

- develop the specialized language and vocabulary relevant to your subject
- interpret assignment questions and select relevant and appropriate material for your response
- write well-structured and coherently presented assignments, without plagiarism
- communicate your needs to your tutors
- Work productively with other students.

### 8.3.5 as a form of social learning

The growth and development of the human child in to an adolescent and later adult involves two parallel and interlinked process. This is supported mainly by nutrition and exercise and protection from physical harm. The second and more complex process is the psychological growth of the individual. This is an important aspect of social development, the process member of his/her community. A functioning member of human society is an individual who is able to interact and communicate effectively with others both directly with individuals and indirectly with the community in general. This is made possible by the use of language. Thus one major requirement that must be met as the child grows is the learning of the L I. a member of society is also a person an individual with unique combination of characteristics that make up his/her personality. Among these characteristics are personality traits, interests, abilities and talents.

#### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Name the five hypothesis based on the creative construction.

2. Define a code.

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## 8.4 SUBCONSCIOUS AND CONSCIOUS ASPECTS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING

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Languages should be learned subconsciously, not consciously. The research shows that subconscious learning of English is much better than consciously “studying” the language. In countless studies, the result is always the same: students who learn English subconsciously learn

faster and better than students who use traditional, conscious, analytical study methods.

So, what exactly are subconscious methods and what are the traditional conscious methods?

Well, you already know the old conscious way of learning English. You use your conscious brain to analyze English grammar, memorize English vocabulary, and translate English messages. This is the method you used in school. You consciously studied the mechanics of English, as if it was a car. You cut up English with your mind and then studied the parts.... word by word, rule by rule. The result, as you know, is that you know a lot about English grammar rules and translations— but you can't speak well and you can't understand native speakers.

## **NOTES**

Subconscious methods are more effective. These methods provide understandable English input to your brain... and then your subconscious brain does all of the rest of the work. Consciously, all you do is enjoy English stories, articles, conversations, movies, and novels. You never think about grammar rules. You never attempt to memorize words. Of course, our System is a “subconscious” learning system. You learn grammar by listening to our crazy Mini-Stories. We carefully repeat grammar patterns during the story... but you don't think about any rules. You just listen and enjoy the story consciously... but subconsciously, your brain learns English grammar.

When you learn in this way, you can actually use the grammar too! Your spoken and written English grammar will improve tremendously. And it will be stress free. It will feel automatic— you'll just say things better and write things better and it will feel effortless. You won't be thinking about rules at all! You must trust yourself. So many students are afraid to use subconscious methods because they don't trust their own brains. They are afraid to relax and enjoy English learning. They are afraid to let the learning happen naturally and effortlessly. Unfortunately, these fearful students almost never learn to speak English well. Don't be one of those students. Change your way of learning. Learn English subconsciously and finally speak excellent English!

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### **8.5 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we discussed about the language acquisition research and the principle of language acquisition. We also studied about the models of second language learning and discussed the subconscious and conscious aspects of language learning in detail.

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## 8.6 UNIT END EXCERSISES

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- Explain language learning as elaboration of a simple code.
- Discuss the subconscious and conscious aspects of language learning in detail.

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## 8.7 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. They are the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis; and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.
2. A code can be defined as “an arbitrary pre- arranged set of signals”.

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## 8.8 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Teaching of English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.EvangelinArulsevi, SarathaPathipagam, Chennai.

BERNSTEIN B (1971) *Class, Codes and Control vol 1* London; Paladin

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# UNIT 9 - TEACHING OF VOCABULARY

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*Teaching of  
Vocabulary*

## STURCTURES

### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

### 9.2 OBJECTIVES

### 9.3 NATURE OF WORDS

### 9.4 TYPES OF VOCABULARY

9.4.1 Active vocabulary

9.4.2 Passive vocabulary

### 9.5 EXPANSION OF VOCABULARY

9.5.1 Teaching vocabulary

9.5.2 Techniques of teaching vocabulary

9.5.3 Demonstrating two different ways of presenting a new word

### 9.6 SELECTION AND GRADING OF VOCABULARY

### 9.7 PRINCIPLES IN THE GRADATION OF VOCABULARY

### 9.8 STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP VOCABULARY

### 9.9 CONNOTATION

### 9.10 COLLOCATION or WORD RELATION

9.10.1 Association

9.10.2 Connections

9.10.3 Name first letter game

### 9.11 TRANSLATION

### 9.12 LET US SUM UP

### 9.13 UNIT END EXERCISES

### 9.14 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROCESS

### 9.15 SUGGESTED READINGS

## NOTES

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## 9.1 INTRODUCTION

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Learning a new language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. Not being able to find the words you need to express is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language. Of course vocabulary is not the whole of the language. The system of the language (its 'grammar' or 'structure') is also important: how the plural is formed, how past tense is signified and so on. Nevertheless it is possible to have a good knowledge of how the system of a language works and yet not be able to communicate in it; whereas if we have the vocabulary we need, it is usually possible to communicate.

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## 9.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Recognize it in its spoken / written form
- Recall it when needed
- Relate it to an appropriate object or concept
- Use it in the appropriate grammatical form
- Pronounce it
- Speak in a recognizable way
- Spell it clearly and correctly
- Use it with words that correctly goes with it i.e., in the correct collocation
- Be aware of its connotations and associations.

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## 9.3 NATURE OF WORDS

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Most of the time in teaching, English is devoted to the teaching of vocabulary, and yet, even the college students (especially in India) do not have adequate vocabulary to express simple ideas or to understand a simple passage in English. To deal with the problem effectively, the teacher must have a clear grasp of some of the aspects of vocabulary. They are;

1. Relative importance of structure and vocabulary.
2. Kinds of vocabulary that an individual uses.
3. The nature of word meaning.
4. The implications of learning a new word, and
5. Various techniques of teaching vocabulary.

### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the aspects a teacher should know before teaching grammar?

It has all along been emphasized that the learning of structure is more important than learning of vocabulary. But this should not be taken to mean that vocabulary plays a minor role in communication. What is implied is that for effective communication one has to master both structure and vocabulary; and since the learning of the structure seems to be more difficult and since the meaning of a word is often controlled by the structure it is put in, it is necessary to master the

structure first. Our everyday experiences would also show that if the content is clear both the parties to a communication, it is possible to communicate a great deal with vocabulary alone( as is often done in telegrams). On the other hand, very little can be communicated with structure alone. It is therefore clear that vocabulary plays the more important role in communication. In fact, if the foreign language is to be used only for certain limited purposes, particularly for oral communication through a few formulas, it is possible to make do by learning a specific vocabulary and a few stereo typed phrases only.

## NOTES

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### 9.4 TYPES OF VOCABULARY

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F.G. French has made a very useful classification of the words of a language in relation to its users. He divides the words into three broad groups: (a) the smaller number of words that a person knows intimately and can use effectively, (b) the relative large number of words that he understands but doesn't normally use, and (c) the vast number of remaining words in the language that he doesn't know. French compares the first group to our 'friends'. The second group to our 'acquaintances'. The third group to the vast number of 'strangers' whom we don't know.

The user of the language knows the first group of words as intimately as he knows his close friends, and these words constitute his **ACTIVE VOCABULARY**. Generally speaking, this group also comprises the most useful words in the language; but to some extent a person's specific use of language (e.g. a Lawyer's) would also determine the nature of his active vocabulary.

The second group includes the words that a person understands but doesn't normally use in his speech and writing. This group is far larger than the first group and constitutes his **PASSIVE VOCABULARY**, It is obvious that the larger a person's passive vocabulary the better equipped he is for reading comprehension.

The third group comprises the vast number of words that he doesn't know,

It should however be noted that like friends, acquaintances and strangers, words to keep changing their places. A new word (i.e., a 'stranger') may enter a person's active vocabulary while a known word (i.e., friend) may be forgotten

Owing to long disuse, in the same manner as we acquire new friends and forget some of the old ones if we do not meet them for long.

One can express himself adequately in English with as small a vocabulary as about 3000 words(including structural words).the important thing is to master this small vocabulary thoroughly. we should remember that even the great masters of the English language, such as

## NOTES

Shakespeare or George Bernard Shaw, needed less than 25,000 words: that is, less than 5% of the total available resources of more than half a million words in the language. Many teachers have a weakness for these-called 'flowery English' and labor under the ill-conceived and outdated notion that a person's command of English can be measured by the number of different words (high sounding words in particular as Robert Lynd puts it) that he uses. Words can be compared to servants: a person with a large number of servants whom he cannot control properly has no advantage over a person who has only a few persons under full control.

### Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. How many types are there in vocabulary?

### 9.4.1 Active vocabulary

Some words need to be understood and also be used by students. They are called active vocabulary.

In teaching active vocabulary the teacher should spend more time giving more examples and asking several questions. Students should really see how the word is used.

### Check your progress-3

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

3. What is meant by Active vocabulary?

### 9.4.2 Passive vocabulary

Some words need to be understood by students, for example when reading a text. These words need not be used by students. Such words are called passive vocabulary.

Examples: Active and Passive vocabulary.

Let us imagine a teacher wants to present these new words from the text.

Teacher	curriculum	Student	Result
Pass	Fail	Goal	Evaluation

Which words would the teacher present as active vocabulary, and which would the teacher present as passive vocabulary?

A possible answer:

<i>Active</i>	<i>Passive</i>
Teacher	Curriculum
Student	Goal
Pass	Evaluation
Fail	
Result	

## NOTES

### Check your progress-4

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

4. What is known as passive vocabulary?

## 9.5 EXPANSION OF VOCABULARY

The best perhaps the only method of expanding pupils 'vocabulary is through extensive reading. But even so some measures can be taken to expand the limited vocabulary that the pupils encounter in the readers some suggestions follow:

### 1. Word families:

Pupils may derive families of words from a basic word by analogy, e.g.,

(a) Care	Careful	Carefully	Carelessly	carelessness
Fear	?	?	?	?
Shame	?	?	?	?
Hope	?	?	?	?
(b) Joy	Joyous	Joyously	Joyousness	
Pity	?	?	?	
Marvel	?	?	?	
Industry	?	?	?	

## NOTES

### Check your progress-5

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

5. Give some examples for Word families?

#### 2. Word patterns:

It may not always be easy to find families of words that are useful for the pupils but in almost all cases they can derive useful words by adding familiar affixes,

e.g.,

##### (a) Adjectives

Quick

Slow

Firm

Violent

##### Adverbs

Quickly

?

?

?

##### (b) Verb

Move

Punish

Conceal

Announce

##### Noun

movements

?

?

?

#### 9.5.1 Teaching Vocabulary

Teaching vocabulary refers to the teaching the meaning of new words.

Every teacher should know the importance of teaching the meaning of new vocabulary as well as the form. Teachers should also know how words are used in context.

#### 9.5.2 Techniques of teaching new words

Andrian Doff (1988) lists the following techniques for teaching new words.

1. Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
2. Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
3. Translate the word into the student's own language.
4. Ask students to translate the word.
5. Draw a picture to show what the word means.
6. Give an English example to show how the word is used.
7. Ask questions using the new word.

### Check your progress-6

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

6. Mention the techniques of teaching vocabulary?

## NOTES

### 9.5.3 Demonstrating two different ways of presenting a new word

A new word can be presented in two ways.

#### 1. Showing meaning visually:

Here the teacher uses real objects, pictures or model to show the meaning of a new word. Here a presentation of the word.

“watch” is demonstrated.

Teacher : Look – this is a watch ( pointing to his or her watch)

A watch. A watch

Students : A watch. Teacher : (gesture) what is it? Students : A watch.

For suitable vocabulary, it is a very effective method, because it is interesting. Of course, not all words can be presented visually.

#### 2. Giving examples:

Here the teacher gives examples using the new word in a context.

Here the presentation of word ‘lazy’ is demonstrated.

The teacher shows the meaning by simple sentences.

“I have a brother. He is very lazy. He get up late and then he does nothing all day. I say to him, “don’t be lazy! Do some work.

When students come across a new word, they are likely to be interested in learning other related words. This presents a natural opportunity for vocabulary development. This is sometimes called “vocabulary expansion”.

For example, the following word clusters can be taught while teaching the word “*thief*”.

E.g.: thief, burglar, robber

Theft, burglary, robbery

Catch, attack, and break in (to)

Steal, rob, and burgle

NOTES

**Check your progress-7**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

7. What are the two different ways to presenting new words?

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**9.6 SELECTION AND GRADING OF VOCABULARY**

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List of principles in selection of vocabulary.

English is a rich language having more than five lakh words. It is neither possible nor desirable to teach all these words. We have naturally to make a selection. We should aim at teaching 2,500 to 3000 words during a six year course.

1. **Frequency** : Word's frequency means the number of times a particular word is used in normal read texts.
2. **Usefulness** : Words usefulness refers the suitability to the mental level of the learner.
3. **Structural value** : All the structural words that are essential for making basic sentence structures are to be taught earlier.
4. **Applicability** : It refers to the wide range of situations in which a certain word can be used. The adjectives "bad, good" for example, enjoy a wide range of applicability.
5. **Productivity** : It refers to a word's power for word-building by means of prefixes and suffixes.
6. **Regional value** : Certain words have to be taught because they are needed for use in a particular region or locality.

**Check your progress-8**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

8. List the principles in the selection of vocabulary?



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## 9.7 PRINCIPLES IN THE GRADATION OF VOCABULARY

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State the principles in the gradation of vocabulary.

The words selected for the school stage have to be taught in five or six years. So we have to grade them for the different years according to certain principles of gradation:

1. **Usefulness:** some words are more useful for the child at a particular stage than others. For example, in the first year of teaching English, the following vocabulary items are very useful.
  - a) *Words for the things the child uses, e.g. book, pen, bag.*
  - b) *Words for common relationships, e.g. father, mother, sister.*
  - c) *Words for environmental areas, e.g. school, home, tree rain.*
  - d) *Words for everyday actions, e.g. sit, stand, go, run, sleep.*
  - e) *Certain quality words, e.g. good, bad, nice, ugly.*
2. **Structural value:** Even the structural words are graded. For example, the prepositions on and in are taught earlier than at. This and that are taught earlier to these and those.
3. **Teachability:** Some words are easier to teach than others. For example, the word *watch* is easy to teach than “laziness”. The teacher can show a watch, but he will have to create a verbal situation to give the mother-tongue equivalent to laziness. For the same reason, it is easier to teach “kiss” than to teach “kill”.
4. **Simplicity:** The simplicity of a word depends on its spelling and pronunciation. For example. “new” is simpler than “novel”.

## NOTES

### Check your progress-9

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

9. List the principles in the gradation of vocabulary?

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## 9.8 STRATEGIES TO DEVELOP VOCABULARY

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There are broadly two kinds of words, content and structure words or function words. These two types of words cover the entire vocabulary.

## NOTES

Content words refer to things, ideas, nouns, actions according to verbs, and qualities corresponding to adjectives. These content words are the core or meat of a language.

Structure or functional words are the sentence makers. Prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliary verbs, articles, pronouns, adjectives and so on all covers the structural words.

Vocabulary may be classified into active or productive vocabulary and the later passive or Receptive or Recognition Vocabulary.

Active vocabulary is the number of words we use or understand in our speech and writing over which we have complete control and mastery. This is also called working vocabulary. The range of using working vocabulary differs from person to person.

Passive vocabulary means the words we listen to, or we read books or magazines. While reading we come across words which we recognize vaguely and we cannot use it in our speech. These type of words are passive vocabulary.

Normally passive vocabulary is always larger them active vocabulary. Here just listening takes place and we do not strain much to hear or read.

Learning a new language is basically a matter of learning the vocabulary of that language. In the early stages of learning students learn less number of words and in later stages they use more number of words. When students go to higher classes their reading habits should be increased, as they read books of travel, literature, biography, fiction and other newspapers and journals, their word power gradually increases.

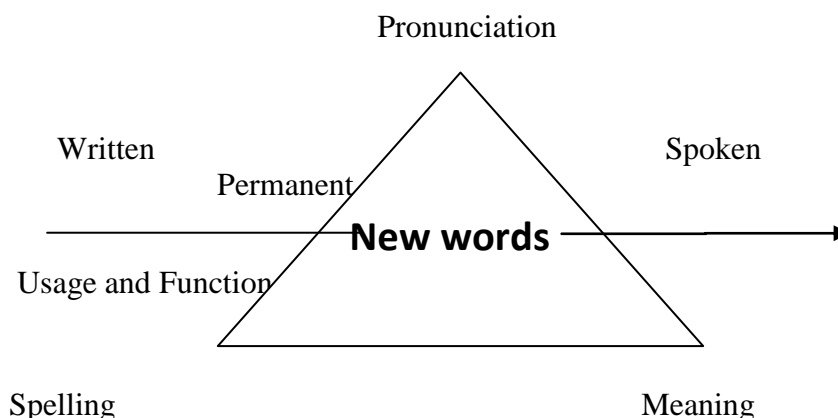
### **Check your progress-10**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

10. How many kinds of words are there broadly?

There are certain strategies to develop vocabulary. Each new word need to be taught in the four aspects.



## NOTES

Children learn a new word,

- Through spelling [syllabification].
- Through meaning [through pictures, or any TLM].
- Through pronunciation [the teacher's model].
- Through usage[in different sentences].

If a child learns a word through all these processes, the word becomes his productive or active vocabulary. He has to recall it and use it then and there. Since the learner is exposed to a large number of words, the words he meant to remember should crop up at regular intervals.

The curriculum given to the students may aspire to teach about 2000 words. The remaining words can be taught through different strategies.

### Check your progress-11

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

11. What are the four aspects to teach a new word?

### Elementary level:

In the elementary stage the teacher's help may be in the form of drawings on the black board, flannel board pictures, or real objects. Teachers can conduct mime shows or any relevant gestures.

The student may be asked to see the matter displayed and is asked to say the equivalent terms in their mother tongue.

## NOTES

### Word chain:

Students should connect words through association or connection.

Key word: Hospital, nurse, doctors, injection, ward, ward boys, medicines, saline.

One student should utter the key word and every student connected in the group should say another word in connection to the word 'hospital'.

### Families of words:

Affixation is the main theme of their game. One word will be given. Students should prefix or suffix words and form new words of the family. (e.g.) Agree-agreement, disagree, agreeable, disagreement etc.

### Synonyms:

Words can be given to them and students may find out the meanings using the dictionaries.

Happy -	joyful
Loud	- noisy
Manner	- custom, habit
Help	- support

Active words can be given for finding out alternative words.

### Match the following:

Students should find explanation or definition in the second column which matches the word in their first column.

<u>Word</u>	<u>Definition</u>
1. Triple	a. A cycle with 3 wheels
2. Trident	b. Stand or support with three legs
3. Tripod etc.	c. Series of 3 related books, play
4. Tricycle	d. Weapon with 3 points
5. Trilogy number	e. Grow to 3 times the original amount or

### Collective nouns:

It can be given to the students as fill ups.

A \_\_\_\_\_ of flowers.

A \_\_\_\_\_ of ships.

A \_\_\_\_\_ of bananas.

A \_\_\_\_\_ of cotton.

A \_\_\_\_\_ of keys etc.

## NOTES

### Trades of professions:

A boy who plays is a \_\_\_\_\_.

A lady who teaches is a \_\_\_\_\_.

A man who sells meat is a \_\_\_\_\_.

A man who bakes bread is a \_\_\_\_\_.

A man who look after a library is a \_\_\_\_\_.

### Selection of words:

Some words will be given in a box. Students should read the sentences and find out the correct word.

Straight	shy	spread
Thoughtful	several	polite

1. A person who says 'Please' and 'sorry'.
2. A person who would not share with others.
3. Someone who thinks of others.
4. A line without any curves or corners.
5. More than one or two new books.
6. The bread was covered all over with jam.

### Check your progress-12

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

12. How can a teacher help the pupil's to learn new words in elementary level?

NOTES

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## 9.9 CONNOTATION

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Connotation means adding a word addition to its literal meaning.

e.g.: slim person, thin person, skinny person may all be the same weight. But the choice of the phrase indicates how the speaker feels about the person. Certain words are chosen because they convey some kind of feeling or judgment. If some one sticks to his opinion we sometimes approve the way and we may appreciate that he is resolute or determined. But at the same time the same kind of behavior seem to be awkward or nuisance and he may be called stubborn or obstinate. so there are many unfavorable connotations for which students may ask to find out favorable connotations.

### Check your progress-13

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

13. What is meant by Connotation?

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## 9.10 COLLOCATION OR WORD RELATION

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Two key words, for example Garden or School are given:

A set of words like flower, bench, desk, cutting board, planting, watering, books, fruits, seeds, examination, harvest, teacher, gardener etc, are given. Students should select what are the words coined under the word school and garden.

### Check your progress-14

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

14. What is meant by Collocation?

### 9.10.1 Association

Similar to the connotation of a word is its association, whereas connotations relate to the system of the language, and associations relate to the individual or the culture.

Eg: Words like Doctor and Treatment have favorable association for most people, they may have unfavorable association for someone who had very unhappy experience during his treatment. The word market is a word used by the city dweller and he may not know the word 'shandy' and for someone coming from rural area may not be familiarized with the word market.

So it is the responsibility of a teacher to make favorable associations, which relate to the culture of the target language.

## NOTES

### Check your progress-15

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

15. What is meant by association?

### 9.10.2 Connections

This has to be done by children quickly. Each child in turn says a word which he associates with the word given by the previous child. Sometime the teacher or another player may ask the person who has just given the word to explain the connections he has made.

Example:

- |         |                |
|---------|----------------|
| Student | 1: Aero plane  |
|         | 2: Train       |
|         | 3: Bus         |
|         | 4: Ship        |
|         | 5: 'Transport' |

This exercise can be played as a game by awarding sources.

### 9.10.3 Name the first letter game

Another interesting game for individual students. One player should start with a naming letter.

Eg : Raja – R

He should say Raja loves running game.

Raja loves Rose flowers.

## NOTES

Raja makes paper rocket etc.

The answer must take the form of an adjective + noun or both.

For variation the name may be changed to Shankar (S) Ramesh (R) etc.

In higher classes pupils may be asked to read story books and write down new words and to look up their meaning in a dictionary.

A workbook may be maintained in which all new words and illustrative sentences may be written.

Difficult words may be written on a chart and word building may be played as a game.

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### 9.11 TRANSLATION

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Passages, Proverbs can be given to the students and they may be asked to translate it in their mother tongue. In other exercises the students have very little opportunity to practice using the foreign vocabulary in conversation, but in translation their thinking mind alerts and search for equivalent words. Hence translation is a best method of teaching vocabulary.

#### **Check your progress-16**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

**16.** Name some tasks to develop pupil's vocabulary?

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### 9.12 LET US SUM UP

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The users of the language should have the sufficient vocabulary to express their ideas. There are three major groups in words first group is "the smaller number of words that a person knows intimately and can use effectively- and this is also called ACTIVE VOCABULARY". Second group is "the relative large number words that he understands and doesn't normally use – this group is called PASSIVE VOCABULARY". AND THE LAST GROUP IS "the vast number of remaining words in the language that he doesn't know".

Every teacher must know the importance of teaching the meaning of new words and its place of usage. In this lesson a trainee can get clear knowledge about teaching vocabulary and the techniques of teaching new words. Various tasks, examples and explanations are deeply explained here to develop the teaching ability of the teachers. A teacher should



have the thorough knowledge in the principles of selection and grading in vocabulary and also the strategies to develop vocabulary in different level.

Connotation means adding a word addition to its literal meaning. Collocation or Word relation means grouping words under a topic. Association is similar to connotation, whereas connotation relate to the system of language, and associations relate to the individual or the culture. Vocabulary can be developed by some tasks like word connections, word chain, name the first letter game, translation, synonyms, antonyms, etc. These are the best methods of teaching vocabulary.

### **9.13 UNIT END EXERSISES**

- Explain the types of vocabulary in detail.
- Discuss the strategies to develop vocabulary in your classroom situation.

### **9.14 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROCESS**

1. The teacher must have a clear grasp of some of the aspects of vocabulary. They are;

- a) Relative importance of structure and vocabulary.
- b) Kinds of vocabulary that an individual uses.
- c) The nature of word meaning.
- d) The implications of learning a new word, and
- e) Various techniques of teaching vocabulary.

2. There are two types of vocabulary, they are active vocabulary and passive vocabulary.

3. Some words need to be understood and also be used by students. They are called active vocabulary.

4. Some words need to be understood by students, for example when reading a text. These words need not be used by students. Such words are called passive vocabulary.

5. Pupils may derive families of words from a basic word by analogy, e.g.,

(c) Care	Careful	Carefully	Carelessly	carelessness
Fear	?	?	?	?
Shame	?	?	?	?
Hope	?	?	?	?
(d) Joy	Joyous	Joyously	Joyousness	
Pity	?	?	?	
Marvel	?	?	?	

## NOTES

6. Andrian Doff (1988) lists the following techniques for teaching new words.

1. Say the word clearly and write it on the board.
2. Get the class to repeat the word in chorus.
3. Translate the word into the student's own language.
4. Ask students to translate the word.
5. Draw a picture to show what the word means.
6. Give an English example to show how the word is used.
7. Ask questions using the new word.

7. A new word can be presented in two ways, they are Showing meaning visually AND Giving examples.

8. List of principles in selection of vocabulary.

English is a rich language having more than five lakh words. It is neither possible nor desirable to teach all these words. We have naturally to make a selection. We should aim at teaching 2,500 to 3000 words during a six year course.

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## NOTES

2. **Structural value:** Even the structural words are graded. For example, the prepositions on and in are taught earlier than at. This and that are taught earlier to these and those.
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4. **Simplicity:** The simplicity of a word depends on its spelling and pronunciation. For example. “New” is simpler than “novel”.

10. There are broadly two kinds of words, content and structure words or function words. These two types of words cover the entire vocabulary.

11. Each new word need to be taught in the four aspects.

- Through spelling [syllabification].
- Through meaning [through pictures, or any TLM].
- Through pronunciation [the teacher’s model].
- Through usage [in different sentences].

12. In the elementary stage the teacher’s help may be in the form of drawings on the black board, flannel board pictures, or real objects. Teachers can conduct mime shows or any relevant gestures.

13. Connotation means adding a word addition to its literal meaning.

14. Collocation means grouping the given words into a particular topics or words.

15. Similar to the connotation of a word is its association, whereas connotations relate to the system of the language, and associations relate to the individual or the culture.

16. Word connections, Name the first letter game, Translation, Word chain game etc are the tasks which helps to develop student’s vocabulary.

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### 9.15 SUGGESTED READING

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- ◆ Ronald Carter and Michael Mc. Carthy , 1989. Vocabulary and language teaching, Orient Longman
- ◆ Michael Wallace, 1988. Teaching vocabulary
- ◆ Michael mc.Carthy & Felicity O’Dell. English vocabulary in use, Cambridge: Cambridge University press.

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# **UNIT 10 - TYPES OF COURSES AND STYLISTICS**

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**NOTES**

**STRUCTURES**

**10.1 INTRODUCTION**

**10.2 OBJECTIVES**

**10.3 ENGLISH FOR GLOBAL PURPOSE**

**10.4 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE**

**10.5 REMEDIAL ENGLISH COURSE**

**10.6 THE ENGLISH READER**

10.6.1 Intensive and Extensive reading

10.6.2 Supplementary Reader

**10.7 TYPES OF DEVIATION**

10.7.1 Redundancy in poetry

10.7.2 Absurdity in poetry

**10.8 RHETORICAL QUESTION**

**10.9 FIGURES OF SPEECH**

10.9.1 Simile

10.9.2 Metaphor

10.9.3 Personification

10.9.4 Apostrophe

10.9.5 Alliteration

**10.10 LET US SUM UP**

**10.11 UNIT END EXERCISES**

**10.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

**10.13 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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## **10.1 INTRODUCTION**

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The application of the tools and methods of linguistics and literature has considerably widened and increased the scope of stylistic studies. Discourse analysis has recent years been receiving great attention. Stylistics has proved to be the best testing ground for the latest tools and statistical methods of linguistics. Stylistics has emerged today

as a major area of linguistic enquiry which has more than ever brought together linguistics and literature into one fold.

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## **10.2 OBJECTIVES**

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the importance of English for global purpose
- Identify the concept of English for specific purpose
- Understand the need for the remedial English course
- Understand the types of English reading
- Identify the structure involved in the figures of speech

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## **10.3 ENGLISH FOR GLOBAL PURPOSE**

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For more than half a century, immigrants from the Indian subcontinent and the West Indies have added variety and diversity to the rich patch work of accents and dialects spoken in the UK. British colonisers originally exported the language to all four corners of the globe and migration in the 1950s brought altered forms of English back to these shores. Since that time, especially in urban areas, speakers of Asian and Caribbean descent have blended their mother tongue speech patterns with existing local dialects producing wonderful new varieties of English.

Of course English is a global language, you hear it on television Spoken by politicians from all over the world. Wherever you travel, you see English signs and Advertisements. Whenever you enter a hotel or restaurant in a foreign city, they will understand English, and there will be an English menu. Why is English the language which is usually cited in this connection? How did the situation arise? And could it change? Or is it the case that, once a language becomes a global language, it is there forever? These are fascinating questions to explore, whether your first language is English or not. If English is your mother tongue, you may have mixed feelings about the way English is spreading around the world. You may feel pride that your language is the one which has been so successful; but your pride may be tinged with concern, when you realize that people in other countries may not want to use the language in the same way that you do, and are changing it to suit themselves. We are all sensitive to the way other people use our Language. Deeply held feelings of ownership begin to be questioned.

And if English is not your mother tongue, you may still have mixed feelings about it. You may be strongly motivated to learn it, because you know it will put you in touch with more people than any other language; but at the same time you know it will take a great deal of effort to master it, and you may begrudge that effort. And if you live in a country where the survival of your own language is threatened by the

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

success of English, you may feel envious, resentful, or angry. You may strongly object to the naivety of the populist account, with its simplistic and often suggestively triumphalist tone. These feelings are natural, and would arise whichever language emerged as a global language. They are feelings which give rise to fears, whether real or imaginary, and fears lead to conflict. Language marches, language hunger-strikes, language rioting and language deaths are a fact, in several countries. Political differences over language economics, education, laws and rights are a daily encounter for millions. Language is always in the news, and the nearer a language moves to becoming a global language, the more newsworthy it is.

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### 10.4 ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSE

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**English for specific purposes (ESP)**, not to be confused with specialized English, is a sphere of teaching English language including Business English, Technical English, Scientific English, English for medical professionals, English for waiters, English for tourism, English for Art Purposes, etc. Aviation English as ESP is taught to pilots, controllers and civil aviation cadets who are going to use it in radio communications. ESP can be also considered as an avatar of language for specific purposes.

Absolute characteristics

1. ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners (Maslow's hierarchy of needs).
2. ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
3. ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

ESP is taught in many universities of the world. Many professional associations of teachers of English (TESOL, IATEFL) have ESP sections. Much attention is devoted to ESP course design. ESP teaching has much in common with English as a Foreign or Second Language and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). Quickly developing Business English can be considered as part of a larger concept of English for Specific Purposes.

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### 10.5 REMEDIAL ENGLISH COURSE

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A remedial course in English for collages, prepared at the Central Institute of English and foreign Languages, Hyderabad, under a U.G.C. project, is mainly envisaged as a bridge course however, it could conveniently form part of a year's syllabus. As the Authors explain,

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remedial teaching has too often been identified with the re-teaching of grammar, based on teachers' assessments of 'common errors'. College students normally find such 'remedial courses' neither interesting nor helpful; many of them are only painfully aware of their errors, without being able to avoid them. The authors argue that remediation should mean extended re-teaching of the language, rather than attention cursorily given to a few selected areas of grammar, amounting to little more than a cosmetic operation. The way to remediate is to get the student interested in the language, primarily through exposure to stimulating reading. The foundation for any remedial teaching should, it is felt, be laid through emphasis on a variety of language skills, most of which can be built into a good reading programme.

Remedial Instruction in English deals with the strategies and methods of contemporary English language teaching. This is geared for English language learners who are faced with difficulty in communicative competence in one or more domains. It also attempts to provide actual remediation through hands-on practice and various situational case studies such as Orientation to Functional Grammar a) Parts of speech b) Verbs & Tenses c) Sentences Structures Suggested Reading/ Resources Materials Theory and Problems of English grammar.

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### **10.6 THE ENGLISH READER**

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English plays the role of a Library language in India for ever. It is said that nearly 70% books on all branches of knowledge are published only in English. Proficiency is a complex skill of reading and without such skill we would become deaf and dumb to outside world. There are two types of reading. Intensive and Extensive Reading.

#### **10.6.1 Intensive and Extensive reading:**

The pupils at the secondary and higher secondary levels are prescribed intensive readers called detailed text book. They have extensive readers called non-detailed text or supplementary readers. The main focus of intensive reader is on language activities and a very detailed comprehension of the content. Extensive readers consist of simple and interesting - adapted as well as original short stories read for pleasure and the main objective is a general - not a detailed comprehension. The pupils are to be encouraged to do most of the reading by themselves - silently and rapidly without waiting for teachers help.

In general any intensive reading would mean a careful reading as total comprehension of the context is in top priority. Extensive reading of any material would mean reading for gathering general information where the reader is expected to gear up his rate of reading speed. Reading anything for pleasure too would come under this category. The purpose

## NOTES

and the difficult level of the material would help us decide how we are to read.

### 10.6.2 Supplementary Reader:

Students learn to read through reading. Supplementary reader aims to give students additional practice in reading so that they may

- a) Increase their reading speed
- b) Develop desirable silent reading skills
- c) Learn to guess the meanings of some words from the context in which they have been used.
- d) Grasp the central idea of the passage read
- e) Follow the sequence of ideas, events etc in the passage
- f) At a later stage, say at high school stage they learn to use reading techniques like skimming in different contexts.
- g) Extend their reading experience
- h) Extend their vocabulary
- i) Consolidate the language learnt through the main reader
- j) Enjoy reading

While the reader contains short passages packed with structural and vocabulary items and those in the supplementary readers are long and contain language that the students are familiar with, but packed with information which they enjoy reading.

#### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the two types of reading?

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## 10.7 TYPES OF DEVIATION

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When a writer wants to make his language to be creative or inventive, he uses the language different from the conventional and everyday language of his day. Using conventional or original language, he can give his readers unexpected surprise and make a strong impression on their mind. This kind of the creative use of language is technically called linguistic deviation,

Anyone who wishes to investigate the significance and value of a work of art must concentrate on the element of interest and surprise,



rather than on the automatic pattern such deviations from linguistic or other socially accepted norms have been given the special name of foregrounding.

There are totally six types of deviation,

- 1) Phonological Deviation
- 2) Graphological Deviation
- 3) Lexical Deviation
- 4) Grammatical Deviation
- 5) Semantic Deviation
- 6) Deviation of Register

### **10.7.1 Redundancy in poetry:**

In English language redundancy is the use of duplicative, unnecessary or useless wording. Some peoples expand the definition to include self –contradictory wording.

Redundancy typically takes the form of tautology phrases that repeat a meaning with different words. Common examples are “a variety of different, an additional bonus, and plus, and result , free gift, future plans, hot water heater, unconfirmed rumor, killed him dead, past history safe, heaven”.

Oxymoron is also a kind of redundancy. In self-contradictory expression in which the unnecessary verbiage is not simple deadwood, but under means the meaning intended to be conveyed. A common examples is regardless. Oxymora usually involve more than one word, however as in almost exactly, centered around and authentic replica.

### **10.7.2 Absurdity in poetry:**

**Absurdism is a philosophy** stating that the efforts of humanity to find meaning in the universe will ultimately fail (and hence are absurd) because no such meaning exists, at least in relation to humanity. Absurdism is related to Existentialism though should not be confused with it.

#### **Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. How many types of deviation are there and name any three.

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

### 10.8 RHETORICAL QUESTION

A Rhetorical question is asked not to evoke an actual reply, but to achieve an emphasis stronger than a direct statement.

Rhetorical questions should be changed into direct affirmations or negations. For example, "Are we not better armed than our foes?" should become - we are better armed than our enemies and, "Is the servant a dog that he should do this thing?" may be paraphrased - I am not so contemptible a creature as to commit such a crime.

#### Word Play

Language games are called word games. Word game is a technique of playing with words. Word puzzles and crosswords often found in newspapers are the examples of word games.

Advantages of word games:

1. Students delight in pulling words apart and reconstituting them in a novel guise
2. Students delight in arranging words into clever patterns.
3. Students delight in finding hidden meanings inside them.
4. Students try to use words according to specially invented rules.

#### Types of word -Plays

##### 1. Word -Squares

A Square of letters is constructed using words of equal length, which result in horizontal) vertical and occasionally diagonal directions.

Example	O	R	A	L		
		M	A	R	E	
			E	V	E	N

##### 2. Palindromes

There are words or phrase - and sometimes much larger units of language - that read the same in both directions.

Example:

ANNA

MADAM

DRAW 0 COWARD?

Sex at noon taxes.

### 3. Rebuses

Rebuses are word games used for building sentences in a playful way. A rebus mixes letters, pictures, used for building sentences. They use logograms also to make words and sentences. Often the sentences make sense only when read aloud in a certain way as in this famous rebus.

YVUR	Too wise you are
YYU B	To wise you be
I C U R	I see you are
Y Y A M E	Too wise for me

### 4. Doublets

One word is changed into another in a series of steps each intervening word differing from its neighbours in only better.

The challenge in this game is both to form the chain of linked words and to so in as few steps as possible.

The game was invented by Lewis Carroll, who gave one of his first examples. Drive Pig into sty. His answer involved five steps,

Pig-Wia-Wag-Way-say-sty. These days they are called Laddergame

### 5. Tongue twisters:

It is a word game purely related to the spoken medium. Words that contain the same or similar sounds are juxtaposed and exercise is to say them as rapidly as possible in.

Ex. She sells sea shells on the sea shore

The sixth sheik's sixth sheep is sick.

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## 10.9 FIGURES OF SPEECH

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A figure of speech is a departure from the ordinary form of expression or the ordinary course of ideas in order to produce a greater effect.

Figure of speech may be classified as under:

1. Those based on Resemblance such as simile, Metaphor, Personification and Apostrophe.
2. Those based on contrast such as Antithesis and Epigram.
3. Those based on Association such as Metonymy and Synecdoche
4. Those depending on construction such as climax and Anticlimax

## NOTES

**NOTES**

In this unit let us learn only about the classification based on Resemblance such as simile, Metaphor, Personification and Apostrophe in detail.

**10.9.1 Simile:**

In a simile a Comparison is made between two objects of different kinds which have however atleast one point in common. The simile is usually introduced by words such as like, as, so.

Ex : The righteous shall flourish as the palm tree words are like leaves; and where they most abound,

Some common similes of everyday speech.

Mad as a March Hare

as proud as peacock

as bold as brass

as lough as crystal

as good as gold

as old as the hills

as cool as cucumber.

Note : Comparison of two things of the same kind is not a simile.

**10.9.2 Metaphor:**

A metaphor is an implied simile. It does not like the simile, state that one thing is like another or acts as another, but takes that for granted and proceeds as if the two things were one.

He fought like a lion - simile

He was a lion in the fight - Metaphor.

- Examples :
1. The camel is the ship of the desert.
  2. Life is a dream.
  3. The news was a dagger Co his heart
  4. Revenge is a kind of wild justice.

Note : Every simile can be compressed into a Metaphor and every metaphor can be expanded into a simile.

Ex : Variety is the spice of life - Metaphor as spice flavors food, so variety makes life more pleasant - simile.

The waves broke on the shore with a noise like thunder – Simile.

The waves thundered on the shore – Metaphor.

### **10.9.3 Personification:**

In personification inanimate objects and abstract notions are spoken of as having life and intelligence.

- Example :
1. Laughter holding both her sides.
  2. Death lays his icy hands on kings.
  3. Pride Goethe forth on horseback grand and gay.  
Bus cometh back on foot and begs its way.

### **10.9.4 Apostrophe:**

An apostrophe is a direct address to the dead, to the absent or to a personified object or idea. This figure is a special form of personification.

- Example :
1. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean roll
  2. Oh death! Where is the sting? O grave! Where is the victory?
  3. O solitude! Where are the charms that sagus have seen in the face?

### **10.9.5 Alliteration**

This is another figure of speech used in poetry. It brings to get words which begin with the same Consonant (or vowel) sound,

Ex: The fair breeze below, the white foam flew.

The furrow followed free" - cote ridge. Here the rhythm of sounds give the impression of wind blowing.

### **Check your progress-3**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

3. Why does A Rhetorical question asked?
4. Define simile.

## **NOTES**

NOTES

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## 10.10 LET US SUM UP

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In this unit we discussed about the importance of English for global purpose, identified the concept of English for specific purpose, understood the need for the remedial English course, the types of English reading, and also identified the structure involved in the figures of speech. With this we would have learnt the real usage of English as a second language.

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## 10.11 UNIT END EXERCISES

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- Discuss English for global purpose.
- Discuss with example why English is needed for specific purpose.
- What is Intensive and Extensive reading?
- Explain in detail about the types of deviation.
- Explain the figures of speech with examples.

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## 10.12 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Intensive and Extensive Reading.
2. Six. They are Phonological Deviation, Graphological Deviation, and Lexical Deviation etc
3. A Rhetorical question is asked to achieve an emphasis stronger than a direct statement
4. A simile is a Comparison made between two objects of different kinds.

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## 10.13 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Gimson, A.C. (1989). An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English.

Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

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# UNIT 11 - REFERENCE & STUDY SKILLS

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*Reference & Study Skills*

## **STRUCTURES**

### **11.1 INTRODUCTION**

### **11.2 OBJECTIVES**

### **11.3 PRACTICE IN THE INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE READING**

### **11.4 SQR3 Reading Technique**

11.4.1 Survey

11.4.2 Questioning

11.4.3 Read

11.4.4 Recite

11.4.5 Review

### **11.5 STUDY SKILLS**

11.5.1 Note Taking

11.5.2 Note Making

11.5.3 Paraphrasing

### **11.6 REFERENCE SKILLS**

11.6.1 Dictionary

11.6.2 Use of Library

11.6.3 Bibliography

11.6.4 Thesaurus

11.6.5 Encyclopedias

### **11.7 LET US SUM UP**

### **11.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES**

### **11.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROCESS**

### **11.10 SUGGESTED READING**

## **NOTES**

NOTES

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## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

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Reading is an act of communication between writer and reader comprehending is the essential aspect of reading. One has to understand all the words and thus comprehend each sentence in order to understand a text. So, teaching of reference techniques is very important. By reference technique we mean acquiring the ability to make use of reference books such as dictionary thesaurus etc.

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## 11.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Learn to write Bibliography for a particular work
- Explore the uses of Dictionaries, Thesaurus, Encyclopedia, etc.,
- Understand the various strategies of reading
- Practice in the levels of reading.

---

## 11.3 PRACTICE IN THE INTENSIVE AND EXTENSIVE READING

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We have discussed about this topic in the previous unit in detail. In addition to that the important thing is to become selective about your reading, to identify the most relevant references and to read in a selective way the sections which will be useful for your purpose. For that you should follow some of the points. Such as

- Deciding how to read
- Enjoyment
- Getting an over view
- Finding specific information
- Identifying the central idea or theme and
- Develop a detailed and critical understanding.

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## 11.4 SQR3 METHOD OF READING

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The study technique SQR3 is an effective technique developed by F.P. Robinson.

We should make our pupil an efficient reader. An efficient reader is like a bus driver who knows when to go slow, when to accelerate speed, how to negotiate hair – pin bends on ghat roads etc. An efficient reader knows there are different levels of comprehensions too as these are different reading materials. To become an efficient reader one should be able to employ different study techniques. Reading is an act of communication between writer and reader. It is an act in which the reader grasps the information the writer passes on to him.



## NOTES

Our reading becomes meaningful and complete only when we are able to react to what the writer has said. If we are to reap a rich harvest out of our reading, we have to develop a stream – lined habit or reading through better study techniques. Such a study technique is SQR3 technique. It is developed by Franchise P. Robinson after his research in this field for about 30 years. It present an excellent example of a systematic approach to reading.

SQR3 stands for five important steps.

- ❖ Survey,
- ❖ Questions,
- ❖ Read,
- ❖ Recite and
- ❖ Review.

### 11.4.1 Survey

Survey is the first step. This is surveying the material we are going through. This is similar to a driver consulting the road map before he starts. A reader too surveys to get an overall picture of what is he to read. He quickly turns all the pages, sees the length of the material to be read, skims through information preface, over flaps, synopsis, chapter heading, also has a look at picture, drawings, charts, tables, summary and questions given at the end of each chapter. This enables him to have some prior understanding of the context of the material to be read. This stage can be called ‘**warming – up**’ stage to the task ahead.

### 11.4.2 Question

The second stage in the technique is ‘question’. Here the reader has to turn the main heading and sub heading into questions. Asking questions can help to classify the purpose of our reading. They provide a certain readiness for reading.

### 11.4.3 Read

This is the crucial step of reading. While reading, we should plan our strategy in such a way as to locate answer for the questions we have already raised in the previous step. The reader is to focus his attention on the main points, group the supporting details with the main points, pay attention to the illustrations of all kinds etc. He should be able to anticipate what the writer will say next.

### 11.4.5 Recite

This step is literally a self examination. The reader recites the answer to himself. it doesn’t mean word for word repetition. He should try to get their own words. He can also be called ‘peer teaching.’ It helps the pupil to assess and organize his knowledge meaningfully.

**NOTES**

#### **11.4.4 Review**

This is the last step of our study technique. The material the pupil has read to be revised periodically. He can skim through the material and scan the passages for answers for particular questions. Reviewing is also a powerful aid to retention. It encourages thinking, assimilation and finally integration.

Students reading examination materials whatever be their subjects of study, are sure to find this study techniques quite rewarding.

#### **Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Write about definitions of SQR3?

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### **11.5. STUDY SKILLS**

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The ultimate aim of teaching reading is to enable the pupils to comprehend written English without the help of a teacher. Such independent reading is perhaps the only way for Indian students to learn English. For independent reading the pupils must be trained in the use of various reference materials associated with reading. There are so many references like Dictionary, library books, Thesaurus and different kinds of Encyclopedias are available.

There are numerous books on English grammar a usage. The teacher should recommend to the pupils a small list of suitable books and insist upon the pupils to read, refer and study. Books reading are a beast study skill.

The habit of reading news papers, magazines and journals in English is also very useful. This will not only teach the pupils the art of extracting information from written materials but will also keep them abreast of the current usage in English.

The ability to find a particular book, or a passage in a book, for further study is another important skill required for efficient reading. For this purpose the pupils should be made familiar with various conventions and devices used in printed book e.g Preface, Table of contents, Glossary, index, Appendix, Foot note etc. Ability to consult a big encyclopedia and familiarity with the system of cataloguing used in libraries will also help them independent study.

## NOTES

### 11.5.1 Note taking

Note taking is an essential skill that requires active listening and precise writing. We listen to talks, lectures and narration. We need not reproduce the exact words of the speaker. We take down main points without missing the essence of the talk. This note taken from the talk or lecture is presented to the rest so that it helps the writer and speaker to be more precise.

Note taking is a systematic process where in the pupils are encouraged to make a note certain events in an orderly manner. Students can also be encouraged to take notes from the radio talks or television programmes. The teachers can encourage their students to makes a note of a few points, from their regular lessons, and teaching in the classroom. This can be in the from of a few hints on the topic. These hints can later be developed into a paragraph.

### 11.5.2 Note making

Note making involves a careful reading plan. Note writing technique reduction devices are organization techniques and methods of sequencing. we can define note making as a systematic method of writing quickly. briefly and clearly the important points of reading text.

These are several functions of note making it is used to.

- ❖ Keep a record of the main points of reading text for future use and reference.
- ❖ Device for an examination or a writing assignment update information
- ❖ Reinforce or compare information contained in different text books.

### 11.5.3 Paraphrasing

A paraphrase is an expression of something in other words. The word paraphrase originated from the Greek source –Para meaning ‘alongside of’ and ‘Phra- is’ meaning writing. So it signifies parallel writing. It means the rendering of the ideas in one piece of writing from one set or wording to another. When we paraphrase something only the words change and not the ideas.

Paraphrasing is the reproduction in one’s own natural idiom or style of the full sense of passage written in another idiom or style. A paraphrase is different from a précis, although both forms of writing reproduce the ideas contained in the original piece.

A précis has to be about one third the length of the original. So the précis writer leaves out some of the unimportant and less important ideas in the original. But a paraphrase leaves out nothing. The ideas are very similar to the ideas of the original. In that sense it is like translation.

## NOTES

### **Writing a paraphrase involves two major steps:**

- i) Reading thoroughly the original passage and making a clear understanding.
- ii) Rendering the ideas in the original in your own words.

While rendering some of the key words in the original passage have to be retained in order to ensure that there is no misrepresentation of ideas and facts.

While paraphrasing a matter the following steps should be followed.

1. Skimming - Read the given passage or poem once quickly to get its main idea.
2. Scanning - Read the passage again word, line by line and understand fully.
3. Present English - You have to make the paraphrase in simple and current English.
4. Avoiding archaic words - If the given passage or poem is written in 14<sup>th</sup> or 15<sup>th</sup> century (Old English) Change the words like 'thou', thy, thine into you and yours
5. Arrangement of content and - If the functional and content words are missed in the given Structural words passage it must be used in a correct formation.
6. Avoiding introductory Phrases - We should avoid introductory phrases like "In this poem or Passage the writer says"

### **Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. What is skimming?

3. What is scanning?

**NOTES**

### 11.5.4 Uses of Paraphrasing

1. It is a composition exercise. It is an excellent method of training the younger minds to concentrate on what one reads and so to read intelligently. It is an art of expressing what one wants to say, legibly, clearly and directly. It gives much practice in using grammar and idiomatic compositions.

2. It is a valuable method of explanation. It is often the best way of explaining an ornate passage of prose or an obscure piece of poetry.

Example:

Once upon a time, son,  
They used to laugh with their hearts  
and laugh with their eyes  
but now they only laugh with their teeth  
While their ice- block- cold eyes  
search behind my shadow  
There was a time indeed  
They used to shake hand  
With their hearts;  
But that's gone, son,  
Now they shake hands  
with their hearts;  
but that's gone , son,  
Now they shake hands without heats  
While their left hands search  
My empty pockets

At one time, son, people used to laugh whole heartedly and their love expressed in their eyes. Now the same thing laugh gives the feeling that they laugh in their lips while pale eyes search behind me for benefits. At one time people used to shake hands very friendly from their hearts, but that has gone son, now they shake hands without real love and affection and their left hands searching money(monetary benefits)in my empty pockets.

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## 11.6 REFERENCE SKILLS- DICTIONARY

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A dictionary is an indispensable tool for all those who learn English as a second or foreign language. Let us take up ‘Advance learners Dictionary’ and discuss the pieces of information.

### NOTES

1. This book containing a record or list, of words with their different meaning.
2. Range of the human voice or of musical instrument, and part of this range – the upper, middle and lower of the clarinet.
3. Mechanical device for indicating and recording speed, force, numbers.
4. Metal plate or grating for widening and so on.

#### **We are given information such as:**

- a) The meaning of the word used in different contexts.
- b) The part of speech.
- c) Verb pattern.
- d) Pronunciation of the word, including the stress according to the RP.
- e) Syllable division – syllable boundaries are provided.
- f) Spelling.
- g) Derivation of the word.
- h) Usage – whether British or England, Formal or informal, archaic or slang etc.
- i) Synonyms and antonyms.
- j) General information about persons, places along with pictorial illustrations wherever necessary.

#### **11.6.1 Dictionary Skills**

- i) Ability to locate words.
- ii) Ability to find out the contextual meaning
- iii) Ability to find out the pronunciation of the words are some of the skills of dictionary.

#### **i) Ability to locate words:**

- a) Have learnt the alphabetical sequence.
- b) Open the dictionary approximately at a point whose the words would appear.

## NOTES

### ii) Ability to find out meaning of the word:

- a) Decide the contextual meaning of the word
- b) Find synonyms/antonyms of the word.
- c) Distinguish the current usage from the former ones

### iii) Ability to find out the pronunciation of the words:

- a) Divide the word into syllables.
- b) Understand the phonetic symbols.
- c) Pronouncing the word and stressing the appropriate syllable.

It is the important duty of the teacher to help his pupils develop dictionary skills, She must know that frequenting to dictionary very often will hamper the speed of reading. Students must be able to look for the contextual clue.

### 11.6.2 Kinds of Dictionaries

1. Dictionaries that are more than 10 to 15 years old must be avoided, because it may be out dated. Recently published or revised dictionaries have more and more new words.
2. Tamil to English dictionary cannot serve our purpose.
3. English to Tamil dictionary are too not useful. Teacher should discourage students not to use such dictionaries.

### 11.6.3 Good Dictionaries

1. The Advanced Learner's Dictionary (Oxford) of current English.
2. The concise Oxford Dictionary (Oxford)
3. The Longman Modern Dictionary (Longman)
4. The Random House Dictionary of the English language.
5. Webster's seventh collegiate Dictionary.

### Check your progress-3

- Note: a) Space is given below for your answer
- b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit
  4. What are the uses of a dictionary?

## NOTES

### 11.6.4 Use of library

It is the duty of the teacher to guide her pupils to make an efficient use of libraries. A modern teacher must know where to find information what she and her pupil ought to know. A student should be familiar with three things in any library. They are

- i) The card catalogue (also called public catalogue)
- ii) Indexes to periodicals
- iii) Reference to books.

#### The card catalogues

The card catalogue is a list of all the books and bound magazines available in the library. There will be at least three cards for a given title namely.

- i) author card
- ii) a title card and
- iii) a subject card

Among these the author card is the basic one. All these cards have the same call number for a particular book and this is the key to locate the books you need on the shelf. There are two classification systems for numbering the books and they are

- i) The library of congress system and
- ii) The Dewy Decimal system.

The first system employs letters of the alphabet on the top line first where as the second uses numbers on the top followed by letters below. All necessary information about each book is provided in the Author card. Title cards and subject cards can also help to locate book on the shelves. Suppose a pupil wants to collect some materials on the status of known in the distant past and compare it with the present he should look for the subject cards.

### 11.6.5 Reference Books

Reference books provide all basic information on any subject. The important reference books are the 'Encyclopedia of Britannica', 'Encyclopedia of Americana,' 'Everyman's Encyclopedia,' 'Britannica junior'/'Mc-Graw Hill, 'Encyclopedia of Science and Technology,' 'New standard Encyclopedia' etc.

The main difference between dictionary and encyclopedia is that dictionary explains words, their meaning, pronunciation, etymology, usage etc, where as encyclopedia explains things, places, people, events of general interest through authentic articles. We cannot borrow them from library as they are classified as reference books.



Apart from encyclopedia, Biographical dictionaries, familiar quotations, “The Oxford companion to English literature education. Mr. Paul Harvey says”, Master pieces world literature are in Digest form of education. Year books and Atlases come under reference books.

### 11.6.6 Thesaurus

A Thesaurus is different from a Dictionary. A thesaurus is a specially prepared book of words put in lists according to their meaning. There are some common techniques like following the alphabetical order, providing guide words or Head words at the top of the page and using abbreviations for a dictionary and a thesaurus. The learners should look in to the introductory pages of thesaurus to know the instructions of how to use the Thesaurus. One can find antonyms also for related words are given to most of all English words in thesaurus. It gives us some words in small capital among the list of related words. These words in small capitals very good reference book which can be used to improve vocabulary by the learners. The entries in a thesaurus are the much used phrases in the alphabetical order .labels such as slang, formal/informal and figurative are also use of in the thesaurus. Thesaurus does not contain pronunciation, usage, derivatives of words or phrases listed out in it. Hence an upper primary student may not find a Thesaurus an useful reference aid.

It is the duty of the teacher to teach the students to have a glance at different words with the same meaning instantly. She should give practice to select the appropriate word suitable to the context fro among those words with similar meaning.

#### **Check your progress-4**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

5. What is a thesaurus?

### 11.6.7 Encyclopedias

Encyclopedias are also reference manuals wherein we find more information on a particular topic, subject or author. For every letter in English we can find encyclopedias run into many volumes and contain a lot of information relating to the subject concerned.

## NOTES

## NOTES

In most of the big libraries we find encyclopedias like Encyclopedia Britannica, Encyclopedia Americana, Columbia Encyclopedia, Everyman's Encyclopedia, and New Standard Encyclopedia etc. Further we can also find certain subject – Specific Encyclopedia of science, Encyclopedia of Agriculture, Encyclopedia of Education, Encyclopedia of Science and Technology etc. Encyclopedias cater to the needs of the advanced learners, teachers, research scholars etc. Usually a dictionary contains words, means, pronunciation, etymology etc. But in an Encyclopedia we can find things, places, people, events of general interest and the information provided contains authentic articles. The publishers of the reference books like Encyclopedias bring out supplements every year with a view to update the information contained therein. These supplements are known as “Year books.”

Encyclopedias also follow the alphabetical order and provide the abbreviations. The users should refer to the index volume to locate the exact page and column wherein he finds the required information without any waste of time. Usually the publishers update the editions once in ten to fifteen years. Hence latest information may be missed in some of the editions but on the whole it provide lot of information on a given subject or topic.

### Check your progress-5

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

6. What is an Encyclopedia?

### 11.6.8 Bibliography and annotated bibliography

Research scholars will have to consult a variety of material on the area of their research. First they prepare preliminary bibliography of a list of books, articles, manuscripts, encyclopedias, year books, news papers and other materials they intend to consult. The best way of preparing a preliminary bibliography is to use 4”×6” cards with one card for each reference. The information includes the author, the title of the book, place of publication, date of publication translator, number of volumes, number of edition etc. These cards are arranged alphabetically and any new item can be easily inserted into the list and any item if it is not of use can be withdrawn easily. Now the scholar has to compile final bibliography. The entry differs for each types of sources.

### Entries for books:

- i) The name of the author reversed for alphabetizing is followed by a period.
- ii) The title and the subtitle as it appear on the title page is entered in the second line of the card and is underlined and followed by a period.
- iii) The place of publication followed by a colon, the name of the publisher followed by a comma and the year of publication on the last line. If it is a book by two or three authors, the first author's surname given first, followed by the name of other authors in a normal order.

### 11.6.9 Annotated Bibliography

Annotated bibliography has two additional entries.

1. The library call number of the book and the name of the library where the book is available and
2. A brief note on the content of the book.

#### Check your progress-6

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

7. What are the main purposes in writing an Annotated Bibliography?

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## 11.7 LET US SUM UP

In this unit we discussed about the practices in the intensive and extensive reading, and how to write Bibliography for a particular work. We have also explained about the uses of Dictionaries, Thesaurus, Encyclopedia, etc. Thus reference skills is necessary to improve and extend one's language and study skills in English in order to participate more effectively in higher education.

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## 11.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES

- Explain the practices in the intensive and extensive reading.
- Discuss the uses of library in detail.
- How will you write Bibliography and annotated bibliography?

## NOTES

NOTES

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## 11.9 ANSWER TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. Survey,  
Questions,  
Read,  
Recite and  
Review.
2. **Skimming:** Read the given passage or poem once quickly to get its main  
  
idea.
3. **Scanning:** Read the passage again word, line by line and understand fully.
4. **Uses of Dictionary:**  
To refer,
  - a) The meaning of the word used in different contexts.
  - b) The part of speech.
  - c) Verb pattern.
  - d) Pronunciation of the word, including the stress according to the RP.
  - e) Syllable division – syllable boundaries are provided.
  - f) Spelling.
5. A **thesaurus** is similar to a dictionary however it doesn't have definitions and pronunciations. Instead it contains synonyms and antonyms.
6. An **encyclopedia** is a comprehensive written compendium that contains information on either all branches of knowledge or a particular branch of knowledge.
7. Annotated bibliography has two additional entries.
  1. The library call number of the book and the name of the library where the book is available and
  2. A brief note on the content of the book.

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## 11.10 SUGGESTED READING

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Ahuja G.C & Pramila,(1994). *How to Increase Reading Speed*. Sterling Publishers

Wray, D. & Medwell, j.[1991]. *Literacy and language in the Primary Years*. London: Routledge.

Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

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*Reference & Study  
Skills*

**NOTES**

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## UNIT 12 - COMPOSITION-I

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### STRUCTURES

#### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

#### 12.2 OBJECTIVES

#### 12.3 KINDS OF COMPOSITION

#### 12.4 TYPES OF COMPOSITION

12.4.1 Oral Composition

12.4.2 Merits of oral composition

12.4.3 Demerits of Oral Composition

12.4.4 Written composition

12.4.5 Merits of Written composition

12.4.6 Demerits of Written Composition

#### 12.5 TYPES OF ORAL AND WRITTEN COMPOSITION

12.5.1 Paragraph writing

12.5.2 Essay writing

12.5.3 Précis writing

#### 12.6 LET US SUM UP

#### 12.7 UNIT END EXCERSISES

#### 12.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

#### 12.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

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The lexical meaning of composition is to put together" of to arrange in order'. The word `compose' means to construct'. Constructions of sentences and paragraphs, writing old descriptive and narrative pieces, essays, letters, expansion, summarizing, etc., are all Composition of varying length, theme and profundity.

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### 12.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

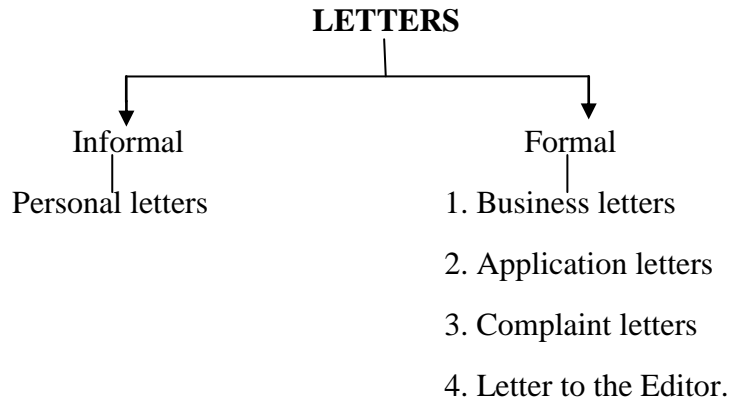
- Explain the kinds of composition
- Understand the types of composition
- Discuss the types of oral and written composition

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## 12.3 KINDS OF COMPOSITION

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One of the common writing exercises given in our schools is letter writing and it is a mode of communication. Basically letter writing is of two forms.



## NOTES

Formal letters are otherwise called official letters. These letters have six parts in its mechanical structure. 1. Heading, 2. Salutation, 3. Body of the letter, 4. Subscriptions, 5. Signature and 6. Address on the envelop.

We begin formal letters with ‘from and to’ address on the left top of the letter and date is written just above the address in the right top.

### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. What are the two forms of letter writing?
2. Formal letters are otherwise called -----.
3. Write down the six parts of mechanical structure of Formal letters.

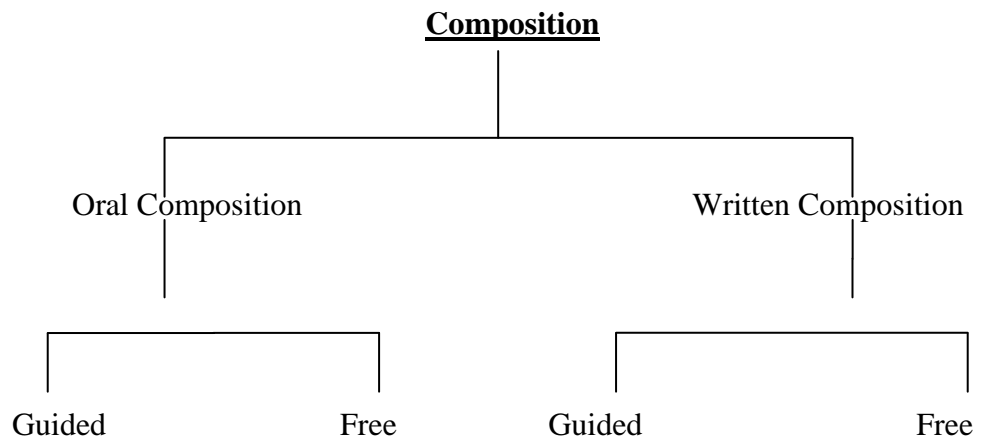
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## 12.4 TYPES OF COMPOSITION

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Composition is of two kinds – oral and written which are further subdivided into guided and free composition.

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**12.4.1 Oral Composition**

Oral composition should precede written composition. The habit of final composition should be kept up during the whole school period. Aims of Oral Composition are,

1. To acquaint the students with the usage of English language.
2. To enable the students to express their feelings and ideas.
3. To express their knowledge of English language.
4. To promote thinking in the students.
5. To create suitable situations in the classrooms.

**12.4.2 Merits of oral composition**

- a. It is economical. It saves time.
- b. It enables the students to think clearly.
- c. It develops the speaking ability in the students.
- d. It develops interest in the students.
- e. It lays the foundation for written composition.
- f. It stimulates the imagination of the students and helps them to reproduce stories.
- g. It develops the power of-concentration in the students.

**12.4.3 Demerits of Oral Composition**

- a. Classroom environment becomes noisy.
- b. It does not help in writing ability.
- c. It is not suitable for those who are of shy nature or have inhibitions to speak

**12.4.4 Written composition**

Aims of Written composition

1. To develop communication power among the student through writing.



2. To enable the student to write legibly.
3. To give them practice in the use of language structure.
4. To enhance their vocabulary.
5. To motivate the students to express and write when put in a given situation.
6. To draw out the creative thinking of the students.

#### 12.4.5 Merits of Written composition

- a. It is useful for learner spellings, punctuation and language structure.
- b. It develops writing ability in the students.
- c. It develops the vocabulary of the students.
- d. It enables the students to write essays, articles and stories etc.
- e. It enables the students to express their ideas and thoughts through written composition.
- f. It develops writing speed in the students.

#### 12.4.6 Demerits of Written Composition

- a. It is a lengthy process
- b. It is time consuming
- c. Written composition is a headache for the teacher who has to do lot of correction work.

#### **Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

4. Name the two kinds of Composition.

5. List any two Demerits of Oral Composition.

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## **12.5 TYPES OF ORAL AND WRITTEN COMPOSITION**

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### (i) Guided Composition

Guided composition is also known as controlled or directed composition. It is introduced to write free composition at the early stage of the students. The teacher guides the students what to write and how to write with the help of controlled vocabulary and structural words. Guided composition can be done by many methods such as

## **NOTES**

## NOTES

- Transcription,
- Dictation,
- Transformation of sentence,
- Reproduction of story, a picture description,
- Completion of incomplete sentences and
- Substitution table.

### (ii) Free Composition

There is little scope for free composition in English at the school stage. Free composition presupposes a mastery over vocabulary, and in the use of language and students are required to write entirely on their own. At this stage they are free to choose their structures and vocabulary and express their own thoughts and ideas on a given topic. Hence this type of composition is called free composition. The different types of free composition are

- Narrative writing,
- Descriptive writing,
- Story writing,
- Essay writing,
- Letter writing and
- Application writing.

### 12.5.1 Paragraph writing

A paragraph is made up of a group of sentences which are interrelated to each other. It is a brief description of an idea. Usually an essay a letter, a story or chapter is divided into paragraphs. This would make reader easier. The sentences in a paragraph should be not only related to one another in subject matter but they should also be methodically arranged. One thought should logically lead to another. The sentences in a paragraph should have continuity.

#### **Important Hints:**

- 1) Students should read the topic sentence carefully and try to find out its meaning.
- 2) Having fully grasped the idea, think and try to find something to say about the subject.
- 3) Sum up the central idea in one sentence. Pay special attention to the first and the last sentence of the paragraph. The first sentence should arouse the reader's interest. They should sum up the whole idea in the last sentence.

- 4) Correct all mistakes in spelling- grammar and punctuation. Make sure that every sentences in the paragraph deals with that subject only.

### 12.5.2 Essay writing

As a first step in the art of writing good essays, we should write short descriptions of everyday activities or places and persons you know, or personal experiences. This writing of short descriptions will give you the necessary training in clarity of expressional and logical arrangements of facts. These qualities are essential in any piece of composition.

#### **Some important points to write a good essay:**

1. We should understand the subject clearly
2. We should think a while about the subject
3. We should have at least five to eight points in our hand about the subject.
4. The introduction should be the finest and attractive

### 12.5.3 Précis writing

Of all the types of writing, Precise is difficult one to master. But some students consider it an easy task because précis writing to them means clipping off a few sentences here and there and shape it look one third or three original length. But this is not precise writing.

To write a précis means using a few words as possible to convey the information the passage contains in the most effective manner. This required great skill besides a thorough understanding of points conveyed in the passage.

#### **Steps involved in Précis Writing:**

1. Read the passage thoroughly and try to grasp the general idea.
2. Take note of main idea and the structure of organization.
3. Read the passage and compare your points with the original passage.
4. Write the first draft. (While doing so, avoid referring back to the original passage) and count the words.
5. Reread the first draft and edit the answer wherever necessary.
6. Write final draft which must be 1/3 of the original.
7. Give a suitable title.

To write a good précis, our pupils need to be given a lot of practice. You may find the following exercises useful.

## NOTES

## NOTES

- a) Drafting telegraphic message (condensing inland letter message into postcard message and in turn condensing it into a telegram)
- b) Writing appropriate headlines for news items.
- c) Summing up the theme of a novel or a cinema story in three or four sentences.
- d) Writing one line summary of short passage.
- e) Writing the subject of the message of business letters (as written immediately below the salutation.
- f) Pointing out of each paragraph of a well-developed essays.

### **Check your progress-3**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

6. What are the different types of free composition?

7. Name any two important points to write a good essay.

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## **12.6 LET US SUM UP**

In this unit we discussed about the kinds and the types of composition. Writing can be taught and hence it should be taught. For this teachers should use controlled and guided compositions in the primary/middle school and secondary classes. The English teachers are the best persons to develop this types of writing skills.

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## **12.7 UNIT END EXCERSISES**

- Choose any interesting picture from a magazine. Ask the students to write a paragraph describing the picture.
- Which level of writing would you give more importance to: primary? Or secondary?-Discuss.

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## **12.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

1. Formal and Informal
2. Official letters.

3. Heading, Salutation, Body of the letter, Subscriptions, Signature and Address on the envelop.
4. Oral and written Composition.
5. Classroom environment becomes noisy, it does not help in writing ability.
6. Narrative writing, Descriptive writing, Story writing, Essay writing, Letter writing and Application writing.
7. We should understand the subject clearly and the introduction should be the finest and attractive.

## NOTES

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### 12.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Teaching of English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

Pineas A. (1982), Teaching English Writing. London: London: The Macmillan Press Limited.

Saraswathi.V. (1979).Organized Writing. Orient, Longman.Modram.

Xavier and Ramani, P.N. (1987). Written Communication I &II. Pondicherry: Pondicherry Variety.

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## **UNIT 13 - COMPOSITION-II**

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### **STRUCTURES**

#### **13.1 INTRODUCTION**

#### **13.2 OBJECTIVES**

#### **13.3 COMPREHENSION**

13.3.1 Steps for the comprehension skills

13.3.2 Translation

#### **13.4 GROUP WORK AND PAIR-WORK**

#### **13.5 CORRECTION OF COMPOSITION EXERCISE**

#### **13.6 LET US SUM UP**

#### **13.7 UNIT END EXERCISES**

#### **13.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

#### **13.9 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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### **13.1 INTRODUCTION**

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There are three stages in writing a composition. In this first stage, the pupils should simply reproduce the structures in different situations and contexts. In the second stage, the work should be of a dual nature. And in the third stage, a life situation is given, and the child gives full expression to his ideas and feelings.

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### **13.2 OBJECTIVES**

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the need for comprehension
- Discuss the need for group work and pair-work
- Identify the correction of composition exercise

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### **13.3 COMPREHENSION**

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Comprehension is the correct association of meanings with word symbols. It is the selection of the correct meaning suggested by the text. It is a thinking process. It is thinking through reading. Some common difficulties are:

- Students are not able to concentrate on what they read.
- They are not able to recognize words.

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- Noisy surroundings, inadequate lighting and uncomfortable seating arrangements.
- Unfamiliarity of the subject matter (e.g) a child from a city may not understand a passage on farming and a village child about road signal systems.
- Ineffective questioning and answering techniques.
- Lack of appropriate guidance by the teacher.

**13.3.1 Steps for the comprehension skills:**

These are various steps followed for the construction of comprehension.

**1. Reading for the main idea**

Pupils should develop skill to identify the main idea or the central idea in what they read. This skill is necessary to get the main idea, identify the theme and get the implied meanings of the paragraph.

**Activities to identify the main idea:**

- ✓ Underlining key words
- ✓ Selecting the topic sentence
- ✓ Writing the title
- ✓ Turning the sub heads or subtitles into a question (The answer LQD the question may give the main idea of the paragraph)
- ✓ Locating the function words that tie the sentence together

e.g. Then, therefore, and but etc.

**2. Reading for details:**

Along with reading for and stating the main idea, the pupils must learn to read for details.

Activities to accomplish reading for details ask the pupils to;

- Look at a picture and then describe what they see at the picture.
- Note the details in a paragraph after stating the main idea.
- Identify irrelevant sentences.
- Analyze the paragraph to make a formal outline.
- Carryout simple directions on how to do something
- Respond to directions
- Elicit answers concerning the details, develop chart, diagram or map of the sequence of events.

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### 3. Reading for organization:

Good readers will understand the organization of what is being read. They arrange the ideas in logical order. The key helps to recall the information is organization. Reading the content areas depends upon proficiency in organization skill. A good reader knows how paragraphs are organized.

Activities that help pupils learn in a logical order what they are reading:

- Organizing information about a given subject (e.g) characteristics of animals)
- Organizing a series of details about a main idea.
- Developing on outline for a story with heading and subheadings.
- Arranging records, directions or ideas in sequential orders.
- Arranging various bits of information about a selected topic and grouping them into an information story.

### 4. Reading for summarizing and outlining:

Summaries help to pressure the essential fact and ideas in capsule form. They retain important information. So the pupils should develop summarizing skill. Outlining is another way of organization. It is closely related to summarizing activities to develop summarizing skills. Summaries a message to be sent as a telegram. Selecting the main idea from the choice you give them. Do exercise for writing an outline. Read a small poem and select the best summary from the choices you give them.

### 13.3.2 Translation

Translation exercises from English to Tamil are practiced up to x level. But they have been sadly ignored in E II English composition classes of higher secondary courses and also in colleges. Exercises can be mostly in the nature of translating from English to Tamil.

(a) Newspaper headlines

- (i) 2 die. 15 injured in bus - van collision
- (ii) Kapil quits cricket

(b) Class circulars

- (i) The School will - remain closed today and tomorrow in view of heavy rain
- (ii) Half yearly Examinations begins on 15th Dec 2007.

(c) Familiar warnings



(i) Trespassers will be prosecuted

(ii) Don't smoke here.

(d) General instructions

(i) Leave your shoes here Doctor is in please be silent.

(e) Familiar idioms

(i) All that glitters is not gold

(ii) Appearance is deceptive etc.

Very simple exercises such as translating TV and radio programmes and train time tables. One sentence class circulars are added in addition to L2 to L1 exercise like translating interesting scenes from any prescribed non detailed stories or plays from the supplementary texts, translating simple advertisements such as matrimonial, 'obituaries' situation vacant etc. May be encouraged and practiced.

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### **13.4 GROUP WORK AND PAIR-WORK**

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The transition from controlled to free work results from two changes of attitude on the part of the teacher. The first is to upset the teacher-student control pattern in the classroom by reorganizing, the system of class management; the second is to change the type of activity from one which allows little or no choice on the part of the student to one which allows great freedom of choice. The traditional class management pattern is called lockstep. Here the teacher is completely in control of every classroom interaction, whether T-S, S-T or S-S. (S-Student & F-Teacher). The focus of attention is primarily on the teacher.

In group-work, the students work simultaneously in groups of three or more, while the teacher circulates, provides assistance or encouragement where necessary and checks that the task is carried out satisfactorily.

In pair work students work simultaneously in pairs. The teacher is available to help of-sort out problems, but to do this type of activity the students must be sufficiently prepared to be able to work entirely by themselves. This can be illustrated like this:

Group-work is generally more task-oriented: that is, the students have a definite task to complete, and call the teacher when they have completed it. Usually it will take longer than pair-work, 10 minutes or more; end generally it is more suitable for intermediate level and upwards.

**NOTES**

**NOTES**

Pair-work may last for as little as two minutes and be simply an extension of controlled drilling which has been done in lockstep. One of the main advantages of group and pair-work is that, since pairs or groups can work simultaneously, the amount of STT is enormously increased. However, in both types of class organization, careful preparation is necessary. Students should be sufficiently prepared to be able to work independently, with little or no help from the teacher.

**Check your progress-1**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. How the students involve in group work and pair work?

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**13.5 CORRECTION OF COMPOSITION EXERCISE**

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Correction of composition exercises present a serious problem at present, when the number of school children is increasing. The task of correcting written composition is very- important, yet it is very laborious.

**(a) Over - correction should be avoided**

Over-correction should be avoided in correction. What the pupils want to express should not be replaced by what the teacher wants them to express. The object of teaching composition is to allow pupils an opportunity for self-expression. Over correction inhibits fluency and freedom.

**(b) Pupils should correct the mistakes themselves**

The pupils must be enabled as far as possible, to correct their mistakes themselves. This may be done by the use of a few conventional signs which indicate the nature of the error committed. It will economize time and energy. It will promote individual effort and put the pupil on the right track. It will also impress the defects and their correction on his memory. It is more effective than the method by which the teacher corrects all the mistakes himself.

**(c) Suitable Correction Symbols**

S - Spelling errors Omission

A - Omission

**NOTES**

G - Bad Grammar

E- Bad English

?- Truth of the statement questioned

! – Exaggeration

P – Punctuation

O – Omit

Z - Irrelevant

In most cases the mere indication of an en-or is enough for correction. The teacher should note the general mistakes and discuss them with the class, using the blackboard. The pupils may be asked to write common mistakes in their note-books under classified heads such as-

- 1) Errors of Spelling
- 2) Errors of Grammar
- 3) Errors of Idioms etc.

Before the next exercise is set, the teacher should see that the errors of the previous exercise have been corrected by each pupil in his exercise-book.

The pupil's carefulness in self-correction should be appreciated. The teacher should know that the aim of all correction is the eventual, and not the immediate, eradication of errors. Hence correction work should be well-planned.

**Check your progress-2**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. What are the three classification of Errors to be noted in the composition notebook?

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**13.6 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we discussed about the need for comprehension and identified the correction of composition exercise. For this teachers should

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follow the Steps for the comprehension skills. The English teachers are the best persons to develop this types of writing skills.

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### 13.7 UNIT END EXCERSISES

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- Explain the various steps followed for the construction of comprehension in detail.
- How will you teach the students to write their composition without any mistakes?

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### 13.8 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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1. In group-work, the students work simultaneously in groups of three or more, while the teacher circulates, provides assistance where as in pair work students work simultaneously in pairs. The teacher is available to help of-sort out problems.

2. Errors of Spelling, Errors of Grammar, Errors of Idioms.

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### 13.9 SUGGESTED READINGS

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Teaching of English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

Pineas A. (1982), Teaching English Writing. London: London: The Macmillan Press Limited.

Saraswathi.V. (1979).Organized Writing. Orient, Longman.Modram.

Xavier and Ramani, P.N. (1987). Written Communication I &II. Pondicherry: Pondicherry Variety.

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# UNIT 14 - LANGUAGE CURRICULUM

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## STRUCTURES

### 14.1 INTRODUCTION

### 14.2 OBJECTIVES

### 14.3 THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

### 14.4 SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

#### 14.4.1 THE CURRICULUM OF ENGLISH

### 14.5 QUALITIES OF A GOOD ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEXT BOOK

#### 14.5.1 Language

#### 14.5.2 Content Matter

### 14.6 UNITY IN WRITING

### 14.6 LET US SUM UP

### 14.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES

### 14.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

### 14.10 SUGGESTED READINGS

## NOTES

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## 14.1 INTRODUCTION

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In formal education, a **curriculum** (plural **curricula**) is the set of courses, and their content, offered at a school or university is

*Curriculum means two things:* (1) the range of courses from which students choose what subject matters to study, and (ii) a specific learning program. In the latter case, the curriculum collectively describes the teaching, learning, and assessment materials available for a given course of study.

The curriculum for English should provide opportunity for students to explore. challenge, think critically about, and clarify both their own attitudes and values, and those of others. In exploring an oral, written, or visual text, students may consider the values and viewpoint which it expresses and compare them with their own. This is the essential part of the curriculum.

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## 14.2 OBJECTIVES

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At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the principles of curriculum construction
- Importance of secondary school curriculum
- Discuss the need for quality material production
- The method of unity in writing

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## 14.3 THE BASIC PRINCIPLES OF CURRICULUM CONSTRUCTION

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We are now in a position to enumerate briefly the principles on which the curriculum should be based. These have been brought out by implication already in the preceding discussion but it will be helpful to restate them clearly and coherently. In the first place, it must be clearly understood that, according to the best modern educational thought, curriculum in this context does not mean only the academic subjects traditionally taught in the school but it includes the totality of experiences that pupil receives through the manifold activities that go on in the school, in the classroom. Library, laboratory, workshop, playgrounds and in the numerous informal contacts between teachers and pupils. In this sense, the whole life of the school becomes the curriculum which can touch the life of the students at all points and help in the evolution of balanced personality.

Secondly, there should be enough variety and elasticity in the curriculum to allow for individual differences and adaptation to individual needs and interests. Any attempt to force uncongenial subjects and studies on children, unfit to take them up, is bound to lead to a sense of frustration and to hinder their normal development.

Thirdly, the curriculum must be vitally and organically related to community life, interpreting for the child its salient and significant features and allowing him to come into contact with some of its important activities. Obviously, this would imply giving an important place to productive work which is the backbone of organized human life. It would also postulate that a general curriculum, which may be prescribed by the Education Department for a whole school system, must be capable of adaptation to local needs and situations.

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## 14.4 SECONDARY SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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For many decades there has been a strong and persistent criticism of the existing Secondary school curriculum. We hear these criticisms over and over again.

The main points of these criticisms are that

## NOTES

1. the present curriculum is narrowly conceived;
2. it is bookish and theoretical;
3. it is overcrowded, without providing rich and significant contents;
4. it makes inadequate provision for practical and other kinds of activities which should reasonably find room in it, it is to educate the whole of the personality;
5. it does not cater to the various needs and capacities of the adolescents;
6. it is dominated too much by examinations; and
7. it does not include technical and vocational subjects which are so necessary for training the students to take part in the industrial and economic development of the country.

### Check your progress-1

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

1. Write any one criticism of secondary school curriculum.

#### 14.4.1 The curriculum of English

English is the main medium of instruction at the postgraduate level, and it is taught as a Second Language at every stage of education in all states of India. In India, as in other linguistically and culturally pluralistic societies, the position of English is determined by various political, cultural and social consideration. There are three questions which are to be discussed at this juncture. The first question concerns the position of English in early and in high education. The second question is concerned with the roles of the regional language, Hindi and English. The third question deals with the model of English presented to Indian learners, and how that presentation can be made uniformly and effectively. The Government of India has primarily been concerned with the first two questions, which are directly related to language planning at both the national and state levels. There are, as yet, no acceptable answers to any of these questions. In the I 960s a bitter conflict considering the status of various language in India arose from concerns of the southern states (in which Hindi is not widely spoken) that the use of Hindi in government services would disadvantage them for employment in those areas. They thought that it was unfair for them having to learn both Hindi and English, whereas native speakers of Hindi would only have to learn English. \

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Consequently, the three Language Formula was developed for the educational load to be more fair, to promote national integration, and to provide wider language choice in the school curriculum

Although the formula sounds fine in theory, the Three Language Formula has proved to be a failure in India as a whole, since it has not been followed in practice. Hindi states did not enforce the curriculum, and the anti-Hindi movements in Chennai removed all teaching of Hindi from schools in Tamil Nadu.

Thus, in India, there is a great number of sociolinguistic pressures influencing the development of language education; has stated that the language policy of the school system is both a result of the pressures and a source of pressure itself.

Mark Tully points out that the elitist status of English in India creates problems for economic development because that means that the education of the mass of people will be ignored. He argues that the solution for the situation would be that the spread of English throughout India would be encouraged so that it would become a "genuine link language of the country, not just, as it is at present, the link language of the elite".

### Check your progress-2

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

2. List out some of the social pressures influencing language education in India.

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## 14.5 QUALITIES OF A GOOD ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEXT BOOK

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Theoretically, experienced teachers can teach English without a textbook. However it is not easy to do it all the time, though they may do it sometimes. Many teachers do not have enough time to make supplementary materials, so they just follow the textbook. Textbooks therefore take on a very important role in language classes, and it is important to select a good textbook. Before that they must keep in their mind about the five important components of language instruction namely, students, a teacher, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation.

In a study of English textbooks published in Japan in 1985, the textbooks were reviewed and problems were found with both the



language and content of many of the textbooks (Kitao et al., 1995). They are as follows

### **14.5.1 Language**

English textbooks should have correct, natural, recent, and Standard English. Since students' vocabulary is limited, the vocabulary in textbooks should be controlled or the textbooks should provide information to help students understand vocabulary that they may not be familiar with. For lower-level students, grammar should also be controlled. Many textbooks use narratives and essays. It would be useful to have a variety of literary forms (for example, newspaper articles, poetry, or letters), so that students can learn to deal with different forms. The detailed English text, which is meant for intensive reading, is called the READER. -- It serves as a material to develop the language skills, mainly the reading skill. When we analyze a textbook the content matter, style, treatment, introduction of vocabulary, exercise, notes and guidelines, get up, cost and availability are to be considered.

### **14.5.2 Content Matter**

The subject matter of the Intensive reader should be familiar. Familiar topics stimulate imagination. Familiar situations form the direct bond between experience and expression. Each topic should create an interest of its own. In prose narration, description, dialogue, essays, letters etc. should be included. The matter should provide new information. Various language items should be used in the natural situation. Some pieces of poetry should also be included.

According to Dr. West new words should appear at regular intervals. Each lesson must introduce some new structure and a few words. The vocabulary should be properly distributed. There should not be more than four new words in a page. The words and structures already learnt may be repeated in subsequent pages. An index should be prepared showing the vocabulary and structures introduced in the text.

### **Exercise**

Lessons should contain proper exercise. The author should provide numerous example of the structures and usage of words. Variety is needed in the exercises.

### **Illustrations**

The process of learning is made quicker with the use well-drawn and colored illustrations. In early readers, 40 per cent of the space may be devoted to illustrations. Ten per cent of the space may be devoted to illustrations higher classes. For younger children they should be colored.

## **NOTES**

**NOTES**

**Technical Considerations**

The book should be printed properly on good papers. Bad printing strains eyes and hampers normal progress. Clear printing lends attraction. The book should be bound well to withstand the rough use. The book should be moderately priced.

The size of the reader should depend upon the age group of the learners. Its appearance and get up makes it readable. Printing should be free from mistakes.

**Teacher's book**

A good reader is always accompanied by teacher's book, which contains instructions regarding the use of the reader and guidelines for teaching the various language items.

There are two series of English readers. The first series is called the special series (i.e.) a nine-year course from III to XI standard. It is followed in the CBSE schools. The second series is called the general series, which is meant for a six-year course from VI to XI standard. The reader should be a tool for teaching the language.

**Check your progress-3**

Note: a) Space is given below for your answer

b) Compare your answer with these given at the end of this unit

3. What are the five elements in language instruction?

4. What are the qualities of a good English textbook?

---

**14.6 UNITY IN WRITING**

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Effective writing depends on more than just the grammatically correct composition of each sentence. The reader must be able to move easily from one sentence to the next. The sentences should therefore express a coherent train of thought. Together, they must constitute a unified whole.

**The following passage lacks unity:**

It has been said that history repeats itself. Who first said this quote is not important. Although circumstances may change, and they

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frequently do, and the cast of characters will differ, human response to crisis situations remains consistent over time. The lessons gained from past events should affect present decisions. People rarely change their behaviors based upon past experience. Sometimes they do, but not often do they change their actions. Indeed, it sometimes seems as if people are willing to challenge the influence of the past when they repeat mistakes or misjudgments. Why people would want to challenge the influence of the past remains unknown.

**A more unified version of the passage follows below.**

It has been said that history repeats itself. Although circumstances may change, and the cast of characters will differ, human response to crisis situations remains consistent over time. The lessons gained from past events should affect present decisions, but people rarely change their behaviors based upon past experience. Indeed, it sometimes seems as if people are willing to challenge the influence of the past when they repeat mistakes or misjudgments.

What has changed? Irrelevant detail and comments have been omitted. The passage stays focused on the notion that no matter what time period, people seem to repeat the mistakes of the past. To achieve unity in writing, eliminate extraneous detail and use only those details that support your point.

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**14.7 LET US SUM UP**

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In this unit we discussed about the principles of curriculum construction and the importance of secondary school curriculum. There should be a real pride in our curriculum. Teachers, parents, employers, the media and the public should all see the curriculum as something to embrace, support and celebrate. In this connection it is important to bear in mind that curriculum should give the students what is relevant to later life.

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**14.8 UNIT END EXCERSISES**

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- Discuss the limitations in the existing school English curriculum.
- Explain the basic principles of curriculum construction in detail.
- Explain the unity in writing.

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**14.9 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS**

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1. It is bookish and theoretical.
2. Family, religion, ethnicity and political pressures, cultural and economic pressure, mass media etc.

3. The five important components of language instruction namely, students, a teacher, materials, teaching methods, and evaluation.
4. A good textbook should be accompanied by teacher's book which contains guidelines for teaching the various language items.

## NOTES

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### **14.10 SUGGESTED READINGS**

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Teaching of Special English, Bachelor of Education, Tamilnadu Open University, Chennai.

Teaching of English, Dr.Evangelin Arulselvi, Saratha Pathipagam, Chennai.

Gatenby, E.V. (1986). Teaching English as a Foreign Language in School Curriculum India. New Delhi: NCERT.

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