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STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH – II

M.A. ENGLISH

M.A. (ENGLISH), Semester II, Paper- I

LESSON WRITERS

Prof. K. Ratna Shiela Mani, Professor, Dept. of English, ANU

Sri K. Sai Krishna, Associate Professor, Dept. of English, Gudlavalleru Engineering College, Gudlavalleru
Dr. R. V. Jayant Kashyap, Asst. Professor, Dept. of English, Yogi Vemana University, Kadapa
Dr. V. Parvathi, Associate Professor, Dept. of English, JNTUH College of Engineering, Kukatpalli, Hyderabad
Dr. Prabhavati Y, Dept. of English, Gitam University, Hyderabad Campus, Rudraram, Patancheru Mandal, Medak Dist.
Dr. N.V.S.N. Lakshmi, Asst. Professor, Dept. of Humanities & Social Sciences, JNTU College of Engineering, Kukatpally, Jawaharlal Nehru Technological University, Hyderabad.

EDITOR

Prof. K. Ratna Shiela Mani,

Professor,

Dept. of English, ANU

Director

Dr. NAGARAJU BATTU
MBA., MHRM., LL.M., M.Sc. (Psy).,MA (Soc)., M.Ed., M.Phil., Ph.D
CENTRE FOR DISTANCE EDUCATION
ACHARYA NAGARJUNA UNIVERSITY
NAGARJUNA NAGAR – 522 510

Ph: 0863-2293299, 2293214,
0863-2346259 (Study Material)
Website: *www.anucde.info*
e-mail:anucdedirector@gmail.com

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FOREWORD

Since its establishment in 1976, Acharya Nagarjuna University has been forging ahead in the path of progress and dynamism, offering a variety of courses and research contributions. I am extremely happy that by gaining 'A' grade from the NAAC in the year 2016, Acharya Nagarjuna University is offering educational opportunities at the UG, PG levels apart from research degrees to students from over 443 affiliated colleges spread over the two districts of Guntur and Prakasam.

The University has also started the Centre for Distance Education in 2003-04 with the aim of taking higher education to the door step of all the sectors of the society. The centre will be a great help to those who cannot join in colleges, those who cannot afford the exorbitant fees as regular students, and even to housewives desirous of pursuing higher studies. Acharya Nagarjuna Universityhas started offering B.A., and B.Com courses at the Degree level and M.A., M.Com., M.Sc., M.B.A., and L.L.M., courses at the PG level from the academic year 2003-2004 onwards.

To facilitate easier understanding by students studying through the distance mode, these self-instruction materials have been prepared by eminent and experienced teachers. The lessons have been drafted with great care and expertise in the stipulated time by these teachers. Constructive ideas and scholarly suggestions are welcome from students and teachers involved respectively. Such ideas will be incorporated for the greater efficacy of this distance mode of education. For clarification of doubts and feedback, weekly classes and contact classes will be arranged at the UG and PG levels respectively.

It is my aim that students getting higher education through the Centre for Distance Education should improve their qualification, have better employment opportunities and in turn be part of country's progress. It is my fond desire that in the years to come, the Centre for Distance Education will go from strength to strength in the form of new courses and by catering to larger number of people. My congratulations to all the Directors, Academic Coordinators, Editors and Lesson- writers of the Centre who have helped in these endeavors.

Prof. P. Raja Sekhar
Vice-Chancellor
Acharya Nagarjuna University

SEMESTER – II

201EG21: STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH –II

UNIT-I: GRAMMAR

1. Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum.1973. A University Grammar of the English Language. Longman Pearson. The following Chapters:

1. Varieties of English
2. Elements of Grammar
3. Verbs and the Verb Phrase

UNIT – II: GRAMMAR

The following Chapters:

4. Nouns, pronouns and the basic noun phrase
5. Adjectives and Adverbs
6. Prepositions and prepositional phrases

UNIT – III: GRAMMAR

Grammar – Correction of Sentences from the chapters prescribed.

UNIT-IV: INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

1. Jack Richards & Theodore Rodgers.2001.Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching.OUP.
2. H.H. Stern.1983. Fundamentals of Language Teaching.OUP.

The following topics:

(i) Fundamentals of Language Teaching: objectives, materials, methods, evaluation.
(ii) First language and second language.
(iii) Grammar Translation Method & Bilingual Method
(iv) Direct Method.

UNIT – V INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

(v) Audio-lingual Method (vi) Situational Language Teaching (vii) Communicative Approach

SUGGESTED READINGS:

1. Jeremy Harmer. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. Longman, 1983.
2. M. A. K. Halliday & A. McIntosh. *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*. Longman, 1964.
3. F. Palmer. *Grammar*. Penguin, 1971.
4. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik. *A Grammar of Contemporary English*. Longman, Pearson, 1972.
5. Sidney Greenbaum & Randolph Quirk. *A Student's Grammar of the English Language*. London: Longman, 1990.
6. A. P. R. Howatt. *A History of English Language Teaching*. OUP.1984.

CONTENT

LESSON- 1
VARIETIES OF ENGLISH

Structure of the lesson

1.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

The following are the objectives of the lesson:

- To explain the notions of language variation and 'common core'
- To trace the various factors leading to different varieties of language
- To familiarize the learner with labels like dialect, register and style
- To enable the leaner to use linguistic forms appropriate to different situations.

1.1. INTRODUCTION

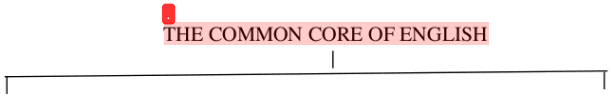
To use language properly, we have to know the grammatical forms and structures and their meanings. These are presented in the subsequent lessons. But we also have to know what forms of language are appropriate for given situations. These forms are also called 'varieties' because language varies with different situations - this is the subject of this first lesson on Grammar. From the study of linguistics in the first semester, the learner would have understood that language is not a single, homogenous entity. Any language has numerous varieties depending the region or situation. We give labels to these varieties such as 'British English' or 'American English', 'spoken' or 'written', 'formal' or 'informal'. These labels indicate that the English language is not a single language, but many languages or varieties,

each belonging to a particular geographical area or to a particular kind of situation. The English used in the United States is somewhat different from the English used in Great Britain, in Australia and so on. The English used in formal written communication is in some ways different from the English used in informal conversation.

However many of features of English are found in all, or almost all, varieties. We can say that these general features of language form the ***common core*** or *nucleus* of the language. For example, take the three words *children*, *offspring* and *kids*. *Children* is a 'common core' term; *offspring* is used mostly in a formal situation (and refers to both animals and human beings) *kids* occurs mostly in an informal situation. Part of learning English is knowing in what circumstances we can use *offspring* or *kids* instead of the neutral *children*.

1.2. VARIETY CLASSES

We can distinguish six kinds of varieties as given below which are interrelated in different ways. Within each class there are again different varieties. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) show this in the from of a diagram.



Variety Classes	Varieties within each class
Region:	R_1, R_2, R_3, - - - - - -
Education and social standing:	E_1, E_2, E_3, - - - - - -
Subject matter:	S_1, S_2, S_3, - - - - - -
Medium:	M_1, M_2, M_3, - - - - - -
Attitude:	A_1, A_2, A_3, - - - - - -
Interference:	I_1, I_2, I_3, - - - - - -

As we can see in this figure, the 'common core' dominates all the varieties. It means that, however difficult or remote a variety may be, it has running through it a set of grammatical and other characteristics that are common to all the varieties. Each variety class is related equally and at all points to each of the other variety classes.

1.3. REGIONAL VARIATION

Varieties according to region have a well-established label both in popular and technical use: 'dialects'. Geographical dispersion of communities is in fact the classic basis for linguistic variation. Naturally dialects of a language have many shared features, so we can say that when two speakers understand each other, they speak two different dialects of the

same language. In the course of time, with poor communications and relative remoteness, such dispersion results in dialects becoming so distinct that we regard them as different languages. It means that differences are more than similarities. Long ago, the dialects of the 'Germanic' language have now evolved into separate languages - Dutch, English, German, Swedish, etc.

Regional variation seems to be realized predominantly in phonology. That is, we generally recognize a different dialect from a speaker's pronunciation before we notice that his vocabulary (or lexicon) is also distinctive. Grammatical variation tends to be less extensive and certainly less obvious. But variation can be found at all levels of language - phonology, morphology, syntax and lexis.

1.3.1. Dialects of English

It is pointless to ask how many dialects of English there are: there are indefinitely many, depending on how detailed we wish to be in our observations. But they are of course more obviously numerous in the long-settled Britain than in the more recently settled North America or in the still more recently settled Australia and New Zealand. One might suggest some broad dialectal divisions which are generally recognized. Within North America, most people would be able to distinguish Canadian, New England, Midland, and Southern varieties of English. Within the British Isles, Irish, Scots, Northern, Midland, Welsh, South-western, and London varieties would be recognized with similar generality. We could make subdivisions: Ulster and Southern might be distinguished within Irish, for example, and Yorkshire picked out as a subdivision of northern speech. English in South Africa, Australia and New Zealand are the other regional dialects of English.

1.4. EDUCATION AND SOCIAL STANDING

Within each of the dialect areas, there is considerable variation in speech according to education and social standing. There is an important polarity of uneducated and educated speech in which the former can be identified with the regional dialect most completely and the latter, moves away from dialectal usage to a form of English that cuts across dialectal boundaries. On the other hand, there is no simple equation of dialectal and uneducated English. Just as educated English cuts across dialectal boundaries, so do many features of uneducated use: a prominent example is the double negative as in *I don't want no cake*, which has been outlawed from all educated English by the prescriptive grammar tradition for hundreds of years but which continues to thrive in uneducated speech wherever English is spoken even today.

Educated speech can be defined as the language of education. It naturally tends to be given additional prestige in government agencies, the learned professions, the political parties, the press, the law court and the pulpit. The general acceptance of 'BBC English' for this purpose over almost half a century is paralleled by a similar designation for general educated idiom in the United States, 'network English'. Because educated English is thus accorded implicit social and political sanction, it comes to be referred to as Standard English. This does not mean an English that has been formally standardized by official action, as weights and measures are standardized, but the term is useful and appropriate. In contrast with Standard English, forms that are especially associated with uneducated (rather than dialectal) use are often called 'nonstandard'.

1.5. STANDARD ENGLISH

The degree of acceptance of a single standard of English throughout the world, across a multiplicity of political and social systems, is a truly remarkable phenomenon: in fact the extent of the uniformity involved has, increased in the present century. Uniformity is greatest in matter of spelling. Although printing houses in all English-speaking countries retain a tiny area of individual decision (some preferring - *ise* others *judgement*; etc), there is basically a single system, with two minor subsystems. (i) The subsystem with British orientation (used in all English-speaking countries except the United State) with distinctive forms in only a small class of words, *colour*, *centre*, *levelled* etc. (ii) The American subsystem: *color, center, leveled*, etc. In Canada, the British subsystem is used for the most part, but some publishers (especially of popular material) follow the American subsystem and some a mixture of British and American subsystems (*color* but *centre*).

In grammar and vocabulary, Standard English presents somewhat less of a uniform character, but even so the world-wide agreement is extraordinary. As has been suggested earlier, uniformity seems actually to be increasing under the impact of closer world communication and the spread of identical culture. The uniformity is especially close in neutral or formal styles (1.9) of written English (1.8) on subject matter (1.7) not of obviously localized interest: in such circumstances one can frequently read page after page without encountering a feature which would identify the English as belonging to either British or American Standards.

1.6. NATIONAL STANDARDS OF ENGLISH

1.6.1. British and American English

There are two national standards that are overwhelmingly predominant depending on the number of distinctive usages: American English and British English. Grammatical differences are few and the most conspicuous are widely known. For example, AmE has two past participles for *get* and BrE only one. Also in BrE the indefinite pronoun *one* is repeated in co-reference where AmE uses *he* as in.

One cannot succeed at this unless $\left\{\begin{matrix}\text{one}\\ \\ \text{he}\end{matrix}\right\}$ tries hard.

Lexical examples are far more numerous, but many of these are familiar to users of both standards: for example, petrol (BrE), gas (AmE); *railway* (BrE), *railroad* (AmE); *tap* (BrE), *faucet* (amE); *autumn* (BrE), *fall* (AmE). More recent lexical innovations in either area tend to spread rapidly to the other. Thus while an earlier invention like radio sets have had *valves* in BrE but *tubes* in AmE, television sets have cathode ray *tubes* in both, and *transistors* are likewise used in both standards.

1.6.2. Scotland, Ireland, Canada

Scots, with ancient national and educational institutions, is another distinctive variety though the differences in grammar and vocabulary are rather few. Irish (or Hiberno-) English should also be regarded as a national standard which has a long history. Though we lack descriptions of this variety of English, it is consciously and explicitly regarded as

independent of BrE by educational and broadcasting services. The proximity of Britain, the easy movement of population, and other factors mean however that there is little room for the assertion and development of separate grammar and vocabulary.

Canadian English is in a similar position in relation to American English. Close economic, social, and intellectual links along a 4000-mile frontier have naturally caused the larger community (America) to have an enormous influence on the smaller (Canada), which is reflected also in language. Though in many respects Canadian English follows British rather than United States practice, in many other respects it has approximated to AmE and seems likely to continue in this direction.

1.6.3. South Africa, Australia, New Zealand

South Africa, Australia and New Zealand are in a very different position, as they are remote from the direct day-to-day impact of either BrE or AmE. In orthography and grammar the South African English in educated use is virtually identical with BrE but considerable differences in vocabulary have developed.

New Zealand English is more like BrE than any other non-European variety, though it now feels the powerful influence of Australia and also of the United States.

Australian English is the dominant form of English in the Antipodes, and it is even exerting an influence in the northern hemisphere, particularly in Britain, though much of what is distinctive in Australian English is confined to familiar or informal style.

1.6.4. Standard Pronunciation

There are other regional or national variants that approximate to the status of a standard (the Caribbean for example), but the important point to stress is that all of them are different to a very trivial extent. As we have seen earlier, even the most firmly established varieties, BrE and AmE, differ from each other in vocabulary, grammar, and spelling in a minor degree. This is not the case, however, with pronunciation. It is in pronunciation that one can distinguish one national standard from another most immediately and completely.

It should be noted that the term 'Standard English' generally refers to features of syntax, morphology and lexis. The term 'Standard Accent' is used for pronunciation. It implies that an Indian, an Englishman and an American may speak Standard English, and yet the Indian may speak it with an Indian accent, the Englishman with British accent, and the American with an American accent.

In BrE, one type of pronunciation comes close to enjoying the status of 'standard': 'Received Pronunciation' or 'R.P.'. It is used by the BBC and British movie actors. Because this has been largely associated with a private education system based upon boarding schools which are unconnected to their localities in which they are situated, it is significantly non-regional and of considerable prestige. But R.P. no longer has the unique authority it had in the first half of the twentieth century. With America emerging as a superpower AmE has been influencing the use of English in the world. The Standard American accent is called 'General American English' which is used for the Voice of America broadcasts and in most American movies.

1.7. VARIETIES ACCORDING TO SUBJECT MATTER

Varieties according to the subject matter involved in a discourse are sometimes referred to as 'registers'. A given speaker may choose to speak in a national standard at one moment and in a regional dialect the next; a well-educated and widely travelled person may possibly even switch from one national standard to another. In both cases the idea is that an individual adopts one of the varieties so far discussed – regional or national standard – as his permanent form of English. With varieties according to subject matter, on the other hand, the idea is rather that the same speaker has a repertoire or a collection of varieties and habitually switches to the appropriate variety depending on the occasion. Most typically perhaps, the switch involves nothing more than turning to the particular set of lexical items habitually used for handling the subject in question: law, cookery, engineering, football. Thus we speak of the register of science, the register of journalism, the register of literature, the register of religion etc.

1.8. VARIETIES ACCORDING TO MEDIUM

The only varieties according to medium that we need to consider are those conditioned by *speaking* and *writing* respectively. For example varieties of language in telegraphic messages, telephone conversations, radio, T.V., newspapers and so on. Most of the differences between spoken and written modes arise from two sources. One is situational: the use of a written medium normally presumes the absence of the person(s) to whom the piece of language is addressed. This implies the need to be very explicit, careful and precise and use complete sentences. Speaking implies the presence of the hearer and we make us of words and phrases supported by gesture. In fact we leave the sentences incomplete when the speaker is assured by word or look that his hearer has understood.

The second source of difference is that many of the devices we use to transmit language by speech (stress, rhythm, intonation, tempo, for example) are impossible to represent with the crudely simple repertoire of conventional orthography. They are difficult enough to represent even with a special prosodic notation: This means that the writer has often to reformulate his sentences if he is to convey fully and successfully what he wants to express within the orthographic system.

1.9. VARIETIES ACCORDING TO ATTITUDE

English also varies according to differences in the relation between the speaker (or writer) and hearer (or reader). Varieties according to attitude are often called 'stylistic' but 'style' like 'register' is a term which is used with several different meanings. We are here concerned with the choice of linguistic form that proceeds from our attitude to the hearer (or reader), to the subject matter, or to the purpose of our communication. Attitude is a non-linguistic component. Varieties as per attitude range from stiff, formal, cold, impersonal on the one hand and relaxed, informal, warm, friendly on the other. There is also a neutral or unmarked variety of English, bearing no obvious colouring that has been induced by attitude. On each side of this, we can then distinguish sentences containing features that are markedly formal or informal. To simplify matters, we can use a three-term distinction, leaving the middle one unlabelled and specifying only usages that are relatively formal or informal:

(rigid ~) FORMAL~ (neutral) ~ INFORMAL (~familiar)

For example see the following the sentences

Shut the door, will you? (informal)
Would please shut the door? (polite)
I wonder if you would mind shutting the door. (very formal)

1.10. VARIETIES ACCORDING TO INTERFERENCE

Varieties according to interference should be seen as being on a very different basis from the other types of variety discussed. By 'interference', we refer to the trace left by someone's native language upon the foreign language he has acquired. Thus, the Frenchman who says "I am here since Thursday" is imposing a French grammatical usage on English; the Russian who says "There are four assistants in our chair of mathematics" is imposing a Russian lexico-semantic usage on the English word 'chair'. Here the foreign language learner makes mistakes of course, but goes through different stages on the way to a more native-like English. But there are interference varieties that are so widespread in a community and of such longstanding that they may be thought stable and adequate enough to be regarded as varieties of English in their own right. For example in India, Pakistan, and several African countries, where English is an official language, efficient and fairly stable varieties of English are prominent in educated use at the highest political and professional level.

1.11. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN VARIETY CLASSES

In discussing the varieties we have said that each stratum of varieties was equally related to all others. But, as we have seen, there are limitations to this. The use of a specific variety of one class frequently presupposes the use of a specific variety of another. A well-formed *legal* sentence, for example, presupposes an *educated* variety of English. Since writing (medium) is an educated art, we have to expect only educated English of one or other national standard in this medium. Indeed, when we try to represent regional or uneducated English in writing, we realize that our graphic conventions are narrowly geared to Standard English. For the same reason there are some subjects that can scarcely be handled in writing and others (*eg*. legal statutes) that can scarcely be handled in speech.

Attitudinal varieties have a great deal of independence in relation to other varieties: it is possible to be formal or informal on biochemistry or politics in AmE or BrE, for example. But informal or casual language across an 'authority gap' or 'seniority gap' (a student talking to a Principal) is unacceptable, and on certain topics (funerals) it would be unthinkably distasteful. An attempt at formal or rigid language when the subject is courtship or football would seem either comic or pompous.

We have to remember that the COMMON CORE constitutes the major part of any variety of English, however specialized. If a grammatical form being discussed is associated with a specific variety mention will be made of the fact that the form is no longer of the common core. In such case the varieties chiefly mentioned will be AmE and BrE; speech and writing; formal and informal.

1.12. VARIETIES WITHIN A VARIETY

In this context, we need to remember two final points. First, the various conditioning factors (region, medium, attitude, for example) have no *absolute* effect: it means that informality or whatever the factor may be, one should not expect a consistent all-or-nothing influence. The conditioning is real but relative and variable. Secondly, even after explaining the reasons for the choice of one rather than another linguistic form, we are still left with a

margin of variation that cannot with certainty be explained in terms of the parameters discussed earlier.

For example, we can say (or write)

He stayed a week	*or*	He stayed for a week
Two fishes	*or*	Two fish
Had I know	*or*	If I had know

Either member of such pairs is not necessarily linked to any of the varieties that have been specified. We may sometimes have a clear impression that one member seems rarer than another, or relatively old-fashioned. All societies are constantly changing their languages with the result that there are always coexistent forms, the one relatively new, the other relatively old. Generally, young people of a society will be temperamentally disposed to use the new form while older people are comparably inclined to the old variety. But many of us will not be consistent either in our choice or in our temperamental disposition. As Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) say, perhaps English may give rise to such fluctuation more than some other language because of its patently mixed nature: a basic Germanic wordstock, stress pattern, word- formation, inflection and syntax overlaid with a classical and Romance wordstock, stress pattern, word-formation – and even inflection and syntax. This is because English has borrowed much from the classical and European languages. For example when even highly educated people treat the Latin and Greek plurals in *data* and *criteria* as singulars or they use *different* to and *averse to* rather than *different from* and *averse form* – they face objections from other native speakers of English. It indicates the acceptance that classical patterns of inflection and syntax (Latin *differre ab*, 'to differ *from*'; *aversus ab*, 'averse *from*') apply within English grammar. It is one of the reasons for English to be regarded as the most international of languages. As we can see, it adds noticeably to the variation in English usage which needs to be explained in grammar.

1.13. SUMMARY

From this lesson we can understand that what we call 'language' is an abstract phenomenon. Language is not a single entity. There are numerous varieties of the English language, and what we ordinarily mean by 'English' is a common core or nucleus which is realized only in the different forms of the language that we actually hear or read. We have discussed variety classes namely region, education, social status, subject matter, medium, attitude and interference. It is clear that there are varieties within each class. We have drawn attention to the notion of 'common core' which means all these varieties have in common a core set of grammatical features and lexis.

1.14 SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the notions of 'common core' and language variation?
2. Mention the different variety classes.
3. What are the reasons for dialectal variation?
4. Discuss the national standards of language.
5. What are the different registral variations of language?
6. How does speech differ from writing?

7. Can Indian English be treated as an Interference variety?

1.15. REFERENCES

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LESSON- 2
ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR

Structure of the lesson

The lesson *Elements of Grammar* discusses and defines the fundamentals of modern English grammar. It has been written keeping the needs of M.A students in mind. It helps them to meet the unrelenting demand for a contemporary approach to English grammar. This lesson does not elucidate the comprehensive study of the basic grammar of the English Language but significant aspects of grammar have been properly defined and adequately illustrated .

2.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

- To make students understand the significant elements of grammar in general and elements of a sentence structure in particular at basic level.
- To provide a small-scale map of areas which are part of a sentence in a simple language
- To enable learners to appreciate the concept of Parts of Speech.
- To draw the attention of students to the use of words as replacements for other words and expressions.

- To explore certain outstanding features of English sentence and its structure.
- To expose learners to various sentence structures and make them form negative and interrogative sentences.
- To smoothen the understanding of complex terms by providing adequate explanation and suitable examples.

2.1. THE SENTENCE

A sentence is a group of words that are put together to express an idea. It is the basic constituent of a language which expresses a complete thought. It is formulated by following the grammatical rules of sentence structure. A complete sentence has at least a subject and a main verb to present a complete thought. A sentence in English begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop or a question mark or an exclamatory mark.

e.g.: *Vijay attends classes regularly.*
What are your future plans?
How melodiously she sings a song!

2.2. MAIN PARTS OF A SENTENCE

A sentence is a structural unit in the sense that it will have a *subject* and a more extended unit called *predicate*. These have been the standard labels in English grammar. See the following examples:

	Subject	Predicate
1.	Ram	carefully searched the room.
2.	Her brother	grew happier gradually.
3.	The girl	is now a student at a large university
4.	They	make him the chairman every year

In the above sentences, *Ram*, *Her brother*, *The girl* and *They* are the subject and the remaining parts of the sentences are called the Predicate.

2.2.1. The Subject: The subject of the sentence is the 'theme' of the sentence with the implication that something new (the predicate) is being said about a 'subject'. The subject determines the concord of number with the verb. If the subject is singular the verb is singular, as in sentence 3,
The girl is. In sentence 4, the plural subject *they* takes a plural form of the verb *make*. A subject is the most important structural and semantic unit in a sentence. It occupies the first position in a declarative sentence and is placed in the position next to the auxiliary verb in an interrogative sentence. In a sentence, a subject can be changed into an object by transforming the sentence into passive voice.

e.g.: Ramana threw the ball. (Ramana - subject , the ball – object)
The ball was thrown by Ramana. (The ball – subject, Ramana – object)

In the sentence, below, 'there' and 'they' are in the subject position. They are neither nouns nor pronouns. They are called the *'grammatical'* subject.

e.g.: There are a number of cars parked outside.
They are people who are totally blind.

2.2.2. Predicate: In contrast with the subject, there are a small number of generalizations that we can usefully make about the predicate since it tends to be a more complex and heterogeneous part. We need to subdivide it into its elements or constituents. This distinguishes *Auxiliary as Operator* from what we may call the *predication*. The distinctions may be illustrated as follows:

Sentence: Subject + Predicate
Predicate: auxiliary as operator + predication

He (subject) had (auxiliary as operator) given the girl an apple (predication).

The subject is the part of the sentence that changes its position with the auxiliary verb as we go from statement to question.

Had (auxiliary as operator) he (subject) given the girl an apple? (predicate)

This particular division of sentence helps us to understand how interrogative and negative sentences are formed, how certain adjuncts are positioned, and how certain types of emphasis are achieved in a sentence.

2.2.3. Range of Operators: The verb expression may have several auxiliaries. In such cases, the first auxiliary acts as operator. For example,

e.g.: She *should have been admonished* by the parents.
Should she have been admonished by the parents?
Yes, she *should*.
No, she *shouldn't* have been admonished by the parents.

If the verb expression has no auxiliary in the positive declarative sentence, auxiliary verb 'do' is introduced when an operator is required.

e.g.: *William realized his mistake.*
Did William realize his mistake?
No, he didn't.
Yes, he did.

The verb 'be' can also act as operator whether it is an auxiliary or a main verb as given in the following examples.

e.g.: *Mohan is waiting for you (is – auxiliary)*
Is Mohan waiting for you?

Rajiv is now a student (is – main verb)
Is Rajiv now a student?

The same is true to some extent especially in British English for *'have'* :

e.g.: *Sumatra has a degree*
Has Sumatra a degree?

2.3. ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

Another type of classification is to see the sentence as comprising five units called Elements of a sentence. Apart from the two main clause elements, the **Subject** and the **Verb**, there are three others which may or may not appear in the clause. These are the **Object**, the **Complement** and the **Adverbial**. They can be abbreviated as S, V, O, C, A. The following sentence contains all these elements.

E.g. The *government department considered John suitable for many jobs*.

Using the definitions from the previous segment, *the government department* is the Subject and *considered* is the Verb. The remaining elements are: Object - *John*, Complement – *suitable*, Adverbial - *for many jobs*.

In the following sentences each element plays a part in the clause or sentence.

e.g. . *The train* (subject) *is leaving* (verb) *shortly* (adverbial).
Sita (subject) *is* (verb) *beautiful* (complement).
Mahatma (subject) *reads* (verb) *novels* (object).
The Principal (subject) *left* (verb) the *office* (object).

2.3.1.The Object:

Here are some examples of both people and things as Objects.

She loves ***roses.***
Rama killed ***Ravana***.
The police have arrested ***three criminals***.

There are two types of object – direct object (O_d) and indirect object (O_i)
As with the Subject, the Object can be anything from a single word (*roses*) to a phrase (*three criminals*). It is noticed that the Object in each case directly follows the Verb. Natural order of sentence elements is Subject + Verb + Object. The examples given include what is usually called a **direct object**; that is, there is only one object in the clause and this is the main focus. There are two Objects in the following sentences.

(a) A number of people have told *me* **the same thing**.
My father gave *Rajesh* **a gift**.
I paid *the doctor* **the fees.**

The direct object is shown in bold; but that still leaves us with an extra element immediately following the Verb in each sentence which we have not accounted for. While the direct object is the main focus of the verb action, the words in italics are called **indirect objects**. (*me*, *Rajesh*, *fees*) They seem to be the recipients of the direct object. All of these sentences can in fact be rewritten to illustrate this idea of **recipient** with very little change in meaning.

(b) *A number of people have told the same thing to* ***me***.
My father gave a gift to ***Rajesh***.
I paid fees to ***the doctor.***

The words given in bold in set (b) are referred to as **indirect objects**. Notice that in the second set (b) of examples the indirect object is formed by using a prepositional phrase with '*to*' and also follows the direct object, whereas in the first set the indirect object precedes the direct object without '*to*'.

2.3.2 The Complement

The Complement: A complement is a word or phrase that completes the sense of a subject, an object, or a verb. The Complement can often be confused with the Object. While the Subject and the Object of a clause, in the vast majority of cases, refer to different units, the Complement gives more information about either the Subject or the Object.
There are two types of complement – subject complement (Cs) and object complement (Co).

The Subject Complement: Look at the following sentences: *William*, the *potato* and *a diamond necklace* are the Subjects.

*William is **a Professor**.*
*The potato smells **terrible**.*
*A diamond necklace was **what she wanted for her marriage anniversary**.*

In these sentences, there is a strong connection between the Subjects and the phrases *a professor*, *terrible* and *what she wanted for her marriage anniversary*. These are known as Complements; more specifically they are Subject Complements because they define the Subjects of the clauses.

In most sentences where the Complement defines the Subject, we will find a particular type of verb being used. The most common one is the verb '***be***' and its forms *(e.g. am, are, was, have been)* followed by a noun phrase or an adjective phrase, often as a single word. In the above instances, *William* is a noun phrase and *terrible* is an adjective phrase.

The Object Complement: In all the above examples, the Complement gave additional information about the Subject of the clause. Additional information can similarly be given about the Object. Look at the examples below:

The principal gave *him **scholarship***.
The allegation made *me **furious***.
The team has made *him **the Chairman***.

Here, the phrases in bold are called object complements because they have direct relationship with the Objects of the clauses which are *him*, *me, him*. The Object Complement usually follows the Object of the clause.

2.3.3. Categories of Verb

Verbs are the most important component of any sentence. These words speak about the action or the state of the subject. This means that verbs show what the subject is doing or what is the state or situation of the subject.
For example: They ***ran*** to the ground. - Here the verb **'ran'** describes the action of the subject 'they'.
Keats ***is*** *a creative person*. - Here there is no action being done. Instead the auxiliary verb **'is'** shows the state of the subject 'he' as being 'creative'.

There are different types of Verbs corresponding to the different types of object and complement.

2.3.3.1. Intensive and Extensive Verbs:
In sentences which have subject complements, the verbs are called **Intensive Verbs**.
Hari is a *painter* (subject complement)
She grew happier *gradually*.

Sometimes they are also called **Linking Verbs.** These verbs are unlike other verbs as they do not tell anything about a subject themselves; instead linking verbs connect the subject to a noun or adjective that helps in describing or providing additional information about the subject. Those nouns or adjectives are called the subject complements.

e.g.: *Mahindra is particular about salary*.
Here we see the subject is *Mahindra* and the linking verb is **is** which is connecting *Mahindra* to the subject complement '*particular about salary*.

e.g.: *Students are hardworking*.
Here the linking verb is ***are*** which connects the subject. '*Students'* with the subject complement '*hard working*' which is an adjective.

e.g.: *The students **felt** relieved* - The students **are** relieved.
Here ***felt*** is a linking verb as it is simply connecting the subject to the adjective.

All other sentences have **Extensive Verbs**. They are of two types – **Transitive and Intransitive** .

2.3.3.2. Transitive and Intransitive Verbs: There are two types of Action Verbs which describe the Verb and the Subject doing the action and the Object on which the action is done. They are Transitive Verb and Intransitive Verb. Read the following sentences:

The boy hit the wall.
The boss screamed.

The verbs in these sentences differ grammatically.

Transitive Verbs: Transitive verbs are action verbs that have an object to receive that action. In the first sentence above, the direct object *wall* received the action of the verb *hit*.

In the sentence "*The boss screamed*", the verb *screamed* is an intransitive verb.Intransitive verbs are action verbs but unlike transitive verbs, they do not have an object receiving the action. Notice there are no words after the verb '*screamed*'.More examples of intransitive verbs.

e.g.: *Sita cried*. *The watch fell*. *He came*.

In all these examples, the subject is performing the action of the verb and nothing is receiving the action. To sum up, a transitive verb must be an action verb plus there must be an object to receive that action. Intransitive verbs do not have an object.

2.3.3.3. Stative and Dynamic Verbs

Verbs an also be classified depending on whether they can be used in the 'progressive' or 'non-progressive' aspect. We can say
*Sita **searched** the room*.

or Sita ***was searching*** the room.
We can say – *The girl **is** a student* but we cannot say
The girl **is being a student.*
We can say *John **knew** the answer* but we cannot say
John **was knowing the answer.*
[*These sentences are ungrammatical.]

Verbs like search which admit the progressive are called Dynamic and those which do not like *is* and *know* are called Stative. Normally verbs are dynamic in nature and a minority of them is stative.
This category of verbs deals with the verb words themselves, whether they indicate an action in progress or a state of the subject. This category is not concerned with the object in particular.

2.3.4. Categories of Adverbial

There are different kinds of adverbials expressing different meanings. The following are some of the common ones.

Adverbials of Time: An adverbial of time tells us when something is done or happens. We use it at the beginning or at the end of a sentence. Adverbials of time include *afterwards, already, always, immediately, last month, now, soon, then, and yesterday.*

***e.g**. He ran and won the prize **yesterday**.*
***Last month**, I submitted my report.*

Adverbials of Place: An adverbial of place tells us where something is done or happens. We use it after the verb, object or at the end of a sentence. Adverbials of place include words such as *above, below, here, outside, over there, there, under, upstairs.*

***e.g**. He lives Chennai. He went on a picnic.*

Adverbials of Process or Manner: An adverbial of process or manner tells us how something is done or happens. Most adverbs of manner end in –ly such as *badly, happily, sadly, slowly, quickly*, and others that include *well, hard, fast*, etc.

e.g. *The passengers were **badly** injured in the road accident.*
*They had to act **fast** to save others in the bomb blast.*
*At an old age also, she sang very **well**.*

2.4. A PHRASE AND A CLAUSE

Phrase: A phrase is a group of words forming a unit within a clause it does not contain a verb.
Eg.: *A new house; on a building*; *in the shadow; out of order* and *doing nothing*. It does not convey the complete meaning,

There are five kinds of phrases.

1. **Verb phrase**: A verb phrase has an ordinary verb *(see, dance, drink, speak)* and may also have an auxiliary (*had; was; will*) form.
2. **Noun phrase**: A noun phrase has a noun *(vehicle)* which usually has a determiner and/or adjective *(official)* in front of it. A noun phrase can also be a pronoun *(we)* in some contexts.

3. **Adjective phrase:** An adjective phrase has an adjective, sometimes with an adverb of degree *(very)*.
4. **Adverb phrase:** An adverb phrase has an adverb, sometimes with an adverb of degree (*almost)*.
5. **Prepositional phrase:** A prepositional phrase is a combination of preposition (after, on) + noun *(dinner, furniture)* phrase.

Clause: A sentence has one or more clauses. A clause is a group of words with its own subject and verb and forms a sentence or becomes part of a sentence. In the sentence '*Sunitha was happy because she got a job'*, the clauses are *'Sunitha was happy'* and '*because she got a job'*.

2.5. ELEMENT REALIZATION TYPES

So far we have discussed Subject, Verb, Object, Complement and Adverbial as sentence elements.

Sentence elements can be realized by linguistic structures of very different form. The verb element is always a verb *phrase*. This may, as in all the examples used so far, be 'finite' (showing tense, mood, aspect, and voice) or 'non-finite' (not showing tense or mood but still capable of indicating aspect and voice). Whether finite or non-finite, the verb phrase can consist of one word, as in most illustrative sentences so far, or of more than one word, in which case the phrase consists of a 'head verb' preceded by one or more 'auxiliary verbs' as with the verb phrases in the following (the first three finite, the fourth non-finite):

He *had given* the girl an apple
He *may be growing* happier
He *had been challenged* rudely, and *having been challenged* he was angry.

The subject element of a sentence may be a 'clause' as given in the following example:
That she answered the question correctly pleased him.
But it is usually a noun phrase. The noun phrase may be simple having only a pronoun such as *They* or a proper noun such as *John*. But a noun phrase may be an indeterminately long and complex structure having a noun as head, preceded by other words such as an article, an adjective, or another noun, and followed by a prepositional phrase or by a relative clause; it is by no means uncommon to find all such items present in a noun phrase:

The new gas stove in the kitchen which I bought last month has a very efficient oven.

Subject complements, direct objects, and object complements may be realized by the same range of structures as subjects:

i. *He was **the chairman*** – *Subject complement*
ii. *She saw **the chairman** – object*
iii. *They made him **the chairman** – object complement*

But subject and object complements have the additional possibility of being realized by adjective phrases (having an adjective as head), as in

She made him { *happy* / *very much happier*

Indirect objects, on the other hand, have fewer possibilities than subjects, and their realizations are chiefly noun phrases, as in

He had given *the girl* an apple.

Unlike direct objects and subjects, they cannot be realized be realized by that –clauses.

Finally, adverbials can be realized (a) by adverb phrases, having an adverb as head; (b) by noun phrases; (c) by prepositional phrases – that is, structures consisting of a noun phrase dominated by a preposition' and (d) by clauses, finite or non-finite:

(a) John *very carefully* searched the room. (adverb phrase)
(b) They make him the chairman *every year*. (noun phrase)
(c) She studied *at a large university*. (prepositional phrase)
(d) He grew happier *when his friend arrived*. (finite clause)
(e) *Seeing the large crowd,* John stopped his car. (non-finite clause)

2.6. PARTS OF SPEECH

In the previous section, we saw that Sentence elements are realized by linguistic structures like noun phrase, verb phrase etc. which in turn are composed of units which can be called parts of speech.
The words are divided into various classes. The class denotes the function of the word. In English there are eight parts of speech. In traditional grammar, parts of speech are defined as below.

Noun: A noun is the name of a person, place or thing.
e.g.: ***Dr. Rafeeq*** *is a great scientist. He was born in* ***India.*** *He likes* ***Cake****.*

Pronoun: A Pronoun is used in place of a Noun.
e.g.: *Manasa is absent because* ***she*** *is ill. The bags are where you left* ***them.***

Adjective: An Adjective is a word which tells more about a Noun. It precedes the noun it qualifies.
e.g.: *Shankar is a* ***popular*** *director. David is an* ***excellent*** *batsman.*
e.g: *a* ***brave*** *youngster, a* ***tasty*** *food.*
It can also be at the end of the sentence.
e.g.: *of all the scientists, Albert Einstein is the most* ***popular****.*

Verb: A Verb is a word expressing doing, being or possessing.
e.g.: *She* ***is*** *a professional actress.* (being). *They* ***have*** *a mansion.* (Possessing). *He* ***is*** *typing.* (doing).
The Verb is an essential part of the predicate part of a sentence. The verb also takes the form of a statement, order, question, wish or condition.

Adverb: An Adverb is that word which adds something to the meaning of the verb, an adjective or another adverb.
e.g.: *He arrived* ***early.*** *She left* ***quickly****.*
Preposition: It is that word having relationship with a noun or pronoun. It governs the meaning of a noun. Prepositions are said to be the spice of English language.

e.g.: *He went **to** Mumbai. She came **from** the shopping mall.The laptop is **on** the table.*

Conjunction: It is a link word. It is used to join words, phrases, clauses or sentences.

e.g.: *Shanthi **and** Rosy are cousins. I ran fast, **but** missed the bus.*
*He is known as a noble man **because** of his good deeds.*

Interjection: It is a word expressing some sudden or intense feeling or emotion like fear, happiness, sorrow, pity, anger etc.

e.g.: ***Hurrah!*** *The Indian Cricket team won the World Cup.*
Alas! *He lost everything in betting.*

However, linguists and modern grammarians criticize these definitions as being too simple, inaccurate and vague.

Various Functions of a Word: In English, the same word can be used in different parts of speech depending upon the context or meaning of the word. A few examples are given below:

He is very weak and ***needs*** rest (verb)
Our ***needs*** are many (Noun)
A square thing does not fit into a ***round*** hole. (adjective)
Draw a circle ***round*** a given centre (preposition)
The files are flying ***round*** *and round* (adverb)

The parts of speech can be divided into two groups, (a) and (b)

2.6.1. Open –class Items and closed – system items

Set (a) includes the following Parts of Speech

Noun – John, room, answer, play
Adjective - happy, steady, new, large, round
Adverb – steadily, completely, really, very, then
Verb – search, grow, play, he, have, do

Items in set (a) comprises 'open classes'. They have the same grammatical properties and structural possibilities as other members of the class (that is, as other nouns or verbs of adjectives or adverbs respectively), but the class is 'open' in the sense that it is indefinitely extendable. New items are constantly being created and no one could make an inventory of all the nouns in English and be confident that it was complete.

Set (b) includes the following Parts of Speech

Article – the, a(n)
Demonstrative – that , this
Pronoun – he, they, anybody, one, which
Preposition – of, at, in, without, in spite of
Conjunction – and, that, when, although
Interjection – oh,ah,

Set (b) comprises what are called 'closed-system' items. The sets of items are *closed* in the sense that they cannot normally be extended by the creation of additional members: a moment's reflection is enough for us to realize how rarely in a language we invent or adopt a new or additional pronoun. It requires no great effort to list all the members in a closed system, and to be reasonable sure that the list is complete.

The distinction between 'open' and 'closed' parts of speech must be treated cautiously, however. On the one hand, we must not exaggerate the case with which we create new words: we certainly do not make up new nouns as a necessary part of speaking. Although they have deceptively specific labels, the parts of speech tend in fact to be rather heterogeneous. The adverb and the verb are perhaps especially mixed classes, each having small and fairly well-defined groups of closed – system items alongside the indefinitely large open-class items. So far as the verb is concerned, the closed-system subgroup is known by the well-established term 'auxiliary'. With the adverb, one may draw the distinction broadly between those in *–ly* that correspond to adjectives (*complete-ly)* and those that do not have. For example *now, there, forward, very, etc*.

2.6.2. Stative and Dynamic Words

The open classes have some notable general characteristics. We have just seen that adverbs of the productive class are in a one-to-one relation with adjectives. There is a direct correspondence between most adjectives and adverbs, the latter usually consists of the former plus –'ly'

eg.: severe – severely.

Similarly there are regular word-formation processes giving a comparable one-for-one relation between nouns and adjectives, and between nouns and verbs. For the rest, it is useful to see nouns, adjectives and verbs in connection with the opposition of stative and dynamic introduced earlier. Broadly speaking, nouns and adjectives can be characterized naturally as **'stative'**. On the other hand, verbs and adverbs can be equally naturally characterized as **'dynamic'**.

However, it is essential to realize that these primary distinctions are in the nature of general characteristics rather than immutable truths. The value of a language lies in its flexibility. Thus we can take a normally dynamic item (say the verb in 'He *wrote* the book') and 'nominalize' it ('The *writing* of the book'), pretending – as it were – to see the action as a static 'thing'. So also the verb tax beside the noun taxation. Again, the name 'participle' reflects the fact that such a form participates in the features both of the *verb* ('the girl is sitting there') and of the *adjective* ('the sitting girl').

2.7. PRO-FORMS

Pro-forms are not really part of grammar, and this topic could be discussed under short form or substitution. A pro-form is a word that replaces a previously mentioned word or expression or idea and takes its meaning. Pro-forms have a similar function to pronouns.

Pro-nouns: Conventionally, a pronoun is a word that stands for a noun. More usually pronouns replace noun phrases rather than nouns.

e.g.*: The man* invited the *little Indian girl* because *he* liked *her*.

Pronouns are considered to stand for groups of words including sentences and even for ideas, inferred from the text. It is sometimes useful, however, to be aware that some words stand for other parts of speech.

e.g.: *Kokila ran towards the office. Others too did the same.*

In this sentence, *did* means *ran*. Clearly, *did* isn't a pronoun (it replaces a verb), although it has the substituting quality of pronouns. We can think of *did* as a pro-verb. The word *too* is also a pro-form replacing *the office* and adding the normal adverb *too*, meaning *in addition to the previously mentioned* (Kokila).

Pro-adjectives: In the following example**,** the word *too* is a pro-adjective, standing for the adjective 'beautiful'.

e.g.: *Her dress is beautiful. Mine is too.*

Again we could have written the sentence using 'so' instead of 'too'*:*
Her dress is beautiful. So is mine – where 'so' is a pro-adjective meaning *beautiful*.

Pro-adverbs: In the sentence below the word *too* stands for regularly, so it is a pro-adverb. 'Did' stands for attended, and is a pro-verb

e.g.: *He attended classes regularly. I did too.*

Other Pro-forms: Pro-forms can replace other expressions, such as sentences:
You should not walk on the grass. Farahath did not notice ***this****.*
The word, *this*, stands for the rule about not walking on the grass.

2.8. QUESTION AND NEGATION

Types of questions: There are two types of questions: (i) Wh questions (ii) Yes or no answer questions

2.8.1. Wh-questions:

Wh-questions begin with *what, when, where, who, whom, which*, *whose*,*why* and *how*. We use them to ask for information. The answer cannot be *yes* or *no*

When *do you finish college? Next year.*
Who *is your favourite actor? Salman Khan for sure!*

We usually form *wh*-questions with *wh-* + an auxiliary verb (*be, do* or *have*) + subject + main verb with *wh-* + a modal verb + subject + main verb:

What have they decided?

If *what, who, which* or *whose* is the subject or part of the subject, we do not use the auxiliary. We use the word order subject + verb:
Who purchased the cell phone?

2.8.2. Yes-no questions:

Yes or no questions are questions whose expected answer is either "yes" or "no". In English, a special word order (Verb+Subject+ Object) is used to form yes-no questions. If the main verb of the sentence is "be", simply invert the subject and the verb be:

They are American. – Are they American? They are nice. – Are they nice?

If the sentence includes a main verb and another or other helping (auxiliary) verb(s), invert the subject and the helping (auxiliary) verb, discussed earlier as 'operator'.

They are visiting Hyderabad. – Are they visiting *Hyderabad?*
She has done the homework – Has she done *the homework?*
I like *painting – **Do** you like painting*?
*They go to college. – **Do** they go to college*?
Johnny reads a lot. *– **Does** Jonny read a lot*?
*He hates sweets. – **Does** he hate sweets?*

If the verb is in the past tense, add **did** and put the main verb in its base form:

*He discovered the truth. - **Did** he discover the truth?*
*She wrote a nice essay. - **Did** she write a nice essay?*
They did *the homework – **Did** they* do *the homework?*

2.8.3. Negation and Non-Assertion

While a *yes-no* question normally challenges the validity of a predication as a whole, negation rejects it. And like *yes-no* questions, negative sentences involve the operator, requiring the insertion of ***not*** between the operator and the predication. For example:

The girl isn't a student.
John did not search the room.
He hadn't given the girl an apple.

We need to see a further similarity between questions and negations. We call sentence [1] below as an assertion.
He offered her some chocolates. [1]

A sentence can be non-assertive either by being negative or by being a question.
It means that *assertion* involves both 'positive' and 'declarative' while *non-assertion* has a subsystem either 'negative' or 'interrogative'. In a sentence,
I like chocolates. I do not like chocolates.

For questions, the same verb form is used as for the corresponding negative statement, but the subject is placed after **not** and the contracted forms of the negative verbs are normally used.

He does not eat meat. Doesn't he eat meat?
I have not seen him. Haven't you seen him?

We can see that 'interrogative' has a closer relationship to 'negative' because both of them come under the label 'non-assertion'. Also some is used in a positive – declarative sentence as in [1] above whereas any is used in the corresponding question [1q] and negation [1n].

Did the offer her any chocolates? [1q]

He didn't offer her any chocolates. [1n]

2.9. SUMMARY

This lesson has described certain prominent features of English sentence structure. These features need to be understood as they will occur frequently in the successive lessons on

grammar. So in this lesson we have an overview of English grammatical terms and structures by simplifying the description.

2.10. SELF- ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the elements of a sentence?
2. Discuss types of sentence structure with suitable examples
3. How many parts of speech are there in English Language? What are they?
4. Explain pro-forms with at least two examples.
5. What is the difference between transitive verbs and intransitive verbs? Explain with suitable examples.
6. What are the main categories of Verbs?
7. Distinguish between assertion and non-assertion.
8. What are the different types of questions?
9. Classify adverbials according to their nature.
10. How do stative verbs differ from dynamic verbs?

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Lesson Writer**: Dr. V. Parvati**

LESSON 3
VERBS AND VERB PHRASE STRUCTURE

Structure of the lesson

3.0. OBJECTIVES

- To make students acquainted with the definition of a verb and its categories.
- To understand the morphology of regular and irregular lexical verbs.
- To make learners use modal auxiliaries contextually and realize their functions.
- To let students look at certain outstanding features of verb forms in sentences.
- To prepare students to frame sentences confidently on their own using diverse verbs.

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In this lesson we will discuss the structure of the Verb Phrase in terms of main verb and auxiliary verb. In the process we will discuss the different subclasses of these verbs. The different forms of the verb and their functions are also examined. Attention is also drawn to contrasting features found in the Verb Phrase such as finite and non-finite, active and passive voice, emphasis, question and negation. Other features of the verb phrase such as tense will be the focus of the next lesson.

Verbs are words which refer to actions (go, teach, swim, run, etc.), or to states (be, seem, appear).A verbal is a word which indicates a situation - type - being (state), happening(event) and doing (action)-- or a modality--possibility, certainty, deduction-of the

situation type. A verbal which indicates a modality is a ***modal*** and a verbal which indicates a situation type is a ***verb***.

3.2. TYPES OF VERBS

We begin with a classification relating to the function of items in the verb phrase. Verbs can be classified into two main groups depending on their functions. **Lexical verb** (Main verb) and **Auxiliary verb**.

Lexical verbs such as *play, drive, jump* are open-ended items in the sense that new verbal words can be added into this category. Auxiliary verbs, on the other hand, belong to the closed system. No fresh auxiliary verb can be added to this category. Auxiliaries can be further classified into two broad groups: **Primary Auxiliary Verbs** and **Modal Auxiliary Verbs.**

Primary Auxiliaries: They are basically three – *Be, Do, Have* with different forms. The primary auxiliaries have a double function in that they can perform the functions both of the Main Verb and the Auxiliary.

e.g*:* She is a teacher (main verb).
She is teaching grammar (auxiliary).
He does the work neatly (main verb).
She does not work carefully. (auxiliary)
I have a house in Hyderabad. (main verb)
They have finished the task. (auxiliary)

Modal Auxiliaries: Modal auxiliaries can function only as supplementary verbs (auxiliary only). Therefore they are also called Helping Verbs. The Modal Auxiliaries are defective in the sense that they cannot have the singular form, an – ing form or an –ed (past participle) form which are normally associated with the Primary Auxiliaries and Lexical Verbs**.** The thirteen Modal Auxiliaries are: 1. Can 2. May 3. Shall 4. Will 5. Could 6. Might 7. Should 8. Would 9. Must 10 Ought to 11. Used to 12. Need 13. Dare.

3.3. VERB FORMS AND THE VERB PHRASE

The structure of the verb phrase: A verb phrase may have only the main verb
e.g. *Your hair **looks** nice*.

There can be one or more auxiliaries before the main verb.

- I *have looked* everywhere.
- We *are looking* for the key.
- You *should have looked* in the drawer.

Meaning in the verb phrase : The choice of tense and auxiliaries depends on meaning – what happens and how we see it.

Verbs have the following forms:

Base	V	*look*
-s form	V-s	*looks*
Past form	V-ed$_1$	*looked*

- ing participle	V-ing	*looking*
Past participle/passive	V-ed$_2$	*looked*

The uses of the verb forms

The base form is used

- in all persons of the present tense except the 3rd person singular:

  I/you/we/they/the students, etc. ***like*** fast food.

- in the imperative :

  Look what you've done!

- in the infinitive, which may be the bare infinitive (*do*) or the to-infinitive (*to do*):

  We'll tell them what ***to do*** and then let them ***do*** it.

- in the productive subjunctive

  The committee recommends that these new techniques ***be*** implemented at once.

The *-s* form is used in the 3rd person singular of the present tense, which is the only person where the base form is not used:

He/She/The student/Everybody ***wants*** to have a good time.

The *-ed* form is used for both the past tense and the past participle, whereas these are distinct (e.g. *gave – given*) for many irregular verbs

- Unlike the present tense, the past tense has only one form in all persons:

  I/You/She/We/They/The students everybody ***wanted*** to have a good time.

- The past participle is used with a form of *have* to form the perfect aspect

  Ms Menon ***has asked*** me to contact you.

- The past participle is used with a form of *be* to form the passive

  The watchman ***was given*** special instructions.
  The plans ***have been changed***

- The past participle is used to form *-ed* participle clauses:

  The drugs were found ***hidden*** in the mattress.

  I also heard it mentioned by somebody else.

- The past participle can also become an adjective and can modify a noun:

  His ***injured back*** puts a stop to his career as an athlete.

The *-ing* form is used

- to form the progressive:

Lily ***is working*** on a Ph.D. thesis in information science.

- to form *-ing* participle clauses

  It's a trick learned ***while recovering from the mumps.***

- The *-ing* form can also become an adjective and can modify a noun

  It was a ***fascinating*** performance.

- The *-ing* form can also become a noun describing an action or state:

  The ***telling*** of stories is an important tradition in many societies.

3.4. LEXICAL VERBS

The Morphology

Lexical verbs are discussed under two heads: **regular** (such as *walk*) and **irregular** (such as *drive*). In all of them, the *-s* form and *-ing* participle are predictable from the base form. They differ in that the *-ed*$_1$ and *-ed*$_2$ forms in irregular verbs cannot be predicted from the base.

3.5. REGULAR LEXICAL VERBS

A regular verb is a verb that adds a regular suffix *–d* or *–ed* to form its past tense and past participle. 'Regular' also means that we can state *all* the Verb forms once we know its base form, i.e. the basic uninflected form, which is the entry form in dictionaries.

Love, loved, loved *hope, hoped, hoped*
Call, called, called *help, helped, helped*

In irregular verbs we cannot predict the *–ed*$_1$, and *–ed*$_2$ forms.

Regular lexical verbs have the following forms:

Base	V	*call*	*like*	*try*
- ing participle	V-ing	*calling*	*liking*	*trying*
-s form	V-s	*calls*	*likes*	*tries*
past/-ed participle	V-ed	*called*	*liked*	*tried*

V-ed means In regular, *-ed*$_1$and *-ed*$_2$ are the same, so it is shown as V-ed.

The vast majority of English verbs belong to this regular class. Furthermore, all new verbs that are coined or borrowed from other languages adopt this pattern (Quirk & Greenbaum 2012).

3.5.1. Pronunciation of inflections:

The *-ing* and *-s* forms

The *–ing* form is a straightforward addition to the base form of the verb but there are changes in pronunciation.

Pass ~ passing *weep ~ weeping*

Syllabic /l/ ceases to be syllabic before the inflection (as in *whistle, whistling),* and whether or not speakers pronounce final 'r' (as in pour), the 'r' is pronounced before the inflection.

The -s form is also predictable from the base. It has three spoken realizations: /IZ/, /Z/, and /S/, and two spellings, *-s* and *-es*.

- ✓ Pronounced /IZ/ after bases ending in voiced or voiceless sibilants and spelled –'es' unless the base already ends in –e. e.g.
  - *press ~ presses*
  - *praise ~ praises*
  - *fetch ~ fetches*
  - *budge ~ budges*
  - *push ~ pushes*
  - *camouflage ~ camouflages*
- ✓ Pronounced /Z/ and spelled –s after bases ending in other voiced sounds, e.g.
  sigh ~ sighs *sob ~ sobs* *glow ~ glows*
  Note: *do ~ does, go ~ goes, Have ~ has*
- ✓ Pronounced /s/ and spelled –s after bases ending in other voiceless sounds, e.g.
  sit ~ sits *lack ~ lacks* *tap ~ taps*

The Past and the *–ed* Participle

The past (V-ed_1) and the *-ed* participle (V-ed_2) of regular verbs (spelled *-ed* unless the base ends in –e) have three spoken realizations:

- /Id/ after bases ending in /d/ and /t/, e.g.
  - *guide ~ guided*
  - *wait ~ waited*
- /d/ after bases ending in voiced sounds other than /d/, e.g.
  - *bang ~ banged*
  - *judge ~ judged*
- /t/ after bases ending in voiceless sounds other than /t/, e.g.
  - *kick ~ kicked*
  - *sap ~ sapped*

3.5.2. Spelling Rules of Inflections

Doubling of Consonant: Final base consonants (except x) are doubled before inflections beginning with a vowel letter when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter:

jar	*jarring*	*jarred*
sub'mit	*sub'mitting*	*sub'mitted* (stress on second syllable)

There is no doubling when the vowel is unstressed or written with two letters:

'wonder	*'wondering*	*'wondered (stress on first syllable)*
tread	*treading*	*treaded*

However, there are exceptions to this rule in several words and also differences between British and American spellings.

Treatment of *–y*: In bases ending in a consonant + *y*, the following changes occur before inflections that do not begin with *i*:

carry ~ carries *carry ~ carried* but *carry ~ carrying*

The past of the following two verbs has a change *y – i* also after a vowel:

lay ~ laid *pay ~ paid*

Say ~ said has the same change of spelling but, in addition, a change of vowel;

In bases ending in *–ie*, the *ie* is replaced by *y* before the *–ing* inflection:

die ~ dying *lie ~ lying*

Deletion of *-e* : Final *–e* is regularly dropped before the *–ing* and *–ed* inflections:

shave *shaving* *shaved*

Verbs with bases in *–ee, -ye, -oe,* and often *–ge* are exceptions to this rule in that they do not drop the *–e* before *–ing*; but they do drop it before *–ed*, as do also forms in *–ie (tie ~ tied)*:

- *-ee:* *agree* *agreeing* *agreed*
- *-ye:* *dye* *dyeing* *dyed*
- *-oe:* *hoe* *hoeing* *hoed*

3.6. IRREGULAR LEXICAL VERBS

Most English verbs are regular, but there are over 200 main verbs that are irregular. As mentioned earlier, Irregular Lexical verbs differ from regular verbs in the following ways: Irregular verbs either do not have a / d/ or /t/ inflection (*drink ~ drank ~ drunk)* or break the rule for a voiced inflection (eg: *burn ~ burnt /t/,* beside the regular *burned /d/)*. Irregular verbs typically, but not necessarily, have variation in their base vowel: *find ~ found ~ found; write ~ wrote ~ written*.

Irregular verbs have varying number of distinct forms. Since the *–s* and *–ing* forms are predictable for regular and irregular verbs, we can focus only on the base (V), the past (V *–ed*$_1$) and the past participle (V-*ed*$_2$). Leech and Svartvik (2002) distinguish three main types of irregular verbs:

i. all three parts are identical: cut – cut – cut, let – let – let
ii. two parts are identical: spend – spent – spent, come – came – come
iii. all three parts are different: blow – blew – blown, speak – spoke – spoken

But within these groups, considerable variation exists. Quirk & Greenbuam give the following classification.

3.6.1. Classes of Irregular Lexical Verbs:

CLASS 1: V-ed$_1$ is identical with V-ed$_2$. . Suffixation is used but voicing is variable. Vowel is the same in all the parts .E.g. *burn – burnt, bend – bent, have – had*

CLASS 2: V-ed$_1$ is identical with V-ed$_2$; Suffixation is used but voicing is variable**.** Change of base vowel. E.g. *cleave – cleft; creep – crept; bring – brought; lose – lost, tell – told etc*.

CLASS 3: All three parts V, V-ed$_1$, and V-ed$_2$ are identical. No suffix or change of the base vowel. E.g. *hurt, bet, shed, wet, slit, cost, quit, sweat, spread, cut, rid, etc*.

CLASS 4: V-ed$_1$ is identical with V-ed$_2$. No suffixation. Change of base vowel.

E.g. *bleed–bled, cling–clung, bind–bound, light–lit, sit–sat, get–got, fight–fought,*

stand–stood, stride – strode, etc.

CLASS 5: V-ed$_1$ is regular; V-ed$_2$ has two forms, one regular, the other nasal.

E.g. *sew–sewed–sewn, shear–sheared–shorn, show–showed–shown,*

swell–swelled – swollen, sow–sowed–sown, etc.

CLASS 6: V-ed$_1$ and V-ed$_2$ are irregular, the latter always suffixed and usually with -(e)n.

There are subclasses as follows:

A: V-ed$_1$ and V-ed$_2$ have the same vowel:

E.g. *break–broke–broken, choose–chose–chosen, etc.*

B: V and V –ed$_2$ have the same vowel :

E.g.*blow–blew–blown, throw–threw–thrown, forsake–forsook–forsaken, etc.*

C: all three parts have different vowels:

E.g. *drive–drove–driven, fly–flew–flown, do–did–done, etc.*

D: all three parts have the same vowel:

E.g. *beat – beat – beaten, etc.*

E: V and V –ed$_2$ have different vowels:

E.g. *dive–dove–dived, thrive–throve–thrived, etc.*

CLASS 7: V-ed$_1$ and V-ed$_2$ are irregular, there is no suffixation but there is always some vowel change.

E.g. *begin–began–begun, ring–rang–rung,*
come–came–come, run–ran–run, etc.

Note: Some of these irregular verbs also have the regular *–ed* form.

3.7. AUXILIARY VERBS

Auxiliary Verbs are also called 'helping verbs'. They are a small class of words including primary auxiliaries like *be* and modal auxiliaries like *can* and *will*. Auxiliaries do not make up a verb phrase on their own but help to make up a verb phrase in combination with a main verb
(such as *work*).

I *am working* today.
I *can work* at weekends also.

3.7.1. The Primary Auxiliaries *do, have, be*

Do helps to form the *do* – construction:

Meena *didn't* write to me.

Have helps to form the perfective aspect:

She *has written* a novel.

Be also helps to form the progressive aspect:

She *was working* hard.

You must *be* joking.

Be also helps to form the passive:

It *has been shown* in several studies that these results can be verified.

Do: The auxiliary *do* has the following forms:

Non-negative – *do,does,did;* Uncontracted Negative – *do not, does not, did not*; Contracted negative – don't doesn't, didn't

Have: The auxiliary *have* has the following forms: Non-negative---*have, ve; has; 's; had,'d, etc*. Uncontracted Negative---*have not, has not, had not; contracted negative: haven't, hasn't hadn't*

Be: The lexical and auxiliary verb *be* is unique among English verbs in having eight different forms with reference to person, number and tense: Non-negative – *am, is, arr;* Uncontracted Negative---*am not, is not, are not*; Contracted Negative – *isn't, wasn't, aren't, weren't*.

3.7.2. The modal Auxiliaries:

The modal auxiliary verbs help to express a variety of meanings, such as intention, future time and ability.

I *will go* abroad to teach English.
We *can catch* the train in time.

[We will focus more on modal meanings in lesson 4.]

The modal auxiliaries do not have *-s* form, *-ing* form, or *-ed* participle. *Can, may, shall, will* have the special past forms *could, might, should, would*. The other modal auxiliaries (*must, dare, need, ought to, used to*) do not have past forms.

Positive	Uncontracted negative	Contracted negative
can	cannot, can not	can't
could	could not	couldn't
may	may not	(may n't) <rare>
might	might not	mightn't
shall	shall not	shan't <rare esp. in AmE>
should	should not	shouldn't
will, 'll	will not, 'll not	won't
would, 'd	would not, 'd not	wouldn't
must	must not	mustn't
ought to	ought not to	oughtn't to
used to	used not to	didn't use(d) to, usedn't to
need	need not	needn't
dare	dare not	daren't

Note: Used to, need, and dare as auxiliaries are rare in all forms

3.7.3. Marginal Modal Auxiliaries:

The modal auxiliaries are called marginal modal auxiliaries.

Used always takes the to-infinitive and occurs only in the past tense. It may take the *do*-construction, in which case the spellings *didn't used to* and *didn't use to* both occur. The interrogative construction *used he to* is especially BrE; *did he used to* is preferred in both American English and British English.

Dare and *need* can be constructed either as modal auxiliaries (with bare infinitive and with no inflected –s form). The modal verb construction is restricted to non-assertive contexts i.e. mainly negative and interrogative sentences, whereas the lexical verb construction can always be used and is in fact the more common. *Dare* and *need* as auxiliaries are probably rarer in American English and British English.

E.g.: *He needs to go now.(positive) – He need not go now. (negative)*
Need he go now? (interrogative) – Needn't he go now? (negative interrogative)

3.7.4. Functions of Auxiliaries

- Auxiliaries help in the formation of Interrogatives.
  e.g.: *He can break the stick. Can he break the stick?*
- They help in the formation of negatives.
  e.g.: *He sings a song. He does not sing a song.*
- They help in the formation of negative interrogatives.
  e.g.: *Will you like that book? Won't you take that book?*
- They help in the formation of question tags.
  e.g.: *He swims. He swims, doesn't he?*
- They help in the formation of short answers.
  e.g.: *Do you sing songs? Yes, I do. No, I don't.*
- They help in the formation of absolute sentences.
  e.g.:*You did complete the project in time.*

3.8. FINITE AND NON-FINITE VERB PHRASES

A finite verb is one that changes according to subject and tense or has a modal verb. *Writes, wrote, will write, may come, can swim* are finite verbs.

If a finite verb phrase has more than one verb, the finite verb in the first one because it carries the tense.

The strike *had been planned*.
He *was working* for the company.

In the above sentences *was* and *had* are the finite verbs.

The verb forms operate in finite and non-finite verb phrases, which are distinguished as follows:

Finite verb phrases have tense distinction between present and past.

He { *studies* / *studied* } English

Finite verb phrases occur as the verb element of a clause. There is person and number concord between the subject and the finite verb. Concord is particularly overt with 'be' forms.

I + *am* You/we/they + *are* He/she/it + is

With most lexical verbs, concord is restricted to a contrast between 3rd and non – 3rd person singular present:

He *reads*
They *read* } the paper every morning

With the modal auxiliaries there is, however, no concord:

I/you/he/we/they *can* play cricket.

The non-finite forms of the verb are the infinitive *((to) call)*, the *–ing* participle (calling), and the *–ed* participle (called). Non – finite verb phrases consist of one or more such items. Non-finite verbs do not show a contrast of tense or number. The following are examples. Compare:

Infinitives: (to) write (to) come (to) swim (to) walk
Gerunds: writing, coming, swimming, walking
Participles: writing, written, coming, come, swimming, swim, walking, walked.

Finite Verb Phrases	**Non-finite Verb Phrase**
He d*rives* rashly.	*To drive* like that must be dangerous
He is *sleeping*.	*I* found him *sleeping*.
He *had been offended before*.	*Having been offended* before, he was sensitive.

3.9. COMBINATION OF VERBS

When a verb phrase consists of more than one verb, there are certain rules for how the verbs be combined. There are four basic verb combinations of the modal, perfective, progressive and passive auxiliaries in the complex verb phrase:

A. Modal, always followed by an infinitive, as in : We can *do* something.
B. Perfective, always followed by an *–ed* form, as in : *He had visited. He would have visited*.
C. Progressive, always followed by an *–ing* form, as in :*He was visiting, He would have been visiting* .
D. Passive, always followed by an *–ed* form, as in : He was forgiv*en* for his mistake.

These four basic combinations may also combine with each other to make up longer strings of verbs in a single verb phrase.

1. He would have visited her.
2. He would have been visiting.
3. He was visited by his aunt.
4. He may be visiting his relatives.
5. He has been visited often.

3.10. CONTRASTS EXPRESSED IN THE VERB PHRASE

In addition to the contrasts of tense, aspect, and mood which will be dealt with in the next lesson, we can list here the other major constructions which affect the verb phrase or in which the verb – phrase contrasts play an important part.

- *Voice,* involving the active-passive relation, as in:
  The manager will interview the applicants.(active)
  The applicants will be interviewed by the manager.(passive)
- *Questions* requiring subject movement involve the use of an auxiliary as operator:
  John will sing. ~ Will John sing?
  John sang. ~ Did John sing?
- *Negation* makes similar use of operators, as in :
  John will sing. ~ John won't sing?
  John sang. ~ John didn't sing?
- *Emphasis,* which is frequently carried by the operator as in :
  John WILL sing! John DID sing!
- *Imperatives,* as in *Go home, John; you go home, John;*
  Don't (you) go yet; Let's go home.

3.11. SUMMARY

This lesson on *Verbs* is written to talk about functions of the five verb forms in English language. In their conjugated form, they enable us to form clauses, either as complete sentences or as dependent clauses. They also appear as infinitives (*to* verbs), as present participles (*-ing* verbs), and as past participles (ordinarily *-ed* verbs). In these three forms, they
appear as phrases.

We have discussed the types of verbs and subclassified them. Attention has been drawn to modal auxiliaries and their meanings. We have also noted several contesting features found in verb phrases such as finite & non-finite, voice, question and negation etc. The next lesson will deal with the other features of the Verb Phrase. The exercises have been devised to help the student for testing himself.

3.12. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the types of verbs? Explain with examples..
2. How many classes of irregular lexical verbs are there? Exemplify them.
3. What are the main functions of auxiliaries?
4. What are the spelling rules in changing the verb forms? Explain with suitable examples.
5. What are finite and non-finite verb phrases?

3.13. REFERENCES

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2. F.T. Wood, *A Remedial English Grammar for Foreign Students,* Macmillan Publishers, 1974.
3. David Green, *Contemporary English Grammar Structures & Composition,* Macmillan Publishers India Limited, 2000.
4. John Eastwood, *Oxford Guide to English Grammar,* Oxford University Press, 2005.
5. Geoffrey Leech, Margaret Deuchar and Robert Hoogenraad, *English Grammar for Today,* Palgrave, 2005.

Exercise-1

Match the following:

A		B
1. lexical and auxiliary verbs	(e)	a. passive voice
2. Can	(f)	b. weak verbs
3. pen was given	(a)	c. transitive verb
4. regular verbs are called	(b)	d. clausal unit
5. has an object	(c)	e. types of verbs
		f. auxiliary verb

Exercise-2

Rewrite the following sentences using modals given in the brackets:

1. Have you strength to climb those stairs? (can)
2. It is highly in probable that I win the elections, but I shall certainly give a good fight. (may not).
3. It is not possible for her to pass the interview. (cannot)
4. It is possible that the local election are postponed. (may)
5. It is too weak to walk. He will have to go by an auto. (can't)
6. Would you mind if I left the office early today.(could)
7. He is not permitted to attend the meeting. (can't)
8. I'd let you write your test with my fountain pen. (can)
9. It is possible for her to fly a plane. (can)
10. The results expected by now. (should have)

Exercise-3

Fill in the blanks with suitable words taken from those given in the brackets.

1. The Israeli spies were _____ in Iraq (hanged, hung)

2. The bucket _____ in the mid air at the end of a rope. (hanged, hung)

3. There _____ my lost watch in the midst of a cluster of small plants. (lied, lay, laid)
4. I _____ down the telephone in great indignation. (lied, lay, laid)
5. The manuscript had _____ on his shelf for 20 years without seeing the light of day. (lied, lain, laid)

Exercise-4

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate forms of be, have, do as auxiliaries:

1. I shall go to Calcutta after I ____ finished my work here.
2. She _____ playing the piano when I entered the room
3. The boy _____ become unconscious before the doctor came.
4. _____ you ever been to Darjeeling?
5. That is what he _____ not seem to understand.

Note: As the prescribed textbook for this course is *A University Grammar of English* by Randolph Quirk, and Sidney Greenbaum, it was taken as the main source for content and format to write this lesson on *Verbs*. However examples have also been taken from other books of descriptive grammar.

Lesson Writer: **Dr. V. Parvati**

LESSON – 4

THE VERB PHRASE – TENSE, ASPECT AND MOOD

Structure of the lesson

4.0. OBJECTIVES

The lesson is written with the objectives of enabling the student to:

- understand the relation between tense and time.
- learn the principle parts of verbs and their tenses correctly, and avoid inconsistencies in verb tense
- recognize the present and past tenses of regular and irregular verbs, and their uses
- recognize verb forms in the progressive and perfect tenses
- comprehend that verbs change form depending on their relationship to time and how helping verbs function in verb phrases.
- introduce the concepts of tense, aspect and mood
- be familiar with verbal analysis in modern descriptive grammar

4.1. INTRODUCTION

From the discussion in Lesson 2, we know that the Verb is an important functional element in an English sentence. It has a close grammatical relationship with the subject and any other predicate element. In order to perform the full grammatical function, the verb must have the important characteristic called Tense. In English, tense is used to show when something happens. There are two tenses to an English verb: Present Tense and Past Tense. There is no future tense in English.

Students familiar with traditional grammar may find this statement strange. Tense is a grammatical category seen in the form or shape of the verb i.e. its inflections. In English we know that walk is in the present tense and walked is in the past tense because of the inflection -ed. But there is no inflection for a future tense in the English verb walk. Traditionally grammarians say that will walk is the future tense of walk. This mistake is because of mixing up tense and time reference. From Lesson 5 we know that will is a 'modal auxiliary' which is in the present tense while would is in the past. This is similar to the other modals with a distinction between present and past tenses. See the examples below.

Can – could; may – might; shall – should; will – would.

So we cannot say that will walk is in the future tense. In a sentence like 'I will go to London next month' - the verb is in the present tense but has future time reference – 'next month' which is an adverbial. Futurity can be expressed through many forms. In English one tense form does not convey one period of time alone.

Tense is a matter of inflexion and it is used to express how the verbal action is performed. There is an arbitrary relation between Tense and Time. Time is a natural phenomenon and a semantic label whereas tense is a grammatical quality. It enables us to use the two tense forms – present and past – to express different meanings associated with time – Present, Past and Future. In this lesson we have examples of Past and Present tenses and ways of referring to future time, the common mistakes made when using these tenses, and their correct usage.

4.2. TENSE, ASPECT, AND MOOD

Time is a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present, and future. Each verb has three characteristics – Tense, Aspect and Mood. Tense is a grammatical category which is different in different languages. Tense can be understood as a correspondence between the form of the verb and our concept of time. Aspect refers to the manner in which the verbal action is experienced. Therefore we can have different aspects like indefinite (action will never be complete), continuous (Progressive) and perfect (action over). Mood is related to the verbal action and its connection to certain conditions like necessity, possibility, compulsion etc. We have Modal Auxiliaries to express the mood of a verbal action.

Eg: It may rain today (possibility).
I must go this afternoon (compulsion)
He ought to attend to this work (obligation)

In fact, however, to a great extent these three categories impinge on each other: in particular, the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect, and the expression of the future is closely bound up with mood. (Quirk & Greenbaum, 2006)

4.3. TENSE AND ASPECT

Thus English has two simple tenses (past and present) and two aspects (the progressive and the perfect). We here consider the present and past tenses in relation to the progressive and perfective aspects. Considering the different verb forms and their relevance to the verbal action, we can have eight possibilities to express the various meanings to time. They are:

1. The Simple Present (Present Indefinite)

2. The Present Progressive
3. The Present Perfect
4. The Present Perfect Progressive.
5. The Simple Past (Past Indefinite)
6. The Past Progressive
7. The Past Perfect
8. The Past Perfect Progressive.

Let us examine each of them in some detail.

4.4. THE PRESENT

Quirk & Greenbaum distinguish three basic types of present: Timeless, Limited and Instantaneous present

The Simple Present : The verb in the simple present tense form is very simple in the sense that it does not have any participle varieties. E.g.: Birds fly in the sky.

The simple present form is used in following:

a) Timeless present is expressed with the simple present form, which has two functions: To express universal truths.

E.g.: The earth is round. The sun rises in the east.

To express habitual actions:

E.g: He gets up at six o' clock everyday. She hates coffee. He writes ten pages a day.

Habitual actions are normally associated with the use of the time-adverbial.

b) Limited present is expressed with the present progressive:

I am writing (on this occasion) with a special pen (since I have mislaid my ordinary one)

The Present Progressive can also be used to express habitual action with time adverbials but with sense of disapproval and derogation.

E.g.: He is always wearing black shoes
She is always asking questions in the class.

Present continuous is also associated with the futurity.

E.g.: I am leaving for Hyderabad at 5 o' clock this evening.

c) Instantaneous, i.e. any action taking place at the moment (running commentary etc.) expressed with either the simple (especially in a series) or the progressive form:

E.g.: John passes the ball to David and he kicks it into the goal.

As you see, I am dropping the stone into the water.

Other uses are:

- With stative verbs. Verbs which do not take – ing forms are called stative verbs. Therefore only the simple present tense is used instead of a present continuous.

  Eg: I have a house in Hyderabad. (not 'having' a house).

  The fruit tastes sour (not tasting sour).

- Past time. Simple Present tense can also be used to express past time, distant or near. Wherever it refers to the distant past it is called the historical present.

  E.g.: Shakespeare says . . .; Napoleon observes . . .; Gandhi urges us . . .etc.

- Futurity: It is a practice to use simple present tense to express futurity when such futurity happens to be a certainty like the arranged programmes in the future.
  E.g.: The President arrives at 4 p.m. today and immediately leaves for the meeting .

4.5. PRESENT CONTINUOUS (PROGRESSIVE)

The Present continuous is expressed with the following structure.

Be + Verb -ing = is going

am + do -ing = are playing

The Present Continuous is normally used to denote an action in progress, at the time of speaking.

E.g.: John is working at the table.
The child is playing in the front yard.

4.6. THE PAST

The past tense refers to a definite time in the past, which may be identified by an adverbial of past time.

1. An action in the past may be seen as having taken place at a particular point of time; or
2. Over a period; if the latter, the period may be seen as

   a) extending upto the present, or

   b) relating only to the past; if the latter, it may be viewed as

      i) having been completed, or as

      ii) not having been completed

See the examples below:

1. Chandu wrote a poem in 1995.

2.a. He has written poetry since 2000.

2.b.i. He wrote poetry from 2000 to 2006.

2.b.ii. He was writing poetry.

Hypothetical present: Simple Past tense is also used to refer to the present event which is not actually taking place. Therefore it remains only a wish.

Eg: If I were the Prime Minister I would not do that

I wish today were a holiday.

Simple past tense is normally preferred to express the present time where the speaker wants to appear a bit a cautious or polite.

Eg: I wanted to tell you, sir, that …..

4.7. THE PAST AND THE PRESENT PERFECTIVE

It is not the time specified in the sentence but the period relevant to the time specified that must extend to the present. E.g.

He was in prison for ten years (this probably means that 'now he's out')
He has been in prison for ten years (which probably means that 'He's still there')

Indefinite and Definite meanings:

The perfective has the ability to refer to a span of time from earliest memory to the present. So it has an indefiniteness which makes it an appropriate verbal expression for introducing a topic of discourse. As the topic is narrowed down, the emerging definiteness is marked by the simple past as well as in the noun phrases. For example:

He says that he has seen **a** meteor at some time (between earliest memory and the present).

He says that he saw **the** meteor last night that everyone is so excited about.

Compare also: Did you know that Rahul has painted a portrait of Meena?
Did you know that Rahul painted this portrait of Meena?

4.8. PAST PERFECT

Past Perfect Tense is normally associated with the past in the past. Therefore we require a minimum of two past actions related to each other in order to use the Past Perfect. Traditional grammars use the word 'plu perfect' to refer to the past perfect tense.

What was said of the perfect earlier applies to the past perfect, with the complication that the point of current relevance to which the past perfect extends is a point in the past: Thus: (I say now [present] that) When I met him (relevant point in the past) John had lived in Paris for ten years.

E.g.: On reaching the examination hall, she found that she had forgotten to get her calculator.

When we reached the venue, the meeting had begun already.
The express bus had left when I reached the bus station.

In the sentences above there are two past actions or events and the earlier one is expressed in Past Perfect.

The Past Perfect Tense is also used to express actions or events in the past which denote causes or reasons for later actions, related to the past.

E.g.: I wish I had accepted the offer.
She wishes she hadn't given that statement.

The Past Perfect Tense is also used to express an unfulfilled condition in the past.

E.g.: If he had worked hard, he would have succeeded.
(He didn't work hard so he failed)
If he had gone in a train, he would have reached earlier.
(He didn't go in a train so he couldn't reach early).

4.9. THE PAST AND THE PROGRESSIVE

As with the present, the progressive when used with the past specifies the limited duration of an action:

E.g. I was writing with a special pen for a period last night but my hand grew tired.

Past continuous is used to refer to the action in progress in the past. Therefore it is linked to the concept of duration .E.g.: She was playing on the piano when I visited her.

Past Continuous can also be used to express certain habitual things in the past associated with a sense of disapproval. E.g.: John was always wearing the goggles.

Past Continuous (Progressive) expresses a continuing action at some point in the past, when another event took place.
E.g.: While some boys were listening to the lecture in the class, the others were playing in the playground

4.10. THE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE

The Present Perfect Continuous is used to describe an action which began in the past and is going on now with the possibility of continuing further:
E.g.: She has been teaching English since 1984.

Limited duration (or incompleteness) and current relevance can be jointly expressed with the perfect progressive. Compare the meanings of the verb phrases in these sentences.

He has eaten my chocolates (they are all gone)
He was eating my chocolates (but I stopped him)
He has been eating my chocolates (but there are some left)

4.11. VERBAL MEANING AND THE PROGRESSIVE

In lesson 2 we discussed Dynamic verbs and Stative verbs. The progressive occurs only with dynamic verbs (or more accurately, with verbs in dynamic use). Dynamic verbs [A] fall into five classes while the stative verbs [B], which disallow the progressive can be seen as belonging to one of the two classes.

[A] Dynamic

(1) Activity verbs: abandon, ask, beg, call, drink, eat, help, learn, listen, look at, play, rain, read, say, slice, throw, whisper, work, write, etc.,

(2) Process verbs: change, deteriorate, grow, mature, slow down, widen, etc.

Both activity and process verbs are frequently used in progressive aspect to indicate incomplete events in progress.

(3) Verbs of bodily sensation: ache, feel, hurt, itch, etc. These verbs can have either simple or progressive aspect with little difference in meaning.

(4) Transitional event verbs: arrive, die, fall, land, leave, lost etc. These verbs occur in the progressive but with a change of meaning compared with simple aspect. The progressive implies inception, i.e. only the approach to the transition.

(5) Momentary verbs: hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, tap, etc. These verbs have little duration, and thus the progressive aspect powerfully suggests repetition.

[B] Stative

(i) Verbs of inert perception and cognition: abhor, adore, astonish, believe, desire, detest, dislike, doubt, feel, forgive, guess, hate, hear, imagine, impress, intend, know, like, love, mean, mind, perceive, please, prefer, presuppose, realize, recall, recognize, regard, remember, satisfy, see, smell, suppose, taste, think, understand, want, wish, etc. These verbs cannot be used with the progressive form.

Some of these verbs may take other than a recipient subject in which case they belong with the A1 class. See the difference between the two sentences below:

I think you are right [B1].
I am thinking of you all the time [A1]

(ii) Relational verbs: apply to (everyone), be belong to, concern, consist of, contain, cost, depend on, deserve, equal, fit, have, include, involve, lack, matter, need, owe, own, possess, remain (a bachelor), require, resemble, seem, sound, suffice, tend, etc. These verbs have a relational meaning, and do not take the progressive form.

4.12. THE FUTURE

There is no obvious future tense in English corresponding to the time/tense relation for present and past. The future in English is expressed in several ways. For instance, the simple present is used to express the Future. There is a close relationship between futurity, modality and aspect. Future time in English is indicated by means of modal auxiliaries or semi-auxiliaries, or by simple present forms or progressive forms.

E.g.: She leaves tonight
She is leaving tonight

They start the mess on Monday.
They are starting the mess on Monday.

4.12.1. Will and Shall

Will or 'll + infinitive in all persons
Shall + infinitive (in 1st person only; chiefly British English)

I will / shall arrive tomorrow
He' ll be here in half an hour

The future and modal functions of these auxiliaries can hardly be separated, but shall and, particularly will are the closest approximation to a colorless, neutral future. Will for future can be used in all persons throughout the English-speaking world, whereas shall (for 1st person) is largely restricted in this usage to southern British English. The auxiliary construction is also used to refer to a statement seen in the past from a point of orientation in the future: E.g. They will have finished their book by next year.

Note: Other modal auxiliaries can have future reference also: 'He may leave tomorrow'. 'He will possibly leave…'

4.12.2. Be Going to + Infinitive

This construction denotes 'future fulfillment of the present'. Looked at more carefully, be going to has two more specific meanings:
(i)'future of present intention', is used chiefly with personal subjects:

When are you going to get married?

(ii) The other meaning is 'future of present cause', which is found with both personal and non-personal subjects:

She's going to have a baby.
It's going to rain.

Both of these suggest that the event is already 'on the way'. Be going to is not generally used in the main clause of conditional sentences, will / 'll or shall being preferred instead: E.g. If you leave now, you'll never regret it.

4.12.3. Present Progressive

The present progressive refers to a future happening anticipated in the present. Its basic meaning is 'fixed arrangement, plan, or programme':

He's moving to Pune.

Since the progressive is used to denote present as well as future, a time adverbial is often used to clarifying which meaning the verb is being used.

Students are cleaning the campus--- now / later.

4.12.4.. Simple Present

The simple present is regularly used in subordinate clauses that are conditional (introduced by if, unless, etc) or temporal (introduced by as soon as, before, when , etc;):

What will you say if I marry my boss?
The guests will be drunk before they leave.
The train leaves tonight from Chennai.
The train is leaving tonight from Chennai. (plan or programme)

4.12.5. Will/Shall + Progressive

The auxiliary verb construction can be used together with progressive infinitive to denote a 'future-as-a-matter-of-course': will/shall + be+V-ing. The use of this combination avoids the interpretation (to which will, shall, and be going to are liable) of volition, insistence, etc:

He'll do his best (future or volitional interpretation possible)
He'll be doing his best (future interpretation only)

This complex construction can be used to convey greater tact and consideration than the simple auxiliary construction does. For example:

When will you come
When will you be coming?

4.12.6. Be to + Infinitive

This express as (a) arrangement, (b) command, or (c) contingent future:

(a) We are to be married soon
There's to be an investigation
(b) They are to be back by 10 o' clock
(c) If he is to succeed, he must work harder

4.12.7. Be about to + Infinitive

This construction expresses near future, ie. imminent fulfillment:
E.g. The taxi is here and we are about to leave.

Be…. to may enclose other items such as shortly or soon to provide a means of future expression; with other items again (bound, liable, certain, (un) likely), future expression is overlaid with modal meaning:

E.g. He is certain to address the meeting (It is certain that he will address…..)

4.12.8. Future Time in the Past

Some of the future constructions just discussed can be used in the past tense to express time which is in the future when seen from a viewpoint in the past.

- Auxiliary Verb construction with would (rare; literary narrative style)
  The time was not far off when he would regret this decision.

- be going to + Infinitive (often with the sense of 'unfulfilled intention')
  You were going to give me your address.

- Past Progressive
  I was meeting him in Baroda the next day.

- be to + Infinitive (formal= 'was destined' , ' was arranged')
  He was later to regret his decision
  The meeting was to be held the following week

- be about to ('on the point of'): He was about to hit me.

4.13. MOOD

Mood is expressed in English in the following ways

i. to a very minor extent by the subjunctive as in: So be it then!
ii. Mood is expressed in English to a much greater extent by past tense forms, as in: If you taught me, I would learn quickly.

iii. But above all, by means of the modal auxiliaries, as in :
iv. It is strange that he should have left so early.

4.13.1. The Subjunctive

Three categories of subjunctive may be distinguished:
This subjunctive can be used with any verb in subordinate that-clauses when the main clause contains an expression of recommendation, resolution, demand and so on.

Eg. We demand/require/insist/suggest that ----

(a) The Mandative Subjunctive in that - clauses has only one form, the base (V).
Sita insists that Ram leave immediately.
It is/was necessary that every member inform himself of these rules.

In these sentences we can observe the following

- Lack of the usual concord between subject and finite verb in the 3rd person singular present
- no distinction between present and past tenses.

The use of this form is more common in formal style in American English.

In less formal contexts, to-infinitive or should + infinitive are used.
It is/was necessary that every member should inform himself of these rules.
It is/was necessary for every member to inform himself of these rules.

(b) The Formulaic Subjunctive also consists of the base (V) but is only used in clauses in certain set expressions which have to be learned as wholes :

Come what may, we will go ahead
God save the queen!
Suffice it to say that…..
Be that as it may ……
Heaven forbid that …..

(c) The Subjunctive were is hypothetical in meaning and is used in conditional and concessive clauses and in subordinate clauses after optative verbs like wish. It occurs as the 1st and 3rd person singular past of the verb be, matching the indicative was.
He spoke to me as if I were deaf. (formal)
He spoke to me as if I was deaf. (less formal)

4.13.2. Modal Past

Just as was could replace were in 'If I were rich', so in closed or unreal conditions involving all other verbs than be, it is the past tense that conveys the impossibility. Other modal or quasi-modal uses of the past are illustrated by

I wondered if you'd like a drink

which involves an attitudinal rather than a time distinction from 'I wonder if you 'd like a drink'. and We were catching the 8o'clock train and it is nearly 8o'clock already.

4.13.3. The Uses of the Modal Auxiliaries

A modal is a verb which expresses 'modality', the attitude of the speaker to the process and the subject's role in it. It may indicate futurity, possibility, probability, obligation, suggestion, warning, willingness etc. The grammarians call them modal verbs, modal auxiliaries or secondary auxiliaries.
A verb phrase which starts with a modal is finite. We do not have non-finite forms for modals. In this section, we look at modals and their different 'modality' features.

Can: Can is used to express 'ability' in the sense of 'be able to', 'be capable of', and 'know how to'.

e.g.: She can speak English fluently.
He can write in a coherent style.

It is also used to express 'theoretical possibility'.

e.g.: You can fight for your rights. The theatre can be closed for repairs.

Could: Could is used to express past ability.

e.g.: She could make the a right decision.

It is also used to express present or future permission.

e.g.: Could I use your room?

It also expresses possibility or ability in unreal conditions.

e.g.: If I had more time, I could get better rank.

May: May is used to express permission in the sense of 'be allowed to'. In this sense, it is more formal than can.

e.g.: You may use computer if you like.

It is also used to express 'possibility' usually factual.

e.g.: The admissions may be closed.

Might: Might is used to express possibility- speculative or factual.

e.g.: He might attend the seminar.

Shall: Shall is used to express the willingness on the part of the speaker in the second and third person.

e.g.: He shall get it done.
You shall do precisely as you desire.

It is used to express the intention on the part of the speaker, in the first person.

e.g.: I shall not be part of this project.

It is also used to express affirmation.

e.g.: You shall write as I say.
The criminal shall be punished.

Should: Should is used to express obligation and logical necessity.

e.g.: He should do as per the instructions.

It is also used to express logical necessity or probability.
e.g.: My son should be home by now.

It is used to express probable condition.
e.g.: Should I meet him, I will speak to him.

Will: Will is used to express futurity.
e.g.: He will leave for Delhi next month.

It is also used to express willingness.
e.g.: I will give details.

It is also used to express polite request.
e.g.: Will you please close the door?

It is also used to express determination.
e.g.: I will certainly do it.
We will not compromise with irregularity.

It is also used to express prediction.
e.g.: If you abuse them, they will not leave you.

Would: Would is used as a past tense of will.
e.g.: She said, 'I will punish those culprits'.
She said that she would punish those culprits. (Past tense)

It is used to express a habitual activity in the past.
e.g.: She would go to a temple twice a month.

It is used to express a wish or a preference.
e.g.: She would rather suffer than ask for their help.

It is used to express a suggestion or a polite request.
e.g.: Would you open the window?

It also used to express the imagined result of an imagined or supposed condition.
e.g.: I would build a hospital if I become a doctor.

Must: Must conveys obligation or compulsion in the present tense.
e.g.: You must return the money by tomorrow.

Ought to: It expresses obligation, logical necessity or expectation.
e.g.: We ought to do it regularly.

It expresses social or moral obligation.
e.g.: We ought to love your country.
Saints ought not to speak ill of anybody.

Used to: It expresses a habitual action in the past.
e.g.: I used to play chess in my college days.

Need: In statements, it is used along with 'not'.
e.g.: You needn't attend the exam.

Dare: It expresses the fearlessness of any consequence.

e.g.: How dare you utter such nonsense?

It is used as an ordinary verb in the sense of 'having courage'.

e.g.: He dared to oppose the Management.

4.13.4. The Tense of Modals: Of the modal auxiliaries**,** only some of the modals have corresponding present and past forms as seen in the list below:

PRESENT	PAST
can	could
may	could (might)
shall	should
will'll	would/ 'd
must	(had to)
-	used to
ought to	-
need	-
dare	dared

We can say: He can swim well. He couldn't come yesterday.
The usual past tense of may denoting permission in could.

e.g. He can/may swim here.
Yesterday he could not swim

The modals must, ought to and need are not used in the past tense (except in reported speech. Had to serves as the past of both must and have to.

He must / has to leave now.
He had to leave in a hurry yesterday.

4.14. SUMMARY

This lesson is written concentrating more on the other features seen in a Verb Phrase like tense, aspect and mood that are used most frequently. Our study revealed that tense of an utterance can only be described in terms of present, past, and future time and degrees thereof. It is thus correct to say present tense, but not present perfect/completed, present simple, or present progressive tense. Present perfect refers to the thought that an utterance is in present tense and is perfected; present simple refers to an utterance in the present tense, simple (a generic name for non-durational aspects) aspect, non perfected; likewise present progressive refers to a non-perfected, durational aspect utterance in the present tense. These terms all refer to the same single tense however — the present. This formula is applicable to past tense also. We should make use of tenses keeping this in view.

We have discussed the two tenses – present and past; and the two aspects – progressive and perfective – in English and how they are combined to convey various meanings. We have also seen the uses of modal auxiliaries. The Content of this lesson is made as simple as possible to understand and follow by including examples and exercises.

4.15. SELF – ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between tense and time?
2. Why do we say that English has no future tense?
3. What is the meaning of 'aspect'? How does it differ from tense?
4. How is the simple present used?

5. What are the uses of the simple past?
6. Explain the meaning of 'mood' in a Verb Phrase.
7. How many types of mood are there?
8. What are the different ways of referring to future time in English?
9. How does tense operate in modal auxiliaries?

4.16. REFERENCES

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Exercise-1

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate form of the verb.

1. The policeman ———————- the thief red-handed.
   a) Catch b) Caught c) Is catching d) Catching
2. Students at a number of schools ———————- from their classes in protest against the high-handedness of the administrative staff.
   a) Stay away b) Stayed away c) Has stay away d) Had stay away
3. The whole day yesterday the boys ——————— to the cricket commentary.
   a) Listen b) Will listen c) Has listened d) Listened
4. A bomb scare ——————— a delay of the flight.
   a) Caused b) Cause c) Was caused d) Had caused
5. I ——————— French from my friend who ——————— in France.
   a) Learn, lives b) Learnt, lives c) Learn, lived d) Had learnt, lives
6. Last year they ——————— a high wall around the house.
   a) Build b) Built c) Was building d) Had build
7. I ——————— a number of detective novels when I was a child.
   a) Read b) Was read c) Had read d) Have read
8. When I ——————— to the hospital, the doctor ——————— the operation.
   a) Went , had performed b) Had gone, performed c) Went, performed
   d) Go, performed
9. After ——————— into the bus we discovered that we ——————— the wrong one.
   a) Got, boarded b) Getting, had boarded c) Get, boarded d) Getting, board
10. I ——————— the assignment before the bell ———————
    a) Had finished, rang b) Finished, had rung c) Had finished, had rung
    d) Finish, will ring

Exercise-2

Rewrite the following sentences using the verbs in correct form:
1. Many more tourists _____ (arrive) by the time the week is over.

2. Milton _____ (write) much of his great poetry after he _____ (become) blind.
3. Buses usually _____ (run) along this high way, but today they ____ (not run) because it is under repair.
4. When I _____ (arrive) in the U.S last year, I _____ (be) a bachelor.
5. I _____ (knock), I don't think anybody _____ (be) in.
6. We _____ (play) tennis tomorrow, if it _____ (not rain).
7. He _____ (be) 23 when our story _____ (begin).
8. She _____ (be) ill since last Sunday.
9. The train _____ (start) after the guard _____ (give) the signal.
10. I _____ (have) so many interruptions this morning that I _____ (do) scarcely do any work.

Exercise-3
Complete the sentences with appropriate modal auxiliaries given in brackets:

1.She ---------- speak English.(ought ,can, need)
2.---------- I leave a little early today? .(ought ,should, could)
3.We ---------- finish the work today. (ought ,need, must)
4.They ---------- definitely come and help us (ought ,will, may)
5. I ------- go now. (would ,need, must)
6. I ------- be 40 next month. (will, may, could)
7.---------- I borrow your dictionary? . (can, should, will)
8. He ----buy a car if he had the money. (will, would, will)
9. Today is a holiday. So I mustn't ---------- go to college. (mustn't, shouldn't, needn't)
10.I ---------- find my umbrella. (can't, shouldn't, oughtn't)

Exercise-4
Choose the right alternative:
1. Economics _____ (are/is) difficult subject.
2. If he _____ (worked/works) hard, he will get EAMCET rank.
3. If you pour oil on water, it _____ (floats/floated)
4. The radio _____ (announced/announce) about a cyclone.
5. If he _____ (has/had) told the truth, the matter could have _____ (settle/settled)

Exercise-5
Correct the following sentences:

1. The students usually admitting their mistakes. (The students usually admit their mistakes)
2. Sania Mirza plays tennis since evening. (Sania Mirza has been playing tennis since evening)
3. Don't disturb me, I count the coins. (Don't disturb me, I am counting the coins)
4. I have gone to Chennai last month. (I went to Chennai last month)
5. The Prime Minister came here when the meeting was started. (The Prime Minister came here when the meeting had started)

Note: As the prescribed textbook for this course is A University Grammar of English by Randolph Quirk, and Sidney Greenbaum, it was taken as the main source for content and format to write this lesson on Verbs. However examples have also been taken from other books of descriptive grammar.

Lesson Writer: **Dr. V. Parvati**

LESSON – 5
NOUNS AND THE BASIC NOUN PHRASE

Structure of the lesson

5.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

- To gain sufficient awareness about the structure of the noun phrase
- To get adequate understanding of nouns classes
- To study the basic noun phrase and its functional and formal characteristics
- To examine the referential features of the article system
- To examine the various premodifiers that can be used in a noun phrase.

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The Noun is an important component of the sentence and performs key grammatical functions. This lesson undertakes discussion on the noun and its types. Further it also introduces the basic noun phrase, its features and functions. In this lesson we focus on elements like articles, numerals and other closed-system items that can occur before the noun head.

In traditional grammar, the noun may be defined as the name of a person, place or a thing. Geoffrey Leech in his book *English Grammar: A Glossary of Terms* (2007) attempts to define grammar in an explicit manner. He takes into account the function of a noun as a subject or object. The definition of Leech is as follows: "A very large class of words which refer to entities (persons, things, substance, places and abstractions of various kinds). A noun can be the head of a noun phrase and therefore the chief word in indicating the subject or object of a verb".

e.g. Ravi bought a book

In the given illustration there are two nouns at semantic level i.e., 'Ravi', name of a person (who is the subject of the sentences) and 'book' name of thing (which is the object, of the sentence influenced by the verb bought). At syntactical level, the nouns 'Ravi' and 'book' are performing the function of subject and object respectively.

5.2. NOUN CLASSES

It is necessary both for grammatical and semantic reasons to know that nouns fall into different subclasses. For better understanding of the classification, let us take the four nouns, *Krishna, pencil, luggage* and *chocolate* occurring as head of noun phrase in the object position in the sentence "I saw----------"

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Zero Article	Krishna	*pencil	luggage	chocolate
Definite article	*The Krishna	the pencil	the luggage	the Chocolate
Indefinite article	*A Krishna	a pencil	*a luggage	a chocolate
Indefinite quantifier	*Some Krishna	*some pencil	some luggage	some chocolate
Plural	*Krishnas	pencils	*luggages	chocolates

(*Unacceptable forms and the usage is grammatically not valid).

The above table helps us to divide the nouns into subclasses.

5.2.1. Proper nouns and common nouns:

Nouns which behave like *Krishna* (e.g. *Roshan, Pune*) in column 1 are called **proper nouns**. A proper noun is the name of some particular person or place (Wren and Martin). The nouns listed in the other columns namely, *pencil, luggage* and *chocolate* are called **common nouns**, but with certain important differences within this class. To put it in simple terms, a common noun applies to every person or thing of the same class or kind.

5.2.2. Count and Non-count nouns:

Nouns like *table, girl, horse, doctor* which behave like *pencil* in column 2 are called **count** or **countable nouns**. Count nouns have plural forms and in dictionaries they are indicated by the symbol {C}. Count nouns are the nouns that we can count.

Nouns like *furniture* in column 3 (*advice, information, furniture, bread*) are called **non-count nouns** or **uncountable nouns**. Generally, these nouns, do not have plural forms. In the dictionary listings they are indicated by the symbol {U}. Non – count nouns are the nouns that we cannot count because they are seen as undifferentiated mass.

We have a noun like *chocolate* in column 4 which combines the features of the example *pencil* in column 2 and *luggage* in column 3. It can function like both a count noun and a non-count noun. Hence nouns like *chocolate* (*paper, glass, stone*) have dual class membership.

But the meanings of these nouns vary contextually when they are used as countable nouns or uncountable nouns. (e.g. *stone* when used as an non-count noun refers to the material: 'This wall is built with stone'. When used as a countable noun, it suggests one stone from a heap of stones.

Difference between Count and Non-Count Nouns: The distinction between count and non-count nouns is significant both in terms of grammatical function, meaning and usage. As far as usage is concerned, one can notice concreteness or particularization in the count usage and abstractness or generalization in the non–count usage.

Look at the following examples :

1. The accused revealed a few *truths* about the fraud (count)
   He will never speak the *truth*.(count)
2. *Light* travels faster than *sound* . (non-count)
   There were bright *lights* and harsh *sounds* (count)
   {Source: Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, 2012)

It is also important to note that the distinction between count and non-count nouns can be achieved by the use of separate lexical items;

e.g 1.loaf – bread 2. pig –pork 3. table- furniture.

Further all noun- count nouns can be treated as count nouns when used in classificatory sense:

There are a variety of *grammars* being studied by linguists. (a kind of grammar)
This is *a bread* I greatly enjoy (a kind of bread)

5.2.3. Abstract nouns and concrete nouns.

The given table in the earlier section represents the broad classification of nouns as proper nouns, common nouns, count nouns and non-count nouns. Further classification of the nouns is on the basis of reference to physical or concrete or abstract nature.

Table and *Pen* are the examples of concrete nouns while *honesty* and *joy* are the examples of abstract nouns. It may be noticed that concrete nouns can be count or non-count e.g**.** *Key* (count) and *Soap* (non-count). Similarly abstract nouns can also be count or non-count, e.g. *difficulty* or *emotion*. Geoffrey Leech defines an **Abstract Noun** as a noun which refers to an abstraction, that is which does not refer to anything physical or concrete and a **Concrete Noun** as a noun referring to physical phenomena, whether persons, animals, things or substances.

Concrete nouns are mostly mainly count nouns and abstract nouns are mainly mass. The categorization i.e., count and noun-count surpasses the conventional distinction between abstract (immaterial e.g. pain) and concrete (material e.g. *table*). However abstract nouns may be count like *culture, virtue, liberty, democracy*.

5.3. The Basic Noun Phrase

In the previous sections we discussed the definition of noun and classification of nouns. To bring into context the basic noun phrase, it is essential to understand the phrase and its function. Consider the sentence: 'The Sun rises in the east'.

The given sentence consists of two main parts – the subject and the predicate. But 'in the east' forms a group. The three words make sense but not complete sense. For complete sense it depends on the rest of the sentence i.e., to remain a part of larger group of words. Such a group of words is called a phrase. John Seeley defines phrase as "a group of words that forms part of a clause".

A clause is a group of words which has a subject and a predicate of its own, makes complete sense and forms part of a larger sentence" (David Green, 1992). Geoffrey Leech defines phrase as a grammatical unit which may consist of one or more than one word and which is one of the classes of constituent into which a simple sentence can be divided.

Thus phrases are the large formal units into which we divide the sentences. A phrase consists of a headword and the types of words are named depending on the class of the headword. So we recognize noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, adverb phrases and prepositional phrases as parts of sentences. The illustration given below helps us to understand the identification of phrases based on the headword.

	Headword	Example	Uses in a clause
Noun Phrase	noun	*a large glass of juice*	Subject, object, Complement
Verb Phrase	Verb	*has been working*	Verb
Prepositional Phrase	Preposition	*at the Church*	adverbial, part of the Noun phrase
Adjective Phrase	Adjective	*Very expensive*	Part of a noun phrase, Complement, and
Adverb Phrase	Adverb	*too fast*	adverbial

Let us now discuss the functions, constituents and structure of the noun phrase. The definition of noun phrase given by John Seeley is: "A group of words built up round a single noun, which is called the Head of the phrase". The noun phrases that follow all have the same headwords, *books*:

books
some books
some books about photography
some excellent books about photography
some really excellent books about photography.

5.4. FUNCTIONS OF THE NOUN PHRASE

A noun phrase in a sentence, functions as a subject, object (direct or indirect), a complement (subject complement or object complement) or an adverbial, as seen in the following examples:

1. **Sachin** is an excellent cricketer. (subject)
2. Kavitha bought **a flat**. (direct object)
3. Hari wrote **him** a letter. (Indirect object)
4. Sudhir is a **doctor**. (subject complement)
5. We made him **our President** (Object complement)
6. My sister sent me a gift **last week** (adverbial)

Further the noun phrase is a part of a prepositional phrase which is a combination of a preposition and a noun phrase. Geoffrey Leech defines prepositional phrase as, "a phrase consisting of a preposition (for example, 'to') followed by a noun phrase (or a nominal clause)", e.g. 'to my best friend'.

Consider the following examples:

The temple is beside **the lake**
Mr. John is **in his chamber**

5.5. THE FORM OF THE NOUN PHRASE

Having examined the functions of the noun phrase, it is essential to understand its forms. The noun phrase is a group of words with a noun as the head, with or without any words before and after the head. Invariably, a noun phrase must have a noun and may or may not have any premodifiers and/or postmodifiers.

A Modifier is a word, phrase, or clause which is added to another word to specify more precisely what it refers to. For example 'a new shop in the market' – *in the market* is a noun phrase and a modifier.

A Postmodifier is a noun phrase, which follows rather than precedes the head noun of the phrase. Thus in 'the President of France', *of France* is the postmodifier of 'President'.

A Premodifier is a modifier in a noun phrase, which precedes rather than follows the head of the phrase. For example, 'in a Japanese custom', *Japanese* is a premodifier of custom.

The following are the various possibilities wherein the forms of noun phrase can be noticed:

1. *Politician* (noun phrase consisting not only of a noun without any premodifiers or postmodifiers).
2. *An astute politician*. (noun phrase consisting of a noun and premodifiers).
3. *A politician without scruples*. (noun phrase consisting of a noun with premodifiers and a postmodifier).

Constituents of the noun phrase

The noun phrase may consist of the following items – determiners, ordinals, quantifiers, adjective phrase and classifiers. In this section we shall study those closed-system items like articles and numerals which occur in the noun phrase.

5.6. PREMODIFIERS

Items which occur before the head noun in a noun phrase are called Premodifiers which include determiners and predeterminers.

5.6.1. Determiners: Determiners are a class of words that form an important part of any Noun Phrase. They come before the noun and indicate the kind of reference a particular noun phrase has and have sufficient semantic significance. The following is the list with examples.

(i) The definite article – *The*
The sky is blue

(ii) The indefinite article – *a,* or *an*
Did you buy a car?
Do you have an umbrella?

(iii) Possessive Pronouns – *my, our* etc.
our civilization
her suitcase

(iv) Genetive Possessive – *apostrophe and s*
Karuna's niece
The President's guest

(v) Relative determiners – *whose, which (ever), what (ever)*
The player whose credentials were questioned has been sacked
Meet me after two days by which time I will be back from the tour.
Select whichever candidate you think is honest.

(vi) Interrogative determiners – *what, which, whose*
Whose decision was it?
Which officer turned down the request?
What sops did the government offer?

(vii) The negative determiner – *no*
No issue

(viii) Assertive and non-assertive determiners – *some, any*
I want some more time, please.
Do you have any hope of solving this crisis?

(ix) The demonstratives determiners – *this, that, these* and *those*.
I would like to choose this bag.
These flowers are really nice.
I bought those books in Japan.

(x) The Universal determiners – *each* and *every*.
Each student was given an opportunity.
Every candidate was screened thoroughly.

(xi) The non-assertive determiner *either* and negative determiner *neither*
You must not support either side in the contest.
Neither statement is genuine.

5.6.2. Predeterminers:

There are three types of predeterminers.

(i) *All, both, half:* The words which occur before the determiner in the noun phrase are called *Predeterminers*. *All, both, half,* are the examples. They have *of* constructions, which are optional (in brackets) with nouns and obligatory in respect of pronouns.

e.g. all (of) the students, both (of) the parties, But all of them , both of them.
half the book(s), half the music. But half of them, half of the music

They do not occur before the quantifying determiners such as *either, neither, every, each, some, any, no, enough*.

It is to be noted that *all*, *half* and *both*, like demonstratives, can be used pronominally.

All / Both / Half } the students paid the examination fee. All / Both / Half } appeared for the examination.

The use of *all* with singular concrete count noun is rare, e.g. I haven't read all the book (book here is treated as a kind of divisible mass) . The usual construction would be *all of the book* or *the whole book*.

(ii) *Double, twice, three times*, etc. which occur with non-count and plural count nouns and with singular count nouns denoting number , amount also fall under the category of predeterminers.

e.g. Twice his potential, double the score, three times this pay.

Three, four, etc. *times* as well as *once* can co-occur with the determiners *a*, *every* and *each* to form distributive expressions with a temporal noun as head:

e.g Once a fortnight, twice every week, three times each year

(iii) Similarly the fractions, *two-third, two-fifths, three-quarters* etc. used with non-count and with singular and plural count nouns, can also be followed by determiners.

He finished the work in one-fifth (of) the time allotted.

5.6.3. Postdeterminers

Items which follow determiners but precede adjectives in the premodification structure are called **Postdeterminers**. They are (A) **numerals** and (B) **quantifiers.**

(A) Numerals – Ordinal and Cardinal

a) Cardinal numerals are *one, two, three, four* etc. While *one* can co-occur with singular count nouns, the other numerals co-occur only with plural count nouns.

e.g. 1. One solution
2. Three buildings
3. Six hundred rupees

(b) **Ordinal numerals** are *first, second, third, fourth*. Ordinals have a one-to-one relationship with cardinals (*fourth – four, twentieth – twenty*). Ordinal numerals except *first,* co- occur only with plural count nouns. Ordinals usually precede any cardinal number (one / two / three) in the noun phrase :

e.g. The first three computers were modified.

There are also **general ordinals** such as *next, last, past, additional* and further.General ordinals are used freely before and after cardinals as per the context.

e.g His last two (two last) plays are classics.

(B) Quantifiers: The following items are called Quantifiers.

(i) The quantifiers *many, few, a few* and *several* co-occur with plural count nouns.

e.g. Several works have been undertaken by the voluntary organizations.
The few words he spoke were well chosen.

(ii) *much* and (a) *little* co-occur only with non-count nouns.

e.g. There hasn't been much rain recently.

The distinction between the use of the indefinite article before *little* and *few* has semantic implications, of a Positive – Negative contrast

e.g He has a few pencils (several)
He has few pencils. (not many)
He took a little butter (some),
He took little butter (not much)

(iii) Quantifiers such as *plenty of, great deal of, a small amount of* and *a good number of* are called **phrasal quantifiers** and they form a large open class. They occur equally with non-count and plural count nouns.

e.g. 1.The box contained plenty of chocolates
2. He carried lots of luggage.

The quantifier *lots* is generally used informally and *plenty* gives the meaning of 'sufficient'. *A great deal of, a large quantity of, a small amount of* are restricted to non-count nouns or plural count nouns.

e.g. a great deal of luck, a small amount of money,
a good number of volunteers, a large number of books.

Partitives: Phrasal quantifiers impose countability on non-count nouns. The non-native user may find it difficult while using these noun count nouns (news, advice, luggage) and the use of partitives provide him/her help in this regard. Here are some examples.

General partitives { a piece of information, a bit of luck, an item of evidence

Typical partitives { a slice of bread, a cake of soap, a blade of grass

Measure partitives { a kilo of meat, a metre of rubber sheet, an acre of land

5.7. REFERENCE AND THE ARTICLES

The two words the and a (*an* before vowels), known respectively as the definite article and the indefinite article. They are the most common English determiners, beginning a noun phrase and typically followed by a noun, with or without modifiers.

Generic and Specific

While examining the use of articles, it is essential to make a distinction between **specific** and **generic reference.** While using a noun phrase, we may refer to a group or a class (of persons, things etc.) or a particular member of the class. If we refer to a group or class, it is *generic* and if it is a reference to a particular member thing, it is *non-generic*. Consider the following:

1. A wounded tiger is dangerous.
2. The tiger which succumbed to injuries yesterday died.

In the first, sentence the reference is *generic,* it refers to all wounded tigers whereas in the second sentence, the reference is *specific* as it refers to a particular tiger. See two more sentences below.

1. The computer is an amazing machine *(generic)*
2. The computer which I bought for my brother is expensive (*specific*)

5.7.1. Generic reference:

(i) Nationality words have generic reference. See the list below:

		Specific reference		Generic reference
Country	Adjective	Singular	Plural	Plural
China	Chinese	a Chinese	Chinese	the Chinese
Africa	African	an African	Africans	the Africans
France	French	a Frenchman	Frenchman	The French

For more examples, refer to *A University Grammar of English* by Quirk and Greebaum.

(ii) In respect of Non-count and plural count nouns, when they have generic reference, they are used with zero article.

John likes { wine, wood, cream, ----(non-count, concrete)
cricket/ music/ skating/literature ---- (non-count, abstract)
lakes, games, cars, ---- (plural count)

In the following examples we notice postmodification by an 'of' phrase which requires the definite article with a head noun, indicating limited generic reference.

Tanvi likes the literature of Byron.
Kiran likes the music of Japan.

Postmodification with other prepositions is less dependent on a preceding definite article.

For e.g. the music of Elton John or (the) music from Elton John.

It is to be understood that generic reference covers a class rather than an individual of that class. It is observed that in English language generic reference is used and interpreted liberally and zero article is used where the reference of a noun head is restricted by premodification.

e.g. Non-count Nouns American currency { the currency of America

	Chinese poetry	currency from America the poetry of China
Plural count Nouns	Brazilian Dolls	Dolls from Brazil
	Indian Perfumes	Perfumes from India

5.7.2. Specific Reference

Indefinite and Definite:

Specific reference actually means the referent (the thing/person referred to by the word). When we say, 'A boy approached me' – it is a reference to a specific boy but indefinite. When we say 'I met the professor-in-charge' – we are referring to a specific professor. To illustrate this, it is worth nothing the following explanation given by Tony Penston in his book *A Concise Grammar of English Language Teachers*.

Reference	Singular	Plural/Uncountable
(Indefinite Specific)	A dog approached me	She had (some) hedgehogs in her garden. There was (some) wine on the table
Definite Specific	I petted the dog	She fed the hedgehogs. She poured the wine.
Shared Experience/General Knowledge/Situation/Context (Definite Specific)	We took the T.V. with us. When we arrived she set the table.	The people are fine here but the buses never come on time.

Indefinite article 'a' is used with a proper noun in the sense of 'a certain'.

e.g. A Mr. Rahim called me yesterday.

Further the definite article given heavy stress is used (especially informally) to indicate superlative quality.

e.g. Disneyland is the place for kids.
I met the Tagores at their residence (famous)

Common nouns with zero Article

In using of English we come across a number of count nouns that take the zero article in abstract or rather specialized use. Consider the following examples:

go by car	but	sit in /look at, --- the car
go to church (an institution)	but	go into/look at, ---- the school

Some common expressions with zero article and singular noun are given below. For comparison, usage with the definite article is also illustrated.

(1) institutions (with *at*, *in*, *to*, etc.)

Be in/go to	bed	but lie down on the bed
	church	admire the church
	prison	walk round the prison

(2) means of transport in the generic sense.

travel by bus	be on the bus
travel by car	sleep in the car
travel by bicycle	sit on the bicycle

(3) Time of day and night.
e.g. at dawn,at dusk, at night but in the dusk, in the night

(4) Seasons in general: winter, spring, autumn, etc.
e.g. In winter we go skiing. After the winter is over, the birds will return

(5) Meals: e.g. (i) Meet me before lunch
(ii) He relished the lunch.

(6) Illnesses : anaemia, Diabetes, Influenza but the plague, (the) measles

5.7.3. Unique reference

Proper nouns are names of specific people, places, months, etc. Articles are usually omitted before proper nouns. It is important to note that names have 'unique' reference, and they do not share such characteristics of common nouns as article contrast. As mentioned earlier when partitive meaning is intended, proper nouns are preceded by definite article. (source: Quirk and Greenbaum).

e.g. Bernard Shaw, but the inimitable Bernard Shaw;
Paris but the Paris I admire.

Proper nouns can be converted into common nouns:
e.g. Keats (the poet) – a Keats (a poet like him), Keats's (poets like Keats) .

But when a proper noun is used as a common noun, the definite article is used.
e.g. Kalidasa is the Shakespeare of India.

Main Classes of Proper nouns:

1. Personal names (with or without titles): e.g. Mr. Watson, President Obama
2. Calendar items
   (a) festivals (Christmas , Easter, Independence Day)
   (b) Months and days of the week (January, March, ----, Tuesday, Friday, ----)
3. Geographical names
   (a) continents (America, Europe) (b) countries, counties, states etc. (Brazil, Staffordshire), (c) cities, towns etc. (Boston, Chennai) (d) lakes (Lake Windermere) (e) mountains (Mount Everest)

Proper nouns with the definite article: The following classes of proper nouns are used with the definite articles:

names of rivers (the Nile), mountain ranges (the Andes), oceans (the Atlantic), deserts (the Thar), group of islands (the Maldives), hotels (The Sheraton), cinemas (the Omega), political body (the Conservative), plural names (the Netherlands, the Midlands, the Alps)

Sometimes a common noun is used as the name of institutions. It takes the definite article, and is written with initial capitals and has unique reference.

The British Broadcasting Corporation, the Suez Canal, the Bay of Biscay,

Adjectives as nouns: (the poor, the ill-fortuned), popular newspapers(*The Guardian, The Times*).

5.8. SUMMARY

In this lesson we have discussed nouns taking into account their nature, function and behavior. Further, a broad discussion with relevant illustrations was made of the classification of nouns into various kinds namely, proper nouns, common nouns, count and non-count nouns, concrete and abstract nouns. Definitions collected from standard books are provided for better and additional understanding. Necessary points with regard to usage of nouns are also provided wherever required. The chapter also defined noun phrase and outlined its form, features and constituents like predeterminers, postdeterminers etc. Lastly articles and their referential functions in terms of generic, specific and unique types have been discussed.

5.9. SELF – ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Classify the following nouns and write whether they are (1) proper or common (b) count or non-count (c) concrete or abstract.

(1) Road	(2) Telephone	(3) Karuna	(4) Class
(5) Brush	(6) Courage	(7) Ecstasy	(8) Iron
(9) Truth	(10) Sand		

2. What are the subclasses of nouns? Give examples.

3. What are the premodifiers occurring in the noun phrase?

4. Write a note on the structure of the basic noun phrase.

5. Explain the types and kinds of determiners and predeterminers.

6. Define generic reference and specific reference. Give examples.

7. Correct the following sentences:

1. Majority of the students want postponement of examinations
2. The silver is an expensive metal
3. He visited Alps last year
4. Venus is the nearest planet to the Earth.

5. She went to Netherland in summer.
6. Learning the Spanish is not that difficult.
7. More you read less you understand
8. He went to hospital for knee treatment
9. The honesty is the best policy.
10. He succeeded in learning Tamil alphabets.

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. R.V. Jayanth Kasyap**

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LESSON – 6
PRONOUNS AND OTHER FEATURES OF THE NOUN PHRASE

Structure of the lesson

6.0. Objectives

- To study the gender distinctions in English nouns
- To take a look at the case system and its relations in English
- To discuss the number system in nouns
- To understand the features and types of pronouns
- To examine the grammatical usage of pronouns

6.1. INTRODUCTION

In lesson 5 we have discussed noun classes and some features of the noun phrase. A few constituents like determiners and predeterminers which premodify the noun phrase have been studied. We have also dwelt on the articles and their function in terms of reference – generic, specific and unique.

This lesson is a continuation of the previous lesson which deals with the other features seen in the noun phrase. Focus is on the systems of number, case and gender of the English nouns followed by an examination of the pronoun and its different subclasses.

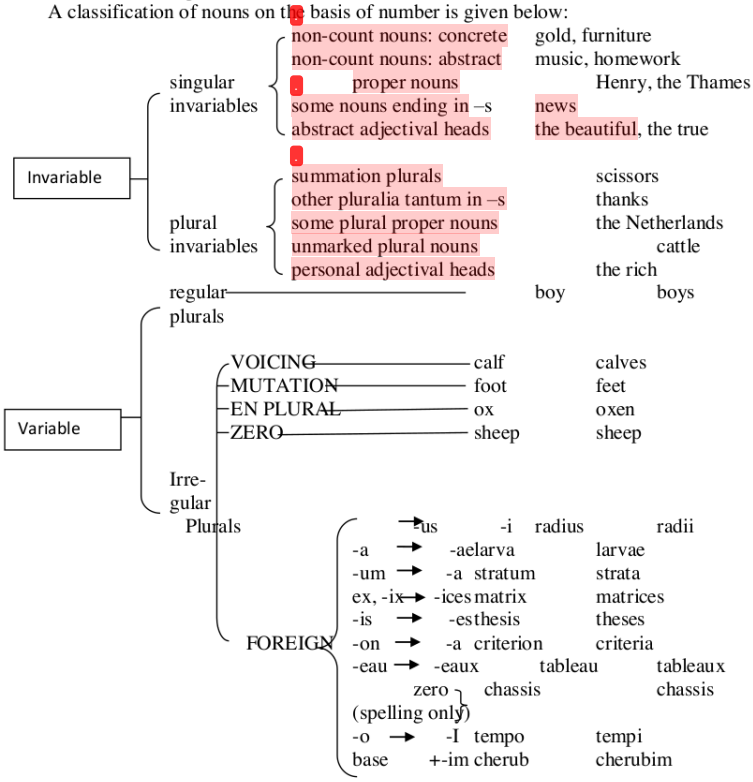
6.2. NUMBER

In English language, there is a two-term distinction in its number system **singular** (indicating one) and **plural** (indicating more than one). Geoffrey Leech defines number in the following manner: it is the grammatical choice between singular (one) and plural (more than one). In English, nouns, pronouns, determiners and present tense verbs can vary for number, for example, student – students, I – we, this – these.

Number is primarily a characteristic of nouns and it determines the concord i.e., the agreement of the subject with singular or plural forms of the verb. The singular category includes common non-count nouns and proper nouns.

Count nouns are **Variable** occurring with either singular or plural number (boy – boys) or have **Invariable** plural (cattle).

A classification of nouns on the basis of number is given below:



(Randolph Quirk & Sidney Greenbaum, 2012)

6.2.1. Invariable nouns

Singular Invariable Nouns : They include both non-count common nouns (concrete and

abstract) and proper nouns. Example: Kishore, Bronze, Furniture, Music.

The first three types have been discussed already in lesson 5. Let us look at the number classes shown in the table.

Non-count nouns such as furniture, gold (concrete) advice, knowledge, music (abstract) and proper nouns such as Smith, Rita, Mars, Stratford are singular only and take a singular form of the verb.

Several nouns ending in -s are singular. See examples given below.

e.g. a) news

b) subject names ending in -ics: Linguistics, Mathematics, Phonetics

c) games: billiards, darts

d) proper nouns ending in - s: Athens, Wales, the United Nations, Naples

e) diseases: measles, mumps, rickets

Some noun phrases with abstract adjectival heads: the beautiful, the true.

Plural Invariable Nouns : These nouns generally occur only in the plural:

a) Summation plurals: Tools and articles of dressing consisting of two equal parts joined together are treated as plural.

e.g. Scissors, tongs, trousers, spectacles, binoculars

b) Pluralia tantum: Other nouns occurring only in the plural are archives, bowels, clothes, contents, fireworks, funds, manners, ashes, braine, credentials

c) Unmarked plurals: cattle, folk, people, police

d) Personal adjectival heads: the rich

6.2.2. Variable Noun : The nouns which occur in either singular or plural number are called variable nouns.

A. Regular plurals:

The vast majority of nouns are variable and the regular plural suffix is -s (or -es). The suffix can be predicted if we know the singular form.

Town	-	Towns
Orange	-	Oranges
Train	-	Trains

The inflectional suffix –s is pronounced in three ways:/s/, /z/ or iz/ according to well-established lrules. (see Phonetics lessons).
But spelling presents differences.

a) Nouns ending in – y: Joy-Joys , day- days.

Certain nouns ending with -y form plural by suffixing – ies, e.g. fly- flies, spy- spies

b) Nouns of unusual form have their plural with the addition of -s: They include letter names , numerals and abbreviations: MPs MLAs, late 60's or 60s,dos .

c) Nouns ending in -o, have plural in **-os** ,with some exceptions of **-oe**s(obligatory / optional)

e.g. volcano, tornado, (oes) , Cargo (os) , motto(os), echo(oes) , hero(oes)

Plurals of Compound nouns: A Compound noun is a combination of two nouns. They form their plurals in different ways.

(a) Plural in first element
attorney general - attorneys general
mother-in-law - mothers-in-law

(b) Plural in both first and last elements
manservant - menservants
woman doctor - women doctors

(c) Plural in the last element (normal usage)
boy friend - boyfriends
landslide - landslides

B. Irregular plurals:

Irregular plurals cannot be predicted and have to be learned as individual items. Here are some of the examples of the most common irregular plurals:

Knife – Knives, wife – wives, cactus - cacti, axis- axes, basis- bases.

Nouns in – th: For nouns such as birth, length, the plural is regular (suffix of -s). In case of consonant sound or vowel sound before -th, the plural is often regular. E.g bath, truth, cloth. (Quirk and Greenbaum).

-en plural: It occurs with the following nouns: brother- brethren, ox-oxen, child- children.

zero plural: For nouns such as sheep and aircraft a singular noun is the same as a plural noun. This feature is termed as Zero plural. Certain animals such as deer, fish, swine and moos have zero plurals.

Quantitative nouns: The numeral nouns such as hundred, thousand, and million have zero plurals when premodified by another quantitative word .

e.g. three thousand people; with 'of' phrase – thousands of people

A few nouns in -(e) s , can be treated as singular or plural. eg. one series, two series. Others are barracks, gallows, species, means, etc.

Mutation: There is a change of vowel in these seven nouns:

foot – feet man – men, woman – women,

tooth – teeth louse – lice

goose – geese mouse – mice

Foreign Plurals often occur along with regular plurals. They are commoner in technical usage whereas the -s plural is natural in every day usage. The following are some of the examples:

Latin: corpus – corpora, stimulus – stimuli, antenna – antennas, antennae, index – indices, curriculum – curricula.

Greek: axis – axes, criterion – criteria.
French: bureau – bureaus, bureau
Italian: tempo – tempi

6.3. GENDER

Geoffrey Leech defines gender as the grammatical category which distinguishes masculine, feminine and neuter (or non-personal) nouns and pronouns. English makes very few gender distinctions. They are connected to the biological category 'sex'. It means that sex distinctions determine English gender distinctions. This is not the case with some languages like Latin. In Latin, man is masculine but woman, maid, child belong to neuter gender.

So we can say that English has 'natural' gender, because all creatures male are masculine, and all creatures female are feminine while inanimate things are neuter.

In English special suffixes are not generally used to mark gender distinctions. Personal and relative pronouns also show gender distinction.

The following table provides an insight into different gender classes :

	Gender	Example	Pronoun Substitution
A.	Masculine	Nephew	Who-he
B.	Feminine	Niece	Who- she
C.	Dual	Lawyer	Who-he/ she
D.	Common	Kid	Who-she/it? Which/it
E.	Collective	Family	Which – it / who - They
F.	Masculine Higher Animal	Bull	Which/it? Who-he
G.	Feminine Higher Animal	Cow	Which/it? Who- She
H.	Higher Organism	Poland	Which/it, She
I.	Lower Animal	Fly	Which-it
J.	Inanimate	Chari	Which-it

6.3.1**. Animate and Inanimate**: Nouns can be classified into **Animate** and **Inanimate**. Animate nouns are of two types – **personal** and **non-personal**.

a) **Personal nouns:**

Under personal nouns, we have five gender classes – (A) masculine (B) feminine (C) dual (D) common (E) collective.

b) **Non-personal nouns:**

Under non-personal nouns, we have the following gender classes – (F) masculine higher animal, (G) feminine higher animal, (H) higher organism and (I) lower animal.

These gender classes are discussed below:

A/B. Personal Nouns: masculine and feminine.

These nouns (pairs) are of two types:

(i) No morphological relationship between the pairs, i.e. there is no overt gender marking in the nouns.

e.g. father – mother, brother – sister, king – queen, uncle – aunt, monk - nun

(ii) Pairs of nouns with morphological marking for gender, i.e. the two gender forms have a derivational relationship

god	-	goddess	bridegroom	-	bride
heir	-	heiress	hero	-	heroine
prince	-	princess	duke	-	duchess

(C)Nouns with personal dual gender may refer to both male and female:

artist, friend, lawyer, doctor, singer, cook, student, parent, teacher

For clarity gender markers are used. e.g boy friend, girl friend male nurse, woman engineer.

(D) Common gender nouns. These are in between personal and non-personal. It is seen in the wide choice of pronouns.

The child was struggling to meet his/her/its sibling.

(E) Collective nouns differ from other nouns – they can be replaced by either singular pronoun (it) or plural pronoun (they) without change of number in the noun.

e.g. the army – it/they

As a result, the verb may be in the plural after a singular noun.

The committee { has / have } met and { it has / they have } rejected the proposal.

This difference reflects a difference in attitude: the singular reflects the collectivity of the group and the plural suggests the individual within the groups. Examples are crowd, family, government, the aristocracy, the public, Parliament, the Arab League, etc.

(F/G) Higher animals: Gender can be seen in these pairs of animal names.

Cock – hen, dog – bitch, tiger – tigress, stallion – mare

But if no sex distinction is necessary, we can use a common word such as horse, tiger, cat.

(H) Higher organisms: Names of countries have different gender depending on their use. As geographical units, they are treated as inanimate. (France –it) As political/economic units, they are treated as feminine (France –her).

(I/J) Lower animals and inanimate nouns show not much difference:
both snake, and box have which and it as pronouns.

6.4. CASE

Traditional grammars present the analysis of the English case system in terms of the nominative, the accusative, the dative and so on, because that was how Latin grammar was analyzed. From your lessons on Linguistics in the first semester, you must have seen that linguists and modern grammarians have found fault with such analysis.

Geoffrey Leech defines Case in the following terms: The grammatical term 'case' refers to systematic variation in the form of a noun or pronoun according to its role in the syntax of the sentence. This change in the form can be seen from the 'inflections' or endings of the word.

For example, the Latin noun 'lupus' (wolf) has the following inflections for different cases.

Nominative (subject): lupus

Accusative (Direct object): lupum

Dative (Indirect object): lupe

Genitive (possessive): lupm

6.4.1. Common case and Genitive case:

In English the noun John does not have any inflectional change in whatever position it is.

See the following examples:

John has come (subject)

She loved John (direct object)

She taught John linguistics (indirect object)

The only inflection in the noun Shows is the possessive Marker –'s.So English nouns have a two-case system – an unmarked **Common Case** (boy) and a marked **Genitive Case** (boy's).

In the previous lessons, we have discussed the functions of the noun (common case) under the labels subject, object etc. So in this context we need to focus only on the Genitive case.

6.4.2. The Genitive Case

The genitive is seen in the form of a noun or noun phrase ending in -'s (apostrophe s) or -s' (s apostrophe) and indicating possession or some such meaning (Geoffrey Leech).Usually the genitive is considered as a determiner as possessives come under the category of determiners but there is much more variety.

The following are the genitive meanings:

Possessive genitive - Varun's car (Varun has a car)
Subjective genitive - the solicitor's appeal (the solicitor appealed)
Objective genitive - the boy's release (--- released the boy)
Genitive of origin - the convict's story (the convict told a story)
Descriptive genitive - a girl's school (a school for girls)
Genitive of measure - two month's duration (the duration lasted two months)
Appositive genitive - the city of London (London is a city)

6.4.3. Two Genitives:

There is correspondence between the noun in the genitive case and the same noun as head of a prepositional phrase with 'of'. The inflected form is called the -s genitive and the prepositional form is the of – genitive. Because of much overlap, they are considered as variant forms of the genitive. However, in some environments only one of them is grammatically acceptable. Hence, both the sentences illustrated below mean the same:

These are Rahul's cousins.
These are the cousins of Rahul.

But in certain cases only the **-s genitive** or the **of – genitive** can be used.

e.g. Kishen's school not the school of Kishen
The backyard of the house not the house's backyard

Choice of -s Genitive and of-Genitive:

The following four animate noun classes normally take the -s genitive:

Personal names: Shaw's memorial
Personal nouns : my nephew's car
Collective nouns : the committee's decision
Higher animals : the tiger's rampage

The phrases * 'the door's knob' or * 'the hat of John' are ungrammatical.

The use of the of-genitive occurs with inanimate nouns like the title of the book, the hub of

the wheel, the windows of the houses.

Genitive with ellipsis

The noun modified by the -s genitive may be omitted if the context makes its identity clear.

My car is faster than John's. (i.e. than John's car)

With the of-genitive in the context of comparison, a pronoun is normally necessary.

The population of Mumbai is greater than that of Chennai.

Ellipsis is also used in expressions relating to locality or establishment.

I shall be at the dentist's.

The group genitive.

In some post-modified noun phrases, we can add the -s genitive at the end of the noun phrase rather than to the head noun itself.

e.g. an hour and a half's discussion

the king of England's niece.

6.5. PRONOUNS

A pronoun may be defined as a word used instead of a noun. Pronoun enables us to avoid repeating the noun again and again. The traditional definition of the pronoun is often misleading as replacing a noun with a pronoun at times may result in unacceptable sentence. Look at the following sentences.

The poor old woman died of sunstroke.
The poor old she died of sunstroke.

In the second sentence the noun, woman when replaced by 'she' is unacceptable. We should note that a pronoun stands in for other words such as nouns, noun phrases and other pronouns which are already mentioned in the sentence. (John Seeley).

Pronouns constitute a heterogeneous class of items with numerous subclasses.

However, there are several features that the pronouns have in common, which distinguish them from nouns.

i. They do not admit determiners
ii. They often have an objective case
iii. They often have person distinction
iv. They often have overt gender contrast
v. Singular and plural forms are often not morphologically related.

Case: Like nouns, most pronouns in English have only two cases: Common (somebody) and Genitive (somebody's). But a few pronouns have an objective case. So we have a three-case system where the Common case is replaced by Subjective and Objective.
The three case forms for personal pronouns are given below:

Subjective	Objective	Genitive/ Possessive
I	me	my
We	us	our
She	her	her
He	him	his
It	it	its
You	you	your
They	them	their
Who	whom	whose

Person: Personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns have distinctions of person:

1st person refers to the speaker (I), or to the speaker and one or more others (we);
2nd person refers to the person(s) addressed (you);
3rd person refers to one or more other persons or things (he\she\it, they)

Gender: In 3rd person singular, the personal, reflexive and possessive pronouns show gender. Nouns which refer to male human beings serve as antecedents for the pronouns, he, him, his and himself. Similarly nouns which refer to female human beings serve as antecedents for the pronouns, she, her, hers and herself. And for animals and inanimate things it, its and itself are co-referential pronouns.

Number: The 2nd person uses a common form for singular and plural in the personal and possessive pronouns but has a separate plural in the reflexive (yourself, yourselves). The 1st person plural pronoun 'we' does not denote 'more than I' but 'I plus one or more others'.)

6.5.1. Types of Pronouns:

Pronouns fall into different types. They are:

Personal Pronouns:
Personal pronouns are I/me, we/us, he/him, she/her, it, they/them.They are used as replacements and refer back to nouns which have already been used in particular context.

e.g. When Ravi arrived, he gave me the cheque.

In the above sentence, the personal pronoun he functions as a replacement for the co-referential noun phrase Ravi in the subordinate clause.

In the sentence below the subordinate clause precedes the main clause and in such contexts , the pronoun may anticipate its determing co-referent.

When he met me, Satish presented me a pen.

The personal pronouns, **I, we, you, he, she, it, they** are in the subjective (or nominative) case and function as subjects. The pronouns **me, us, you, him, her, it, them** are in the objective

(or accusative) case and function as objects.

The use of personal pronouns witnessed a considerable change with the passage of time.

Look at the following examples:

Who brought this journal? It's I. (old fashioned/formal).

Who brought this journal? It's me (normal and informal).

Personal pronouns act as the subjects of finite verbs and often as subject complement.

e.g. Ravi felt that the victim would be Naveen and indeed it was he.

Possessive Pronouns: The pronouns **my, our, your, his, her, its, their, mine, yours, our, his**, **hers and theirs** are considered to be possessive pronouns.

Certain possessive pronouns function as determiners in a noun phrase.

e.g. her painting
their building

Further the pronouns such as **mine** and **hers** function predicatively as complement after linking verb be.

e.g. 1. This watch is mine.
2. Isn't that mobile hers?

Reflexive Pronouns : Reflexive Pronouns are **myself, ourselves, yourself, yourselves, himself, herself, itself** and **themselves**.

Reflexive Pronouns function as subject (direct or indirect) subject complement or object of preposition within a clause or sentence, and it is used to replace a co-referential noun phrase, usually within the same finite verb clause.

e.g. 1. Siva has hurt himself.

2. Can't you judge yourself based on the feedback?

3. Supriya is not quite herself today.

4. Each candidate must pay for himself/herself.

5. The hare tore itself free.

Demonstrative Pronouns: The pronouns **this, that, these** and **those** are demonstrative pronouns and they function as demonstrative determiners. They refer to a particular person or a thing.

e.g. 1. These mangoes are delicious.
2. This is an interesting episode.

Reciprocal Pronouns: The pronouns each other and one another are called reciprocal pronouns.

e.g. 1. Ravi and Kishore admired each other.
2. When the four boys were questioned about missing cash, they looked at one another.

Relative Pronouns: The pronouns **who, whom, whose, which** and **that** are relative pronouns. And like other pronouns, they refer to someone or something already mentioned. They function as conjunctions as they combine the clauses.

The **wh-series** reflects the gender (personal/non-personal) of the antecedent.

Personal: who, whom, whose
Non-personal: which, whose

That is a general purpose relative pronoun used irrespective of gender or case.

Indefinite Pronouns:The following pronouns are indefinite pronouns . They are written as one word (except no one).

anybody	somebody	nobody	
anyone	everyone	no one	someone
anything	everything	nothing	something

While using indefinite pronouns such as everyone, the problem occurs while indicating the relation to the other pronoun in the sentence.

e.g. Has everyone paid his fee?

In a context, if all the members we are referring to are male it is alright. Otherwise the use of plural **theirs** would solve the problem. To be more specific, in order to refer to both the genders, it is apt to use, 'Has everyone paid **his/her** fee?'

Use of indefinite pronouns such as **nobody** which is non-assertive indicates negative meaning. e.g. Nobody come forward to help the victim.

On the other hand, **some** is often used in negative, interrogative or conditional sentences when the basic meaning is assertive.

e.g.Did somebody } anybody sign the document?

The inference of meaning varies, if it is somebody the speaker expected the signing of the document; but in case of anybody the speaker did not expect it.

Interrogative Pronouns: The pronouns, **who, whose, which, when, where, why** and **how** are interrogative pronouns. In certain contexts they also function as determiners. Look at the following examples.

What is the actual problem?(Interrogative pronoun)
Which car do you think is comfortable and cost effective? (Interrogative determiner).

Miscellaneous: The negative pronouns such as **either, neither** and **none** function as

pronouns and as determiners. **Either** and **neither** have strictly dual reference. None and Nobody are called negative pronouns.

e.g. 1. None of the thirty candidates was successful in the exam.
2. Neither of the two contestants fulfills the criterion.
3. Either of the two students may be disqualified for the main examination.

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Numerals: Numerical one has a specific semantic function. When it used with animate and inanimate singular count nouns, it becomes a stressed variant of the indefinite article **a(n).**

Consider the following examples:

We have ten compact discs. We can provide one for you. (Here it is numerical one).
I want to order the latest model of personal computer, not the one that is displayed in your showroom. (Here it is a substitute).
One needs to be quite meticulous while filling up the application.
Here it refers to all (people)

6.6. SUMMARY

This lesson focused on a few other important features characterizing the noun phrase. First a study of the number system in English was made followed by an analysis of the gender and case systems. In this lesson, we have also discussed the pronoun and its types. Further we looked at the grammatical functions of the pronouns in different contexts.

6.7. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Identify whether the nouns given below are singular or plural and if the noun is singular, supply the plural known.

(i) Measles (ii) Data (iii) Crew (iv) News
(v) Audience (vi) Japanese (vii) Alms (viii) Alphabet

2. Supply plural nouns for the nouns given below.

(i) Thesis (ii) Syllabus (iii) Sister-in-law (iv) Women doctor
(v) Stand by (vi) Sheep (vii) Ox (viii) Knife

3. Supply the paraphrases of the following genitives. An example is given below:
The secretary's confession. (The secretary made a confession).

the committee's decision	cow's milk
Shakespeare's plays	the man's courage
the Vice-Chancellor's chamber	the referees objection

4.Explain the number system in English nouns.

5. What are the genitive forms in English?

6. Discuss the different gender classes of nouns.

7. What are the distinctive features of pronouns.

8. Give the subclassification of the pronouns.

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Lesson Wrier: **Dr. R.V. Jayanth Kasyap**

LESSON – 7

ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PHRASES

Structure of the lesson

7.0. OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this lesson are to enable the students to

- understand the nature of adjectives
- make them understand the classification of adjectives
- make them aware of syntactic functions of adjectives
- make them familiar with the semantic sub-classification of adjectives

7.1. INTRODUCTION

In Lessons 5 and 6, we have dealt with the noun phrase, it structure and functions, focusing on pronouns, numerals, determiners and other closed-system items occurring before the noun head in the complex Noun Phrase. But the noun phrase also includes adjectives, prepositional phrases, etc.

See the following noun phrases -

The little boy (adjective)
The little boy in the shop (prepositional phrase)

In this lesson we look at the Adjective and the Adjective Phrase taking into account their syntactical and semantic functions. An Adjective Phrase is a phrase with an adjective as head, as in (She is) so very pretty or having only the adjective as in (She is) pretty. Adjectives functions syntactically only in adjective phrases and so determine the function of the adjective phrase.

7.2. THE ADJECTIVE

- The unrelenting agitators did not yield to the police warning.
- The university students earned kudos from every strata of the society.
- Jurist Jha now lives in New Delhi.

Look at the above sentences and notice the words in italics. They are placed before the nouns / noun phrases unrelenting, university, and Jurist. What are they doing to the nouns / noun phrases? Those words are adjectives adding information about the nouns agitators, students and Jha respectively. Hence, we can say that "An Adjective is a word that adds information about a noun or pronoun." (Collins, p.10). We can say that "Adjectives are words that modify—describe or limit—nouns and pronouns." Further, we can say that "An adjective is a word which expresses the attributes of substances (good, young, easy, soft, loud, hard, and wooden).

As a class of lexical words, adjectives are identified by their ability to fill the position between the determiner and the noun and the position after a copula-verb and a qualifier." We should remember that adjectives cannot stand on their own as their function is limited to describing nouns or pronouns and modifying them.

7.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE ADJECTIVES

It is not always possible to tell whether a word is an adjective by looking at it in isolation, because its form or shape does not necessarily indicate its syntactic functions. Let us look at some of the forms of the adjective.

i. Some suffixes like -ous are found only with adjectives as in famous. But many others do not have any identifying shape, eg. Food, hot, little, fat.

ii. Many adjectives have inflections for comparative and superlative, eg. easy, easier, easiest.
But many do not allow inflected forms, eg. curious, *curiouser, *curiousest
In fact a few adverbs have similar inflections, eg. hard, harder, hardest.

iii. Commonly many adjectives provide the base from which adverbs are derived by adding an -ly suffix, eg. happy ~ happily.
But some do not allow this derivational process, eg. there is no adverb *oldly derived from old.

iv. Some adjectives have the same form as participles of verbs as mentioned in Lesson-3, eg. his surprising ideas, the offended man.

So we need to classify and subclassify adjectives according to various functions they serve, syntactic and semantic.

7.4. CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES BY THEIR FORMATION

i. Simple Adjectives

Simple adjectives are mostly of one syllable, and none have more than two syllables, eg. tall, young, new, fat, brave etc.

ii. Derivative Adjectives

Derivative adjectives are formed by adding derivational suffixes to free or bound stems of nouns. They form comparatives and superlatives with addition of the qualifiers more and most. Some of the important suffixes which form derivative adjectives are:

-able – examples: remarkable, adaptable, conceivable, drinkable, eatable, regrettable, understandable, etc.;

Examples formed from bound stems: capable, portable, viable.

-al, – examples: sacramental, memorial, automnal, fundamental, etc.

The suffix -al added to nouns and bound stems (fatal, natural, national, traditional, etc.) is often found in combination with -ic, -ical, -ial, e. g.: biological, botanical, judicial, typical, etc.

-ish - examples.: British, Polish, outlandish, whitish, wolfish.

-y — Examples: rocky, watery, bushy, milky, sunny, etc.

iii. Compound Adjectives

We can combine Nouns and adjectives to form a compound adjective to modify another noun.

Examples: blue-eyed, left-handed

7.5. CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES BY THEIR FUNCTION

a. Descriptive Adjectives or Adjective of Quality

If an adjective describes a noun or the noun phrase, it is a Descriptive Adjective.

For example: It's a warm day.

Descriptive adjectives describe the colour, feelings, size, nationality, shape, quality, time, age, material and opinions of nouns or pronouns.

b. Adjective of Quantity or Numeric Adjective

If an adjective denotes the quantity or numeric value of a noun or pronoun and answers the question 'how much', it is an adjective of quantity.

For example:

- Three students are competing for the gold medal.
- He has little money in his pocket.
- Saturday is the last day of the week.

c. Demonstrative Adjectives

If the adjectives demonstrate something and are similar to demonstrative pronouns, such as this, that, these, those and what, they are called Demonstrative Adjectives.

For example:

- If I hear that noise again, I will call the Police.
- This does not fit in.
- These grapes are sour.

d. Indefinite Adjectives

If adjectives do not indicate anything in particular and are similar to indefinite pronouns, such as, any, many, few and several, they are called Indefinite Adjectives.

For example:

- The people have heard many politicians make the same promise.
- Many children like beanbags.
- Is there any water in the tank?

e. Interrogative Adjectives

If an adjective modifies a noun or a noun phrase and is similar to the interrogative pronouns such as which, what, who, whose, whom, where, etc., it is called an Interrogative Adjective.

For example:

- What time are you coming?
- Which city is the capital of Zimbabwe?
- Whose luggage is this?

7.6. CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES BY THEIR USAGE

a. Nouns as adjectives

We can use a noun to describe or tell the quality of another noun, as in peacock feathers. Here the word 'peacock' is a noun used to premodify another noun 'feathers', Hence, 'peacock' functions as the adjective of 'feathers'.
Attributive nouns resemble adjectives but their nominal nature can be seen from their correspondence to prepositional phrases having the noun as complement.

eg. a stone wall ~ a wall (made) of stone
a love poem ~ a poem about love
the city council ~ the council of the city

Such a correspondence is not available for attributive adjectives.

eg: a thick wall, a long poem, the urban council

Also, we should remember when we use nouns as adjectives, we cannot form its comparative or superlative forms such as "peacocker" or "peacockest."

We can form adjectives from nouns by adding certain endings such as -ish, -like, -ly, -y, -en, -al, -ar, -ory.

Examples:

- His child**ish** attitude is annoying the boss.
- Though he is well built, he has woman**ly** figure.
- He saved himself from drowning with a wood**en** plank.
- My son is going through a transitor**y** period, he is in teenage.

Now a days, the endings -en and -al are dropped, and the noun form is used by itself, as in wood(en) table, wool(len) shirt, and coast(al) line.

b. Participles as adjectives

There are many adjectives that have the same form as -ing and -ed participles.

eg. Helen's attitude is rather surprising.
The teacher had been retired for some years.

These adjectives can also be attributive.

eg. We noticed Helen's rather surprising attitude.
The retired teacher spends his time reading.

The different functions of a form used as adjective and as participle are not always obvious. See these examples:

The teacher was entertaining the students at her home.

The -ing form here is a present participle of the verb because it has a direct object 'the students'.

The teacher was very entertaining in her lecture.

Here entertaining is an adjective.

The case is similar with -ed forms.

His remarks annoyed me. (verb)
His remarks made me very annoyed. (adjective)

If the -ed and -ing forms can be modified by the intensifier ;very', they are adjectives.

c. Numbers as adjectives

We can use words related to number i.e. numerals as adjectives, including "two," "twenty," "few," "many," "dozen," "third," and so on. Number words show the quantity of nouns.

Examples:

- A dozen students went to meet the Vice-Chancellor

d. Pronouns and articles as adjectives

We can use Pronouns such as "this," "that," and "those" used to modify a noun. When we use them as adjectives they are called demonstrative adjectives.

Also we can use Possessive pronouns such as "my," "your," and "his" to modify a noun. When we use them as adjectives they are called possessive adjectives. In a way, we can say that Articles such as "a," "an," and "the" are adjectives.

7.7. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF ADJECTIVES

The syntactic functions of adjectives are attributive, predicative and postpositive.

(A) Attributive Adjective

When the adjectives pre-modify nouns they are called attributive adjectives. Generally, they are placed between the determiner and the head of the noun phrase.

Examples:

- The Prime Minister presented the beautiful painting to the President of U.S.A.
- Waiver of debts to farmers was the main argument in the legislative assembly today.
- The huge metal statue
- An easily not-forgettable face.
- A yellow and red dress

(B) Predicative Adjective

When the adjectives are used as complements to the subjects or objects or used as the complement of the verb to be, or other similar verbs such as get, become, grow, etc., they are called predicative adjectives.

Examples:

(i) Subject Complement

- The dish is delicious.
- The result was magnificent

We can also use adjectives as complements to a subject which is a finite clause or a non-finite clause.
Examples:

- Whether he will score a ton is uncertain (finite clause)
- Climbing Mt. Everest isn't easy (non-finite clause)

(ii) Object Complement

Examples

- The clipping made the hero cheerful.
- The sudden rain turned the atmosphere cool.

We can also use adjectives as object complements to clauses.

Examples:

- I believe what he did is stupid.
- I think bowling so fast is foolish.

The adjective functioning as object complement often expresses the result of the process denoted by the verb. (Quirk & Greenbaum, 127)

Examples:

She pushed the door open (As a result the door was open).
He turned the screw tight (As a result the screw was tight).

7.8. SYNTACTIC SUB-CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Adjectives can function as:

(1) Both attributive and predicative
(2) Attributive only
(3) Predicative only

(1) Both attributive and predicative

Most adjectives can be both attributive and predicative. They are called central adjectives (Quirk & Greenbaum, p.33)

e.g. A hungry child.

The child is hungry.

(2) Attributive only

Some adjectives are restricted to attributive positions only.

Eg. an utter fool ~ * the fool is utter.

Here utter can only premodify the noun and the predicative use is ungrammatical.

Types of adjectives which are attributive only are given below. They have an intensifying function.

1. **Emphasizers** : Emphasizers have a general heightening effect.
   e.g. a real warrior, a sure win, an outright lie
2. **Amplifiers** : Amplifiers scale upward from an assumed level, indicating a higher point on the scale.
   e.g. a complete victory, a perfect plan, his great folly.
3. **Limiters**: Limiter adjectives particularize the reference of the noun.
   e.g. the only chance, the prime cause, the main reason
4. **Denominal**: Denominal adjectives are adjectives derived from noun.
   e.g. a logical thought, a chemical equation, criminal law

There are two other types of attributive adjectives: **Inherent** and **Non-inherent**, which will be discussed later in the lesson. If the adjectives speak directly about the referent of the noun, they are called **Inherent**. In the same way, if the adjectives do not speak directly about the referent of the noun they are called **Non-Inherent.**

(3) Predicative only

Some adjectives such as faint, ill, well, unwell etc, especially those referring to health condition are used in predicative position only. Generally, they refer to a temporary condition and do not characterize nouns. They behave almost like verbs and adverbs.

e.g. She looks ill. I feel sick. She felt faint.

Nevertheless, some people use ill and unwell in attributive position also. Some adjectives that have homonyms are used both in predicative position and attributive position.

Example: The conscious patient ~ the patient is conscious.

There is a larger group of adjectives that take complementation.

Examples: afraid that /of / about, conscious that / of, fond of, pleased at / that etc.
He is curious about the job.
She is content with her salary.

(4) Postpositive Adjectives

If the adjectives follow the noun or pronoun that they modify, they are called Postpositive Adjectives. Generally, Postpositive Adjectives are considered as reduced relative clauses. (along with the complementation they have, if any.)

- Some adjectives have a particular meaning when they follow nouns. A few of them are: concerned involved, present and responsible.

  e.g. All the clerks concerned were asked to leave the meeting hall.
  The directors present did not like the presentation.

- Some adjectives, especially participles, if they follow a noun, they stand as the contraction of an unexpressed relative clause.

  e.g. He is the last batsman standing.
  There are only three seats left.

- Adjectives that qualify pronouns (objects) if they follow them.

  e.g. I want to present him something special.
  That would be quite understandable to anyone intelligent.

- In some exceptional cases where adjectives such as old and tall follow the noun.

  e.g. The pole is two meters tall.
  I am 40 years old. (Indian usage)

- In some cases when an adjective follows a noun and is postmodified by a prepositional phrase.

  e.g. I purchased all the eggs left in the shop.
  He was a man proud of his achievements.

Exception: Generally, Postposition is not allowed if an adjective is alone or premodified merely by an intensifier.

Eg. The timid girl met the teacher. * The girl (rather) timid met the teacher. (ungrammatical)

(Quirk & Greenbaum, p.128)

(5) Head of a Noun Phrase

Sometimes adjectives function as heads of noun phrases.

e.g. The young look to the old for advice.
The rich should help the poor.

7.9. SEMANTIC SUB-CLASSIFICATION OF ADJECTIVES

Depending on the meanings, we can subclassify adjectives, as follows:

(A) Stative and Dynamic

If the adjectives describe the stative features (a state or condition, which may generally be considered permanent) of people or things, they are called stative adjectives. In English, most adjectives are stative.

Examples: big, small, tall, short, beautiful, pretty.

These adjectives cannot be used with the progressive aspect or with the imperative.

eg. * He's being tall. * Be tall.

If the adjectives describe the dynamic properties of people or things, they are called dynamic adjectives.

Examples: helpful, patient, witty, ambitious, careful, generous, polite, calm, mannerly, patient, cruel, rude, disruptive, shy, foolish, suspicious, friendly, tidy, good, vacuous, impatient, vain

Dynamic adjectives are different in use from stative adjectives. They can be used with progressive aspect of the verb 'be'.

Examples:

- He is being impatient.
- She is being stubborn.

Dynamic adjectives can go with imperative 'be'.

Examples:

- Be diligent!
- Be careful!

(B) Gradable and Non- Gradable.

If adjectives are modified by adverbs which show the intensity of the adjectives, they are said to be gradable adjectives. Most adjectives, including comparatives are gradable. Gradability includes comparison and intensification.

For Example:

- Tall, taller, tallest.
- Marvelous, more marvelous , most marvelous .
- very young
- so straightforward
- extremely useful

Some adjectives cannot be pre-modified with very, fairly etc but can be pre-modified with absolutely, really, quite, etc

Examples: awful, fascinating, incredible, terrifying, disastrous, marvelous, etc,

(E) Inherent and Non-inherent

Adjectives that are attributive only or that are predominantly placed in attributive position may not speak about the referent of the noun directly.

For example, an old friend ('one who has been a friend for a long period of time') does not necessarily imply that the person is old, so that we cannot relate my old friend to my friend is old. Old refers to the friendship and does not characterize the person. In that use, old is attributive only. On the other hand, in that old man, old is a central adjective (the opposite of young) and we can relate that old man to that man is old. (Quirk & Greenbaum, 133)

Here, in 'an old man', 'old' is an inherent adjective as the meaning is direct.
In 'an old friend', 'old' is a non-inherent adjective as the meaning is not direct

Some non-inherent adjectives occur also predicatively. For example, both a new student and a new friend are non-inherent, though the former can be used predicatively:

That student is new.
*My friend is new. (unacceptable).

(Quirk & Greenbaum, 133)

7.10. COMPARISON AND INTENSIFICATION

Adjectives and adverbs have different forms to show comparison. There are three degrees of comparison: positive/absolute, comparative, and superlative.

7.10.1. Positive/Absolute

It is the base form of the adjective. It does not show comparison.
young / easily

7.10.2. Comparative

It is the form of an adjective used to compare two things analytically and imply increase or decrease of the quality or quantity of the nouns or intensity of verbs, adjectives, or adverbs.
Comparison is stated by

i. The inflected form in -er
ii. less/more for adjectives or adverbs of two or more syllables

Examples:

- The bridegroom is younger than the bride.
- Ann is the shorter of the two children.
- Kiran is more studious than Sushanth .
- Jane is the taller of the two children.
- This watermelon is tastier than the last one I ate.

For an equal comparison, we use as…..as instead of more….. than.

Jack is as tall as Jill (is)
Jack is not as tall as Jill.

Superlative
It is the form of an adjective used to compare three or more things. The superlative is sometimes used for a comparison between two.
Comparison is stated by

i. The inflected form in '-est'

ii. least/most for adjectives of two or more syllables

Examples:

- Rajesh is the tallest of all the students.
- Reva is the smallest car in the world.
- This is the most interesting book I ever read.
- Susi is the shortest of the three.
- Tourism is our most important industry.

Basis of comparison

The basis of comparison can be made explicit. Usually, comparison can be done by correlative constructions introduced by than (correlative to more, less) and by as (correlative to as), and prepositional phrases with of.

Examples:

- Rahul is less/more intelligent than Ravi
- Ramesh is as clever as Suma
- Rajesh is the most foolish of the class

Inflection of adjectives and adverbs for comparison

Monosyllabic adjectives normally take inflected forms for comparison. Many disyllabic adjectives also do the same though they also take the alternative of the periphrastic forms.

So we can say { funnier / funniest
more funny / most funny

Other adjectives of more than two syllables take only periphrastic forms.
beautiful ~ more beautiful ~ most beautiful.

Regular inflectional suffixes for the comparative and superlative are -er and -est respectively. Some frequently used adjectives have their corresponding comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems, known as irregular forms. Adjectives take these inflected forms for comparison.

Examples

- bad ~ worse ~ worst
- little ~ less ~ least
- much ~ more ~ most
- far ~ further/ farther ~ furthest/farthest
- Good ~better ~best

The regular inflections sometimes undergo changes in spelling.

Changes in Spelling

i. If a base adjective/adverb ends in a consonant, the consonant is doubled when the preceding vowel is stressed and spelled with a single letter.

Example: Big ~bigger ~biggest

ii. If a base adjective/adverb ends in a consonant + y, the final y is changed to i

Examples: Early ~earlier ~earliest
Easy ~easier ~easiest

iii. If a base adjective/adverb ends in a '-e', 'e' in the inflection is dropped and only 'r' is added to the base.

Examples: Brave ~braver ~bravest
True ~truer ~truest

7.11. SUMMARY

Adjectives are words that modify, add information, or qualify a noun. It is not easy to guess a word as an adjective in isolation. Syntactic functions do not depend on the form of the adjective. Mono or disyllabic adjectives inflect to form the comparatives and superlatives. In the same way, a few adverbs inflect to form the comparatives and superlatives.

Adjectives are classified according to their form, usage and function. In general, adjectives can be both attributive and predicative. However, a few adjectives are either attributive only or predicative only. Attributive adjectives pre-modify nouns, i.e. they are placed between the determiner and the head of the noun phrase. Predicative adjectives occur as either subject complement or object complement. Adjectives which follow the item they modify are postpositive adjectives.

We have also made a semantic sub-classification of adjectives into stative-dynamic, gradable –non -gradable and inherent – non -inherent. In this lesson ways of comparison and intensification of adjectives are also discussed.

7.12. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Discuss the classification of adjectives in terms of usage.
2. Demonstrate the syntactic functions of adjectives with sufficient examples of your own.
3. Write a short note on the semantic sub-classification of adjectives.
4. What are postpositive adjectives?
5. Explain the different shapes of Adjectives.
6. Write a short note on the comparison of adjectives and adverbs with suitable examples.

7.13. REFERENCE BOOKS

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. R. V. Jayanth Kasyap**

LESSON - 8

ADVERBS AND ADVERB PHRASES

Structure of the lesson

8.0. OBJECTIVES

This lesson will provide information about -

- the characteristics of adverbs
- the functions of Adverb phrases
- the characteristics of Adverbials
- the correspondence between adjectives and adverbs
- the inflections of adverbs

8.1. INTRODUCTION

We have discussed sentence elements in Lesson 2 noting that an Adverbial is one of the sentence elements. It is realized by an Adverb Phrase which may consist of only one word an 'Adverb' or it may be modified by other adverbs.

e.g. far more easily believable is an adjective phrase – believable is modified by the adverb phrase far more easily, easily is modified by the adverb phrase far more, and more is modified by far. In this lesson we will focus on Adverbs and their properties and functions.

He walked slowly.
He jumped a very tall wall.
She ran very fast down the lane.

Look at the above sentences and notice the words in italics. They are adding information to a verb 'walked', to an adjective, 'tall' and to another adverb 'fast'. Hence, it

can be surmised that **"Adverbs are words that add information to or modify, verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs."**

8.2. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF ADVERBS

There are two types of syntactic functions that describe adverbs, but adverbs may have only one of these.

I. Adverbial
II. Modifier of Adjective and Adverb

8.3. ADVERB AS ADVERBIAL

Adverbs sometimes function as adverbials. An adverbial is a constituent that is distinct from subject, verb, object, and complement. It may function syntactically as an adverbial.

Adverbials often tell us something extra about an action, happening or state as described by the rest of the sentence.

8.3.1. There are three types of adverbials based on:

i) the time when it happened (time adverbial)
ii) the place where it happened (place adverbial)
iii) the manner in which it happened (manner adverbial)

i) Time adverbials: These are of three types -

- denoting time-when

  I'll contact you when I get the results.
  We came late in the evening.

- denoting duration

  I haven't seen Many for a long time.

- denoting frequency

  our office get almost a hundred letters every day.
  your salary will be paid monthly.

ii) Place adverbials: They usually have end-position.

Are you staying in a hotel?
He likes to eat in Chinese restaurants.

iii) Manner adverbials: Adverbials denoting manner, means, and instrument usually have end-position.

Will you be coming by car?
The robber threatened him with a big knife.
The conference opened formally toddy.

8.3.2. Adverbials can have several forms. Some of them are:

- Adverbs or adverb phrases –

  My cousin has very kindly offered me a job.

- Prepositional phrases –

  Many people were waiting outside the doctor's room.

- Noun phrases –

  What are you doing this afternoon?

- Clauses with a finite verb –

  We have to catch the train before it's too late.

8.3.3. There are three classes of Adverbials:

a) Adjuncts

An adjunct is usually used to modify a verb indicating a time, a manner, a place, a frequency, a reason, or a degree. An adverb is an adjunct if it is neatly placed within the sentence or integrated within the sentence. It is part of the clause to at least some extent.
Examples:

- Tom often plays the violin alone.
- He yelled his name loudly.
- Alan always drives carefully.
- He is waiting outside.
- She spoke to me briefly.

b) Disjuncts

An adverb is a disjunct if it is set off from the rest of the sentence. Disjuncts are neither an integral part of the clause nor do they help join their own clause to another clause but, they state an opinion of the speaker. They are also called sentence adverbials.
Examples:

- Frankly, Madhu is a bit rude.
- Fortunately, no one was hurt.
- They are probably at the railway station.
- Of course, nobody believed him.
- To be sure, we've heard many such promises before.

Other such adverbials are actually, definitely, in fact, indeed, surprisingly etc.

c) Conjuncts

An adverb is a conjunct if it is set off from a sentence, usually with a comma, and serves as a connection between two clauses. The usual place for most sentence adverbials is front

position. They are often separated from what follows by a tone unit boundary in speech or a comma in writing.

Spoken / ˈobviously / they expect us to be on ˋtime./
Written: Obviously, they expect us to be on time.

Examples:

- I love chocolate; however, I'm allergic to it.
- The police warned him repeatedly, yet he just sat there.

8.4 ADVERB AS MODIFIER

a) Modifier of Adjective

Adverbs as intensifiers or emphasizers pre-modify adjectives.

Examples:

- That was a very typical game.
- It is **extremely** harmful for you.
- My sister has a **really** pleasant disposition

Adverbs such as 'enough' – postmodify adjectives, i.e. it is placed after its adjective.

Examples:

- We were foolish enough to believe him.
- His material was good enough.
- The box was high enough to reach.

b) Modifier of adverb.

An adverb may premodify another adverb, and function as intensifier.

Example:

- They were drinking very heavily.
- Mira did rather well in her exams.

As with adjectives, the only postmodifier is enough, placed after the adverb as in oddly enough, cleverly enough.

c) Modifier of Prepositional phrase

A group of words which does not contain a subject and verb but acts as an adverb is called an adverbial phrase. The adverbial phrases are mostly Prepositional phrases that have adverbial functions. Some adverbs premodify prepositional phrases.
Examples:

- The nail went **right** through the wall.
- Her parents one **dead** against the tip.
- The strike lasted for a **whole** week.

d) Modifier of pre-determiner, determiner and postdeterminer

Intensifying adverbs can pre-modify indefinite pronouns, pre-determiners and cardinal numbers.

Examples:

- He seems to have hardly any money.
- Nearly everybody jumped from the building
- Over two thousand road accidents are reported every month.
- I owe **more than** twenty dollars to you.

e) Modifier of noun phrase

Some Noun phrases can be pre-modified by intensifiers such as quite, rather and the pre-determiners such and exclamatory what. The noun phrase is normally indefinite, and the intensifiers precede any determiners.
Examples:

- I saw such a funny incident.
- I have never seen such cruelty.
- It was rather a mess.
- What a fool he is!
- He was quite a good orator

Some adverbs of place (eg. home) or time (eg. before, ahead) can postmodify nouns.

Examples:

- Our journey home was quick.
- Rita met me the day before.
- Do you know the way ahead?
- Read the sentence below.

Sometimes the adverb can premodify nouns.

Eg. his home journey, the above photo.

f) Adverb as complement of preposition

Place adverbs such as here and there function as complements of prepositions such as alotheng, around, down, from, in, near, on, out (of), over, round, through, under, up. In the same way the place adverb home can be the complement of the prepositions at, from, near, toward(s). Similarly time adverbs also function as complement of a preposition.
Examples:

- I don't know anybody around here.
- He hasn't eaten since yesterday.
- After today, I won't speak to her.

Here are more examples of the preposition from + adverb combinations:

from above, from abroad, over here, over there, from inside, from outside, etc.

8.5. CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS ON THE BASIS OF THEIR POSITION

There are three positions where adverbs can be placed: Initial, Mid, End.

Adverbs of manner

If we want to specify how an action is performed or how an event takes place, we can use an adverb of manner or process.

He spoke confidently.
She stirred her coffee thoughtfully.
Max read the letter carefully.

Adverbs of manner can be placed in all three positions depending on the context and emphasis or variety. However, not all adverbs of manner have that flexibility of position.

Example:

- He dressed for the show hurriedly.
- He dressed hurriedly for the show.

Adverbs of time and place

Adverbs of time and place are generally placed in end position, but some adverbs can be fronted for topicality or emphasis.

Examples:

- We'll discuss it afterwards.
- (Tomorrow) they are going to London (tomorrow)
- She met me on Thursday.
- There is a thousand pillars temple in Warangal.
- In Warangal there is a thousand pillars temple.

Adverbs of frequency

Adverbs of frequency are placed before the main verb, or after be. They are usually placed after the auxiliary verb. However, Adverbs of definite frequency go in end position. Seldom, rarely, hardly ever and never are principally frequency adverbs.

Examples:

- Rohit rarely scores a ton.
- The leader of the opposition is seldom right.
- He has rarely smiled.
- I should never have told him.
- The drinking water comes twice daily. (Definite frequency)

Adverbs of degree

Adverbs of degree speak about the intensity or degree of an action, an adjective or another adverb. Some adverbs of degree are: enough, hardly, scarcely, completely, almost, nearly, quite, just, too, very, and extremely. They are generally placed before the adjective or adverb they are modifying and before the main verb. Adverbs of degree are sometimes referred to as adverbs of quantity.

Examples:

- The tea was extremely hot.
- I fully agree with you.
- Your anger is thoroughly justified.
- She was just leaving.
- She has almost finished.

Comparative and superlative adverbs also show degree; hence they are also treated as adverbs of degree.

Examples:

- Walk faster if you want to catch the train.
- The student who writes faster will get an additional mark.
- This is the most beautifully weaved sweater I have ever worn.
- That was the least skillfully stitched blazer I've seen in years.

8.6. ADVERBS AS INTENSIFIERS

Adverbs often function as intensifiers, conveying a greater or lesser emphasis to something. The most commonly used intensifier is Very. They can pre-modify manner/time adverbs,

some quantity adverbs and frequency adverbs.

Emphasizers or maximizers

These adverbs modify non-gradable adjectives. Some of them are absolutely, totally, utterly, quite, really, so, absurd, magnificent, etc.

Examples:

- I really don't trust him.
- He literally cried for his car.
- She simply denied my proposal.
- They are going to be here, for sure.

Amplifiers

These adverbs enlarge the meaning of the verb. Amplifiers include such words as completely, totally, undoubtedly, absolutely, so, well.

Examples:

- The dean completely rejected her application.
- I so wanted to have that cake.
- We know this family well.

Downtoners

These adverbs show the poor quality of the verb, adjective or another adverb. Downtoners include such words as kind of, not so much, sort of, mildly, to some extent, simply, all but.

Examples:

- I kind of like this college.
- Yusuf sort of felt betrayed by his sister.
- His mother mildly disapproved his actions.
- We can improve on this to some extent.
- The boss almost quit after that.
- The school was all but ruined by the storm.

8.7. CORRESPONDENCE BETWEEN ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

We know that most adverbs are derived from adjectives by suffixation. In addition often there is a correspondence between constructions containing adjectives and those containing the corresponding adverbs.

The boss spoke to David sharply.
The boss spoke to David in a sharp manner. (prepositional phrase containing a noun phrase with the corresponding adjective).

Politically, it was a hasty decision.

From the political point of view, it was a hasty decision.

Other examples of regular correspondences between sentences with an adverb and noun phrases with an adjective.

He loved her deeply ~ his deep love for her
She answered cleverly ~ her clever answer

8.8. COMPARISON

For a small number of adverbs, the inflected forms used for comparison are the same as those for adjectives. As with adjectives, there is a small group with comparatives and superlatives formed from different stems:

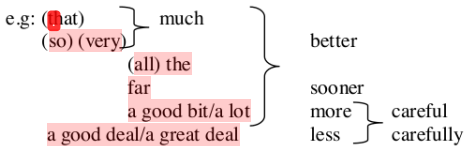
Well~better~best little~less~least badly~worse~worst

Adverbs that are identical in form with adjectives take inflections, following the same spelling and phonetic rules as for adjectives,

e.g: early, late, hard, slow, fast, quick etc.,

soon which has no corresponding adjectives, is frequently used in the comparative (sooner), but is not common in the superlative (soonest).

The comparative of both adjectives and adverbs can themselves be pre-modified by amplifying intensifiers – certain noun phrases (most of them informal) and adverbs.



8.9. SUMMARY

This lesson focused on Adverbs and Adverb Phrases, their forms and features. We have seen how Adverbs can have one of two functions, that of Adverbial and that of modifier of Adjectives, other Adverbs etc. We have also noted the different forms and meanings of adverbials and adverbs.

Adverbs function as adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts. Some adverbs are placed in initial position, some in mid position and some in end position. Adjectives and adverbs are used for comparison using inflections and the rules regarding their usage has also been dealt with in this lesson.

8.10. TECHNICAL TERMS

Phrase - A phrase is a syntactic unit which may be composed of one or more words. A phrase takes its name from the Head word. For example: Adjective Phrase, Adverb Phrase, Verb Phrase, and Preposition Phrase. Phrases may have pre-modifiers and post-modifiers.

Clause - A clause is a string of words which expresses a proposition and typically consists of at least a subject and a verb: Birds fly. Yesterday we visited Rastrapathi Bhavan.

Syntax - Syntax examines the ways in which words may be combined (order of words) and the relationships that exist between the words in combination.

Complement - A constituent of a phrase which is required to complete the meaning of the Head. In 'a review of the book', 'of the book' is the Complement of the Head 'review'. Similarly, in the 'he detectives examined the scene', the scene is the Complement of the Head 'examined'.

Determiner-Determiners occur before nouns and indicate the kind of reference which the noun has: the boy, a bus, our car, these children, both hospitals.

8.11. Self-Assessment Questions

1. Discuss the classification verbials.
2. Write a short note on the semantic sub-classification of adverbs.
3. Classify the adverbs on the basis of their position.
4. Explain the syntactic functions of Adverbs.
5. Give a short note on the comparison of adjectives and adverbs with suitable examples.

8.12. Reference Books

Randolph Quirk & Sidney Greenbaum (1973). A University Grammar of English, Pearson, New Delhi, 2012

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. R.V. Jayanth Kasyap**

LESSON – 9

PREPOSITIONS AND PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Structure of the lesson

9.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

At the end of the lesson, the students will be able to:

- State the definition and entity of a preposition
- Understand various functions of prepositions
- Recognize prepositions and their objects in different contexts
- Distinguish prepositions of *time, place* from each other and from other prepositions
- Make use of prepositions to describe objects in relation to one another in the given context.
- Demonstrate the correct usage of prepositions and identify the relationship between the noun and the preposition
- Create their own sentences using prepositions and prepositional phrases

9.1. INTRODUCTION

Often we know that the word 'preposition' is a combination of two words like, 'pre + position'. Here, the word 'pre' means 'before' and position' means 'a definite place'. Thus the word 'preposition' means 'a word placed before'. But on the whole it indicates the relationship between two entities represented by nouns, in a sentence. As in the case

of nouns, verbs etc. that we have seen in earlier lessons, a preposition typically functions in a prepositional phrase. A prepositional phrase is made up of a preposition, and its complement. preposition play a very significant role in English grammar and the student should have a thorough understanding of its nature and function.

There are about 150 prepositions in English. Prepositions are important words. We use individual prepositions more frequently than other individual words. In fact, the prepositions **of**, **to** and **in** are among the ten most frequent words in English. Most preposition usage is essentially conventional. For instance, it's not easy to distinguish any logical difference between "in," "on," and "at" as prepositions of place and location, and this is why so many non-native English speakers take a long time to master their proper usage. Achieving this mastery, in fact, requires committing to memory the specific prepositions needed according to established usage, and it is a task that becomes even more tedious and difficult in the case of the prepositional phrases and prepositional idioms.

For example:

(1) There is a student *in* the class. The word *in* shows the relation between 'student' and 'class'.

(2) Chandra is fond *of* sweets. The word *of* suggests the relation between the quality expressed by the adjective 'fond' and 'sweets'.

(3) The boy jumped *off* the table. The word *off* shows the relation between the action expressed by the verb 'jumped' and the 'table'.

9.2. KINDS OF PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions may be divided into the following classes. Simple Prepositions, Compound Prepositions, Complex Prepositions, Phrase Prepositions/ Phraseal Prepositions and Participle Prepositions.

9.2.1. Simple Prepositions: Generally there are some simple words which are called 'simple prepositions'. The most common simple prepositions are: *In, of, off, at, on, by, for, out, from, over, up, with, to, under, till, through*.

9.2.2. Compound Prepositions: Compound Prepositions are usually formed by prefixing a preposition to a noun, an adjective or an adverb. Here the most common prepositions used in such compounds are: *About, above, across, among, along, amidst, around, behind, below, before, beneath, beside, beyond, between, inside, outside, underneath, within, without*, etc.

9.2.3. Complex Prepositions: A complex preposition comprises more than one preposition. They have the following categories:

- Adverb or Preposition + Preposition: *along with, as for, away from, out of, up to etc*.
- Verb/Adjective/Conjunction etc. + Preposition: *owing to, due to, because of etc*.
- Preposition + Noun + Preposition: *by means of, in comparison with, in from of etc*.

9.2.4. Phrasal Preposition Phrase: The preposition and its complement form a prepositional phrase. Look at the following example:

There is a temple *on the hill*.

In the above example, 'on' is a 'preposition'. It has *the hill* as its complement and is placed in front of this noun phrase. The preposition and the noun phrase together constitute a 'prepositional phrase'. Here, the preposition 'on' links the two noun phrases 'a temple' and 'the hill' and tells us precisely where the temple is.

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition followed by a prepositional complement, which is characteristically a noun phrase or a *wh-* clause or V-*ing* clause. For example:

Preposition	**Prepositional Complement**
at	*the bus-stop*
from	*what he said*
by	*signing a peace agreement*
behind	*you*
towards	*the setting Sun*

That –clauses and infinitive clauses although they frequently have a nominal function in other respects do not occur as prepositional complements. Alternations between the presence and absence of a preposition are observed in cases like:

He was surprised at { her remark / her saying this / what she said }

He was surprised that she said this.

Further examples of verbs and adjectives which can have either prepositional complements or *that*-clauses are: *decide on, inform of, insist on, afraid of, aware of, sure of, sorry about etc*.

9.2.5. Participle Preposition: When the present participle of a verb acts as a preposition, here it is called a participle preposition. Here the words like, *barring, concerning, considering, during, pending, regarding, respecting, touching*, and a few similar words which are present participles of verbs and are used absolutely without any noun or pronoun being attached to them. For all practical purposes they have become prepositions and are sometimes distinguished as participle prepositions. Examples:

- *During* summer, the sales of ACs shoot up in South India.
- *Considering* the case, the judgment is not right.
- She made a speech, *touching* all branches of literature.

9. 3. POST-POSED PREPOSITIONS

Usually a preposition must be followed by its complement but there are some circumstances in which this does not happen either because the complement has to take first position in the clause or because it is absent. For example:

- Wh-Questions: Who did you go to the party ***with****?*
  At which house is he staying? (Formal)
- Relative Clauses: That's the article I told you ***about.***
- Wh-Clauses: What I'm convinced ***of*** is that the world's population will grow to an unforeseen extent.

- ❖ Exclamations: What a mess he's got ***into!***
- ❖ Passives: She was sought ***after*** by all the leading companies of the city.
- ❖ Infinitive Clauses: He's impossible to work ***with***.

9.4. PREPOSITIONAL ADVERBS

Some prepositions can also be adverbs. A prepositional adverb is a particle which behaves like a preposition with excessive complement:

I waited for William ***outside*** the bank. (preposition)
William went into the bank and I waited ***outside***. (adverb)
A car drove ***past*** the door (*Past* is a preposition)
A car drove ***past***. (*past* is a prepositional adverb, i. e., *past* something of someone identified in the context)

In the examples below, the adverb is respectively (a) an adjunct and (b) a postmodifier:

(a) Despite the fine weather, we stayed *in* all day. (place adjunct)
I haven't eaten *since* yesterday. (time adjunct)
(b) Ram shouted at me *from downstairs*. (postmodifier)

9.5. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

Prepositional phrases have many functions. They may function as Adjunct, Disjunct, Conjunct, Postmodifier in a noun phrase, Complementation of a verb and Complementation of an adjective. Look at the following sentences to understand various functions of prepositional phrases.

Students were playing *in the ground*. *(Adjunct)*
To my shock, all the girls left the class. (Disjunct)
On the other hand, he made no attempt to help the needy. (*Conjunct)*
The women *on the bus were singing* (*Postmodifier in a noun phrase*)
Your family depends *on you*. (*Complementation of a verb*)
I am sorry *for your actions*. (*Complementation of an adjective)*

9.6. PREPOSITIONAL MEANINGS: PLACE

When we use a preposition to indicate place, we do so in relation to the dimensional properties, whether subjectively or objectively conceived, of the location concerned. Consider the following examples:

There are some people *in* the hotel. (dimensionless location)

The television is *on* the table. (two dimensional area)
She is going *up* the steps, and he is coming *down* the steps. (three dimensional area)
The bus is *at* the bus stop; it is going *from* the City Central *to* the University. (destination)

Quirk and Greenbaum give the following prepositional meanings.

9.6.1. Positive Position and Direction: at, to etc.

Between the notions of simple position (or static location) and direction (movement with respect to a destination) a cause-and-effect relationship obtains:

Direction		Position	
Tom went *to* the door	*as a result:*	tom *was at* the door	
Tom fell *on (to)* the floor	*as a result:*	tom *was on* the floor	
Tom dived *in (to)* the water	*as a resul:*	tom *was in* the water	

A prepositional phrase of 'position' can accompany any verb, although the meaning of 'direction' generally requires a dynamic verb of 'motion' such as *go, move, fly etc*. Most prepositions of place say where something is or where it is going. Look at the following examples:

There was a barrier ***across*** the road. (position)
The boy ran ***across*** the road. (movement)
We were ***at*** the shopping mall. (position)
We went ***to*** the shopping mall. (movement)
They were sitting ***in*** the staff room. He stood ***on*** the balcony. (position)
She went ***into*** the staff room. He walked ***onto*** the balcony. (movement)

9.6.2. Negative Position and Direction: *away, from, off* etc.

There is a parallel cause and effect relation with the negative prepositions *away from, out of*.

Examples:

Tarun went *away from the* door. (Direction)
Tarun was *away from* the door -- (Tarun was not at the door). (Position)

(The negative character of these prepositions is shown by the parenthesized paraphrase.)

The alarm has been switched ***off.*** *(off* = 'not on')
He is ***out of*** danger. *(out of* = 'not in')

9.6.3. Relative Position: *by, over, under* etc.

Apart from simple position, prepositions may express the relative position of two objects or groups of objects:

He was standing *by* the fireplace. ('at the side of')
I left the keys *with* my wallet. ('in the same place as')

Prepositions – *above, over, on the top of, under, underneath, beneath, below* – express relative position vertically whereas *before, in front of, behind, after* represent it horizontally. The antonyms *above* and *below, over* and *under, in front of* and *behind* are not positive and negative, but they are converse opposites.

9.6.4. Relative Destination: *by, over, under* etc.

Except *above* and *below,* the rest of the positions listed above, can express relative destination. For example:

The bush was the only conceivable hiding-place, so I dashed *behind* it.
When it started to rain, we all went *underneath* the trees.

This use is distinct from that denoting passage behind, under, etc.

9.6.5.Passage: *by, over, under* etc.

With verbs of motion, prepositions may express the idea of passage (*i.e*. movement towards and then away from a place) as well as destination. This occurs in sentences like:

He jumped *over* a tunnel.
Someone ran *behind* the goal-posts.

In sentences like the last, or like- *The ball rolled underneath the table-* there is an ambiguity. We can supply either the meaning of 'passage' – 'the ball passed under the table on the way to some other destination' or the meaning of 'destination' – 'the ball rolled under the table and stayed there'.

9.6.6. Passage: *across, through, past* etc.

The sense of 'passage' is the primary locative meaning attached to *across*, *through* and *past*. Note the parallel between across and *on, through and in*, in *the given examples:*

on the grass ~ across the grass.
in the grass ~ through the grass.

The upper pair treats the grass as a surface, and therefore, suggests short grass; the lower pair, by treating the grass as a volume, suggests that it has height as well as length and breadth – that is, that the grass is long. There is a meaning of *over* corresponding to *across* in this sense:

The ball rolled over/ across the lawn.

9.6.7. Direction: *up, down, along* etc.

Up and *down* contrast in terms of vertical direction, while *along* contrasts with *across* in terms of horizontal direction. For example:

I walked up and down the street. (Up and down here express the notion of "along", and need not have any vertical implications.)

9.6.8. Orientation: *beyond, over, past* etc.

Most prepositions listed above can be used in a static sense of orientation. This brings in the third factor apart from the two things being spatially related: *viz*. a 'point of orientation', at which (in reality or imagination) the speaker is standing. *Beyond* ('on the far side of') is a preposition whose primary meaning is one of orientation; furthermore,

over (Br. E), *past, across, and through* can combine the meaning of 'beyond' with more specific information or dimension. For example:

My friends *across* the sea (i.e. 'from here')
Observe the village *past* the bus- stop / *through* the wood etc.

9.6.9. Resultative Meaning

All prepositions which have motional meaning can also have a static resultative meaning indicating the state of having reached the destination. For example:

I managed to *get across* the river. (i.e. so that I was on the other side of the river)
The horses are *over* the fence. (i.e. are now beyond)

Resultative meaning is not always distinguishable out of context from other static meanings; its presence is often signaled, however, by certain adverbs: *already, just, at last, (not) yet, etc*.

9.6.10. Pervasive Meaning: *all over, throughout* etc.

Over and *through* especially when preceded by *all*, have pervasive meaning (either static or motional). For example:

There was blood *all over* the sheets.
Gladness reigned *all through* the Christmas.

Throughout, substitutable for *all through*, is the only preposition whose primary meaning is 'pervasive.' The axis type prepositions are also used in a pervasive sense occasionally.

Eg. There were crowds *(all) along* the route.
They put flowers *(all) around* the statue.

9.6.11. Seven Senses of "*Over*"

Let us now see how one preposition (*over)* may be used in most of the senses discussed:

- Position: A lamp hung *over* the door.
- Destination: They threw a blanket *over* her.
- Passage: They climbed *over* the wall.
- Orientation: They live *over* (on the far side of) the road.
- Resultative: At last we were *over* the top of the hill.
- Pervasive (Static): Leaves lay thick (all) *over* the ground.
- Pervasive (motion): They splashed water (all) *over* me.

(Quirk & Greenbaum, P.164-165)

9.6.12. Verbs Containing Prepositional Meaning

When a verb contains within it the meaning of a following preposition, it is often possible to omit the preposition; then the verb then becomes transitive, and the prepositional complement becomes a direct object. For example: *climb (up), jump (over), flee (from), and pass (by):*

He climbed (up) the hill.

9.6.13. Metaphorical or Abstract Use of Place Prepositions

Many place prepositions have abstract meanings which are clearly related, through metaphorical connection, to their locative uses. Very often prepositions so used keep the groupings (in terms of similarity or contrast of meaning) that they have when used to literal reference to place. This is often true, for example, of temporal usage. One may perceive a stage-by-stage extension of metamorphic usage in such a series as:

in shallow water---purely literal
in deep water-----in trouble (metamorphic usage)
in difficulties----in problems
in a spot---in a complex situation

9.7. PREPOSITIONAL MEANINGS: TIME WHEN: *at, on, in*

At, on, and *in* as prepositions of 'time when' are to some extent parallel to the same items as positive prepositions of position , although in the time sphere there are only two 'dimension-types', viz. 'point of time' and 'period of time'. Most preposition usage is essentially conventional. For instance, it's not easy to discern any logical difference between "in," "on," and "at" as prepositions of place and location, and this is why so many non-native English speakers take a long time to master their proper usage. Achieving this mastery, in fact, requires committing to memory the specific prepositions needed according to established usage, and it's a task that becomes even more tedious and difficult in the case of the prepositional phrases and prepositional idioms.

at for **time of the day, *on*** for **days and dates** and ***in*** for **longer periods of time**

at	On	In
Time of the day	Days and dates	Longer periods of time: months, years, seasons
at five o' clock	on Friday/Fridays	in the morning
at 11.45	on 15 May	in October
at midnight	on Christmas day	in 1988
at lunchtime	on my birthday	in the eighteenth century
at sunset		in the past

At night, At the weekend At Christmas (two or three days) At the moment At the same time	On Friday mornings On Sunday afternoons On time (punctual, not late) The 11.45 train left on time. Please be on time.	In the morning In the afternoon In time (for something/ to do something) Will you be in time for dinner? I have sent her a present. I hope it arrives in time.
At the end (of something) At the end of the month At the end of January At the end of the film		In the end (finally) We had a lot of problem with the car. In the end we sold it. He got more and more angry. In the end he walked out of the room.

Prepositions of place and location: "in," "at," and "on"

In	at	on
In a room/building/ box In a garden/town/ country In a pool/ river/ the sea	At the door/ window At the roundabout/ corner/bus stop At the reception	On the ceiling/wall/door/ table/floor On the grass/ beach/ chair On a page On an island
	There were a lot of people **in** the shop	Go along this shop, turn left **at** the shop
I'll meet **you in** the hotel lobby.	I'll meet you **at** the entrance of the hotel.	

9.7.1. Duration: *for* etc.

Duration is expressed by *for*: contrast

We went to tourist places { *for* the summer (i.e. all through)
in the summer (i.e. at some time during the summer)

Sagar gave up smoking *for good. (i.e.* 'forever') (Idiomatic phrase)

9.7.2. Before, After, Since and Until/Till

As prepositions, these occur almost exclusively as prepositions of time, and are followed by either (a) a temporal noun phrase (e.g.: before next week), (b) a subject less V-ing clause (e.g.: since leaving school) or some other noun phrase interpreted as equivalent to a clause:

Generally we know that **'before'** means 'earlier in time' and '**after'** means 'later in time'. Examples:

- I came *before* the teacher (came).
- Subhash came *after* Prabhu (came).

'Since' is used with periods of time in the past at which an action started and continues until the time of speaking. Generally it refers to a point of time. Examples:

- He has been here *since* six o' clock.
- My mother hasn't seen me *since* January, 2007
- They have been in service *since* March 2002
- India has been playing Test cricket *since* 1932.

Generally '***till/until'*** is used to indicate a point of time. This means, we use them to say when something finishes. Examples:

- The college will remain open *till/ until* six in the evening
- My friends were at the market *till / until* its closing time.
- *Until* the fall of Rome (= 'until Rome fell')
- *Before* the war (='before the war started or took place')

Until specifies a terminal point with positive and a commencement point with negative predications:

- We slept *until* midnight (We stopped sleeping then)
- We didn't sleep *until* midnight (We started sleeping then)

9.7.3. Between, By and Upto

Other prepositions of time are *between, by and up to:*

- The interviews will be held *between* lunch *and* three o'clock.
- *By* the time we'd walked five miles, he was exhausted.
- *Up to* last week, I hadn't received a reply.

By specifies a commencement point; contrast:

- *By that time* he was tired (He was then tired)
- *Until that time* he was exhausted (He was then no longer exhausted)

This means that *by*-phrases do not co-occur with verbs of durative meaning:
Example: *He lay there by/until midnight*.

9.7.4. Absence of Prepositions of Time

Prepositions of time *when* are always absent from adjuncts having the deictic words *last, next, this, and that;* the quantifying words *some* and *every;* and nouns which have 'last', 'next' or 'this' as an element of their meaning: *yesterday / today/ tomorrow*. For example:

- I saw him *last Thursday*.
- I'll mention it *next time I see him*.
- Plums are more plentiful *this year*.
- *Every summer* she returns to her childhood home.

The preposition is usually optional with deictic phrases referring to times at more than one remove from the present, such as (on) *Monday week , (in) the January before last, (on) the day before yesterday*. So is the case with phrases which identify a time before or after a given time in the past or future: (in) *the previous spring, (at) the following weekend, (on) the next day*. On the whole, the sentence without the preposition tends to be more informal and more usual.

9.7.5. Absence of Preposition '*for*'

The preposition 'for ' is often omitted in phrases of duration.

For example: We stayed there *(for) three days*.

The omission is impossible where the action of the verb is clearly not continuously co-extensive with the period specified: For example*: 'I taught him for four years'*. Initial position in the clause also seems to discourage omission. For example: '*For thousands of years*, the treasure remains unnoticed in the Himalayas'.

9.8. PREPOSITIONAL MEANINGS: MEANS AND AGENT

9.8.1. Manner: *with, in, like*

- He treated us *with the utmost consideration*.
- The task was done *in a professional manner*.
- Sarah came into the room *like a ghost*.

➢ Note that 'like' with intensive verbs, as in *Life is like a dream*, refers not to manner but to resemblance.

9.8.2. Means, Instrument, Agent: *by, with, without*

By can express the meaning 'by means of':

- I usually go to work *by/bus / train/ car*.
- She entered the house *by the back gate*.

- We sold the house *by advertising it in the paper*.

With, on the other hand, expresses instrumental meaning:

- She touched the lace *with her fingers*.
- The thief attacked *him with an iron bar*.
- I completed the project *without anybody's support*.

In a passive sentence, the agentive or instrument can be expressed by a *by-* phrase, but only the instrument can be expressed by a *with* phrase:

The window was broken { by a ball / by a boy
with a ball/ *with a boy

The agentive *by*-phrase also occurs as a postmodifier to signify authorship or the like: *a novel by R. K. Narayan, a picture by Degas etc*.

9.8.3. Stimulus: *at*

The relation between an emotion and its stimulus (normally an abstract stimulus) can often be expressed by *at* or by the instrumental *by*:

- I was alarmed *at / by* his behavior.

Both of these can be treated as passive equivalents of *His behavior alarmed me*. And the noun phrase following at may be treated as a 'quasi-agent'. Other prepositions introducing stimuli are illustrated in the examples *resentful of, disappointed with, sorry about*.

9.8.4. Accompaniment: *with*

Especially when followed by an animate complement, *with* has the meaning 'in company with' or 'together with':

- I'm so glad you're coming *with us*.
- Srinivas, *with several of his friends,* was drinking till 2 am.

In the second sentence, the *with*-phrase serves a function very close to coordination with and: "Srinivas and several of his friends were . . . ." An example of phrase of accompaniment as postmodifier is:

Idly with sambar is my favorite breakfast.

In this as in most other senses *without* is the negative of *with:*

They are going without us.

You never see him without ('Unaccompanied by') his dog.

9.8.5. Support, Opposition: *for, with, against*

- Are you *for or against* the plan? *(i.e.* Do you support or oppose the plan?)
- We should swim *with* rather than *against* the tide.

For conveys the idea of support, ***with,*** solidarity or movement in sympathy; whereas ***Against*** conveys the contrary idea of opposition.

In this use, there is no negative *without* contrasting with '*with*'.

9.9. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE CHIEFLY AS ADJUNCT

9.9.1. *Cause ~ purpose: Cause, reason, motive: Because of, etc*,

We have prepositions expressing either the material cause or the psychological cause (motive) of a happening. Phrase of cause, reason and motive answer the question 'Why ...?'. For example:

- *Because of the baby,* she can't go out.
- *On account of icy road condtions,* there were many accidents.
- I hid the money, *for fear of what my parents would say*.
- The survivors were weak *from exposure and lack of food*.
- He took care of his uncle,*out of duty*.

9.9.2. Purpose & Intended Destination: *for*

The notion of 'purpose' can be seen from the possibility of paraphrase by a clause *in order to* ,*for money* – 'in order to gain money'.

- He'll do anything *for money*.
- Everyone ran *for shelter*.
- He died *for his country*.

9.9.3. Recipient, Goal, Target: *for, to, at*

- She prepared a sumptuous lunch *for* her son. (intended recipient)
- He gifted a beautiful dress *to* his son. (actual recipient)
- After aiming carefully *at* the bird, he missed it completely. (intended goal or target)
- The girl ran *to* her mother. (actual goal or target)

9.9.4. Source, Origin: *from*

The converse of *to* ('goal') is *from* ('source'):

Bhanu lent the book *to* me ⟶ I borrowed the book *from* Bhanu.

From is also used with reference to 'place of origin':

He comes from America. (He is an American)

This type of prepositional phrase occurs not only as an adjunct, but also as a postmodifier:

The man *from* Mars; a friend of mine *from* London.

9.10. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE CHIEFLY AS DISJUNCT OR CONJUNCT

9.10.1. Concession: *in spite of, despite, for + all, with+ all, notwithstanding*:

Look at the following examples:

- We are enjoying ourselves, *in spite of the weather*.
- He lost the fight, *for all his boasting*.

In spite of is a general-purpose preposition of concession; *despite is* rather more formal and *notwithstanding* is formal and rather legalistic in style. The combinations *for all* and *with all* ('all' being an obligatory pre-determiner with this meaning) are chiefly colloquial.

9.10.2. Reference: *with regard to, with reference to, as to, as for*

- *With reference to* your letter of March 24th, I accept your offer.
- *As for the boy,* he was sneezing a lot.

As to and *as for* ('returning to the question of . . . ') are less formal than the other complex prepositions in this group. Other prepositions within the same general area of meaning are regarding, in regard to, with respect to, in respect of, and on the matter of. Most can be used in post modifying phrases as well as in disjuncts: *I'd like to know your opinion as to/ with regard to the burglar's behavior.*

9.10.3. Exception: *except for, but* etc.

None of us had any money *except (for)* John.

Commonly the complement is itself a prepositional phrase: *Except, excepting,* and *but* function generally (in the case of but exclusively) in postmodifying phrases. Thus *but* cannot occur initially as a preposition:

**But me, everyone was tired.*

The prepositional phrase, in such constructions, is often separated from its noun head, and postponed to the end of the clause:

- Everyone *but me* was tired ~ everyone was tired but me.

Except for, with the exception of, and apart from are used primarily in disjuncts.

9.10.4. Negative Condition: *but, for*

It is to be noted that *but for* is not used in the sense of exception, but rather that of 'negative condition': *But for Sachin, we should have lost the match* (i.e. 'If it hadn't been for Sachin . . . .' , 'If Sachin hadn't played as he did . . . '. etc.)

9.11. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE CHIEFLY AS POSTMODIFIER

Having: of, with, without
Look at the following examples:

(a) A man of integrity. The man has integrity.

(b) A boy with blue eyes. The boy has blue eyes.

The preposition *of* in (a) is normally used with abstract attributes, while *with in* (b) more general and is especially common with concrete attributes.

The negative of *with* is *without*.
A man *without* shame.

9.12. PREPOSITION PHRASE CHIEFLY AS COMPLEMENTATION OF VERB OR ADJECTIVE

9.12.1. Subject Matter: *about, on*

- He told me *about his adventures*.
- He's lecturing *on stem cell research*.

With the meaning 'on the subject of, concerning', *about and on* can combine with a considerable range of verbs and adjectives, including: *speak about/ on* and *silent about / on*. 'On' tends to refer to deliberate, formal communication (speaking, lecturing, writing, etc), and is therefore inappropriate for verbs like *chat or quarrel*. This difference of meaning occurs also with postmodifying phrases: *a book about/ on butterflies* but *a story about a princess*.

9.12.2. Ingredient, Material: *with, of, out of*

After verbs of 'making', *with* indicates an ingredient, whereas *of* and *out of* signify the material or constituency of the whole thing:

- You make a cake *with eggs (i.e.* 'eggs are one of the ingredients')
- He made the frame (out) *of wood* (*i.e.* 'wood was the only material')

The same contrast or meaning is seen with build and construct:

- The tower was built/ constructed *with reinforced concrete*
- The tower was built/ constructed (out) of *reinforced concrete*

With also enters into expressions such as *paved with brick, filled with water, loaded with hay*.

9.12.3. Respect, Standard: *at, for*

A prepositional phrase may specify the meaning of a gradable adjective by using *at* to introduce the respect in which the adjective is appropriate to its noun phrase:

- He's bad/ hopeless/ terrible *at games*.

9.13. MODIFICATION OF PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

It is worth noting that prepositional meanings (particularly of time and place) are subject to modification as regards degree and measure, and that prepositions may therefore (like many adjectives and adverbs) be preceded by intensifiers. For example:

- He had wandered *right (*'completely') off the path.
- Now their footsteps could be heard *directly* above my head.

There is doubt in such cases as to whether the intensifier should be treated as applying to the whole prepositional phrase, or to the preposition alone. Occasionally, the possibility of placing the intensifier after the phrase suggests that it is phrase as a whole that is qualified: E.g.: *Few people are against public ownership completely*.

9.14. SUMMARY

In this lesson, we have learnt many functions of the preposition, whose primary duty is to be placed before nouns/pronoun in sentences. All basic kinds of prepositions have

been discussed with appropriate examples. It is acknowledged that the preposition, when it joins a noun on a sentence, forms a structure called the *prepositional phrase* and the noun found in a sentence is the' object of the preposition' and if 'a personal pronoun' in a sentence is positioned
with a preposition, it is considered that 'that pronoun' *must* appear in the objective case. And it is also learnt that a preposition is often used to end a sentence *with*. Finally, it has also been stated that the words serving as prepositions can often serve as other parts of speech as well. They can act as adverbs and subordinating conjunctions. And they can join with a verb to form a complement verb, also called a *phrasal verb*.

After going through this lesson, students will be able to create their own sentences using different categories of prepositions. Generally, expert writers don't use too many compound prepositions like *with respect to*, *with regard to*, *prior to*, *except for, apart from* etc to avoid ambiguity in their writing. Students are asked to use prepositions judiciously for effective communication / presentation .Exercises are designed in such a way to help students prepare for examination.

9.15. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define a preposition and prepositional phrase with suitable examples.
2. How many types of prepositions are there in English Language? What are they?
3. Explain the syntactic functions of prepositional phrases with at least two examples.
4. Write a note on the modification of prepositional phrases.
5. What are the seven senses of 'over'?
6. Discuss the meanings of prepositions of time.
7. What are the meanings of the prepositions of place?
8. What are Adjuncts, Disjuncts and Conjuncts?

Exercise-1

Match the following:

A		B
1. Preposition	(e)	a. negative position
2. As a result of	(f)	b. have pervasive meaning
3. away from /off	(a)	c. point of time
4. since	(c)	d. period of time
5. all over, throughout	(b)	e. relation between two entities.
		f. complex preposition

Exercise-2

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

1. Prepositions always occur at the end of a clause. (False)
2. A preposition 'before' can be post-posed. (True)
3. *Except for*, *apart from* are used primarily in disjuncts. (True)
4. '*but for*' is used to state positive condition. (False)
5. '*in deep water*' has metamorphic meaning. (True)

Exercise-3

Fill in the blanks with appropriate prepositions:

1. I usually get paid at the end of the month.
2. A child ran across the road in front of my car. I managed to stop the car just in time.
3. Judy was fed up with her job. In the end she just resigned.
4. Why are you never on time? You always keep everyone waiting.
5. Are you excited about going away next week?
6. The letter was full of mistakes.
7. They apologized to me for what happened.
8. You should insure your cameras against theft. It might get stolen.
9. Mike suspected one of the managers of selling commercial secrets.
10. Cleopatra was admired for her beauty.
11. We have been waiting for forty minutes.
12. Melina has been living here since last year.
13. The player was arrested for hitting an opponent.
14. The hotel provided us with packed lunch.
15. He took a walk along the river.

Exercise-4

Rewrite the following sentences making necessary corrections, if any.

1. She took some money in my purse.
   She took some money from my purse.

2. The little boy stood besides his mother.
   The little boy stood beside his mother.

3. The meeting will be held between 9am to 11am.
   The meeting will be held between 9am and 11am.

4. He has some dispute with his friend at something.
   He has some dispute with his friend on something.

5. Sita is desirous to become a doctor.
   Sita is desirous of becoming a doctor.

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5. Geoffrey Leech, Margaret Deuchar and Robert Hoogenraad, *English Grammar for Today,* Palgrave, 2005

Note: As the prescribed textbook for this course is *A University Grammar of English* by Randolph Quirk, and Sidney Greenbaum, it was taken as the main source for content and format to write this lesson. However examples have also been taken from other books of descriptive grammar.

Lesson Writer: **Dr. V. Parvati**

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LESSON – 10

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE

Structure of the Lesson

10.0. OBJECTIVES

- To define the simple sentence and understand its significant features.
- To examine the function of clause elements in a simple sentence
- To discuss concord, negation, questions and commands from the perspective of their grammatical functions.
- To compare and contrast varieties of sentences in terms of their structure and function.

10.1. INTRODUCTION

This lesson aims at analyzing the clausal elements of a simple sentence besides examining their functions. The elements of a sentence which were introduced in lesson 2 will be discussed in detail in this lesson. Further it proceeds to bring into context the features of concord, negation, vocative etc. Basic types of sentences like declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamatory are also analysed here.

10.2. DEFINITION OF A SIMPLE SENTENCE

A simple sentence is one which has only one subject and one predicate. It has only one finite verb. (Finite verb is a verb which shows tense and is limited by number and person) John Seely's definition of simple sentence is as follows: :A sentence that consists of one finite clause".

e.g. 1. Asoka was a great conqueror
2. His courage won him honour.

3. Surrounded by high waves, in the middle of the North Sea, a team of French engineers are constructing the first offshore oil-rig platforms.

Example 3 suggests that simple sentences are not necessarily either short or simple in meaning. From the definition provided by John Seely, it is clear that a simple sentence consists of only one clause.

10.3. CLAUSE TYPES

"A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause, which may be of one of seven types". (Source: *A Student Grammar of the English Language*, Sydney Greenbaum & Randolph Quirk). It is to be noted that clause types differ on the basis of number of clause elements i.e., whether one or more. The presence of clausal element is obligatory besides Subject (S) and Verb (V). The V element in a simple sentence is always a finite Verb Phrase.

Take a look at the following structures.

1. The bird is flying (S+V)
2. The speech inspired me (SVO)
3. Your painting looks pretty (SVC)
4. My lab is in the adjacent premises (SVA)
5. I must send my sister a birthday present (SVOO)
6. The participants found him extremely resourceful (SVOC)
7. You can keep the files on the table (SVOA)

(Abbreviations: Subjects-S, Verb-S, Complement-C, Object-O, Direct Object – O_d Indirect Object - O_i Adverbial –A)

Optional adverbials can be added to sentences of any of the above types.

1. *Interestingly*, the World Cup is approaching (SV)
2. *Later*, you can perhaps put the dish on the table. (Greenbaum)

10.3.1. Complementation: The clausal elements Direct Object (O_d), Complement (C) (a clause component that completes an earlier part) and Adverbial (A) in the above discussed types are obligatory i.e., their presence is important for the complementation of the verb. But it is important to notice the clear distinction between obligatory and optional adverbials.

In case of obligatory elements, the absence of any element makes the sentence incomplete. For e.g. I put the book and He resembles. Both are unacceptable. But, a direct object (O_d) or object complement in one of the following patterns may be considered grammatically optional:

He is playing; - He is playing chess (SVO)
He made her career – He made her career a success. (SVOC)

We elected him our president. (Here the object complement is a noun).

He is teaching grammar (SVO), He is teaching the boys grammar. (SVOO).

In certain cases the adverbials are optional. Examine the following sentences

	A	S	V	(A)
SV	(Sometimes)	he	comes	punctually.

	A		S	V	(A)
SVA	In Uttar Pradesh		the rivers	are	(now) in spate.

	S	(A)	V	O	O
SVOO	They	(cordially)	sent	us	some gifts.

10.3.2. Transformational Relations: The easier approach to distinguish between the various clause types is by understanding the transformational relations or relations of grammatical paraphrase. Look at the following examples:

Someone picked his pocket. (SVO_d)

His pocket was picked (by someone) (S V passive (A))

The clause containing a noun phrase is distinguished by its ability to be converted into passive clauses. In the above example, the object noun phrases perform the function of the subject (rather replaced) and the subject appears in an optional *by*-phrase.

In certain sentences, the passive receives more attention than the doer or agency.

e.g. The window was broken by my younger son.
I know how the window got broken (Source: Greenbaum)

A result achieved over a period of time is best expressed by become.
With the passage of time, the students became more diligent.

Here are some more examples illustrating the passive with other clause types.

(1) The party considered him a traitor (SVO_d Co)
He was considered a traitor by the party.

(2) My sister gifted me this mobile (SVO O_d)
I was gifted this mobile by my sister. (SV O_d (A))
This mobile was gifted to me by my sister (S V pass O1 (A))

At times we notice equivalence between the types SV, SVC, and SVA as is shown by occasional equivalences of the following type.

SV ↔ S V Cs

The boy is sleeping ↔ The boy is asleep

Two copies will suffice ↔ Two copies will be sufficient

SV ↔ SVA

He hurried ↔ He went fast (Source: Greenbaum)

SVCs ↔ SVA

He is houseless ↔ He is without a house.

In terms of usage, the plain SV pattern is not preferred where alternatives are available.

10.3.3. Intensive relationship: S V O C structure (clause) is often equivalent to a clause with an infinite clause or that clause.

For example: I imagined her intelligent
↕
I imagined her to be intelligent
↕
I imagined that she is intelligent

The equivalence shows that the O and the C of an S V O C clause are in the same relation to one another as the S and C of an S V C clause. The relation is made explicit by an intensive verb. Hence intensive relationship is important as it indicates the relation of opposition (a relationship between two or more words or phrases in which the two units are grammatically parallel and have the same referent. E.g. my friend Tom)

Further SVOO clauses can be transformed into SVOA clauses by the substitution of a prepositional phrase for the indirect object, with the change of order.

Rahul sent Kishore a message. → Rahul sent a message to Kishore
Sandhya left Ravi a message →Sandhya left a message for Ravi

To and **for** are the prepositions which indicate the recipients.

10.3.4. Multiple Class Membership of Verbs: A particular verb can belong in its various senses to more than one class and hence can fall under more than one clause type. For e.g. the verb get is unique, being excluded only from SV (and even then not universally; of Note)

SVC – He is *getting* annoyed.
SVO - He will *get* a reward.
SVA - He *got* through the window.
SVOA - He *got* her a brilliant necklace.
SVOC - He *got* his car painted.
SVOA - He *got* himself into trouble. (Greenbaum)

However, there is a scope of ambiguity with the multiple class membership of Verbs.

He made a good anchor. SVO or SVOC
I found him an enthusiastic learner. SVOC or SVOO

10.4.CLAUSE ELEMENTS SYNTACTICALLY DEFINED

10.4.1. **The Subject**:

(a) It is usually a noun phrase or a clause with a nominal function
e.g. The boy is Joseph.

(b) It occurs before the Verb Phrase in declarative clause, and immediately after the operator in questions.
e.g. He had given the boy a Chocolate.

(c) It has number and person concord (agreement between the subject and

the verb) where applicable with the verb phrase.
e.g. The dish is ready.
The dishes are ready.

10.4.2. **The Direct Object:** If there is only one object i it has to be the Direct object.

(a) Like a subject, it is a noun phrase or clause with nominal function.

(b) The Object follows the subject and the Verb Phrase
e.g. She started an institute.

(c) In passive constructions, the object takes the place of the subject
e.g. A letter was written by Hari.

10.4.3.An Indirect Object:
Where both objects are present, it precedes the Direct Object.

O_i O_d
e.g. Ravi gave me a pen
Sameer gave *me* a book. Sameer gave a book *to me*.

Here the O_i is equivalent to a prepositional phrase i.e., it indicates to whom or for whom.

10.4.4. A Complement (subject or object):

(a) It is a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, or a clause with nominal function having co-referential relation with the subject (or object)
(b) It is followed by the subject, Verb Phrase and Object
(c)It does not assume the role of subject through passive transformation.

10.4.5. An Adverbial:

(a)It is an adverb phrase, adverbial clause, noun phrase or prepositional phrase.
(b) It occurs in more than one position in the clause, though its mobility depends on the type and form of the adverbial.
(c)It is optional except in the following constructions.
(i) SVA
(ii) SVOA

10.5. CLAUSE ELEMENTS SEMANTICALLY CONSIDERED

10.5.1.Agentive, affected, recipient, attribute.

(1) The animate participant which causes the happening is called **Agentive Participant.**
e.g. Ramya is preparing the project report.
(2) A participant which has no role in the happening denoted by the Verb, but is directly involved is called **Recipient Participant.**
e.g. Radha sold her car last month.
(3) As far as the role of a subject complement and an object complement is concerned, it is that of an attribute. The following roles of the attribute can be noticed: (1) Identification, (2) Characterization

Identification: e.g. Shyam is my cousin.
Mr. Kumar is now the chairman.
His negligent response to the memo seemed a major reason for his ouster.
We named the child Asha.

Characterization: eg. Krishna was a meritorious student.
Martin remains loyal.
I consider the option a solution.
Attributes may be current or resulting.

Current: eg. He seems unhappy
Charan is my brother.
I want my tea hot.

Resulting attribute: eg. We became restless.
They nominated him secretary.
The heat turned the milk sour. (Greenbaum)

10.5.2. Subject – Agentive and Instrumental: Besides the agentive function, the subject frequently has an instrumental function. It indicates the unwitting (generally inanimate) material cause of an event.

The earthquake destroyed huge structures.

In case of intransitive Verbs (a Verb which has no object), it has the affected role.

Sarah slipped down. (Accidently)
The papers were lying on the table (subject of the intensive verb)

One can notice a regular relation, in terms of clause function between adjectives or intransitive verb and the corresponding transitive verbs expressing **Causative Meaning.**

(i)	Sita is cooking the dinner. (SVO)	The dinner is cooking. (SV)
(ii)	The frost has killed the flowers.(SVO)	The flowers have died.(SV)
(iii)	The accident blinded him.(SVO)	He became blind.(SVC)
(iv)	The officer paraded the team.(SVO)	The team paraded.(SV)

(Greenbaum).

10.5.3.Recipient Subject: The Subject performs the recipient role with verbs such as *have, own, possess* and *(from*). The following example is illustrative of the same:

Krishna has bought/given/sold his cousin a digital watch → (so now) His cousin has/owns/possesses the digital watch.

The verbs of perception (perceptual) **see** and **hear** also require a recipient subject in contrast to *to look at* and *listen to*, which are agentive. Other perceptual verbs such as **smell,**

taste and **feel** have both agentive meaning corresponding to **look at** and a recipient meaning corresponding to see.

e.g. I want you to taste the custard. I can taste the almond in the custard.
The custard tastes delicious.

The custard has the affected role.

10.5.4.Locative, temporal and eventive subjects: The subject may perform the locative role of designating the place or time.

e.g. Delhi is sultry. (It's sultry in Delhi)
The jar contains tea. (There is tea in the jar)

Temporal subject can be replaced by 'it'.
Yesterday was a working day. (It was a working day yesterday)

Eventive subjects differ from others in permitting intensive complementation with a time adverbial.

e.g. 1. The meeting is tomorrow.
2. The French Revolution took place in 1789.

10.5.5. Empty 'it' subject: The Subject may consist of 'it', a meaningless 'prop' word which is especially used with climatic predications.

e.g. 1. It's drizzling.
2. It's getting darker.

10.5.6. Locative and Effected Object: At times, the **direct object** may have a locative role with verbs such as *walk, swim, pass, jump, leave, reach*, etc.

e.g. 1. Santan swam the river. (Santan swam across the river)
2. I passed a scooterist. (I passed by a scooterist)

An **effected object** or **resultant object** is an object whose referent exists only by virtue of the activity indicated by the verbs.

e.g. 1. Edison invented **Radio.**
2. I am painting a **picture.**

In the first sentence, Radio is not an affected object. It is an effected object.

Affected Indirect Object: The indirect object has the role of recipient. The most common verb is 'give.'

eg. Shyam paid me a visit (Shyam visited me)

The Indirect object has the same role as the affected direct object in the paraphrase.
eg. Venu owes me a treat. (It's Venu's turn to treat me)

10.6.CONCORD

10.6.1. Subject – verb concord

Concord is the other name for subject-verb agreement and the thumb rule is that subject and the verb of a clause have to agree in number and person.

e.g.1. My cousin plays cricket in the evenings.
*2. My cousins plays cricket in the evenings.

As the singular subject (e.g. 1) requires a singular verb, the first sentence is grammatical. On the other hand in the second sentence the plural subject is followed by singular verb which suggests that there is no concord between the subject and the verb.

Similarly a clause in the position has concord as singular subject:
e.g. 1. To be weak is miserable
2. Smoking cigarettes is dangerous to health.

Notional Concord and Proximity: Notional Concord is agreement of verb with subject on the basis of the *idea* of the number rather the presence of grammatical marker for that idea.

e.g. The Government have appointed a new committee

Here Government, a collective noun, is treated as plural.

The principle of Proximity (nearness) is applied to the agreement of the verb with a noun or a pronoun that closely precedes it. (Preferably with the head word of the subject).

e.g. 1. No one except her own followers agree with the proposal.
2. One in ten take drugs.

Collective Nouns: Grammatically singular collective nouns are treated as notionally plural if the group is considered as a collection of individuals.

e.g. 1. Scotland have won the trophy
2. The audience were enjoying every minute of it. (Greenbaum)

Singular and Plural Verbs are more or less interchangeable in the contexts. In case of sentences like *The audience was huge*, it is singular as it is being considered as a single undivided body.

Coordinated subject: If two or more noun phrases are joined by and, and if it forms the subject, a distinction has to be made between coordination and coordinative apposition. (Apposition means the two nouns are co-referential, eg. *President Lincoln, York city*).

e.g. 1. Kavitha and Anitha are now reading.
2. What I say and what I think are my own affair (Greenbaum)

In the second example – if the clauses are split they take singular verb i.e., *What I say is* and *what I think* is). Singular verb is used with conjoins such as *Time and Tide, Bread and Butter, The Hammer and Sickle*.

e.g. 1. Time and Tide waits for none.
2. Bread and Butter was given to the patient.

If two noun phrases represent the same subject, the verb that follows is singular.

e.g. The principal and correspondent was present.

If subject(s) is/are preceded by *either....or*, the second subject is taken into account i.e., whether it is singular or plural.

e.g. 1. Either the convener or his assistant is to be blamed
2. Either the workers or the bosses have misunderstood
3. Either your brakes or your eyesight is at fault. (Greenbaum)

In less formal usage, phrases coordinated with *neither ....nor* are treated more like this for concord.

e.g. 1. Neither he nor his nephew have arrived
2. Neither he nor his nephew has arrived.

10.6.2.Concord of a person:

Besides number concord, the concord of person is also vital.

1. I am reading now (1st person singular concord)
2. He is leaving tonight. (3rd person singular concord)

In case of past tense only the verb has distinction of person:

I was your benchmate.
He was my benchmate.

As far as correlatives are concerned (in the presence of two subjects) the principal of proximity is applied.
Neither he nor I have applied for the position.

10.6.3.Other types of concord:

There are two types: (a) Subject – complement (S) concord and
(b) subject-object concord.
There exists S-C concord of number, but not of person.

My friend is an intellectual.
My friends are intellectuals.

It is invalid to say, **my friend is intellectuals* or **my friends were an intellectual*.

Similarly, subject-object concord of number, person and gender is necessary as well as S-C concord, where the second element is a reflective pronoun (Greenbaum)

e.g. He hurt himself in the knee.
One should give oneself sufficient space to work.

Note: A reflexive pronoun must agree with its antecedent in number, person and gender.

10.6.4. Pronoun Concord:

Personal pronouns in the 3rd person should agree with their antecedents both in number and (with singular persons, *he she* and *it*) in gender:

e.g. Kishen brought his book – Kishen and Ravi brought their books.

The pronoun *They* (3rd person plural) is used informally, in slight deviation from the regular practice of using number concord as a substitute for the indefinite pronouns *everyone, everybody*, *someone*, *somebody*, *anyone, anybody*, *no one* and *nobody*.

e.g Everyone feels he has the remedy.

It may be noted that the tendency has been to use 'he' as the unmarked form when the gender is not determined.

Another alternative is the conjoining of both masculine and feminine pronoun.

e.g. Every candidate should submit his/her admit card.

10.7. VOCATIVE

The nominal element added to a sentence or clause optionally to denote the person/persons addressed.

e.g. 1. It's a warm day, Mr. Karim.
2. Mr. Paul, I trust you.

In form a vocative is:

(a) name with title e.g. *Alen*, *Samuel*, *Peter, Rahim*
(b) The personal, *you*, which is considered to be discourteous: *Behave yourself*.
(c) Standard appellatives such as *Mother, Father*, *Uncle*; endearments such as *Darling/dear/honey*, markers of profession or status such as *doctor, Mr. Chairman, Madam Chancellor,* etc.

The Vocative also includes a nominal clause (very occasionally)

e.g. Whoever have claimed be present.

The following are the functions of the Vocative:

(a) To draw somebody's attention
(b) To express the attitude towards the speaker
(c) To show respect towards certain dignitaries

10.8.NEGATION

The dictionary meaning of negation suggests disagreement or refusal. As a singular and uncountable noun it means to become opposite.

The negation of a simple sentence is achieved by inserting **not, n't** between the operator and the predication.

e.g. 1. Raju has resigned – Raju has not resigned.
2. We may reconsider the decision. – We may not reconsider the decision.
3. She is a lawyer – She is not a lawyer. (Auxiliary)
4. He likes cricket – He doesn't like cricket. (Using corresponding do form)

It is also possible to abbreviate the operator by using the contracted form.

We aren't busy – We're not busy.
They haven't noticed – They've not noticed.

10.8.1.Non Assertive items: Clause negation is frequently followed (not necessarily directly) by one or more non-assertive items. (Quirk and Greenbaum) The following examples illustrate the range of these items, which may be determiners, pronouns or adverbs:

Assertive	**Non-Assertive**
We have had some money.	We haven't had any money.
She was somehow annoyed.	She wasn't in anyway annoyed.
They have arrived already.	They haven't arrived yet.
He is still at school.	He's not at school any longer.

10.8.2. Negative Intensification: Negative determiners and pronouns are given emphasis by *at all*, *whatever*. *Never* is used for emphasis – it is considered to be an intensifying phrase.

eg. I have never seen such an unruly crowd.

Instead of the verb, another element may be negated.

e.g. An honest man would not lie.
No honest man would lie. (Greenbaum)
I didn't see any reason.
I see no reason.

At times, the scope of negation varies, as illustrated below:

Many students did not turn up does not mean the same as *Not many students tuned up*. In case of negative adjuncts taking the initial position, there is inversion of subject and the operator.

I will never repeat that conduct again.
Never again will I repeat that conduct. (formal)

We may come across possible situations with two non-assertive forms. Usually non-assertive forms are used in place of every assertive form that would have occurred in the corresponding positive clause.

e.g. I have never traveled **anywhere** by air **yet.** (Greenbaum)
No one has ever said anything to **either** of us. (Greenbaum)

10.8.3. Use of seldom, rarely etc: The following are some of the words which are negative in meaning but not in appearance: **Seldom, rarely, hardly, scarcely, barely, little** and **few.**

In usage, they have the following similarities to the ordinary negative items.

(i) They are followed by non-assertive rather than assertive forms.

e.g. (1) I seldom received any intimation.
(2) I've met hardly anyone who knows about the treatment.

(ii) In pre-subject position, some of them cause subject-operator inversion.

e.g. Scarcely had she gone, when a policeman arrived at the same.

It is to be noted that these words are followed by positive question tags.
She never admits her guilt, does she?

10.8.4. Scope of Negation: It is essential to know the scope of negation, i.e., the stretch (range) of language over which the negative meaning operates. '**The scope of negation normally extends from the negative word itself to the end of the clause, or to the beginning of a final adjunct**. The subject and any adjuncts occurring before the predication, normally lie outside it. Therefore it is important to identify the subtle difference in the meaning. Look at the following examples:

e.g. I didn't definitely agree with him (It's not definite that I did)
I definitely didn't agree with him (It's definite that I did not)

When an adverbial is final, however, it may or may not lie outside the scope.

I wasn't listening all the time (I listened none of the time)
I wasn't listening all the time (I listened some of the time)

If an assertive form is used, it must lie outside the scope.

I didn't listen to some of the speakers (Listened to some)
I didn't listen, to any of the speakers (I listened to none) (Greenbaum)

10.8.5. Focus of Negation: It is not merely the scope of negation, the focus is equally important as the nuclear stress may affect the inference. Look at the following illustrations.

(1) **Abhinav** didn't sign the lease document. (It suggests that someone signed, but not Abhinav)
(2) Abhinav didn't **sign** the lease document. (He might have placed his document but he didn't sign)
(3) Abhinav didn't sign the **lease** document. (He signed other documents, but not the lease document)

Note: The stressed words are highlighted.

10.8.6. Negation of Modal Auxiliaries: Modal Auxiliaries are used to convey a wide range of meanings. Their negation deserves sufficient attention as their scope may or may not include the meaning of the auxiliary itself. The distinction between the main verb and auxiliary verb negation is important.

e.g. You may not get the workshop. (You are not allowed)
He can't be rude. (It is impossible)
You need not pay the fee. (You are not obliged to)
Don't worry, I won't interface. (Greenbaum) (Shows unwillingness *I'm willing not to*)
They won't have negotiated yet. (Prediction that they've not negotiated)

It is quite important to identify the subtle distinction of the variation in meaning on account of negation. It is equally important to determine the inference whether it is permission, obligation, willingness, command or necessity.

10.9. TYPES OF SIMPLE SENTENCES

The classification of simple sentences is on the basis of syntactic classes, whose use correlates with different communicative functions. They are Declarative, Interrogative, Imperative, Exclamatory.

10.10. STATEMENTS (DECLARATIVE/ASSERTIVE)

The presence of the subject is mandatory and it precedes the verb.

e.g. He will arrive tomorrow.

10.11. QUESTIONS (INTERROGATIVE)

They are sentences marked by one or more of following criteria. (Greenbaum)

(a) The placement of the operator immediately in front of the subject.
Will Supriya join our team?

(b) The initial positioning of an interrogative or who element:
Who will she agree with?

(c) Rising intonation
You will speak to the boss? (Greenbaum)

Based on the type of expressed answer, questions are divided into three major classes.

(1) questions that expect affirmation or negation – Yes/No type questions

e.g. Have you visited the Taj?

(2) Questions that expect a reply which supplies item of information – wh questions?

e.g. What is the score now?
How old are you?

(3) Questions that expect reply with one of two or more options – alternative questions.

e.g. Would you like to have a cup of tea or some juice?

10.11.1. Yes – No questions: They are formed by placing the operator before the subject and giving the sentence a rising intonation.

The Prime Minister has resigned (Statement)
Has the Prime Minister resigned? (Question)

Question: (Operator-Subject-Predication)

e.g. Is Asrith writing a story? Was our team defeated?

10.11.2. Positive Orientation: One of the key characteristics of Yes-No questions is the use of non-assertive forms *any, ever*, etc.

(1) *Someone* approached me for help. - Did *anyone* approach me for help?
(2) I suppose *some* of the class will be already here.
Do I suppose *any* of the class will be here yet?

The posing of particular question is directed towards a positive or negative answer. If the question has assertive forms rather than non-assertive forms it has positive orientation.

Would you like some dessert? (Positive Intention to offer)

10.11.3. Negative Orientation: Negative Orientation can be noticed in questions which contain a negative form of one kind or another.

Don't you trust me? (The listener or in the speaker the addresses has no trust)

Hasn't he told you what to do? (The speaker questions the failure on the part of the listener)

Aren't you ashamed of yourself? (you ought to be, but it appears you are not) (Greenbaum)

10.11.4. Tag questions: Tag questions ask for a confirmation Yes/No. Tag is an appended statement a short addition to a sentence. For positive statement the tag question is negative and vice-versa. There are four main types of tag questions:

(i) Positive statement + Negative Tag.

He likes cricket, doesn't he? (Rising Tone on Tag)
He likes cricket, doesn't he? (Falling Tone on Tag)

(ii) Negative statement + positive question Tag.

He doesn't like cricket, does he? (Rising Tone on Tag)
He doesn't like cricket, does he? (Falling Tone on Tag)

On the basis of assumption and expectation we may distinguish the four types as:

(1) Positive assumption + Neutral expectation.
(2) Negative assumption + Positive expectation.
(3) Positive assumption + Positive expectation
(4) Negative assumption + Positive expectation.

At times, we find a tag question in which both statement and question are positive.

Your purse is stolen, is it?
You've had your moustache trimmed, have you?

Tag questions can be added to imperatives.

e.g. Don't disturb, will you?
Let us close the issue, shall we?
Open the window, can't you?

10.11.5. Declarative Questions: A declarative question is an exceptional type of yes-no question which appears like a statement, except for the final rising question intonation.

e.g You've got the admit *pass*? (Rising question intonation)

They've met the *Special Secretary*, of course? (Rising question intonation)

Shantan will be coming, *I suppose*?

Negative questions have negative orientation and non- assertive forms may be used following the negative. (Quirk & Greenbaum)

You didn't get anything to eat?

Nobody ever stays at your place?

10.11.6. Yes-No Questions with modal auxiliaries: Yes- No questions with modal auxiliaries undergo shift in meaning and have certain limitations. The modals of permission (*may*) and obligation (*must*) indicate speaker's authority in statements and listener's authority in questions.

May I ask a question? (in the sense of *will you permit me ?)*
Must I attend the meeting? (in the sense of *Are you telling me to?)*

Listener – Speaker inferences vary: for example, the use of *shall;*

You shall pay for this! (Suggests that the speaker seeks harm for the listener.) Shall I play music suggests? (*Do you want me to ?*)

May is not used in questions but *Can (* Could in American English) is used instead of *May* .

e.g. Can they have got the tickets? /Could they have got the tickets?

The reply (obvious) would be 'Yes. they may have' or 'they might have'.

10.11.7. Wh –Questions: They are formed with the help of one of the following interrogative words: (or Q- words) **Who/whom/ whose/ what, which, when, where, how, why.**

The convention is that:

(a) The Q- element generally comes first in the sentence.

(b) The Q- word itself takes first position in the Q- element. (It occurs in a prepositional complement)

e.g 1. On *what* did you base your conclusion?
2. *What* did you base your conclusion *on*?

The following are sentences in which the Q- element operates in various clause functions:

1. Who is coming to the **meeting**? (Q-element ; S)
2. Which car have you **lent** him? (Q- element Od)
3. Whose beautiful **paintings** are these ?(Q- element Cs)
4. How broad did they make the **window**? (Q-element Co)
5. When will you come back? (Q- element A- time)
6. Where shall I keep these **books** ?(Q- element A- place)
7. Why are they always **commenting**? (Q-element- A reason)
8. How did you **change** it? (Q- element A- process)
9. How much does she **respect**? (Q- element A- intensifying)
10. How long have you been waiting? (Q- element A- duration)
11. How often do you visit your **cousin** (Q_ element :A frequency)

Alternative Questions: There are two types of alternative questions (a) Yes/no questions (b) wh questions.

Would you like to have rice, roti or noodles? (food)
Which food would you like?

The difference of intonation between alternative and yes-no questions is important.

A. Shall we order tea or coffee? B: Tea
A. Shall we order tea or coffee? B: No, let's have apple juice.

Any positive *yes-no* question can be converted into an alternative question by adding *or not?*

Are you joining us? Are you joining or not?

Are you joining or Are you not joining?

10.11.8. Other types of Questions:

(a) **Exclamatory**- It is interrogative in structure, but the function is exclamation. E.g.

1.Hasn't he changed! 2. What a splendid music! (rising tone)

3. Am I Hungry! (falling tone) 4. Did he look tired!

(3 &4 indicate strong positive conviction)

(b) Rhetorical: It is a forceful statement .e.g. (If winter comes, can spring be far behind? "Shelley's Ode to the Westwind"); Is that the cause of agony? (surely not);

Is no one coming to rescue? (Hope someone will);

Who knows? (nobody knows) , How does it matter ? (It hardly matters)

10.12. COMMANDS (IMPERATIVE)

In commands one finds overt grammatical subject and the verb is in the imperative:

Meet the Vice-Chancellor today.

10.12.1.Commands without subject: The following are the features of commands which are different from mere statements:

a) No subject, (b) It has imperative finite verb

e.g 1. Get out (V)
2. Be courteous (VC)
3. Keep it on the desk. (VO_d A place) Note: Subject Implied

The imperative is devoid of tense distinction and does not allow modal auxiliaries. The progressive form is rare and the perfect form rarer.

e.g Be reading the book when your sister comes home.

Commands sound harsh unless markers such as *please* are used. Please *close the door;*

Will you open the door, please? *Do you mind lending your pen*?

10.12.2.Commands with subject: As mentioned earlier, in commands the subject is implied. 'Shut the door' would obviously mean 'you shut the door.'

There is a type of command in which the subject 'you' is retained, differing from the subject of a finite verb in always carrying stress:

E.g 1.You open the book.

2. You better do it properly or allow me to do.

The above commands indicate admonition besides expressing irritation.

The use of third person subject is a possible situation:

1. Somebody fetch me a glass of water.
2. Everyone show your ID cards.

You may be contrastive in the sense of addressee- distinguishing, pointing out one person or set of persons. The identity of the person may be shown by a vocative or a gesture.

e.g. Don't **advise** us to be punctual. **You** be punctual.

Vocative *you* sounds more impolite: **You**, come **here**.

10.12.3. Commands with *let:* Examples – 1. Close the door. 2. Let the door be closed.

In the second sentence, 'let' is followed by the subject in the objective case. 'Let' here is the first person imperative.

The same is applicable to third person subjects:

1. Let no one think that Maths is easy.
2. If people think that I am rude, let them think so.

10.12.4.Negative Commands: By adding an initial '*Don't*', imperatives can be negated.

Open the book. – Don't open the book.

You post the letter. – Don't you post the letter? (less common)

First person imperatives are generally negated by the insertion of **not** after the pronoun following **let**.

Let us not say anything about it. Let's not say anything about it.

10.12.5. Persuasive Imperatives: By the addition of **'do' persuasive imperatives** can be created.

1. Do have a slice of bread. 2. Do let's play chess.

Do, don't and *let's* are used in isolation as elliptical commands.

e.g. A) Shall I spread the cheese? B) Yes, do. or No, don't.
A) Shall we play Tennis? B) Yes, let's.

10.13. EXCLAMATIONS (EXCLAMATORY)

In exclamatory sentences the initial phrase is introduced by **what** or **how** without inversion of subject and operator.

What a ruckus they are creating?

Certain exclamations are introduced by **what** or **how**. It is essential to examine the syntactic order.

1. **Wh**- element as Subject- *What a tremendous applause*! (S-V –rarest type)
2. **Wh**- element as Object- *What a time we've had today* (Od S V A) (Greenbaum)
3. **Wh**- element as complement – *How graceful her looks are*!(Cs S V)
4. **Wh**- element as an adverbial – *How I used to admire history*!
5. *How Quickly you read*!(A S V)

10.14. OTHER TYPES OF SENTENCES

10.14.1. Formulae: Certain sentences which, though appearing to belong to one of the major classes, in fact enter into few of the relations of substitutability that are common to members of those classes. For example, the greeting expression '*How do you do?'* cannot be subordinated as an indirect question. This type of questions may lack some of the elements required for sentence constructions. Other formula type formations are: *How about, what about, Off with it, If only, You and Your , Long Live , God bless the Kingdom. Up with democracy. May you be happy! May wisdom Prevail*! (A wish is considered to be an **optative sentence.)**

10.14.2. Aphoristic Sentences: Aphorisms are short phrases that express something true or wise. The aphoristic structure is usually found in proverbs.

e.g 1.Spare the rod, spoil the child.
2. Easy come, easy go.
3. Once bitten, twice shy.
4. More haste, less speed
5. No pains, no gains.

The constructions are grammatically faulty but have a fairly productive pattern.

10.14.3.. Block Language: Block language appears in titles, newspaper headlines, headings, notices and advertisements. They are basically non-sentences but they consist of a noun phrase or noun or nominal clause in isolation. Verb is not required as what is necessary for understanding of the message is provided by the context.

e.g 1. No Entry 2. Visitors Parking 3. Exit 4.Caution: Ghat Ahead 5. The Prime Minister calls for referendum on Kashmir issue.
6. Sensex drops by 20 points
7. The President signs the ordinance. (S V Od)
8. P.M. Modi to meet Chinese Premier (S V Od)

10.15. SUMMARY

The chapter elaborates the features of simple sentence and brings into context its varied structural relationships. Further the chapter encompasses the aspects related to the subject- verb agreement and its importance. Different types of Concord have been discussed. The chapter includes discussion on negation, its scope and focus. The four major syntactic classes of simple sentence have been dealt with.

10.16. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Define simple sentence and its varied structures.
2. What is Complementaion?
3. Bring out the semantic and syntactic difference between clauses
4. Define the following with illustrations (a) Agentive Subject (b) Instrumentive Subject (c) Locative Subject (d) Temporal Subject (e) Eventive Subject.
5. Explain the terms locative and effected objects .
6. Define concord and its significance in terms of syntactical function.
7. Distinguish the features of Subject- Object Concord and Subject – Complement Concord .
8. Give an account of features of Vocative with examples.

9. Discuss the scope and focus of negation.
10. What are the four major syntactic classes of simple sentence? Explain with examples.
11. Correct the following sentences:

a) Twenty minutes are allowed to each speaker.
b) Either he or I are mistaken.
c) Each of these books are available in Sydney.
d) Neither food nor water were to be found to be there.
e) The P.M. with his cabinet colleagues were present at the banquet.
f) You aren't meeting him, is you?
g) Does Sunil work hard, did he?
h) He has not sent the papers, hasn't he?
i) Srinivas likes photography, do he?
j) Let's go to movies, shall we?

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. R.V. Jayanth Kasyap**

LESSON –11
FUNDAMENTALS OF LANGUAGE TEACHING: OBJECTIVES, MATERIALS, METHODS, EVALUATION

Structure of the Lesson:

11.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

- To introduce certain fundamental concepts of English language teaching
- To explain the terms objectives, materials, methods and evaluation in the context of English language teaching

11.1. INTRODUCTION

English Language Teaching (ELT) generally refers to the teaching of English as a formal subject in educational institutions. English is widely recognized as a language of communication in several fields across the globe. English is learned as a necessary part of one's education, for better performance in one's career, or for better communication in social or business contexts where people from different countries need to interact or work together.

11.1.1. A Few Terms

ELT is a teacher-centered term. In the Indian context English is taught as a second language. Terms such as TESL (Teaching English as a second language), TESOL (Teaching English to speakers of other languages), and TEFL (Teaching English as a foreign language) are also frequently used. English language learners often have a different language as their mother tongue. In the case of a student of any language, L_1 or first language refers to the mother tongue and L_2 refers to the second language or the target language that is intended to be learned. It is generally assumed that learners face difficulties due to the differences between their native languages and the target language, which in the context of ELT, is English. Cultural differences also play a significant role in the teaching and learning of English especially in rural contexts.

11.1.2. Certain Aspects of Language Teaching/Learning

A language user functions in a particular context or situation and communicates as a speaker/writer with a listener/reader about something related to the world he/she lives in. The following are some of the questions relevant to the context of ELT:

- whether/ to what extent should the focus be on teaching the language as a formal system without taking into account the context, the topics and the speaker/listener (sender/receiver);
- whether to adopt an approach that takes into account the social context and real life use of the language;
- if the language is taught in a formal system, which aspects of the language should be emphasized for best impact – the sound system, grammar, vocabulary or something else;
- whether there is a tried and tested manner in which different aspects of the language can be integrated into the teaching-learning process;
- which methods are best suitable for integrating what is learned into actual use in real life contexts (Stern 1983). The questions are several and answers are elusive.

11.1.3. Theories and Approaches

A student of ELT is likely to find links between theories of language and theories of learning. An ELT approach is concerned with theoretical principles – a language theory is concerned with the features of linguistic organization and language use; a learning theory is concerned

with processes of learning and conditions that promote successful language learning. An approach does not refer to a specific procedure/method. Teachers who share similar beliefs may choose different ways of implementing the principles behind an approach. Theory is linked with practice or an approach is linked with procedure resulting in a particular design. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001)

11.1.4. Design:

A design for an instructional system needs to be developed for an approach to lead to actual practice. Design includes objectives of the method chosen, rationale for selecting and organizing content to implement the method, types of learning tasks and teaching activities that can be used in the method, roles of learners and teachers, the role and use of instructional materials.

11.2. OBJECTIVES OF ELT

We have a goal in mind when we set out to achieve something; the same holds good even in ELT. However, it is essential to understand the difference between the broad goals of language teaching and the specific objectives of a chosen method of teaching.

11.2.1. Difference between Goals and Objectives

It may be broadly stated that goals are more like general intentions, more abstract and seemingly intangible, whereas objectives are precise, concrete and tangible. "Goals (are)…broad statements that provide general signposts…" (Nunan & Lamb, 2001: 39). "Objectives (are) specific statements that describe the particular knowledge, behaviors, and/or skills that the learner will be expected to know or perform at the end of a course or program." (Brown, 1995: p73)

The central goals of language teaching serve the needs of the society, particularly the needs of people from different groups to interact with one another. In certain cases the people of a minority/smaller group learn the language of the majority/wider community so as to be able to better assimilate in that society. Transitional teaching aims at helping learners to function in the central language of a country without losing their first language and enable them to use the target language/ second language/ central language for their own educational and employment needs. International goals of English language teaching include careers that need employees to be proficient in a second language in order to mediate between users of two or more languages, higher education, access to research and information, and travel. Individual goals may include instilling a broader perspective, understanding of different cultures, and fostering attitudes of mutual respect. There are also general educational goals of English language teaching that include cognitive training and academic value addition. Yet another perspective is to look upon English language teaching/learning as a means of political action or social change.

Goals help in developing more precise objectives. The teacher needs to determine what level of specificity is essential to describe the purposes of a program/course. If there are only two, then Zais' (1976) definitions of goal and objective may be used, but if there are more than two, then the terms goals, general objectives and specific objectives may be used.

11.2.2. Features that Make Objectives Effective

Objectives are specifications of "what learners should be able to do as a result of instruction." (Nunan & Lamb, 2001, p.41) Effective objectives must be specific, observable and measurable. Teaching objectives should specify who should be addressed, what is to be

taught, how it should be delivered and to what degree/extent it should be taught. Brown (1995) lists the elements for good objectives: subject (who?), performance (what?), condition (where? how much time? what resources?), measure (how?), criteria (how well?).
Certain key factors that should be taken into account while framing objectives are flexibility (objectives are not permanent) and program specificity. An accepted convention in writing objectives, especially specific objectives, is using verbs that refer to observable behaviors such as *write, recite, list,* and *compare,* rather than verbs that are open to interpretation such as *know, understand, grasp,* and *believe*.

11.2.3. Types of Objectives

Richards (1984) refers to three types of objectives: proficiency, process, and content. The focus of proficiency objectives is the description of the type of language that a student should be able to produce in a given socio-cultural context as a result of communicative language use inside (and outside) of the classroom. These objectives theoretically need not be tied to any program of study, but seek to describe normal language development of someone acquiring facility with function, context, and accuracy in a language.
The second type, the process related objectives, specify objectives in terms of processes that can transfer to broader situations such as negotiating a business deal, researching any topic of interest, or reading any type of chart and applying the information to some other activity.
The third type, the content-based objective refers to linguistic or communicative content and is perhaps the most widespread; this content generally includes topics such as grammar, functions, survival situations, literature, business/medicine/science.
These three types of objectives (proficiency, process, and content) need not be mutually exclusive but they serve to emphasize the major focus areas chosen by language teachers. Yalden (1983) proposed that the focus of instruction might change from the beginning to advanced levels with content-based objectives at the beginning levels where the instruction is more structured, and process-based objectives at the advanced levels where the approach is more communicative. Different types may be intertwined as strands, where one may be given more importance than another.

11.2.4. Developing and Sequencing Objectives

It is essential to do a needs-analysis and identify what learners need. The needs analysis should take into account all the stake holders such as the teachers, learners, education policy makers, administrators of educational institutions where the course/program will be taught, and prospective employers. The needs of the learners should be stated in terms of realizable goals. The next step would be to design a suitable program with precise objectives.
Once the objectives are clearly defined, it is important to understand how to sequence the objectives. With proficiency-related objectives, this may be done in a graded manner from the beginner to more advanced levels. With other types of objectives, the criteria that may be used could include complexity, cognitive demand, frequency of use, immediacy of need, and order of acquisition. Considerable research has been done on the need to order objectives according to cognitive, affective, and psychomotor development. Bloom (1956), Krathwohl et al. (1964), and Harrow (1972) designed taxonomies that could guide teachers in ordering objectives in a syllabus; though these were designed for general education, they can also apply to English language teaching. Objectives may be sequenced from simple to complex ones.

11.2.5. Criticism and Advantages

The concept and practice of stating objectives has met with criticism for several reasons that include difficulty in stating objectives precisely, issues with quantifying, and limitations in teachers' freedom. However, objectives help teachers to convert the perceived needs into teaching points that can be organized, obtain clarity about skills and sub-skills underlying instructional points, decide what they want students to be able to do, and decide the level of specificity for teaching activities. (Brown, 1995) Clear objectives make it easier to know what is expected and achieve the desired outcome.

11.3. MATERIALS IN ELT

The role of instructional materials is one of the important components of design in an instructional system. The function of materials is governed by the objectives, content learning activities, and teacher/learner roles. Materials imply learning objectives for each day of teaching/learning. Materials vary depending upon the approach and method/s used. In situations where learning is monitored by the teacher, materials used are different from those designed for self-instruction by learners.

11.3.1. Certain Significant Aspects

Richards and Rodgers point out certain significant aspects of materials: Some methods necessitate the use of existing/found materials or realia; some may require materials that can be used even by poorly trained teachers; some may need specially trained teachers with good control over the target language; some materials encourage interaction through classroom activities while others may inhibit classroom interaction. Materials reflect goals and objectives (e.g.: to present/practice content, to facilitate communication among learners with/without the teacher's help). Other factors include the form of materials (e.g.: textbook, audiovisuals, computer software), the relation of materials to other source of inputs (whether particular materials are the major/minor inputs), and the ability of the teachers (e.g.: their language competence, training and experience). The role of materials varies depending on the method used: in the functional/communicative methods the focus is on interpretation, expression and negotiation, rather than on grammatical structures; in a counseling-learning method the materials support the learning of certain mechanical aspects of language thereby leaving the teacher free to function as a learning counselor. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001)

11.3.2. Principles of Materials Development

Materials development is guided by some principles that help both language learners and teachers. Theorists such as Tomlinson (1998), Harmer (2007), Arnone (2003) and Small (1997), have studied various strategic components of materials development. According to Tomlinson's principles, good materials serve the following purposes.

- Achieve impact through novelty, variety, attractive presentation, and appealing content.
- Help learners feel at ease and develop their self-confidence.
- Be perceived as relevant and useful by the learner and help him/her in making efficient use of the resources to facilitate self-discovery.

- Draw learners' conscious or sub-conscious attention to linguistic features so that they become aware of a gap between a particular feature of their native or first language and the target language.
- Provide opportunities for communicative purposes in L2, thereby fostering language use, not just usage.
- Take into account students' different learning styles such as visual, auditory, kinaesthetic, analytic, experiential, global, dependent, independent, etc., as suggested by Tomlinson (1998) and Harmer (2007).
- Allow for a silent period at the onset of instruction until learners have gained sufficient exposure to the target language and confidence in understanding it.
- Offer plenty of free practice since controlled practice seems to have little long-term effect on fluency and the accuracy required to perform new structures.
- Provide opportunities for outcome feedback.

11.3.3. Constraints and Opportunities

Teachers need to be resourceful and adapt to the teaching situation. Teachers do not have to rely solely on physical or technological resources, such as a classroom, furniture, textbooks, or technology; they can use available resources in creative ways. While it is an accepted fact that materials development is a complex multidimensional process, practicing teachers can take up the challenge of developing materials taking care to fulfil the demands of a well-informed framework of components, which can help both teachers and students to succeed. The level of acceptance of materials by learners depends on factors such as novelty, variety, presentation and content. Acceptance is high and expected positive outcomes can be attained if materials used are perceived by learners as significant and of practical use in their everyday lives. However good the materials may be, success depends largely on their being used in creative and resourceful ways. Teacher participation in materials development can also contribute to their professional growth by motivating them to update and improve their knowledge, skills and creativity, besides raising their consciousness towards the teaching-earning process, and allowing them to act as agents of change.

11.4. METHODS IN ELT

ELT practitioners distinguish between theoretical principles and the practice derived from them. Many theorists have proposed several ways of defining and conceptualizing approaches and methods in language teaching. "According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice…" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Several methods have been identified but there is not much clarity on what constitutes a particular method because their names have not always been used in a consistent or unambiguous way. An approach leads to a method which necessitates developing a design and procedure. One may assume that methods are evolved with the intention of achieving quick and effective results by systematizing the whole teaching/learning process. A few of the methods are explained briefly.

11.4.1. Grammar-translation or Traditional Method

The Grammar – Translation Method was popular in the late eighteenth century. Its focus is on the teaching of grammar and employs the technique of translation from and into the target language. In spite of criticism, the method has been in use even if it may be only as a contributory strategy in combination with other strategies. In this method grammatical terminology is used; rules of grammar are taught and memorized; examples are given and followed. Bilingual vocabulary lists are used to help in the task of translation. There is a progression from translation of isolated sentences to longer texts. Vocabulary and other aspects of language are not given importance. Its major drawback lies in the limitations of practice techniques and lack of opportunities to free the learner from the dominance of the first language.

11.4.2. Direct Method

The Direct Method uses the target language as a means of instruction and communication in the classroom. Use of the first language and translation as a technique are avoided. Language teaching reforms from 1850 to 1900, particularly in Europe, saw persistent use of the term 'direct method'. This was in response to the demands of industrialization, international trade and travel. Phonetics was also introduced into language pedagogy. The Direct Method had considerable influence even if it did face criticism at the turn of the century. This method marks a shift from literary language to spoken everyday language. A text in the target language is used; difficult expressions are explained in simpler terms; time is spent on questions and answers; exercises include substitutions, dictation, narrative, free composition. Since it involves much use of spoken language, phonetics and phonetic transcription was considered important. Some of the major problems with this method were the limited possibility of applying it to the teaching of advanced learners, and its complete avoidance of the use of first language that led to certain practical difficulties.

11.4.3. Reading Method

The Reading Method restricts the goal of language teaching to training in reading comprehension. West (1926)[12] who taught in India recommended an emphasis on reading because he believed that it was the most useful skill and the easiest. Graded reading materials were provided; detailed instructions on reading strategies were provided; 'inner speech' was regarded as an important aid; vocabulary control in reading texts was very important. While it did face its share of criticism, the reading method grew out of educational requirements and may be seen as a kind of precursor to techniques of language learning for specific purposes.

11.4.4. Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method was popular in the sixties. Some of its distinctive features include separation of the four language skills, use of dialogues, language laboratory and certain practice techniques such as pattern drills. It originated in America but has had considerable influence on ELT in most parts of the world, even if it was for only a few years. The gap between theory and practice, especially in the context of classroom innovations, led to confusion and perceptions of complexity. Listening and speaking are given priority over reading and writing. In this method the learning process is seen as one of habit formation and conditioning. The method met with much criticism because of its supposedly weak theoretical basis and lack of effectiveness in practice. However, it did make some major contributions such as making language learning accessible to large groups of ordinary learners, development of simple practice techniques, and separation of language skills into a

pedagogical device. The cognitive theory/approach is seen as a critique of audiolingualism in view of the changes in linguistic and psycholinguistic theories.

11.4.5. Audiovisual Method

The Audiovisual Method involves a visually presented scenario that encourages learners to engage in meaningful utterances and contexts. It was developed in the fifties in France and later adaptations were made in the U.K., America and Canada. It uses a carefully thought out but rigid order of events. The visual image (e.g. a filmstrip) and spoken utterance (a sound recording) complement each other. Different phases of classroom procedure in this method include explaining the meanings of sense groups (what the learners have seen and listened to), repetition/reinforcement, and gradual weaning away from audio-video presentations. Grammatical and phonological features are also practiced. Reading and writing are delayed but introduced in due course. The emphasis is on the social nature of language and situations in which it is used. Practical difficulties and rigid teaching sequences are two major points of criticism. It may be seen as a distinctive modern attempt to deal with the problems of language learning.

The most active period in the history of approaches and methods was from the 1950s to the 1980s. the 1950s and 1960s saw the emergence of the Audiolingual Method and the Situational Method, which were both superseded by the Communicative Approach.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is best considered an approach rather than a method. It refers to a diverse set of principles that reflect a communicative view of language and language learning and that can be used to support a wide variety of classroom procedures. These principles include

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.

- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.

- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.

- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.

- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Communicative Language Teaching appeared at a time when language teaching in many parts of the world was for a paradigm shift. Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism were no longer felt to be appropriate methodologies. CLT appealed to those who sought a more humanistic approach to teaching, one in which the interactive processes of communication received priority. The rapid adoption and worldwide dissemination of the Communicative Approach also resulted from the fact that it quickly assumed the status of orthodoxy in British language teaching circles, receiving the sanction and support of leading applied linguists, language specialists, and publishers, as well as institutions such as the British Council (Richards 1985).

11.4.6. Limitations of the Methods Concept

ELT methods are not limited to those listed above. Several methods keep evolving (e.g.: Suggestopedia). Most methods are attempts to meet the changing demands on language education. They reflect not only contemporary language and learning theories but also the opinions and experiences of practicing teachers. Each method contributes certain new insights and attempts to deal with certain significant issues in language learning/teaching. A particular method may represent a limited set of principles or beliefs, and may emphasize only certain aspects of language teaching/learning. There are several practical difficulties in actually testing the assumptions against reality and systematic attempts to do so are not likely to yield

conclusive results because a single method may not be adopted in actual practice. Several ELT practitioners and theorists agree on the point that language teaching cannot be comprehensively conceptualized in terms of teaching methods alone.

11.5. EVALUATION IN ELT

Assessment and evaluation are frequently used terms but they have not always had distinct meanings. It is essential to have a term that describes progress or improvement and another that describes the quality and level of performance.

11.5.1. Assessment and Evaluation

Assessment is process-oriented, reflective, diagnostic in purpose, flexible and cooperative in approach. Evaluation is performance-oriented, generally prescriptive, judgmental, comparative and often competitive. Assessment is a process used to improve a performance or outcome. Evaluation is a process used to determine the quality of a performance or outcome. Both processes can be formative (undertaken during a course) or summative (taken at the end of a course). It is advisable that teachers should clarify the purpose of the process, and establish whether a particular process will be conducted as assessment or evaluation. It is also important to communicate this purpose to the learners. Teachers may use a process of assessment to see how far they have learned what they should have learned and then use this information to change/improve their future teaching plans. A teacher may believe that he/she is assessing a learner's performance, but the learner may perceive it as evaluation because the teacher may not have taken the learner into confidence while setting the criteria and may not have given feedback that is essential.

11.5.2. Testing

Multiple methods are used for assessment and evaluation, including testing. Tests give learners an opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned and how they can apply their knowledge or skills. Diagnostic tests are given to assess learners' level of language ability so that they can be placed in the appropriate course or class. Such tests are based on aspects of the syllabus taught. They seek to identify the entry level language competencies of a learner as well as areas in which he/she needs help. Progress tests and achievement tests are given at various stages throughout a course and at the end of a course to see what the learners have learnt and how well they have learnt. Tests are generally based on the course syllabus or the course textbook and seek to check if expected learning outcomes are achieved as per the objectives set.

11.5.3. Certain Features and Practices in Evaluation

Graves (1997) points out that there is correlation between assessing students' learning and evaluating the course itself; the first gives a clear account of the second one and vice versa. Good evaluation process/practice emphasizes time on particular tasks, communicates expectations, and respects learners' diversity.

Teachers should pay careful attention to developing rubrics. A rubric is a scoring scale used to assess student performance based on a task-specific set of criteria. It comprises of two components: criteria and levels of performance. It also includes a mechanism for assigning a score to each component. The general practice is to list out at least two or three criteria and levels of performance. For each criterion, the evaluator applying the rubric can determine the level of performance. For more clarity descriptors may be included that spell out what is expected of learners at each level of performance for each criterion.

There are two types of rubrics: analytic and holistic. An analytic rubric states the levels of performance for each criterion so the teacher can assess/evaluate student performance on each criterion. A holistic rubric does not list separate levels of performance for each criterion but assigns a level of performance by assessing performance across multiple criteria as a whole. Evaluation has to be a fair process with minimum subjectivity and no bias on part of the examiner.

11.6. CONCLUSION

Teachers need to formulate goals and objectives, besides listing out expected learning outcomes before designing a syllabus and conceptualizing content. This will enable them to make decisions about methods to be adopted, skills and topics to be assessed/ evaluated. It will also help them to identify what students know and what they need to improve upon. Teachers have the responsibility of identifying flaws in their methods or materials through regular assessments; they can then reexamine the learners' needs and better equip themselves to meet the demands of the learners.

11.7. SUMMARY

The lesson gives an introduction to the fundamental concepts of ELT. Each of the four basic concepts of objectives, materials, methods and evaluation, is explained. An attempt is made to clarify terms that can be confusing or ambiguous. Various aspects of each component are dealt with. While the lesson hints at the possibility of practicing teachers getting caught in a confusing array of terms, it seeks to provide relevant information while also bringing out the need to understand the principles and practices that have influenced English language teaching. It also confirms the significance of conceptual understanding as the first step towards use of better practices.

11.8. TECHNICAL TERMS

Cognitive demand: what is demanded of a learner for task completion or task achievement in terms of the mental act or processes by which knowledge is acquired, including perception, intuition and reasoning

Taxonomy: a scheme of classification; e.g.: Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives

Learning styles: an individual's unique approach to learning based on strengths, weaknesses, and preferences; e.g.: a kinesthetic learning style requires one to manipulate or touch material to learn

Suggestopedia: a teaching method developed by the Bulgarian psychotherapist Georgi Lozanov; used mostly to learn foreign languages

11.9. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is the difference between goals and objectives? Are these both part of instructional design?
2. Why is it essential to sequence objectives? What is the rationale behind sequencing?
3. Mention some of the significant features of good materials? Do you think practicing teachers should develop materials or is it best left to experts who specialize in that area? Give reasons for your answer.
4. What is the difference between approach and method? Explain the significant features of some important methods of ELT?
5. What are the limitations of the methods concept? Explain with illustrations.
6. What factors should one take into account in order to evolve a fair method of

evaluation?

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. Y. Prabhavathi**

LESSON – 12

NATURE OF FIRST LANGUAGE AND SECOND LANGUAGE

Structure of the lesson

12.0 OBJECTIVES

The following are the objectives of this lesson:

- to understand the terms L1 and L2 and their related terms
- to distinguish between L1 and L2
- to identify the similarities between L1 and L2 learning
- to grasp the distinction between acquisition and learning
- to understand language use in bilingual situations

12.1. INTRODUCTION

A wide range of terminology is used to illustrate the differences between first and second language. Sometimes, we use such terms as 'second language', 'foreign language', 'language learning', and 'language acquisition'. Often, this usage in language pedagogy leads to ambiguity and sometimes downright confusion. A clear explanation of terms that we use is needed to minimize the possible misunderstanding and confusion.

H H Stern (1983:9), suggested two sets of words for distinguishing between 'mother tongue' or 'native language' and 'second language' or 'foreign language', as follows:

L1	L2
First language	second language
Native language	non-native language
Mother tongue	foreign language
Primary language	secondary language
Stronger language	weaker language

These two sets of terms are always to relative to a person or a group of persons. They specify a *subjective relationship* between a language and an individual or a group of individuals.

There is another set of terms which describe language *objectively*, i.e., without reference to the relationship of individuals to that particular language (Stern 1983:10). This set mainly

denotes the geographical distribution, social function, political status, origin, type or importance of the language, and so on;

E.g. language of wider communication
standard language
regional language
national language
official language
modern language
classical language

Sometimes a few terms fall into more than one category.

E.g. I object to you speaking of 'learning French as a second language' in Canada; French is as much a first language as English.

For a majority of French Canadians, French is the 'first language', 'L1' or 'mother tongue'. For them, English is a 'second language' or 'L2'. But for English native speakers in Canada, French is a second language or L2. In the above example, the confusion has been created by equating 'first' with 'national', 'historically first' or 'important', and 'second' with 'less important' or 'inferior', and thus mixing up the third set of objective terms which attributes a position, value or status to a language with the first two sets of subjective terms which relate individuals and their use of language.

However, even within the first two sets of terms, confusion arises – they do not indicate any distinction between (i) the way a language is acquired by an individual, or (ii) the level of proficiency an individual has attained in that language.

Firstly, it is understood that the L1 terms are used to denote that a person has acquired the language in infancy and early in childhood (hence 'first' or 'native') and generally within the family (hence 'mother tongue').

E.g: 1. English is my mother tongue.
2. I am a native speaker of French.
3. His first language was Hungarian

Secondly, the L1 terms signal a characteristic level of proficiency in the language. They suggest an intuitive, 'native-like', 'full', or 'perfect' command of the language. When we look at the above examples, speakers in the first two examples and the person spoken about in the third example can identify themselves as 'speakers of' English, French, or Hungarian. We would normally assume that the English speaker in example (1), the French speaker in (2), and the Hungarian in (3) have this full command of the language which they acquired in their early years, because in many cases the two uses of the terms coincide. But this is not always so and the use of the same term for the personally felt level of proficiency and the manner of acquisition can be misleading. The Hungarian in (3), for example, might have elaborated his position as follows:

4. My native language was Hungarian, but I now use English as my first language.

Under certain circumstances he might have even said:

5. Hungarian was my first language, but it is now rather rusty.
6. Hungarian was my first language, but I have completely forgotten it.

Therefore a clear distinction must be drawn between L1 as 'language acquired first in early childhood' and L1 as 'language of dominant or preferred use' (Stern 1983:11). It is better to

reserve the term 'native language' for the language of early-childhood acquisition and 'primary language' for the language of dominant or preferred use when this distinction has to be made, with the terms 'first language' or 'L1' to cover both uses, allowing the context to make clear the distinction.

The concept of L2 ('non-native language', 'second language', 'foreign language',) implies the prior availability to the individual of an L1, in other words, some form of bilingualism. The use of the L2 set of terms has also a dual function: It indicates (i) something about the acquisition of the language, and (ii) something about the nature of the command.

E.g. 1. We are learning French in school. (formal learning)

2. I'm trying to learn Tamil. (through private study)

3. Our Danish 'au pair' girl has been sent by her parents to England to learn English in our family. She has no lessons. (informal learning)

In all the three examples above, the language is learnt as a 'second language' or 'foreign language'. It implies that French (1), Tamil (2) or English (3) are learnt by these individuals *after* they have already acquired an L1. Secondly, the L2 terms may indicate a lower level of proficiency in the language in comparison with the primary language. It feels 'less familiar', 'new', or 'strange'.

To sum up, the term, 'second language' has two meanings, according to Stern (1983:12). First, it refers to the chronology of language learning. A second language is any language acquired later than the native language. At one extreme the second language learning process takes place at an early age when the native language command is still rudimentary. At the other, it may take place in adult life when the L1 acquisition process is virtually completed or slowed down.

Secondly, the term 'second language' is used to refer to the level of language command in comparison with a primary or dominant language. In this second sense, 'second language' indicates a lower level of actual or believed proficiency. Hence 'second' means also 'weaker' or 'secondary'.

The distinction between L1 and L2:

In many European countries the distinction between L1 and L2 is self-evident. For example, many parts of Great Britain have homogenously English-speaking populations. For them English is a native language and the language of dominant and preferred use. In their school system, French or German may be taught as second or foreign language. But in many language situations the relative position of the languages is not as simple. For example, in Great Britain large numbers of immigrants from the Indian subcontinent use English as a second language. However, children of English-speaking immigrants may have a native-like command of English.

12.2. TEACHING OF MOTHER TONGUE/ FOREIGN LANGUAGE/SECOND LANGUAGE

Several distinctions have been made in the area of language pedagogy, taking English as a typical case because of its worldwide use. Distinctions have been made between mother tongue teaching or teaching a first language and second language teaching, between second language teaching and foreign language teaching.

(a) Mother tongue teaching / learning: The goals of teaching the mother tongue are different from those of teaching a second language. in a sense, the first language is *not taught*, but *caught:* a child picks up the first language from the speakers in the immediate environment and it is learnt naturally. Learning the first language is like one of the basic instincts which cannot even be suppressed: any normal child will learn how to listen, understand and speak the language that is used in his/her social environment. Linguists say that the innate language learning ability of the human mind, enables the child to learn the language by constructing the grammar of the language in his /her mind in a natural way.

Listening and *speaking* in the first language are natural processes but not *reading* and *writing:* only when the child goes to school or is taught by someone, he/she learns how to read and write. The goals of teaching the first language may be:

(a) Teaching (and learning) how to read and write;
(b) Teaching (and learning) the 'standard language' and its varieties;
(c) Teaching (and learning) the literature of the first language and through it the culture and literary heritage and value system of the language community.

The language taught and learnt may be English in English speaking countries, Hindi in Hindi speaking areas, Telugu in Andhra Pradesh and Telangana or any other language as the first language / mother tongue.

(b) Foreign language teaching: We teach a number of foreign languages in India – French, German, Spanish, Japanese, etc.; if, for example, French or German is taught to a Punjabi-speaking learner, the goal is limited. The learner is not going to use French or German for day-to-day communication in India; if he /she goes to France or Germany, he/she has to use the language in its own cultural context. So, the literary or cultural function is the dominant one in foreign language teaching / learning and the 'instrumental' or secondary communication function is rather limited or minimal.

(c) Second language teaching: In teaching a second language for example, English to a Bengali speaker, the goal is instrumental or communicative. The cultural and literary goals are

minimized. In the present-day context in India, the learner of English may have to use English for purposes of communication, in his/her day-to-day life in the office, in the market place, in the bank , and sometimes even in social gatherings. English is used as a secondary vehicle of communication within one's own culture and social context.

Similarly, a Tamil user may learn Hindi as a second language. Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan family of languages and Tamil to the Dravidian family; but both are languages used within the cultural context of the Indian sub-continent. English, on the other hand, though an Indo-European language, is somewhat different in the degree in which it is related to India's culture. English is not as intimately interwoven with the culture of the Indian sub-continent as Hindi or Bengali or Telugu or Tamil; the rural texture has not taken English as part of its mental make-up (Krishnaswamy & Lalitha Krishnaswamy 2003:46). Still, English is different from French or German or Italian, on the one hand, and Hindi or Malayalam or Gujarati, on the other. English has a unique status – it is neither Indian nor foreign. That is why the Constitution treats it as an 'Associate Official Language' while Hindi is an 'Official

Language'. We have to be clear that Hindi is not the 'national language' in India according to the Constitution.

From the preceding discussion it is evident that the L1/L2 distinction is not easy to make. The languages of the home, neighbourhood, school, region, or nation may form intricate patterns of bilingualism and multilingualism. In this regared, a brief explanation of the terms 'bilingual' or 'bilingualism can be helpful to the discussion on the concept of 'second language learning'.

12.3. BILINGUALISM

Put simply, bilingualism is the ability to use two languages. However, defining bilingualism is problematic since individuals with varying bilingual characteristics may be classified as bilingual. Definitions of bilingualism range from a minimal proficiency in two languages, to an advanced level of proficiency which allows the speaker to function and appear as a native-like speaker of two languages. A person may describe themselves as bilingual but may mean only the ability to converse and communicate orally. Others may be proficient in reading in two or more languages (or bi-literate). A person may be bilingual by virtue of having grown up learning and using two languages simultaneously (simultaneous bilingualism). Or they may become bilingual by learning a second language sometime after their first language. This is known as sequential bilingualism. To be bilingual means different things to different people.

Bilingualism encompasses a range of proficiencies and contexts. A young child entering school may be called bilingual but it may be that she uses her first or home language for domestic and familial purposes and that English is her preferred language for communication outside the home. Or she may be largely monolingual in her first language only when she starts school. A child who has recently arrived in England from overseas may have a good level of literacy in English but may be unable to converse or use spoken English in the classroom context. On the other hand, many pupils described as bilingual routinely use three languages or more and thus 'plurilingual' would be a better description. In terms of competence, a bilingual may have very high levels of proficiency in both languages or may have only limited proficiency in one and be far more proficient in the other.

In other words, as all second language learning by definition implies the previous presence of a first language, it necessarily leads to bilingualism in the broad sense of this term.

12.4. LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Language acquisition refers to the process of natural assimilation, involving intuition and subconscious learning. It is the product of real interactions between people in environments of the target language and culture, where the learner is an active player. It is similar to the way children learn their native tongue, a process that produces functional skill in the spoken language without theoretical knowledge. It develops familiarity with the phonetic characteristics of the language as well as its structure and vocabulary, and is responsible for oral understanding, the capability for creative communication and for the identification of cultural values.

In acquisition-inspired methodology, teaching and learning are viewed as activities that happen on a personal and psychological level. The acquisition approach triggers the communicative act and develops self-confidence in the learner.

A classic example of second language acquisition are the adolescents and young adults that live abroad for a year in an exchange program, often attaining near native fluency, while knowing little about the language. They have a good pronunciation without a notion of phonology, do not know what the perfect tense is, modal or phrasal verbs are, but they intuitively recognize and know how to use all the structures.

12.5. LANGUAGE LEARNING

The concept of language learning is linked to the traditional approach to the study of languages and today is still generally practiced in high schools worldwide. Attention is focused on the language in its written form and the objective is for the student to understand the structure and rules of the language, whose parts are dissected and analyzed. The task requires intellectual effort and deductive reasoning. The form is of greater importance than communication. Teaching and learning are technical and based on a syllabus. Error correction is constant leaving little room for spontaneity. The teacher is an authority figure and the participation of the student is predominantly passive. The student will be taught how to form interrogative and negative sentences, will memorize irregular verbs, study modal verbs, learn how to form the perfect tense, etc., but he hardly ever masters the use of these structures in conversation.

Language-learning inspired methods are progressive and cumulative, normally tied to a preset syllabus that includes memorization of vocabulary. It seeks to transmit to the student knowledge about the language, its functioning and grammatical structures, its contrasts with the student's native language. This is knowledge that hopefully will produce the practical skills of understanding and speaking the language. However, the effort of accumulating knowledge 'about' the language with all its irregularity becomes frustrating because of the lack of familiarity with the language.

Innumerable graduates in Brazil with Arts degrees in English are classic examples of language learning. They are certified teachers with knowledge about the language and its literature but they are able to communicate in English only with poor pronunciation, limited vocabulary and lacking awareness of the target culture.

12. 6. SIMILARITIES BETWEEN ACQUISITION OF L1 & L2

Whatever the differences between L1 and L2, the acquisition of both the languages shows certain similarities.

- In both first and second language acquisition, universal grammar may influence learning. In second language learning, universal grammar may influence learning either independently or through the first language.
- In both first and second language acquisition, there are predictable stages, and particular structures are acquired in a set order. Individuals may move more slowly or quickly through these stages, but they cannot skip ahead.
- In both first and second language acquisition, making errors is a part of learning. Learners need to make and test hypotheses about language to build an internal representation of the language. In the initial stages of learning, learners may use chunks of language without breaking them down or processing them as independent units. In later stages, they may make new errors as they begin to process the parts of each chunk according to the rules of their language system. For example, a learner

may start out using the correct form of an irregular verb as part of a language chunk, but later overgeneralize and place a regular affix on that same verb.

- In both first and second language acquisition, the learner uses context clues, prior knowledge, and interaction to comprehend language.
- In both first and second language acquisition, age is an important variable affecting proficiency.
- In both first and second language acquisition, learners can often comprehend more complex language than they are able to produce. In the initial stages of learning, learners go through a silent period.
- In both first and second language acquisition, a learner's proficiency can vary across situations.
- In both first and second language acquisition, learners may overgeneralize vocabulary or rules, using them in contexts broader than those in which they should be used.
- In both first and second language acquisition, learners need comprehensible input and opportunities to learn language in context in order to increase their proficiency.

12. 7. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Differentiating language learning from language acquisition is considered as one of the many linguistic phenomena that emerged in the 20th century. The need for a systematic study of how languages are learned was developed as part of the cultural and communication expansion the world has witnessed (Ellis 1997: 3).

First Language acquisition is the natural process in which children subconsciously possess and develop the linguistic knowledge of the setting they live in. In contrast, Second language learning takes place where the target language is the language spoken in the language community that differs from the mother tongue "first language" and is distinguished from Foreign language learning in which the language is absent from the setting of that community (De Bot, Lowie, and Verspoor 2005: 7).

Many studies addressed the distinction between L1 (First language) acquisition and L2 (Second language) learning. The very first thing to address is the natural process in which L1 learners acquire their language knowledge. L2 learning is more of a conscious one.

Compared to L1 learning, L2 learners develop this knowledge by utilizing conscious and cognitive efforts. De Bot, Lowie, and Verspoor (2005: 7) argue that Krashen and Terrel tried to draw a line between second language acquisition and learning by stating that acquisition is a subconscious process and very similar to the one that children develop in their first language.

Yule (1985: 163) defines acquisition to be "…the gradual development of ability in a language by using it naturally in communicative situations with others who know the language". He contrasts it with learning: "a more conscious process of accumulating knowledge of the features, such as vocabulary and grammar, of a language, typically in an institutional setting".

The natural subconscious or conscious learning factor is highly and vitally linked and attached to the linguistic setting. This leads to another major distinction between L1 and L2 learners which is exposure. The L1 acquisition, as defined earlier, takes place in a setting where the acquired language is the language spoken by parents and or caregiver. The acquirer is in a constant exposure to this language. Second language learners have lesser contact with the language, and may be only a few hours per week in the case of foreign language learners (Yule, 1985: 163).

There are also some individual differences that play part in this distinction and they fall into two groups.

(i) Physical differences and age: Children who are acquiring their first language are still developing their speech organs. This explains the gradual and natural development of sound production accompanied with the brain development. L2 learners' competence is also affected by age-related physical conditions that hinder their learning. Yule (1985: 145) argues that the readiness of the human mind to receive and learn a new language is most in childhood, which is called the critical period. Ellis (1995: 67) describes the critical period as that in which '…language acquisition is easy and complete (i.e. native-speaker ability is achieved)'.

(ii) Cognitive and psychological differences: A number of cognitive and psychological learning barriers separate L2 learners from the L1 acquirers. Recent studies show that motivation plays a great role in attaining language proficiency. Cook (2008:136) states that bigger motivation leads to better performance in L2. According to Cook, the motivation for learning falls into two types: *Integrative* which reflects whether the student identifies with the target culture and people in some sense'; and *Instrumental* in which learning takes place for a career or other practical reason (Cook (2008: 136-137). Ellis (1995: 75) even adds

two more types of motivation: *Resultative* motivation that takes place when learning controls the motivation, and an *intrinsic* motivation in which it involves the activation, arousal, and maintenance of the learning curiosity.

There are other cognitive factors that play a role in determining learner's effort and competence in the second language learning. Those factors are highly related to aptitude which is "… natural ability for learning an L2″ (Ellis, 1995: 73).

12. 8. SUMMARY

In this lesson we have tried to make sense of the terms first language, second language and foreign language. In the process we have also brought in related terms like primary / secondary stronger / weaker language etc. Most of the world's population is bilingual / multilingual, rather than monolingual. Particularly in the case of English, geographical expansion has resulted in the phenomenon of English as a second or official language in many of the former colonies of Britain. In this context the terms 'bilingual' and 'bilingualism' have been explained to understand the language situation (L1/L2) in such countries. The distinction between acquisition and learning has also been explored. The lesson also contains a discussion of the cognitive and psychological factors affecting

language learning and also distinguished child language learning from adult language learning.

12. 9. SELF –ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is meant by L1 in general? What are the related terms?
2. Mention the terms used in the L2 context.
3. What is bilingualism?
4. How does bilingualism help in understanding the distinction between L1 and L2?
5. Distinguish between acquisition and learning.
6. How does a foreign language differ from a second language?
7. What is meant by an 'official' language?
8. What is the constitutional status given to English in India?
9. How do children learn their mother tongue?
10. What are the cognitive and psychological factors affecting L2 learning?

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Lesson Writer: **K. Sai Krishna**

LESSON 13

THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD AND THE BILINGUAL METHOD

Structure of the lesson

13.0. Objectives of the lesson

The objectives of the lesson are

- To familiarize the learners with an introduction to the Grammar Translation Method (GTM)
- To understand the nuances of the features and limitations of the GTM
- To familiarize the learners with Dodson's eight steps in the Bilingual Method (BM)
- To be able to understand the advantages and limitations of the BM
- To make a comparative study of the GTM and the BM

13.1. INTRODUCTION

This lesson begins with a brief history of language teaching methods in the past in order to get a comprehensive understanding of the contemporary methods. Richards (2010:3) draws attention to the fact that there have been changes in language teaching methods throughout the history. These changes have reflected recognition of changes in the kind of proficiency learners need, such as a move toward oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study; they have also reflected changes in theories of

the nature of language and of language learning. A majority of today's population across the globe is multilingual. In the present scenario, English has become a global language and it is the language which is the most widely studied today whereas 500 years ago Latin was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion and government in the Western world. In the sixteenth century, however, French, Italian and English gained in importance as a result of political changes in the world.

13.1.1. Decline of Latin language and origin of the GTM

As Latin language started slowly losing its importance, it was treated as an "occasional" subject in the school curriculum. The study of classical Latin and an analysis of grammar and rhetoric became the model for foreign language study from the 17th to 19th centuries. Children started entering "grammar" schools in the 16th, 17th and 18th centuries in England. They were given a rigorous introduction to grammar. Grammar was taught through rote learning of grammar rules, study of declensions and conjugations, translation, writing sample sentences, sometimes with the use of parallel bilingual texts and dialogue. Students were introduced to advanced grammar and rhetoric after acquiring the basic proficiency. Inability to learn grammar rules also resulted in brutal punishment by the teachers. Hence, this resulted in children having a deadening experience. The Latin tongue ceased to be a normal vehicle for communication and was replaced by the vernacular languages. The decline of Latin also brought with it a new justification for teaching Latin. Latin was said to develop intellectual abilities, and the study of Latin grammar became an end in itself. 'Modern' languages began to enter the curriculum of European schools in the eighteenth century. They were taught following the same basic procedures that were used for teaching Latin. Textbooks consisted of abstract grammar rules, lists of vocabulary and sentences for translation. By the 19th century, this approach based on the study of Latin had become the standard way of studying foreign languages in schools. Textbooks consisted of chapters or lessons organized around grammar points. Each grammar point was listed, with an explanation on the rules on its use, followed by illustrations by sample sentences. This approach to foreign language teaching became known as the Grammar-Translation Method.

13.2. THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

The Grammar Translation Method (GTM) also known as *'traditional method'* is an offspring of German scholars like Johann Seidenstüker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, Johann Valentin Meidinger and is also known as the *Prussian Method* as it began in Prussia at the

end of the 18th century. Howatt (2004:151)) says that the '*grammar translation*' label is misleading. In fact, the originators tried to devise a simple approach suitable for school children. Before 1800, most of the modern language learners were scholars trying to gain a reading knowledge of the language by studying its grammar and applying this knowledge to the interpretation of texts. Most of them were trained in classical grammar and knew how to apply familiar grammatical rules to new languages. However, this scholastic method was not suitable for younger school children. Stern (2007:453) reviewed that the combination of brief presentations of grammar points and massive translation practice as a distinct strategy was also applied in Ollendorff's language courses. They came into popular use around 1840. His lessons followed a standard pattern of a statement of rule, followed by vocabulary exercises and translation exercises. This method was realized as an active, simple and effective method because as soon as a rule was presented it was applied in short translation-practice sentences.

This method focused more on knowledge about grammar rather than the knowledge of grammar itself. Johann Christian Fick, a French grammarian published a book entitled *Practical English Course for Germans of both sexes*, following the method of Meidinger's French Grammar. Practical referred to a course which required more 'practice' rather than intending the meaning of 'useful'. This method does not require training on the part of the teacher. A technical grammatical terminology is not avoided. The learner is expected to study and memorise a particular rule and examples. One of the features of GTM introduced by Meidinger was to increase the complexity of the learning task by constructing practice sentences illustrating a number of rules simultaneously. This approach tended to make language learning appear as a matter of problem or puzzle solving.

13.2.1. Syllabus

Geetha Nagaraj (2008:11) summarises the syllabus in the GTM under the following sections:

The syllabus consists of the following:

a. Eight to ten prose lessons of specified limits
b. Seven to eight poems
c. A non-detailed text, usually an abridged classic
d. Grammar
    i. Parts of speech, including their definitions and articles
    ii. Conjugation of verbs in the affirmative, negative interrogative and negave interrogative

iii. Parsing of words in different types of sentences
iv. Passivisation
v. Reported speech comprising reporting statements and questions
vi. Analysis of simple, complex and compound sentences
vii. Synthesis of sentences

e. Written work
i. Descriptive writing
ii. Narrative writing
iii. Letters of different kinds

The focus of the activities in the classroom is mainly on the students' knowledge *about* grammar and with an emphasis on accuracy. Texts in the foreign language are translated into and out of the mother tongue. The textbooks comprise long elaborate vocabulary lists, bilingual word lists and translation exercises.

13.2.2. Characteristics of the Grammar Translation Method

Jack C. Richards, (2010:5) discussed the following principal characteristics of the GTM.

1. The GT method is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through a detailed analysis of its grammar rules. Grammar is taught prescriptively and *deductively* – study of rules, practiced through translation exercises.
2. Application of this knowledge to translate sentences and texts into and out of the target language.
3. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching and language practice.
4. Memorizing rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the Foreign Language (FL).
5. Reading and writing are the major focus. Of the four language skills it is reading that receives the highest attention. Very often reading aloud by the teacher and by individual learners becomes a central activity.
6. Vocabulary selection is based exclusively on the reading text used, a list of vocabulary items with their translation equivalents are presented. It is taught through bilingual word lists.
7. Accuracy is emphasized. Students are expected to attain high standards in translation. This is because of "the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing

number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century" (Howatt 1984:132).

8. The students' native language is the medium of instruction.
9. The method focused more on reading and writing and relatively less importance is given to listening and speaking.
10. Little or no attention gets paid to pronunciation

In the words of Tickoo (2013:350), 'In a teacher-centered class what matters is *how much* and *what* gets taught, in the belief that teaching guarantees learning.'

13.2.3. Limitations of the GTM

- Learning a foreign language meant memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary.
- It implied attempts to produce perfect translations of stilted or literary prose.
- The excessive obsession with accuracy and completeness inhibited learners who often preferred to remain silent rather than expose their ignorance, according to Saraswathi, V. (2012: 65)

13.2.4. Conclusion

Grammar Translation dominated European and foreign language teaching from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in modified form it continues to be widely used in some parts of the world today. It was criticized on the grounds that strict adherence to grammar rules and overemphasis on exceptions along with the dominance of the first language did not result in effective language learning. But, the Grammar Translation Method is still widely practiced in many of the heterogeneous classrooms in Indian schools and colleges. This method is still in existence where understanding literary texts is the primary focus of foreign language study and there is little need for a speaking knowledge of the language. Contemporary texts for the teaching of foreign languages at the college level often reflect GT principles. These texts are frequently the products of people trained in literature rather than in language teaching or applied linguistics. It is criticised as a method without a theory. It does not have any basis in linguistics, psychology or educational theory.

Inspite of many attacks, GT method is still widely employed today, if only as a contributory strategy in conjunction with other strategies. A glance at many currently used text books, particularly in the less commonly taught languages, confirms the strong hold of GT method. In language programmes in the universities in English – speaking countries, translation of texts from and into the foreign language has remained a standard procedure. In

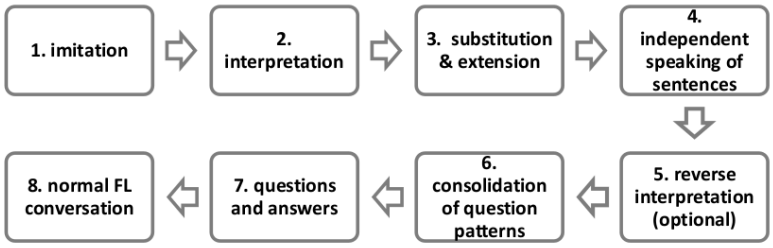
the early 60s Dodson (1967) reaffirmed teaching techniques based on a GT learning strategy under the name of *Bilingual Method*.

13.3. THE BILINGUAL METHOD (BM)

Bilingual method allows judicious use of mother tongue and it is used by the teacher as a reference language to teach the meanings of the difficult words or expressions whereas the students continue to use the target language. Unlike the Grammar Translation Method, it does not aim at translating sentences from L1 to L2 or practice sentence structures and the grammatical rules. It differs from the Direct Method in providing visual images of the printed text from the beginning so that the learners are exposed to the script while listening to it. Pictures are being used in this method as an aid to promote oral skills rather than as a tool to convey the meaning. It also aims at facilitating teaching learning process through the equivalents of mother tongue without duplicating the situation. L2 is assimilated unconsciously in this method. In addition, it aims at fluency and accuracy in the spoken and the written language.

13.3.1. Dodson's eight major steps in Bilingual Method

Dodson discussed the eight major steps in the Bilingual Method and they are as follows:



Dodson's eight major steps in Bilingual Method

The structural design of the bilingual method follows a sequence of *presentation – practice – production*. A lesson in Bilingual Method starts with the imitation of dialogue followed by interpretation. MT equivalents are given by the teacher and the students continue to use the target language. It ends up with message-oriented communication in target language. Dodson aimed at full language proficiency and importantly sought to make use of the best activities

found in other language teaching methods. A major strength of the BM lies in its use of above mentioned step by step procedures, each of which is meant to reinforce the others. Tickoo (2007:356) explains the steps as

1. Imitation of basic foreign language sentences;
2. Interpretation of the basic sentences through the teacher's use of the MT stimuli to help evoke FL responses from the learner
3. The use of substitution and extension to enable the learner to speak independently about limited situations without an oral or printed stimulus
4. Independent speaking of sentences by the learner
5. Reverse interpretation – an optional step – to enable the learners to respond in the MT to the teacher's FL stimulus
6. Interpretation of questions mainly to help the learner acquire the question forms independently
7. The use of questions and answers in the FL
8. Normal conversation in the FL without any use of the MT

13.3.2. Advantages of the method

- It facilitates language learning through restricted use of L1 by the teacher.
- This method gives scope to a lot of practice in oral communication and pattern practice. Teacher reads out the text to the class with books closed. Learners then open the books and glance at the text as a support to oral imitation. It brings audio and visual presentations to strengthen the bond.
- Pictures are used as a cue to facilitate speaking skills. The belief is that illustrations assist the conceptualization process of the learner.
- It makes best use of the background knowledge of L1 of the learners wherein concepts are clear.
- It can be used effectively in a heterogeneous classroom irrespective of rural or urban.

13.3.3. Disadvantages of the method

- It relies on the resourcefulness of the teacher.
- Students are not allowed to use the L1 and the transition may take place slowly.

13.3.4. Conclusion

According to Butzkamm, the Bilingual Method proceeds step by step under careful guidance with continual feedback. Learners are led from knowing nothing about any language situation to complete mastery of the situation, from a mastery of one situation to mastery of sentence variations and combinations, and from a mastery of known situation combinations to forays into new, unknown and unforeseeable communication situations. This method aims at a command of words and structures leading to message-oriented communication. There is a gradual transition from role-taking to role-making; from bilingual exercises to foreign-language-only activities; from guided use to free use; from studying the language to studying topics meaningful in their own way. Bilingual method techniques fit well into a modern communicative approach. "The Bilingual Method has not been part of the discussions on ELT methodology of the last three decades of the twentieth century. But given the fact that it demonstrates the value of the learner's L1 as an untapped resource, there may be reason to consider its use as an alternative methodology for non-English medium (NEM) classrooms," says Tickoo (2007:356).

13.4. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE GTM AND THE BILINGUAL METHOD

Sl. No.	Features	GTM	Bilingual Method
1.	Use of mother tongue	By the teacher and the students	By the teacher only as a reference language and to provide glossary of unfamiliar words
2.	Aims	• To learn the grammatical rules • To enjoy the literary or classic texts • To translate sentence structures from L1 to L2 and vice versa	• To practice oral skills • To move unconsciously away from L1 to L2 • From known to unknown • To be actively engaged in meaningful dialogues
3.	Translation of sentences from L1 to L2	• From L1 and L2 • From L2 to L1	No translation
4.	Basic Language skills	Priority to reading and writing	Integration of four skills with a priority to speaking and pattern practice
5.	Teaching aids	Printed texts	Pictures and audio visual texts
6.	Exercises	Translation of literary texts	From Bilingual to foreign language only
7.	Techniques	Memorization of grammar rules	From known to unknown situation and practice in a meaningful context
8.	Basic unit of teaching	Sentence	Wordlists with L1 equivalents and dialogues

13.5. SUMMARY

In this lesson, we have looked at the background to Grammar Translation Method (GTM), the features and limitations of the GTM and how the excessive importance to features such as accuracy, knowledge about the grammatical rules in L2, strict adherence to the rules of grammar stifled learning the second language. As a takeoff from the GTM, Dodson has proposed the Bilingual Method (BM), though at a much later stage. The systematic eight step procedure in the BM is found to be beneficial for many of the L2 learners especially the non-English medium students. With a judicious use of L1 in the classroom by the teacher as a reference language in order to teach L2 is one of the essential features of the BM. Further, a comparative study of the GTM and the DM has been based on the parameters such as mother tongue, aims, skills being taught, the text and the syllabus. It is very much essential and relevant to look at the method of teaching, either the GTM or the BM, from the perspective of 'why' a language is being learnt. A clear needs analysis will allow the discerning teachers to adopt a particular method in order to ensure teaching learning process in the L2 classroom.

13.6. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the characteristics of Grammar Translation Method?
2. Write a brief note on the historical background of the GTM.
3. What is the meaning of deductive method? How is it being explored in the GTM?
4. What are the limitations of the GTM and why do you think it failed later on?
5. Do you think that the GTM is completely an outdated method and it is not in use anymore? Justify your answer.
6. What are the characteristics of the Bilingual Method?
7. How did Dodson explain the significant step-by-step process of the Bilingual Method?
8. What are the advantages and limitations of the Bilingual Method?
9. How do you draw a comparison or a distinction between the GTM and the Bilingual Method?
10. What is conceptualization and how is it being explored by the proponents of the Bilingual Method?

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. NVSN Lakshmi**

LESSON – 14
INNOVATIONS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING, THE REFORM MOVEMENT AND THE DIRECT METHOD

14.0. OBJECTIVES

This lesson will enable the learner

- To get a comprehensive understanding of the innovations in language teaching in the 19th century.

- To understand the contributions made by European specialists
- To realize the significance of Gouin's "series"
- To appreciate the background of the Reform Movement and to recognize the origin of applied linguistics
- To figure out the intricacies of the notion of language teaching as proposed by Henry Sweet the and Klinghardt experiment
- To know the principles and limitations of the Reform Movement
- To be able to understand the origin of the Direct Method
- To appreciate the principles of the Direct Method and understand the 'natural' methods of language learning
- To discern the limitations of the Direct Method

14.1. INTRODUCTION

In the mid-and late nineteenth century, opposition to the Grammar – Translation Method gradually developed in several European countries. Several factors contributed to a questioning and rejection of the GT Method. Increased opportunities for communication among Europeans created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages. Initially this created a market for conversation books and phrase books intended for private study. Language teaching specialists started focusing on the way the modern languages were taught in schools. Increasingly, public education system was seen to be failing in meeting the aims of teaching. New approaches to language teaching were developed by specialists of various disciplines in Germany, England, France and the other parts of Europe. Some of these specialists are the Frenchman C. Marcel, the Englishman T. Prendergast and the Frenchman F. Gouin.

14.2. LANGUAGE TEACHING INNOVATIONS IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY

14.2.1. Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin

A closer look at the following table will give us an understanding of the contribution made by the three specialists, Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin.

	Reformers	Principles
1.	C. Marcel (1793-1896)	• Child language learning can be the model for language teaching • Emphasis was laid on the meaning in learning • Reading skill was taught before the other skills
2.	T. Prendergast (1806-1886)	• Children use situational and contextual cues to interpret utterances • Children memorized phrases and "routines" in speaking

		• The first "structural syllabus" was proposed. • The basic structural patterns should be taught.
3.	F. Gouin (1831-1896)	• Child language acquisition is the basis of learning L2. • Language learning happens through a sequence of related actions. • Use of situations and themes for oral language – the famous Gouin "series"

14.2.2. Gouin's Reforms

The Frenchman Gouin is perhaps the best known of these mid-nineteenth century reformers. He developed an approach to teaching a foreign language based on his observations of children's use of language. He believed that language learning was facilitated through using language to accomplish events consisting of a sequence of related actions. His method used situations and themes as ways of organizing and presenting oral language. He established schools to teach according to his method. Gouin's 'Series' includes sequences of sentences related to activities such as chopping wood and opening the door. Richards (2010:8) quotes the series in the first lesson as cited by Titone (1968:35) given below:

I walk toward the door.	I walk.
I drew near to the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop.
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.
I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.
I turn the handle.	I turn.
I open the door.	I open.
I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	moves
The door turns on its hinges.	turns
The door turns and turns.	turns
I open the door wide.	I open.
I let go of the handle.	I let go.

Gouin emphasised on the teaching of new items in context which makes their meaning clear. Gestures and actions are used to convey the meanings of utterances. Subsequently, these practices became part of Situational Language Teaching and Total Physical Response. The educators realized the need for oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension, grammar or literary appreciation. These reformers revisited the child language acquisition and child language learning in order to facilitate natural language learning. Since the principles laid by Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin are outside the domain

of established notions of education, they lacked wider dissemination and implementation. But their ideas led to the emergence of alternate approaches which was begun by the teachers and linguists by the end of the 19th century. This led to the origin of the Reform Movement by educators of various disciplines and linguists.

14.3. THE REFORM MOVEMENT

From the 1880s, however, practical-minded linguists such as **Henry Sweet** in England, **Wilhelm Viëtor** (1850-1918) in Germany, and **Paul Passy** (1859-1940) in France and **Otto Jespersen** (1860-1943) in Denmark began to provide the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas greater credibility and acceptance. Hermann Klinghardt (1847-1926) a teacher from Silesia followed up Sweet's paper. The discipline of linguistics was revitalized. Phonetics, the scientific analysis and description of the sound systems of languages, was established, giving new insights to speech processes. Linguists emphasised that speech, rather than the written word, was the primary form of language. The International Phonetic Association was founded in 1886, and its International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to enable the sounds of any language to be accurately transcribed. One of the earliest goals of the association was to improve the teaching of modern languages. It advocated

1. The study of the spoken language
2. Phonetic training in order to establish good pronunciation habits
3. The use of conversation texts and dialogues to introduce conversational phrases and idioms
4. An inductive approach to the teaching of grammar
5. Teaching new meanings through establishing associations within the target language rather than by establishing associations with the native language" -Richards (2010 :9)

14.3.1. Henry Sweet

Howatt (2011:199-204) presented a comprehensive review of Henry Sweet's contribution to phonetics in particular and language teaching. Henry Sweet's (1845-1912) reputation as the man who 'taught phonetics to Europe' has long been secure. However, his role as the prime originator of an applied linguistic approach to the teaching of languages has been less widely acknowledged. His classic work in this field, *The Practical Study of Languages*, was published in 1899 after nearly thirty years in preparation. He argued that

sound methodological principles should be based on a scientific analysis of language and a study of psychology. His main aim was to devise '*a rationally progressive method*' of practical language study. The study begins with phonetics and a practical methodology for the acquisition of an accurate pronunciation. Sweet adopted the theory of psychology called *associationism*. In this principle, the learner's primary task was to form and maintain correct association between linguistic elements within the language and between these elements and the outside world, for example, to be able to produce smooth and intelligible utterances and avoiding misuse of translation. The inductive approach highlighted the significance of teachers collecting examples of the new grammar from the text and demonstrates and explains how they worked and help pupils to draw the appropriate conclusions.

His principles for the development of teaching method included

1. Careful selection of *what* is to be taught
2. Imposing *limits* on what is to be taught
3. Arranging what is to be taught in terms of the four basic language skills
4. *Grading* materials from simple to complex (Richards 2010: 10)

14.3.2. The Klinghardt experiment

Klinghardt began his experiment to try out the new ideas in his *Realgymnasium* in Siselia, using Sweet's Elementary English (1885). The work was divided into two semesters with an introduction to English pronunciation, including listening and speech exercises in the first semester and introduction to writing in the second semester. Some of the important steps of this experiment include the following.

1. Pronunciation was given central importance. It was followed by the students repeating after the teacher until they could say the sentence the fluently.
2. The students were introduced to the new notation.
3. The meaning was glossed between the lines of a text with an equivalent translation.
4. The new grammar point was introduced and taught after the students are familiar with the sentence and meaning. Grammar patterns were induced. All the required material was given in the text.
5. The basic points were simply illustrated.
6. The children were taught how to ask questions and answer comprehension questions. This was gradually led to how to extend them to topics in their own lives.

7. The class was introduced to writing for the first time: copying, writing answers to questions, doing simple retells etc.

The main advantage of this Reform Method that the students were actually speaking a foreign language from the beginning. By the end of the course, the students made a good progress in their knowledge of the language and they could speak confidently at the end. Howatt (2011: 193-4).

14.3.3. Principles of the Reform Movement

In Germany, Wilhelm Viëtor (1850-1918) used linguistic theory to justify his views on language teaching. He argued that training in phonetics would enable teachers to pronounce the language accurately. Speech patterns, rather than grammar, were the fundamental elements of language. He published a pamphlet *Teaching Must Start Afresh and* criticized the inadequacies of the GTM and stressed the value of training the teachers in the new science of phonetics.

Richards (2010:10) sums up the beliefs of the reformers in general as

1. The spoken language is primary and it should be reflected in an oral-based methodology
2. The findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training
3. Learners should hear the language first before the written form
4. Contextualized vocabulary has been emphasized rather than teaching words in isolation
5. Grammar points should be practiced in context and it should be taught inductively
6. Translation should be avoided although L1 could be as a reference language

14.3.4. Conclusion

The Reform Movement was a remarkable display of international and inter-disciplinary cooperation in which the specialist phoneticians took as much interest in the classroom as the teachers did in the new science of phonetics, as remarked by Howatt (2011: 187). The principles recommended by the linguists were based on a scientific approach to the study of language and of language teaching. It marked the beginning of the field of applied linguistics. The writings of Sweet, Viëtor and Passy provided suggestions on how these principles of applied linguistics can be put into practice. Subsequently, all these led

naturalistic principles of language learning as seen in the first language acquisition. This led to the development of the Direct Method.

14.4. THE DIRECT METHOD (DM)

14.4.1. Introduction

Gouin and other reformers attempted to build a methodology around observation of child language learning. This led to the development of 'natural' methods. Among those who tried to apply natural principles to language classes in the nineteenth century were L. Sauveur (1826-1907) and Maximilian Berlitz (1852-1921). The Direct Method was used first in France and Germany and later in the USA by Sauveur and Berlitz. Michael de Montaigne in the 16th century is often quoted as example for the direct teaching of a foreign language. During his early years, he was introduced to a guardian who would interact with him only in Latin in order to acquire the language naturally.

The Direct Method (DM) began with a belief that language could be taught naturally and 'directly' without using the L1. This method has been introduced in the interwar years with an emphasis on spoken language. Hence the DM has evolved as a takeoff from the Reform Movement. The development of direct method is closely linked with the introduction of phonetics into language pedagogy. The use of L1 and translation are strictly avoided. Attempts have been made to make learning L2 more like L1 learning. Techniques such as the use of L2 narratives question and answer, dictation, substitutions, transpositions (changing the order), and eliciting responses from the students. Emphasis has been laid upon direct association of language with objects and persons of the immediate environment such as the classroom, the home, the garden and the street. The method was also a first attempt to make the language *learning* situation one of language *use* and to train the learner to abandon the first language as the frame of reference. (Stern: 459).

14.4.2. Sauveur's Contribution

Interaction is at the heart of language acquisition, or *conversation* as the Frenchman Lambert Sauveur (1826-1907) called it which eventually led to the Direct Method. Sauveur used intensive oral interaction in the target language, using questions as a technique to present and elicit language. The method began in Germany to teach German, but for commercial reasons, French language was also taught using this method. He opened a language school in Boston in the late 1860's, and his method became referred to as the

Natural Method. Sauveur and other believers in the Natural Method argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action. When Sauveur moved to USA to teach a French course, his *Introduction* has become a sort of Teacher's manual to accompany his coursebook. The book has (i) italicized conversations that might take place in the classroom and how to talk to the students; (ii) *coherence* during the conversation.

14.4.3. Characteristics of the Direct Method

In practice, the method stood for the following principles and procedures:

1. Direct association between forms and meanings in the target language
2. Language being taught by actively using it in the class
3. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation
4. Known words are used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration and pictures
5. Exclusive instruction in the target language
6. Teaching everyday vocabulary and sentences
7. Oral communication skills through carefully graded question and answer exchanges between the teacher and the students
8. Inductive method of teaching grammar i.e. examples are given first before explaining the rules of grammar.
9. Concrete vocabulary was taught through demonstration, objects and pictures whereas abstract vocabulary was taught through association of ideas
10. Emphasis on correct pronunciation and grammar and primacy of listening and speaking skills
11. Mother tongue is purposefully kept out of the foreign language classroom.
12. Sentences are the basic units of speech and focused on language utterances and expressions.

14.4.4. Berlitz's Contribution

According to Howatt (2011:222), though Maximilian D. Berlitz (1852-1921), did not invent the Direct Method, he made it available to large numbers of language learners in Europe and America through his system of schools. His success was in its height in the decade before the First World War, and by 1914 he had nearly 200 schools, the largest number (63) being in Germany. Berlitz catered for beginners and provided them with useful grounding in the

language. All his books were very clear and straightforward with the directions to the teachers with an emphasis on the methodological interests. The Berlitz Method of teaching languages gave three reasons to avoid translation. They are ---

i. Translation wastes language learning time and that should be devoted to learning L2.
ii. Translation encourages MT interference
iii. All languages are very different, which cannot be possibly be rendered by translation.

Richards sums up the principles that are seen in the following guidelines for teaching oral language which are still followed in contemporary Berlitz schools. (2001:12).

Never translate: demonstrate
Never explain: act
Never make a speech: ask questions
Never imitate mistakes: correct
Never speak with single words: use sentences
Never speak too much: make students speak much
Never use the book: use your lesson plan
Never jump around: follow your plan
Never go too fast: keep the pace of the student
Never speak too slowly: speak normally
Never speak too quickly: speak naturally
Never speak too loudly: speak naturally
Never be impatient: take it easy

14.4.5. Differences between the DM and the Oral Method

Tickoo (2013:354) differentiates between the DM with Harold Palmer's Oral Method (OM) on several significant features of methodology.

a. Unlike the DM, OM allowed the use of L1 in order to contribute to the ease of learning and effectiveness of teaching.
b. Although both the methods stood for an oral-aural initiation into the language, the OM stood for the centrality of reading and writing after their first year (or two) of English in the EFL classroom.
c. Palmer believed in the systematic use of phonetics including an exclusive use of the phonetic alphabet

d. The OM made systematic use of the findings of word counts and controlled vocabulary in designing/selecting materials for use in EFL classrooms.

14.4.6. Limitations of the Direct Method

- Although the DM was quite successful in private language schools where paying clients had high motivation, it was difficult to implement in public secondary school education.
- It failed to consider practical realities of the foreign language classroom.
- It lacked a rigorous basis in applied linguistics theory. Hence it was criticized by the proponents of the Reform Movement.
- The success in classrooms depended heavily on the native teachers and trained teachers.
- It was also criticized that when a simple gloss in L1 could have been sufficient for comprehension, the teachers used explanation at great length in L2.
- Strict adherence to the target language was often found to be counterproductive.

14.4.7. Conclusion

The Direct Method can be viewed as a predecessor of present day 'immersion' techniques wherein L2 is the medium of instruction to teach the language and other subjects like mathematics, social studies and science. Though it has been criticized for not making use of the rich resourceful background of the mother tongue of L2 learners, the DM needs to be practiced thoughtfully depending on the needs of the learners and the purpose of learning. The DM has also been successfully practiced in many of the crash courses at the elementary level and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Training is required on the part of the teachers in order to effectively practice the DM to teach the target language.

14.5. SUMMARY

In first half of this lesson, we have looked at the innovations in language teaching in the 19th century. Specialists like Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin have worked rigorously on the new approaches to language teaching. The first structural syllabus was proposed by Gouin and his famous "series" led to the Situational Language Teaching and the Total Physical Response in the due course of time. Because of their principles beyond the accepted educational framework, the innovations could not go beyond their regional limits though Gouin's series has been quite popular for some time. This led to the emergence of the Reform Movement which is multi-disciplinary in nature. Later, we have looked at the Reform Movement from the perspective of its origin, the significant contributions made by the

advocates of the method such as Henry Sweet, the Klinghardt experiment with a great importance to phonetics and oral communication skills gradually moving on to grammar and writing. Each method is self-sustained in itself and it contributed to the origin of another method. The primacy of listening and speaking with an emphasis on phonetics formed the root to something like 'natural' language learning. In this process, efforts have been made by practitioners of various disciplines to make second language learning more like first language learning. The Reform Method being inter-disciplinary in nature, it gave birth to the new science called Applied Linguistics. As a result, this school of thought led to the emergence of the Direct Method. In the second section of this lesson, we have looked at the origin, historical background of the DM and contribution of Sauveur and Berlitz in making language learning process more systematic in terms of instructions to the teachers and the contextualised communication in the classroom. A strict no-no to translation and reference to mother tongue while teaching L2 in the classroom has left its footprints in the history of English language teaching. As discussed in the earlier section, the DM has similarities to the 'immersion' programmes of today in India and across the globe.

14.6. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the innovations made by Marcel, Prendergast and Gouin in the nineteenth century?
2. Write a short note on Gouin's "Series".
3. What are the principles of the Reform Movement?
4. What is the contribution of Henry Sweet to the language teaching?
5. How do you understand the Klinghardt experiment in the reform movement?
6. How do you critically analyse the role of the Reform Movement in the history of language teaching? Discuss the significant contributions made by the reformers and the principles in practice.
7. What is the Direct Method? Explain its characteristics and limitations in detail.
8. How do you see the progression from the Reform Movement to the Direct Method? What are the similarities and differences between both of them?
9. Why is the Direct Method also called as the Berlitz method? What are the significant contributions made by the Berlitz School?
10. How do you draw comparison between the Direct Method and the Oral Method?
11. What is the difference between the Grammar Translation Method and the Direct Method? Make a comparative study of both the methods with their limitations.

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. NVSN Lakshmi**

LESSON – 15

THE NATURE OF APPROACHES AND METHODS IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

Structure of the lesson

15.0. OBJECTIVES

The following are the objectives of this lesson.

- to understand the reasons for changes in language teaching methods
- to be familiar with the various theories of language and language learning
- to grasp the different aspects of the practice of language teaching.
- to distinguish an approach from a method.
- to have an overall idea of syllabus types, roles of learners, teachers etc. in different methods

15.1. INTRODUCTION

From the preceding lessons we can see that there were changes in the goals of foreign language study and the classroom technique and procedure used to teach languages. These changes reflected responses to a variety of historical issues and circumstances. Tradition was for many years the guiding principle. The Grammar-Translation Method reflected a time-honored and scholarly view of language and language study. At times, the practical realities of the classroom determined both goals and procedures, as with the determination of reading as the goal in American schools and colleges in the late 1920s. At other times, theories derived from linguistics, psychology, or a mixture of both were used to develop a both philosophical and practical basis for language teaching, as with the various reformist proposals of the nineteenth century.

For over a century, language educators have tried to solve the problems of language teaching by focusing attention on teaching *method*. From the previous lessons we are familiar with the names of a few methods like the Grammar-Translation Method, the Reading Method and the Direct Method. The succeeding lessons deal with other methods like the Audiolingual Method, the Communicative Approach, the Oral Approach etc. The names of many of the methods are familiar enough; yet, as Stern (1983) says, the methods themselves are not easy to grasp, because their names have not been applied in a consistent way. For instance, a teacher may say that he employs 'the direct method' but we are not sure that his idea of the direct method corresponds to clearly specified characteristics. And we do not know whether the direct method teacher conducts his classes in the same way as another teacher who also claims to use the same method. As the study of teaching methods and procedures in language teaching assumed a more central role within applied linguistics from the 1940s on, various attempts have been made to conceptualize the nature of methods and to explore more systematically the relationship between theory and practice within a method. Edward Anthony observed 'the undergrowth of overlapping terminology that surrounds this field' (1965: 93). In this lesson we will attempt to clarify the relationship between approach and method and present a model for the description, analysis, and comparison of methods.

15.2. THE CONCEPT OF METHOD

When linguists and language specialists sought to improve the quality of language teaching in the late nineteenth century, they often did so by referring to general principles and theories concerning how languages are learned, how knowledge of language is represented and organized in memory, or how language itself is structured. The early applied linguists, such as Henry Sweet (1845 – 1912), Otto Jespersen (1860 – 1943), and Harold Palmer (1877 – 1949) (see lesson 14), elaborated principles and theoretically accountable approaches to the design of language teaching programs, courses, and materials, though many of the specific practical details were left to be worked out by others. They sought a rational answer to questions such as those regarding principles for the selection and sequencing of vocabulary and grammar, though none of these applied linguists saw in any existing method the ideal embodiment of their ideas.

The names of these methods of course point to an outstanding characteristic but much more is included under the name "method' – a method is more than a single strategy or a particular technique. It is a 'theory' of language teaching which has resulted from practical and theoretical discussions in a given historical context. "It usually implies or expresses certain objectives, and a particular view of language, it makes assumptions about the language learner, and underlying it are certain beliefs about the nature of the language learning process" (Stern 1983: 453).

15.3. APPROACH AND METHOD

In describing methods, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles, and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language, is central. In an attempt to clarify this difference, a scheme was proposed by the American applied linguist Edward Anthony in 1963. He identified three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he termed *approach, method*, and *technique*:

> The arrangement is hierarchical. The organizational key is that techniques carry out a method which is consistent with an approach…

> …..An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning. An approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught….
> ……Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural.
> Within one approach, there can be many methods….
> . A technique is implementational – that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well. (Anthony 1963: 63 – 67).

According to Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified; method is the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about the particular skills to be taught, the content to be taught, and the order in which the content will be presented; technique is the level at which classroom procedures are described. Anthony concludes that "method must be based on axioms, and it must be implemented through techniques selected to lead the student to the desired language behavior, as defined by these axioms" (1963). These definitions are helpful in sorting out the distinction between theoretical assumptions (approach), teaching strategies (methods), and specific classroom activities (technique).

Anthony's model serves as a useful way of distinguishing between different degrees of abstraction and specificity found in different language teaching proposals. Thus we can see that the proposals of the Reform Movement were at the level of approach and that the Direct Method is one method derived from this approach.

A number of other ways of conceptualizing approaches and methods in language teaching have been proposed. Two of the important books in this regard are *Language Teaching Analysis* by Mackey (1965), and *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching* by Halliday, McIntosh & Strevens (1964). Language teaching, according to Mackey, demands a matching of materials, teacher, and learner. He places these factors in a wider social and political context. They elaborated perhaps the most well known models of the 1960s. Mackey's model of language teaching analysis concentrates on the dimensions of *selection, gradation, presentation*, and *repetition* underlying a method. In fact, despite the title of Mackey's book, his concern is primarily with the analysis of textbooks and their underlying principles of organization. Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), whose ideas are similar to Mackey's do not restrict themselves to an analysis of teaching materials. Their concepts are intended to be applicable to the entire teaching process.

According Richards & Rodgers (2001), Anthony's original proposal has the advantage of simplicity and comprehensiveness and serves as a useful way of distinguishing the relationship between underlying theoretical principles and the practices derived from them. However, they feel that it fails to give sufficient attention to the nature of a method itself. Nothing is said about the roles of teachers and learners assumed in a method, for example, nor about the role of instructional materials or the form they are expected to take. It fails to account for how an approach may be realized in a method, or for how method and technique are related. In order to provide a more comprehensive model for the discussion and analysis of approaches and methods, Richards & Rodgers (2001: 20) have revised and extended the original Anthony model. The primary areas further clarified by them are, using Anthony's terms, *method* and *technique*. Approach and method are treated at the level of

design, that level in which objectives, syllabus, and content are determined, and in which the roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials are specified. The implementation phase (the level of technique in Anthony's model) they refer to by the slightly more comprehensive term *procedure*. "Thus, a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure" (p.20). They elaborated on the relationship between approach, design, and procedure, using this framework to compare particular methods and approaches in language teaching. In this lesson, we will see the details of their model which is used as a basis for describing a number of widely used approaches and methods discussed in the succeeding lessons.

15.4. APPROACH

Following Anthony, *approach* refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in language teaching. The linguistic and psycholinguistic aspects of approach are presented below.

15.4.1. Theory of language

At least three different theoretical views of language and the nature of language proficiency explicitly or implicitly inform current approaches and methods in language teaching. The first, and the most traditional of the three, is the *structural view*, the view that language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. The target of language learning is seen to be the mastery of elements of this system, which are generally defined in terms of phonological units (e.g., phonemes), grammatical units (e.g., clauses, phrases, sentences), grammatical operations (e.g., function words and structure words). For example, the Audiolingual Method (lesson 16) embodies this particular view of language.

The second view of language is the *functional view*, the view that language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view of language (see lesson 18). This theory emphasizes the semantic and communicative dimension rather than merely the grammatical characteristics of language. This leads to a specification and organization of language teaching content by categories of meaning and function rather than by elements of structure and grammar. Wilkins's *Notional Syllabuses* (1976) is an attempt to spell out the implications of this view of language for syllabus design. A notional syllabus would include not only elements of grammar and lexis but also specify the topics, notions, and concepts the learner needs to communicate about. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement likewise begins not from a structural theory of language but from a functional account of learner needs.

The third view of language can be called the *interactional view*. It sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations and for the performance of social transactions between individuals. Language is seen as a tool for the creation and maintenance of social relations. Areas of inquiry included in interactional approaches to language teaching are *interaction analysis, conversation analysis*, and *ethnomethodology*. Interactional theories focus on the patterns of moves, acts, negotiation, and interaction found in conversational exchanges. 'Interaction' has been central to theories of second language learning and pedagogy since the 1980s. Rivers (1987) defined the interactive perspective in language education: "students achieve facility in *using* a language when their attention is focused on conveying and receiving authentic messages (that is, messages that contain information of interest to both speaker and listener in a situation of importance to both). This is interaction" (Rivers 1987: 4). The notion of interactivity has also been linked to the teaching of reading

and writing as well as listening and speaking skills. For example Task-Based Language Teaching draws on an interactional view of language.

15.4.2. Theory of language learning

Although specific theories of the nature of language may provide the basis for a particular teaching method, other methods derive primarily from a theory of language learning. A learning theory underlying an approach or method responds to two questions:

(a) What are the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in language learning? and
(b) What are the conditions that need to be met in order for these learning processes to be activated?

Learning theories associated with a method at the level of approach may emphasize either one or both of these dimensions. Process oriented theories build on learning processes, such as *habit formation, induction, inferencing, hypothesis testing*, and *generalization*. Condition-oriented theories emphasize the nature of the human and physical context in which language learning takes place.

Stephen D. Krashen's Monitor Model of second language development (1981) is an example of a learning theory on which a method (the Natural Approach) has been built. Monitor theory addresses both the process and the condition dimensions of learning. At the level of process, Krashen distinguishes between acquisition and learning. *Acquisition* refers to the natural assimilation of language rules through using language for communication. *Learning* refers to the formal study of language rules and is a conscious process. Tracy D. Terrell's Natural Approach (1977) is an example of a method derived primarily from a learning theory rather than from a particular view of language. Charles A. Curran in his writings on Counseling-Learning (1972), for example, focuses primarily on the conditions necessary for successful learning. He believes the atmosphere of the classroom is a crucial factor, and his method seeks to ameliorate the feelings of intimidation and insecurity that many learners experience.

At the level of approach, we are hence concerned with theoretical principles. With respect to language theory, we are concerned with a model of language competence and an account of the basic features of linguistic organization and language use. With respect to learning theory, we are concerned with an account of the central processes of learning and an account of the conditions believed to promote successful language learning. These principles may or may not lead to "a" method. Teachers may, for example, develop their own teaching procedures, informed by a particular view of language and a particular theory of learning. They may constantly revise, vary, and modify teaching/learning procedures on the basis of the performance of the learners and their reactions to instructional practice.

Approach does not specify procedure. Theory does not dictate a particular set of teaching technique and activities. What links theory with practice (or *approach* with *procedure*) is *design* as termed by Richards & Rodgers (2001).

15.5. DESIGN

In order for an approach to lead to a method, it is necessary to develop a design for an instructional system. *Design* is the level of method analysis which includes (a) what the objectives of a method are; (b) how language content is selected and organized within the method, that is, the syllabus model the method incorporates; (c) the types of learning tasks and teaching activities the method advocates; (d) the roles of learners; (e) the roles of teachers; and (f) the role of instructional materials. These issues are explained below.

15.1.1. Objectives

Different theories of language and language learning influence the focus of a method; that is, they determine what a method sets out to achieve. Some methods focus primarily on oral skills and say that reading and writing skills are secondary and derive from transfer of oral skills. Some methods set out to teach general communication skills and give greater priority to the ability to express oneself meaningfully and to make oneself understood than to grammatical accuracy or perfect pronunciation. Others place a greater emphasis on accurate grammar and pronunciation from the very beginning. Some methods set out to teach the basic grammar and vocabulary of a language.

15.5.2. Content choice and organization: The syllabus

All methods involve explicit or implicit decisions concerning the selection of language items (words, sentence patterns, tenses, constructions, functions, topics, etc.) that are to be used within a course or method. Decision about the choice of language content relate to both subject matter and linguistic matter. To put it simply, one makes decisions about what to talk about (subject matter) and how to talk about it (linguistic matter). ESP courses, for example, are necessarily subject matter focused. Structurally based methods, such as Situational Language Teaching and the Audiolingual Method, are necessarily linguistically focused. In grammar-based courses, matters of sequencing and gradation are generally determined according to the difficulty of items or their frequency. In communicative or functionally oriented courses (e.g., in ESP programs) sequencing may be according to the learners' communicative needs.

Traditionally, the term syllabus has been used to refer to the form in which linguistic content is specified in a course or method. Syllabuses and syllabus principles for Audiolingual, Structural-Situational, and notional functional methods, as well as in ESP approaches to language program design, can be readily identified. The syllabus underlying the Situational and Audiolingual methods consists of a list of grammatical items and constructions often together with an associated list of vocabulary items (Fries and Fries 1961). Notional-functional syllabuses specify the communicative content of a course in terms of functions, notions, topics, grammar, and vocabulary.

A number of taxonomies of syllabus types in language teaching have been proposed, for example, Yalden (1987), and Brown (1995). Brown (1995: 7) lists seven basic syllabus types – Structural, Situational, Topical, Functional, Notional, Skills-based, and Task-based, and these can usually be linked to specific approaches or methods: Oral/Situational (Situational); Audiolingual (Structural), Communicative Language Teaching (Notional/Functional), Task-based Taching (Task-based).

15.5.3 Types of learning and teaching activities

The objectives of a method, whether defined primarily in terms of product or process, are attained through the instructional process, through the organized and directed interaction of teachers, learners, and materials in the classroom. Differences among methods at the level of approach can be seen in the choice of different kinds of learning and teaching activities in the classroom. Teaching activities that focus on grammatical accuracy may be quite different from those that focus on communicative skills. Audiolingualism, for example, uses dialogue and pattern practice extensively. Communicative language teaching theoreticians have advocated the use of tasks that involve an "information gap" and "information transfer"; that is, learners work on the same task, but each learner has different information needed to complete the task. The notion of the "task" as a central activity type in language teaching has

been considerably elaborated and refined since its emergence in early versions of Communicative Language Teaching. Tasks have also become a central focus in both second language acquisition research and second language pedagogy.

Difference in activity types in methods may also involve different arrangements and groupings of learners. A method that stresses oral chorus drilling will require different groupings of learners in the classroom from a method that uses problem-solving/information exchange activities involving pair work. Activity types in methods thus include the primary category of learning and teaching activity the method advocates, such as i) dialogue, ii) responding to commands, iii) group problem solving, iv) information-exchange activities, v) improvisations, vi) question and answer, or drills (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 27).

Because of the different assumptions they make about learning processes, syllabuses, and learning activities, methods also attribute different roles and functions to learners, teachers, and instructional materials within the instructional process. These constitute the next three components of design in method analysis.

15.5.4. Learner roles

The design of an instructional system will be considerably influenced by how learners are regarded. A method reflects explicit or implicit responses to questions concerning the learners' contribution to the learning process. This is seen in the types of activities learners carry out, the degree of control learners have over the content of learning, the patterns of learner groupings adopted, the degree to which learners influence the learning of others, and the view of learner as processor, performer, initiator, problem solver (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 28).

Much of the criticism of Audiolingualism came from the recognition of the very limited roles available to learners in audiolingual methodology. Learners were seen as stimulus-response mechanisms whose learning was a direct result of repetitive practice. Newer methodologies customarily exhibit more concern for learner roles and for variation among learners. Johnson and Paulston (1976) spell out learner roles in an individualized approach to language learning in the following terms: (a) Learners plan their own learning program and thus ultimately assume responsibility for what they do in the classroom; (b) Learners monitor and evaluate their own progress; (c) Learners are members of a group and learn by interacting with others; (d) Learners tutor other learners; (e) Learners learn from the teacher, from other students, and fro m other teaching sources.

15.5.5. Teacher roles

Learner roles in an instructional system are closely linked to the teacher's status and function. Teacher roles are similarly related ultimately both to assumptions about language and language learning at the level of approach. Some methods are totally dependent on the teacher as a source of knowledge and direction; others see the teacher's role as catalyst, consultant, guide, and model for learning; still others try to limit teacher initiative by building instructional content and direction into texts or lesson plans. Teacher and learner roles define the type of interaction characteristic of classrooms in which a particular method is being used.

According to Richards & Rodgers (2001: 28), teacher roles in methods are related to the following issues:

(a) the types of functions teachers are expected to fulfill, whether that of practice director, counselor, or model, for example;

(b) the degree of control the teacher has over how learning takes place;

(c) the degree to which the teacher is responsible for determining the content of what is taught; and

(d) the interactional patterns that develop between teachers and learners. Methods typically depend critically on teacher roles and their realizations.

In the classical Audiolingual Method, the teacher is regarded as the primary source of language and of language learning.

As these examples suggest, the potential role relationships of learner and teacher are many and varied. They may be asymmetrical relationships, such as those of conductor to orchestra member, therapist to patient, coach to player. Some contemporary methodologies have sought to establish more symmetrical kinds of learner-teacher relationships, such as friend to friend, colleague to colleague, teammate to teammate. The role of the teacher will ultimately reflect both the objectives of the method and the learning theory on which the method is predicated, since the success of a method may depend on the degree to which the teacher can provide the content or create the conditions for successful language learning.

15.5.6. The role of instructional materials

The last component within the level of design concerns the role of instructional materials within the instructional system. What is specified with respect to objectives, content (i.e., the syllabus), learning activities, and learner and teacher roles suggests the function for materials within the system. The syllabus defines linguistic content in terms of language elements – structures, topics, notions, functions – or, in some cases, of learning tasks (see Johnson 1982; Prabhu 1983). It also defines the goals for language learning in terms of speaking, listening, reading, or writing skills.

i) Some methods require the instructional use of existing materials, found materials, and realia. ii) Some assume teacher-proof materials that even poorly trained teachers with imperfect control of the target language can teach with.

iii) Some materials require specially trained teachers with near-native competence in the target language.

iv) Some are designed to replace the teacher, so that learning can take place independently.
v) Some materials dictate various interactional patterns in the classroom;

vi) Other materials inhibit classroom interaction;

vii) Still others are noncommittal about interaction between teacher and leaner and learner and learner.

The role of instructional materials within a method or instructional system will reflect decisions concerning the primary goal of materials (e.g., to present content, to practice content, to facilitate communication between learners, or to enable learners to practice content without the teacher's help), the form of materials (e.g., textbook, audiovisuals, competence in the language or degree of training and experience).

A particular design for an instructional system may imply a particular set of roles for materials in support of the syllabus and the teachers and learners. For example, the role of instructional materials within a functional/communicative methodology might be specified in the following terms:

i. Materials will focus on the communicative abilities of interpretation, expression, and negotiation.
ii. Materials will focus on understandable, relevant, and interesting exchange of information, rather than on the presentation of grammatical form.
iii. Materials will involve different kinds of texts and different media, which the learners can use to develop their competence through a variety of different activities and tasks.

By comparison, the role of instructional materials within an individualized instructional system might include the following specifications:

i. Materials will allow learners to progress at their own rates of learning.
ii. Materials will allow for different styles of learning.
iii. Materials will provide opportunities for independent study and use.
iv. Materials will provide opportunities for self-evaluation and progress in learning.

15.6. PROCEDURE

The last level of conceptualization and organization within a method is referred to as *procedure*. This encompasses the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language according to a particular method. It is the level at which we describe how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behavior. At the level of design we saw that a method will advocate the use of certain types of teaching activities as a consequence of its theoretical assumptions about language and learning. At the level of procedure, we are concerned with how these tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for teaching and learning. Richards & Rodgers (2001: 31) point out three dimensions to a method at the level of procedure:

(a) the use of teaching activities (drills, dialogues, information-gap activities, etc.) to present new language and to clarify and demonstrate formal, communicative, or other aspects of the target language;
(b) the ways in which particular teaching activities are used for practicing language; and
(c) the procedures and techniques used in giving feedback to learners concerning the form or content of their utterances or sentences.

Essentially, then, procedure focuses on the way a method handles the *presentation*, *practice*, and *feedback* phases of teaching. Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) illustrate how the procedural phases of instruction are handled in what they call a notional-functional approach.

1. Presentation of a brief dialogue or several mini-dialogues.
2. Oral practice of each utterance in the dialogue.
3. Questions and answers based on the topic and situation in the dialogue.
4. Questions and answers related to the student's personal experiences but centered on the theme of the dialogue.
5. Study of the basic communicative expressions used in the dialogue or one of the structures that exemplify the function.
6. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression of structure.
7. Oral recognition, interpretative procedures.
8. Oral production activities, proceeding from guided to freer communication.

15.7. SUMMARY

Language teaching in the twentieth century was characterized by frequent change and innovation and by the development of sometimes competing language teaching ideologies. The concept of 'method' emerged powerful. We have seen that 'method' implies the notion of a systematic set of teaching practices based on a particular theory of language and language learning. These have been discussed under the term *Approach*. Under the term *Design*, we have discussed six aspects of pedagogy – objectives, syllabus, types of learning and teaching activities, roles of learners, teachers and instructional materials. The implementational stage in terms of classrooms behavior has been examined under the label *Procedure*. The analysis of different methods can be fruitfully carried out sing this framework developed by Richards and Rodgers who have slightly modified Anthony's model.

15.8. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the reasons for innovations and changes in teaching methods?
2. What is meant by the term 'method'? Why is it considered vague?
3. Discuss Anthony's model for analyzing a language teaching method.
4. How did Richards and Rodgers modify Anthony's model?
5. What are the theories of language and language learning underlying a method?
6. Distinguish an 'approach' from a 'method'.
7. List the types of syllabus seen in different methods.
8. Why do roles of learners and teachers vary in different methods?
9. Why do we need a design in the instructional process?
10. Explain what happens at the level of Procedure in various teaching methods.

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Lesson Writer**: Prof. K. Ratna Shiela Mani**

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LESSON – 16
THE AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD

Structure of the lesson

16.0. OBJECTIVES

The aims and objectives of this lesson on the Audiolingual Method include the following:

- To get a comprehensive picture of how the Army Specialised Training Programme (ASTP) led to the origin of audiolingualism
- To be able to understand the behaviourist and cognitive theories of language learning and their contribution to the Audiolingual Method

- To understand the concepts of *stimulus, reinforcement* in behavioural psychology
- To create an awareness of the contribution of *structural linguistics* to this method
- To get a picture of the types of syllabus, teaching and learning activities in the Audiolingual Method.
- To understand the role of learners and teacher as proposed by Brooks; instructional materials such as audiovisual texts, equipment in language laboratories
- To create awareness on the procedure that is being followed by the teacher in this method
- To realize the pitfalls of this method as critiqued by Chomsky

16.1. INTRODUCTION

In lesson 14 we have discussed how the Direct Method was popular in Europe in the early part of the 20th century. Foreign language specialists in the United States also were interested in implementing it but first a study was conducted on the state of foreign language teaching in American schools and colleges. The findings of the study were published as the Coleman Report (1929). The study concluded that the goal of teaching conversation skills in the foreign language was impractical and recommended a reading knowledge of a foreign language as the goal. This reading-based approach involved teaching the comprehension of vocabulary and grammatical structures in simple reading texts. In the United States between the two World Wars, English was taught as a second language through either a modified Direct Method approach, a reading-based approach or a reading-oral approach (Darian 1972).

16.2. BACKGROUND

16.2.1. The Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP)

The entry of the United States into World War II had a significant effect on language teaching in America. To supply the US government with personnel who were fluent in German, French, Italian, Chinese, Japanese, Malay and other languages, and who could work as interpreters, code-room assistants and translators, it was necessary to set up a special training programme. The government constituted and deputed American universities to develop foreign language programmes for military personnel. Thus, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) was established in 1942. Initially, as many as 55 American universities were involved in the training programme.

The objective of ASTP is to enable the students to attain conversational proficiency in a variety of foreign languages. As we have seen, this was not the goal of foreign language

teaching in the US, and new approaches were necessary. Around that time, linguists and anthropologists were engaged in studying the American Indian (Red Indian) languages. Linguists, such as Leonard Bloomfield at Yale, had already developed training programs to study these native American languages which do not have a written form and exist only in the spoken form. This technique is called through the "informant method". Textbooks were not available for such languages. The native speaker of the language served as the *informant* who provided the students with the phrases, vocabulary and sentences for imitation. A linguist supervised the learning experience. Thus the students and the linguist took part in guided conversation with the informant, and together they gradually learned how to speak the language. Students used to study for 10 hours a day, 6 days a week. It consisted of 15 hours of drill with native speakers and 20 to 30 hours of private study spread across two-three 6-week sessions. This was the system adopted by the army, and in small classes of mature and highly motivated students, excellent results were often achieved (Richards & Rodgers 2001).

Though the ASTP lasted for only two years, it attracted the interest of the academic community. Intense contact with the target language and intense teaching is the methodology adopted by the Army Method were seen to be useful. When America became a super power across the world, there was an increasing demand for expertise in the teaching of English. Many of the students from various countries had to master English language before they could get admitted into American universities. All these factors led to the emergence of an American approach to ESL. Subsequently, by the mid 1950s this became Audiolingualism.

16.3. THE AUDIOLINGUAL METHOD (ALM) - ORIGIN

The University of Michigan developed the first English Language Institute in 1939 in the United States for training teachers of English as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL). Charles Fries, the director of the Institute, was trained in structural linguistics. He applied the principles of structural linguistics to language teaching. For him, grammar or structure is the starting point. Pattern practice was the basic classroom technique. The lesson followed the *general form:* it began with work on pronunciation, morphology and grammar

followed by drills and exercises. The work by Fries at the University of Michigan led to the emergence of American applied linguistics wherein systematic comparison of English with other languages was made with a view to solving the problems of foreign language teaching. Fries attributed the problems of learning a foreign language to the differences between the

grammatical and phonological patterns of the native language and the target language. 'Contrastive analysis' of the two languages would help to predict potential problems of interference of the native language which can be solved by carefully prepared materials and teaching. This was called the Oral Approach, or the Aural-Oral Approach and the Structural Approach. It advocated aural training first, then pronunciation training, followed by speaking, reading and writing. Language was identified with speech and speech was approached through structure. This approach influenced the way languages were taught in the United States throughout the 1950s. This was a period when expertise in linguistics was regarded as a necessary and sufficient foundation for expertise in language teaching. Audiolingualism ascertained that scientific disciplines like linguistics and psychology could be applied in concrete and usable form in language teaching materials and day-to-day practice.

In developing this method, language teaching specialists drew on the earlier experience of army programs and the Aural-oral or Structural Approach developed by Fries and his colleagues, adding insights taken form behaviorist psychology. As Richards & Rodgers say, this combination of structural linguistics theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology led to the Audiolingual Method (ALM). The Audiolingual Method was frequently referred to as *the aural-oral method*. The term 'audiolingual' was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964. The method was also known as '*New Key', 'the audiolingual habit theory', 'functional skills strategy'.* Some of the factors which contributed to the development of Audiolingualism are

i. Bloomfield's seminal pamphlet

ii. the writings and teachings of Charles Fries and Lado

iii. the development of contrastive linguistics

iv. the new technology of the language laboratory

v. the generous financial support for language research and development in the USA resulting from the National Defense Education Act (NDEA 1957).

16.4. CHARACTERISTICS OF ALM

The following are some of the important features of the Audiolingual Method.

- The predominant emphasis was on 'fundamental skills' i.e., listening and speaking. They were followed by reading and writing skills.

- Language learning was viewed as the acquisition of a practical set of communicative skills.
- It does not give importance to the presentation of grammatical knowledge.
- The learning process is viewed as habituation and conditioning without the intervention of any intellectual analysis.
- An implicit learning strategy is preferred to an explicit one. Active and simple practice are given importance with frequent repetition and imitation.
- The method introduced memorization of dialogues and imitative repetition as specific learning techniques. It has developed *pattern drills* or *structural drills* or *pattern practice*.
- The simplicity of the method attracted many ordinary learners without strong academic background.
- Speaking has been the main focus and teaching techniques with tape recordings, and language laboratory drill allowed the students to practice listening and speaking.

Richards & Rodgers (2001:55) examines the theory of Audiolingual Method from the perspective of *approach, design and procedure*.

16.5. APPROACH

16.5.1. Theory of language

The Audiolingual Method originated from the principles of *structural linguistics* which was developed as a reaction to traditional grammar. Language was viewed as a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning. The elements are phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types. The term *structural* refers to the following features.

- Elements in a language are produced in a rule-governed (structured) way
- Language samples could be described at structural level
- Linguistic levels were thought of as systems within systems – that is being pyramidally structured: phonemic systems led to morphemic systems, and these in turn led to the higher-level systems of phrases, clauses, and sentences.

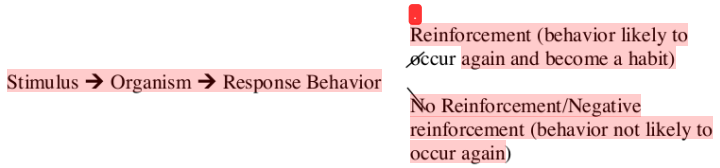
An important principle of structural linguistics was that the primary medium of language is oral; i.e. speech is language. As Brooks puts it, "Language is primarily what is spoken and only secondarily what is written" (1964). We know the reasons for saying so – many languages do not have a written form and we learn to speak before we learn to

read or write. The scientific approach to language analysis appeared to offer the foundation for a scientific approach to language teaching.

16.5.2. Theory of learning

In addition to the structural linguistics, the field of behaviorist psychology contributed a great deal to the Audiolingual Method. Behaviorism, a prominent school of American psychology believes that a human being is an *organism* capable of a wide repertoire of behaviors. Richards (2010:56-57) sums up this behavior in the theory of language learning, as proposed by Skinner (1957) and Brown (1980) that it is dependent on the three important elements in learning given in the following figure.

1. A ***stimulus*** – which serves to elicit behavior of an ***organism*** (human being)
2. A ***response*** triggered by a stimulus
3. ***Reinforcemen***t – which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future.



A number of language principles have emerged out of the psychological foundations of Audiolingualism. Some of the significant practices are the following.

1. FL learning is essentially a process of mechanical habit formation. By memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills the chances of producing mistakes are minimized. Language is verbal behavior. It involves automatic production and comprehension of utterances and can be learned by inducing the students to do likewise.
2. Language is taught through the spoken form before the students are introduced to the written form. Aural-oral training is necessary in order to provide foundation for the other skills.
3. Grammar is taught inductively rather than deductively. Rules of grammar are not presented to the learners until they had enough contextual practice. Drills or practice

allows them to understand the similarities and differences in the patterns thereby the learners have a better foundational skills in language.

4. Meanings of the new words are taught only in linguistic or cultural context but not in isolation. Culture was thus integrated in learning the second language. (Rivers 1964: 19-22).

16.6. DESIGN

Like the 19th century reformers, audiolingualists advocated a return to speech - based instruction with the primary goal of oral proficiency. They dismissed the study of grammar or literature as the goal of foreign language teaching. They called for a radical transformation of methods, materials and tests, as mentioned by Brooks (1964:50).

16.6.1. Objectives:

Brooks differentiates short-term and long-term goals of the audiolingual method. The short term objectives include training in pronunciation, listening comprehension, recognition of speech symbols and the ability to reproduce them in writing. The long range objective "must be language as the native speaker uses it …… There must be some knowledge of a second of language as is possessed by a true bilingualist" (Brooks 1964:107). In practice, oral proficiency is equated with accurate pronunciation and grammar and the ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations. The learner should be able to respond contextually with relevant vocabulary, fluency in the use of the grammatical patterns in the language.

16.6.2. The syllabus:

In the Audiolingual Method, the syllabus contains the key items of phonology, morphology and syntax of the language presented in an order. The syllabus contained linguistic terms which were derived from a *contrastive analysis* of the differences between L1 and L2. The language is presented entirely orally at first. At more advanced level, reading and writing were introduced whereas they were introduced to listening and speaking at the beginning of the course. Dialogues are used for repetition and memorization. Later on, grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected which in turn lead to pattern-practice exercises.

16.6.3. Types of learning and teaching activities

The use of drills and pattern practice is the distinctive feature of the audiolingual method. He opines that the teacher should be trained enough in order to follow the features of audiolingual method. Brooks (1964:156-161) mentions the following drills.

1. Repetition – a student listens to the short utterance and repeats it by adding some more words.
2. Inflection – a student repeats the sentence by adding inflectional marker such as –s/ -es. e.g., I bought the *ticket*. I bought the *tickets*.
3. Replacement –e.g., *Sita* is reading a book. *She* is reading a book.
4. Restatement – a student follows the instructions. For e.g., *Ask her where she lives*. *Where do you live?*
5. Completion – a student repeats the sentence after completing it. e.g., I will carry ….own book to the class. I will carry *my* own book to the class.
6. Transposition (a *change* in word order when a word is added.) e.g using *so do I, Neither will I* in response to a dialogue.
7. Expansion - e.g., I know him. (hardly) – I *hardly* know him.
8. Contraction – e.g. Put your hand on the table. Put your hand *there*.
9. Transformation – a student will transform the sentence based on the features negative, interrogative, tense, mood, voice, aspect or modality.
10. Integration – two separate sentences are integrated into one.
11. Rejoinder – in response to an expression. e.g., 'You're welcome' against 'Thank you'.

16.4.4. Learner roles

In audiolingualism, learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli. They have little control over the content, pace or style of learning. It is as if they are learning a new form of verbal behavior. They are not encouraged to initiate the interaction. They perform controlled tasks and they imitate the teacher after listening to him/her. They are not encouraged to initiate interaction because they make mistakes. They are like organisms trained to produce correct responses only.

16.6.5. Teacher roles:

In this method, the teacher's role is central and active. The teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning in the classroom, monitors and corrects the learner's performance. Brooks (1964:143) emphasised that the teacher must be trained to do the following:

- Introduce, sustain, and harmonize the learning of the four skills in this order: hearing, speaking, reading and writing.
- Use – and not use – English in the language classroom.
- Model the various types of language behavior that the student is to learn.
- Teach spoken language in dialogue form.
- Direct choral response by all or parts of the class.
- Teach the use of structure through pattern practice.
- Guide the student in choosing and learning vocabulary.
- Show how words relate to meaning in the target language.
- Get the individual student to talk.
- Reward trials by the student in such a way that learning is reinforced.
- Teach a short story and other literary forms.
- Establish and maintain a cultural island.
- Formalize on the first day the rules according to which the language class is to be conducted, and enforce them.

16.6.6. The role of instructional materials

Since the focus at initial level is on aural skills, the students are not exposed to the printed word/text in the beginning. The teacher's book contained structured sequence of lessons, dialogues, drills and other practice activities. Tape recorders and audiovisual equipment have an important role in audiolingual course. A language laboratory is the primary source of learning in this method. This enables the learners to have hands-on experience and to practice more in the laboratories. It serves as an alternative method of learning in addition to the theoretical class. The learners repeat the dialogues after listening to them. This provides an opportunity to learn line by line, and provide follow-up fluency drills or conversation practice with a focus on pronunciation.

16.7. PROCEDURE

As Richards (2001:64-5) says, Audiolingualism is primarily an oral approach to language teaching which is reflected in extensive oral instruction. The target language is used as the medium of instruction and translation or use of the native language is discouraged. Richards observes the following procedures being adopted in a typical Audiolingual Method:

1. "Students first hear a model language (either read by the teacher or on tape). It contains the key structures of the lesson. They repeat the dialogues either individually or in groups. The teacher pays attention to pronunciation, intonation and fluency. The correction is overtly done by the teacher immediately after they make a mistake. The dialogue will be memorized gradually line by line. This may be broken into several phrases if required. They repeat the dialogue in chorus in two halves by playing the role of a speaker and a response. They do not consult their book throughout this phase.
2. The dialogue is adapted to the students' interest or situation, through changing certain key words or phrases. This is acted out by the students.
3. Certain key structures from the dialogue are selected and used as the basis for pattern drills of different kinds. Grammatical explanation is kept to absolute minimum as they practice the structures.
4. The students may refer to their textbook, and follow-up reading, writing or vocabulary activities based on the dialogue which is introduced. Writing skill is practiced from a simple task of copying a sentence to complex structural items such as writing a short composition.
5. Follow-up activities may take place in the language laboratory, where further dialogue and drill work was carried out.

Tickoo (2013:335-6) sums up the primary nine features of the audiolingual method as

i. Presenting new material in repetitive dialogues
ii. Emphasis on repetitive drills of sentence patterns
iii. Belief in overlearning as the key to true learning
iv. Primacy of aural-oral skills
v. Sequencing of sentence structures with help from contrastive analysis
vi. Teaching grammar inductively
vii. Immediate detection and remediation of errors
viii. Emphasis on precision and accuracy
ix. Centrality of sounds and syntax

16.8. DRAWBACKS OF ALM

Audiolingualism was used widely in the 1960s. It was applied both to teaching of foreign languages in the US and to the teaching of English as an L2. But it has been criticized for its habit-formation theory because the students were not able to handle the real communication outside the classroom practice. It was found that there was a mismatch between the results and the expectations. Theoretically, it was attacked by the MIT linguist Noam Chomsky who rejected the structural approach to language description as well as the behaviorist theory of language learning. Richards quotes Chomsky (1966:153) words: "Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy." Chomsky's theories revolutionized American linguistics. He also proposed an alternative theory of language which is called Transformational – Generative Grammar. Chomsky proposed the theory of innate ability of the speaker being responsible for learning a language. He argued that language is created anew from underlying knowledge of abstract rules. Sentences are not learned by imitation and repetition but "generated" from the learner's underlying "competence."

Suddenly the audiolingual procedures like pattern practice, drilling, memorization were called into question. For sometime **cognitive code learning** theory was followed. It acknowledged the role of abstract mental processes in learning rather than view learning as simple habit - formation.

16.9. CONCLUSION

But audiolingualism stressed the mechanistic aspects of language learning and language use in order to maximize teaching and learning efficiency. There are many similarities between Situational Language Teaching (see lesson 15) and Audiolingulism, for example, the order in which the language skills are introduced and the foucs on accuracy through drill and practice in basic structures of language. However, SLT was a development of the earlier Direct Method whereas the Audiolingual Method has strong ties to linguistics and behavioral psychology.

16.10. SUMMARY

In this lesson, we have tried to provide an understanding of the background of the audiolingual method. The World War created a need for learning foreign languages in general

and there was an increased demand for learning English in particular. The Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP) led to the emergence of American approach to English as a Second

Language. This program gave birth to *audiolingualism*. In the second part of the lesson under the section of approach, we looked the theory of language and the theory of learning. We have also tried to understand the significance of structural linguistics to this method. It argues that language can be described on a *structural* level such as phonemic, phonetic and morphological. It is produced in a rule-governed way. As part of the contribution of behavioural psychology to language learning, the significance of concepts of *stimulus, response behavior* in *an organism* (learner), *reinforcement* which becomes a *habit* has been looked at. In the section on 'Design', objectives, type of syllabus, learning activities as well as the role of learners and teacher; the role of instructional materials in the classroom are discussed. In the last section of this lesson, a detailed list of procedures to be followed by the teacher as per Brooks has been mentioned. Finally, the innate ability theory as proposed by Chomsky as a reaction to the audiolingual method, has been discussed.

16.11. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What is the contribution of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology to language teaching in audiolingual method?
2. What is Army Specialised Training Program (ASTP)? Why do you think that the Audiolingual Method is also called as the Army Method?
3. What are the features of the audiolingual method? Discuss with reference to the syllabus, the role of the teacher and its approach in detail.
4. Why do you think that audiolingual method is a success or a failure? Justify your argument.
5. What is the contribution made by Brooks and Skinner to the audiolingual method?
6. On what grounds has audiolingualism been criticized by linguists and why?

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. N.V.S.N. Lakshmi**

LESSON - 17
SITUATIONAL LANGUAGE TEACHING

Structure of the Lesson:

17.0. OBJECTIVES OF THE LESSON

- To give a brief overview of the historical background of the approach referred to as Situational Language Teaching
- To explain the principles and practices of Situational Language Teaching (SLT)
- To be aware of the theories of language and language learning in SLT
- To understand the objectives of acquiring skills in SLT
- To know the roles of learners and teachers in SLT.

17.1. INTRODUCTION

The Situational Language Teaching (SLT) or Oral Approach was developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. This approach has had a long-lasting impact and several textbooks have been based on it. Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby attempted to develop a more scientific foundation for an oral approach than could be found in the Direct Method. They studied the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of a language course (Palmer 1917).

This approach is based on a structural view of language. Speech, structure and focus on a set of basic vocabulary are seen as the basis of language teaching and the emphasis is on the presentation of structures in situations.

17.2. VOCABULARY CONTROL

In the 1920s and 1930s several studies were undertaken about foreign language vocabulary and there was a general acceptance of the importance of the vocabulary component. Language teaching specialists such as Palmer believed that vocabulary was an important aspect of foreign language teaching. There was also an increased emphasis on reading skills as the goal of foreign language study in some countries, including India. Vocabulary was seen as an essential component of reading proficiency.

This led to the development of principles of vocabulary control, which greatly influenced English language teaching for decades. Harold Palmer, Michael West and others developed *The Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* (Faucett, West, Palmer, and Thorndike 1936) that was based on frequency counts which identified about two thousand words. A subsequent revision by West published as *A General Service List of English Words* (1953) became a standard reference in material development. Thus several significant attempts were made to introduce a rational and scientific basis for the vocabulary content of a language course.

17.3. GRAMMAR CONTROL

Focus on grammatical content of a language course is also a salient feature of SLT. Palmer's efforts were directed towards developing classroom procedures to teach basic grammatical patterns through an oral approach. His view of grammar was based on structures. He saw structure as the underlying sentence patterns of the spoken language. Palmer, Hornby and other applied linguists classified major grammatical structures into sentence patterns called

'substitution tables'. These were believed to be of help in internalizing the rules of English sentence structures.

The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English (Hornby, Gatenby, and Wakefield 1953) gave a classification of English sentence patterns. Hornby's *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English* (1954) became a standard reference source of basic English sentence patterns. Efforts of specialists such as Palmer, West and Hornby have resulted in laying the foundations for what is referred to as the Oral Approach, which was originally a British approach in TEFL/TESL. Systematic approaches to the grammatical content of a language course were developed.

17.4. KEY PRINCIPLES OF SLT

Palmer, Hornby and other British applied linguists and English teaching specialists had differing views on specific methods and procedures to be used in teaching English. However, their general principles were similar and these were referred to as the Oral Approach. It involved *selection, gradation and presentation* of the course content in a systematic manner. This approach is not to be confused with the Direct Method which used oral procedures but lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory and practice.

The Oral approach was the accepted British Approach to ELT by 1950s. Hornby's famous *Oxford Progressive English Course for Adult Learners* (1954-1956) was based on these principles. The Australian George Pittman and his colleagues developed a set of teaching materials based on the Situational Approach, which were widely used in Australia, New Guinea and the Pacific territories. Materials developed by Gloria Tate continue to be used in the Pacific territories. Situationally based materials were developed by Pittman in association with Commonwealth Office of Education in Sidney, Australia, for use in the English programs for immigrants and later published as the series titled *Situational English* (1965)[7]. Materials developed by other leading textbook writers also used the principles of SLT that had evolved over a period of 20 years.

The main features of the approach are as follows:

- Language teaching begins with the spoken language.
- The target language is the language of the classroom
- New language points are introduced and practiced situationally

- Vocabulary selection procedures are followed to ensure that an essential general service vocabulary is covered
- Items of grammar are graded to enable teaching of simple forms before more complex ones
- Reading and writing are introduced only after sufficient lexical and grammatical basis is established.

(Richards & Rodgers 2001: 39)

The third principle of situational practice became a key feature in the 1960s. Subsequently the term *situational* was more widely used. After the term *Situational Approach* was used by Hornby in a series of influential articles in 1950, it came into common usage. The term Situational Language Teaching is used synonymously with the term Situational Approach. It is said to include the Structural-Situational and Oral Approaches (Richards & Rodgers 2001).

17.5. UNDERLYING THEORIES OF SLT – LEVEL OF APPROACH

17.5.1. Theory of Language:

One of the distinctive features of SLT is the underlying theory that knowledge of structures must be linked to situations in which they can be used. It may be referred to as a kind of British 'structuralism'. This differed from the views proposed by American linguists such as Charles Fries who believed that students should begin learning a foreign language by learning structure or grammar and orally reciting the basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures. The emphasis was not on vocabulary but only on structural grammar and practice was given through oral drills. However this audio-lingual approach differed from SLT in certain basic principles and practice. The close relationship between the structure of language and the situations in which it is used was emphasized by many British linguists. Meaning, context and situation were given prominence. This reflected the functional trend in British linguistics. In Situational Language Teaching language activity is seen as "part of a whole complex of events which ... make up actual situations" (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens 1964: 38). Language is seen as a purposeful activity related to goals and situations in the real world. (Frisby 1957).

17.5.2. Theory of Learning

A method is not essentially based only on a theory of language but also includes the psychology of learning. The behaviouristic view of language learning constitutes the cornerstone of SLT. The approach gives importance to the processes of learning. Basically,

'the behaviourist theory of stimulus-response learning, particularly as developed in the operant conditioning model of Skinner, considers all learning to be the establishment of habits as a result of reinforcement and reward' (Rivers, 1968, 73). A stimulus serves to elicit a particular kind of behaviour; a response is triggered by a stimulus; reinforcement helps in marking particular responses as appropriate, and encourages repetition or future use of particular patterns. Inappropriate responses are strongly discouraged and suppressed to avoid wrong habit formation. There are three processes in learning a language: receiving knowledge or materials, fixing it in memory by repetition, and making it one's personal skill by using it in actual practice (Frisby 1957). Correct speech habits are seen as fundamental to language learning.

Like the Direct Method, an inductive way of teaching grammar is adopted in SLT. Explanation by the teacher is discouraged and the learner is encouraged to induce the meaning of language structures and vocabulary items based on the context or the situation in which they are presented. Learning is extended beyond the classroom experience because the learner is expected to apply the language learned in the classroom to real life situations.

It is believed that the same processes that occur while a child learns a language also occur during second/foreign language learning. SLT practitioners believe that language is acquired and reinforced through imitation and practice that results in habit formation.

17.6. SLT DESIGN

17.6.1. Objectives of SLT:

The objectives of Situational Language Teaching are similar to most other methods of language teaching – to teach the four basic skills of language, that is listening, speaking, reading and writing. Accurate pronunciation and correct use of grammar are emphasized. Errors are strongly discouraged because it is believed that making errors results in negative habit formation. Basic structures and patterns are first taught orally and only after those are learned thoroughly is the learner allowed free choice in sentence patterns and vocabulary (Pittman 1963: 186 -188). The aim of SLT is to train learners to be able to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations with an automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns.

17.6.2. Syllabus:

In the context of SLT syllabus, the term 'situational' is not used in the general sense; it does not refer to a list of situations and the language associated with those situations. In this context 'situation' refers to the manner in which sentence structures/patterns are presented and practiced. SLT needs a structural syllabus and a word list. A structural syllabus refers to a list of the basic structures and sentence patterns organized according to their order of presentation. In SLT, structures are taught at the sentence level and vocabulary is chosen in order to enable sentence patterns to be taught.

A typical example of the contents of a structural syllabus is given below:

Sentence Pattern:

This/That is...

It/He/she is...

These/Those are...

Is this...? Yes, it is.

Is that...? Yes, it is.

Vocabulary:

book, pencil, pen, ruler, desk, chair, picture, door, window, watch, box, blackboard...

(Frisby 1957: 134)

17.6.3.Learning and Teaching Activities:

Drill-based practice of sentence patterns is an essential part of SLT. Situations in which new language material is introduced are carefully controlled. This ensures that meanings of vocabulary items and structures taught through oral method are very clear. (Pittman 1963: 155-156) A language item is first presented and practised orally. It is followed by practice in reading and writing.

Situations:

All the objects present in the classroom, and things outside that can be seen from the classroom can be used for the presentation and practice of language items and vocabulary. Visual aids such as pictures, picture cut-outs, drawings, objects and models can also provide effective situations when combined with action and gestures or mime.

Practice Techniques:

There are basically three types of drills: chorus (the whole class), group (the class divided into groups that practice one after the other) and individual. Pair practice and dictation are also used. Substitution tables are tables where words in different columns can be substituted, resulting in a large number of examples of a given structure/pattern. These may be used for practice and also for testing. Other practice techniques may include the following: call-word technique in which learners substitute words in a sentence with the ones called out by the teacher; incremental drills where learners add a word/ words (supplied by the teacher) to a given sentence; sentence transformation, and combining sentences or parts of sentences.

There is a gradual progress from controlled to freer practice of structures and from oral practice of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading and writing.

17.6.4. Learner Roles:

Initially, the learner is expected only to listen and repeat what the teacher says and respond to questions/commands. The learner does not have any control over his/her learning experience and is skilfully manipulated by the teacher with the intention of avoiding negative habit formation. Mistakes were to be avoided and the teacher would help the learner steer clear of any possible mistakes such as incorrect grammar, wrong pronunciation or failure to respond to questions. The learner is gradually led towards more active participation through teacher monitored activities such as asking each other questions and initiating responses.

17.6.5. Teacher Roles

The teacher is in control throughout the teaching-learning process. In the initial presentation stage, the teacher serves as a model. Learners merely repeat after the teacher. During the stage of practice, students are given an opportunity to use the language in patterns already taught, but the teacher continues to observe closely and correct errors.

SLT has teacher centred classrooms and uses text books and visual aids for teaching in class.

17.6.6.The role of Instructional Materials:

Situational Language Teaching requires both a textbook and visual aids. The textbook has clearly organized lessons planned around different grammatical structures. Vocabulary items are selected with the purpose of giving practice. Lessons are written by experts who choose contexts/situations that are within the conceptual level of the group of learners. Care is taken to see that language items that are to be introduced are spread across the whole lesson rather

than be confined to one or two paragraphs. The first part of a lesson usually lists out the language and vocabulary items that are to be introduced along with suggested situations. The next part is generally a reading passage. This is followed by a number of exercises that help in consolidating and reinforcing what is taught. Visual aids may consist of things such as flash cards, pictures, stick figures, which are used only to help teach structures/sentence patterns. As Pittman points out, the teacher is expected to be the master who uses the textbook merely as a guide to the learning process. (Pittman 1963: 176)

17.7. PROCEDURE

Classroom procedures in SLT aim (i) to move from controlled to freer practice of structures and ii) from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading, and writing.

A typical lesson according to Pittman starts with pronunciation practice (stress and intonation) followed by revision and presentation of a new structure or vocabulary. The teacher then goes on to give oral practice using various techniques. This is followed by reading of the given material that consolidates the structure that was introduced. Writing exercises are given at the end in order to reinforce what was taught. (Pittman 1963: 173) In Situational Language Teaching practitioners largely used the 'P-P-P' lesson model: Presentation (of new language item in a context) and Practice (controlled practice through drills) leading to Production (freer practice phase). (Willis and Willis 1996) Sample lesson plans are given in *Situational Lesson Plans* by Davies et al. An example from the same is given below:

The structures taught are, 'This is a ...' and 'That's a ...'

Teacher: (holding up a watch) Look. This is a watch. (2 x) (pointing to a clock on wall

or table) That's a clock. (2 x) That's a clock. This is a watch. (putting down watch and moving across to touch the clock or pick it up) This is a clock. (2 x) (pointing to watch) That's a watch. (picking up a pen) This is a pen. (2 x) (drawing large pencil on blackboard and moving away) That's a pencil. (2 x) Take your pens. All take your pens. (students all pick up their pens)

Teacher: Listen. This is a pen. (3 x) This. (3 x)

Students: This. (3 x)

A student: This. (6 x)

Teacher: This is a pen.

Students: This is a pen. (3 x)

Student: (moving pen) This is a pen. (6 x)

Teacher: (pointing to blackboard) That's a pencil. (3 x) That (3 x)

Students: That. (3 x)

A student: That. (6 x)

Teacher: That's a pencil.

Students: (all pointing at blackboard) That's a pencil. (3 x)

Student: (pointing at blackboard) That's a pencil. (6 x)

Teacher: Take your books. (taking a book himself) This is a book. (3 x)

Students: This is a book. (3 x0

Teacher: (placing notebook in a visible place) Tell me ...

Student 1: That's a notebook.

You can now begin taking objects out of your box, making sure they are as far as possible not new vocabulary items. Large objects may be placed in visible places at the front of the classroom. Smaller ones distributed to students. (Davies et al. 1975).

The teacher's kit, a collection of items that can be used in situational language practice is an essential part of the teacher's equipment. The proposed sequence of classroom activities includes activities more or less in the following order: listening practice, group drills, individual repetition, controlled building up to the introduction of a new item/pattern, elicitation, substitution practice, question-answer rounds, and correction. (Davies et al. 1975)

17.8. SLT IN INDIA

This approach was first used in India in Tamil Nadu in about 1952. The British Council popularised it. Resource persons were trained at nodal centres in Tamil Nadu, who in turn trained the practicing teachers. The popularity of the method soon led to a demand in the other southern states. A Regional Institute of English was established at Bangalore in 1963, where materials and textbooks were produced besides training teachers in the structural-oral-situational approach. It is said that the syllabus in the four southern states generally consisted of about 250 structures and 2500-3000 vocabulary items spread over a period of five to seven years.(Geetha Nagaraj 1996)

17.9 CONCLUSION

It appears as though Situational Language Teaching has a lot in common with what is sometimes referred to as the Structural-Oral-Situational Approach. While the structural approach was being developed by linguists such as Charles Fries in America, the applied linguists and methodologists were developing the oral approach in Britain. The two approaches developed independently. However linguists such as Palmer and Hornby laid a strong scientific foundation for the oral approach. After Hornby himself used the term 'situational approach' it became popular and began to be used with reference to language items being introduced and practiced in a context, i.e. situationally, and not in isolation.

Many teachers still find Situational Language Teaching quite useful and attractive. It is believed that structural practice of language is very practical, especially in the teaching of grammar. While SLT still finds the support of several practicing teachers, it has met with criticism especially from supporters of the Chomskyan approach. However it continues to be used even if it may not be openly acknowledged because prevailing trends may not always subscribe to it.

17.10. SUMMARY

A brief overview is given of the underlying assumptions of SLT based on theories of language and learning. The focus of the lesson is on the method, that is, how the theory is put into practice. An attempt is made to explain in detail about the choice of skills imparted and the language items taught. The lesson also deals with the content and manner of presentation, besides classroom procedures and techniques.

17.11. TECHNICAL TERMS

Approach: assumptions and beliefs based on theories of language and learning

Method: practice of theory

Situation: In SLT 'situation' refers to the manner in which sentence structures/patterns are presented and practiced

Behaviourism: Behaviourism is primarily concerned with observable and measurable aspects of human behaviour. In defining behaviour, behaviourist learning theories emphasize changes in behaviour that result from stimulus-response associations made by the learner.

Standridge, M. (2002). Behaviorism. In M. Orey (Ed.), *Emerging perspectives on learning, teaching, and technology*. Retrieved <05.04.2015 >, from http://epltt.coe.uga.edu/

Chomskyan: Following the theoretical approach introduced by Noam Chomsky, et al.

17.12. SELF - ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What are the theories underlying the Situational Language Teaching approach?
2. What kind of content is used in SLT and how is it organized?
3. What is the role of the learner in SLT?
4. In Situational Language Teaching is the classroom teacher centred or learner centred?
5. What, according to you, are the advantages and disadvantages of Situational Language Teaching?
6. What is the most important classroom technique used in Situational Language Teaching?
7. What is the P-P-P model of Classroom procedure in SLT?
8. Discuss the key features of SLT.

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Lesson Writer: **Dr. Prabhavati Y.**

LESSON – 18

COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING

Structure of the lesson

18.0. OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this lesson are to enable the students to

- understand the background history of CLT
- understand the approach to CLT
- make them aware of the procedure of CLT
- know the theoretical principles underlying CLT
- grasp the roles of teachers and learners
- know the activities and syllabus in CLT

18.1. INTRODUCTION

The field of second language teaching has undergone many shifts and trends over the last few decades. Numerous methods have come and gone. We have seen the Audiolingual Method, cognitive based approaches, the Total Physical Response (TPR), the Natural Approach, and many others (for a detailed description of these methods and approaches, see Richards and Rodgers 2001). In addition, the proficiency and standards-based movements have shaped the field with their attempts to define proficiency goals and thus have provided a general sense of direction. Some believe that foreign language instruction has finally come of age (Harper, Lively, and Williams 1998); others refer to it as the post-methods era (Richards and Rodgers 2001). It is also generally believed that there is no one single best method that meets the goals and
needs of all learners and programs. What has emerged from this time is a variety of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodologies. Such methodologies encompass eclectic ways of teaching that are borrowed from myriad methods. Furthermore, they are

rooted not only in one but a range of theories and are motivated by research findings in second language acquisition (SLA) as well as cognitive and educational psychology. The purpose of this lesson is to provide an introduction to CLT and furthermore describe general methodological principles that function as theoretical and practical guidelines when implementing CLT methodologies.

18.2. BACKGROUND

The origins of CLT can be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153). The Situational Approach (see SLT) had run its course and "predicting language on the basis of situational events" was called into question (Howatt 1984: 280). According to Dendrinos (1992: 116) it was mainly criticized that predicting which language students would need to use in specific situations was extremely difficult. Further it is also very hard to say which specific situations students will be likely to encounter in their later life or which will be important in their later profession (Dendrinos 1992: 116). Moreover, Noam Chomsky stressed in his book *Syntactic Structures* the importance of the creative and unique potential of language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153). At the time, British linguists further viewed the *communicative and functional potential of language* as central in foreign language teaching and language teaching in general. They saw it more useful to focus primarily on communicative proficiency and not, as proposed in SLT and Audiolingualism, on the mastery of grammatical structures (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153).

Rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary, British linguist, D.A. Wilkins (1972) attempted to demonstrate the systems of meanings that lay behind the communicative uses of language. He described two types of meanings: *notional categories* (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and *categories of communicative functions* (requests, denials, offers, complaints). Wilkins later revised and expanded his 1972 document into a book titled *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins 1976), which had a significant impact on the development of Communicative Language Teaching. The Council of Europe incorporated his semantic/communicative analysis into a set of specifications for a first-level communicative language syllabus. These threshold level specifications (Van Ek and Alexander 1980) have contributed to the design of communicative language programs and textbooks in Europe to a greater extent.

Several factors contributed to the emergence and wide acceptance of CLT: The work of the Council of Europe;

the writings of Wilkins, Widdowson, Candlin, Christopher Brumfit, Keith Johnson, and other British applied linguists on the theoretical basis for a communicative or functional approach to language teaching;

the rapid application of these ideas by textbook writers;
and the equally rapid acceptance of these new principles by British language teaching specialists, curriculum development centers, and even governments.
All these factors gave prominence nationally and internationally to what came to be referred to as the Communicative Approach, or simply Communicative Language Teaching. (The terms *notional functional approach and functional approach* are also sometimes used.) According to Richards & Rodgers (2007: 155), today European and American language teaching experts view CLT as an approach, and not a method which has communicative competence as its goal of language teaching and which seeks to include all of the four language skills into communicative exercises. CLT is considered as an approach and not a

method since it is compatible with many teaching methods. There is no specific teaching methodology available for CLT.

The availability of a teaching methodology would be typical for a method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 172). The great coverage of the Communicative Approach and the great range of teaching and learning procedures and exercises compatible with it, however, make it hard to compare CLT to other approaches and methods: for some CLT simply means the teaching of grammar and functions, for others it means using classroom procedures such as pair or group work, in which a problem has to be solved or an information-gap between the two parties has to be mastered (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 155).

Some scholars, such as Thornbury or Howatt distinguish between a "weak" or "shallow-end" version of CLT and a "strong" or "deep-end" version of CLT (Howatt 1984: 279; Thornbury 2000: 22). The 'weak version' which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching. The 'strong' version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use' English, the latter entails 'using English to learn it' (1984-279).

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) contrast the major distinctive features of the Audiolingual Method and the Communicative Approach, according to their interpretation:

Audiolingual Method	*Communicative Language Teaching*
1. Focuses more on structure and form more than meaning.	Meaning is paramount.
2. Demands memorization of structure-based dialogues.	Dialogues, if used, center around communicative functions and are not normally memorized
3. Language items are not necessarily contextualized	Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning structures, sounds, or words.	Language learning is learning to communicate
5. Mastery, or "over-learning," is sought.	Effective communication is sought
6. Drilling is a central technique.	Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought.	Comprehensible pronunciation is sought
8. Grammatical explanation is avoided.	Any device that helps the learner is accepted – varying according to their age, interest, etc.

9. Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.	Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning
10. The use of the student's native language is forbidden	Judicious use of native language is accepted where feasible.
11. Translation is forbidden at early levels.	Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered.	Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned through the overt teaching of the patterns of the system	The target linguistic system will be learned best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Linguistic competence is the expected outcome.	Communicative competence is the expected outcome (i.e., the ability to use the linguistic system effectively and appropriately).
15. Varieties of language are recognized but not emphasized	Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials methodology.
16. The sequence of units is determined solely by principles of linguistic complexity.	Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function, or meaning which maintains interest.
17. The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.	Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. "Language is habit" so errors must be prevented at all costs.	Language is created by the individual, often through trial and error.
19. Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is a primary goal.	Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: Accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with	Students are expected to interact

the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.	with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.	The teacher cannot know exactly what language the students will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an Interest in the structure of the language.	Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

Practitioners from different educational traditions have identified themselves with the interpretation and application of the Communicative Approach, which shows its wider acceptance. A North American proponent, Savignon (1983), offers as a precedent to CLT a commentary by Montaigne on his learning of Latin through conversation rather than through the customary method of formal analysis and translation. Montaigne Writes, "Without methods, without a book, without grammar or rules, without a whip and without tears, I had learned a Latin as proper as that of my schoolmaster", (Savignon,1983: 47). This anti-structural view can be considered as a habit of language learning of a more general learning perspective usually referred to as "learning by doing" or "the experience approach" (Hilgard and Bower, 1966). This notion of direct rather than delayed practice of communicative acts is central to most CLT interpretations.

Another frequently cited dimension of CLT, its learner-centered and experience-based view of second language teaching, also has antecedents outside the language teaching tradition intrinsically. An American National Curriculum Commission in the 1930s, for example, proposed the adoption of an Experience Curriculum in English. The report has its basis on the notion that "experience is the best of all schools…The ideal curriculum consists of well-selected experiences" (Arthur N. Applebee 1974: 119). "The organization of Communicative Language Teaching around tasks and procedures, appropriate experiences into a coherent curriculum stretching across the years of school English study" (Applebee 1974: 119). Learners' interests, styles, needs and goals should be reflected in the design of the methods of instruction. Teachers must be encouraged to develop learning materials "on the basis of the particular needs manifested by the class" (Applebee 1974: 150).

Let us now consider how this is manifested at the levels of approach, design, and procedure.

18.3. APPROACH

18.3.1. Theory of language

The Communicative Approach in language teaching has its origin in a theory of 'language as communication'. The goal of language teaching is to develop 'communicative competence' (Hymes 1972). Hymes coined this term in order to deal with a communicative view of language in reaction to Chomsky's theory of competence. Chomsky held that linguistic theory primarily deals with "an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distractions, shifts of attention and

interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance". (Chomsky 1965: 3).

Hymes's theory of communicative competence was a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In Hymes's view, a person who acquires communicative competence, acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (Hymes 1972: 281)

This theory offers a more comprehensive view than Chomsky's view of competence, which deals primarily with abstract grammatical knowledge. Another linguistic theory of communication favored in CLT is Halliday's functional account of language use. "Linguistics … is concerned… with the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus" (Halliday 1970:145). He listed out (1975: 11-17) the following basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language:

1. *The instrumental function*: using language to get things;
2. *The regulatory function*: using language to control the behavior of others;
3. *The interactional function*: using language to create interaction with others;
4. *The personal function*: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. *The heuristic function*: using language to learn and to discover;
6. *The imaginative function*: using language to create a world of the imagination;
7. *The representational function*: using language to communicate information;

Learning a second language was similarly viewed by proponents of Communicative Language Teaching as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions.

Henry Widdowson, in his book *Teaching Language as Communication* (1978), presented a view of the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. He focused on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. Canale and Swain (1980), have given a more pedagogically influential analysis of communicative competence in which four dimensions of communicative competence are identified: *grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence*. *Grammatical competence* refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intends by what is "formally possible". It is the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity. *Sociolinguistics competence* refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place, including role relationships, the shared information of the participants, and the communicative purpose for their interaction. *Discourse competence* refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text. *Strategic competence* refers to the coping strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication.

As a theory, Communicative Language Teaching has a rich, and eclectic, theoretical base. The following are the important characteristics of CLT.

1. Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
2. The primary function of language is to allow interaction and communication.
3. The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
4. The primary units of language are not merely its grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.

18.3.2. Theory of learning

Little has been written about a learning theory, in contrast to the amount that has been written about communicative dimensions of language in Communicative Language Teaching literature. Neither Brumfit and Johnson (1979) nor Littlewood (1981), for example, has encouraged any discussion of learning theory. Elements of an underlying learning theory can be discerned in some CLT practices, however. *Communication principle* is one such element, in which, activities that involve real communication promote learning. *Task principle* is another element, in which, activities where language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Johnson 1982). A third element is the *meaningfulness principle*: Language that is meaningful to the learner supports the learning process. Learning activities are consequently selected according to how well they engage the learner in meaningful and authentic language use (rather than merely mechanical practice of language patterns). These principles, we suggest, can be inferred from CLT practices (e.g., Littlewood 1981; Johnson 1982). They address the conditions needed to promote second language learning, rather than the processes of language acquisition.

Recent accounts of Communicative Language Teaching, however, have attempted to describe theories of language learning processes that are compatible with the Communicative approach. Other theorists (e.g., Stephen Krashen, who is not directly associated with Communicative Language Teaching) have developed theories cited as compatible with the principles of CLT. Krashen sees acquisition as the basic process involved in developing language proficiency and distinguishes this process from learning. Acquisition refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using the language for real communication. Learning is the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction, and it cannot lead to acquisition. It is the acquired system that we call upon to create utterances during spontaneous language use. The learned system can serve only as a monitor of the output of the acquired system. Krashen and other second language acquisition theorists typically stress that language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills.

Johnson (1984) and Littlewood (1984) consider an alternative learning theory that they also see as compatible with CLT – a skill-learning model of learning. According to this theory, the acquisition of communicative competence in a language is an example of skill development. This involves both a cognitive and behavioral aspect.

18.4. DESIGN

The following features are usually associated with CLT at the level of Design.

18.4.1. Objectives

Piepho (1981) has proposed the following general of objectives in a communicative approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression)
2. a linguistic and instrumental level (language as a semiotic system and an object of learning)
3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as a means of expressing values and judgments about oneself and others)
4. a level of individual learning needs (remedial learning based on error analysis)
5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goal (language learning within the school curriculum)

18.4.2. The Syllabus

Discussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in Communicative Language Teaching. We have seen that one of the first syllabus models proposed was described as a *notional syllabus* (Wilkins 1976), which specified the semantic-grammatical categories (e.g., frequency, motion, location) and the categories of communicative function that learners need to express. The Council of Europe expanded and developed this into a syllabus that included descriptions of the objectives of foreign language courses for European adults, the situations in which they might typically need to use a foreign language (e.g., travel, business), the topics they might need to talk about (e.g., personal identification, education, shopping), the functions they needed language for (e.g., describing something, requesting information, expressing agreement and disagreement), the notions made use of in communication(e.g., time, frequency, duration), as well as the vocabulary and grammar needed. The result was published as *Threshold Level English* (van Ek and Alexander 1980) and was an attempt to specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed to realize this "threshold level".

There are several proposals and models for what a syllabus might look like in Communicative Language Teaching. Yalden (1983) describes the major current communicative syllabus types. Below is the modified version of Yalden's classification of communicative syllabus types, with reference sources to each model:

Type	Reference
1. structures plus functions	Wilkins (1976)
2. functional spiral around a structural core	Brumfit (1980)
3. structural, functional, instrumental	Allen (1980)
4. functional	Jupp and Hodlin (1975)
5. notional	Wilkins (1976)
6. interactional	Widdowson (1979)
7. task-based	Prabhu (1983)
8. learner-generated	Candlin (1976), Henner – Stanchina and Riley (1978)

Some designers of communicative syllabus have also looked to task specification and task organization as the appropriate criteria for syllabus design. The only form of syllabus

which is compatible with and can support communicational teaching seems to be a purely procedural one – which lists in more or less detail, the types of tasks to be attempted in the classroom and suggests an order of complexity for tasks of the same kind. (Prabhu 1983: 4).

As discussion of syllabus models continues in the CLT literature, some have argued that the syllabus concept be abolished altogether in its accepted forms, arguing that only learners can be fully aware of their own needs, communicational resources, and desired learning pace and path, and that each learner must create a personal, albeit implicit, syllabus as part of learning. Others lean more towards the model proposed by Brumfit (1980), which favors a grammatically based syllabus around which notions, functions, and communicational activities are grouped.

18.4.3. Types of learning and teaching activities

Types of exercise and activities fitting in a communicative approach are unlimited, provided that such exercises enable learners to attain the communicative objectives of the curriculum, engage learners in communication, and require the use of such communicative processes as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction.

Completing tasks that are mediated through language or involve negotiation of information and information sharing are focused in designing the classroom activities.

These attempts take many forms.

Wright (1976) achieves it by showing out-of-focus slides which the students attempt to identify.

Byrne (1978) provides incomplete plans and diagrams to students which they have to complete by asking for information.

Allwright (1977) places a screen between students and gets one to place objects in a certain pattern: this pattern is then communicated to students behind the screen.

Geddes and Sturtridge (1979) develop ‘jigsaw” listening in which students listen to different taped materials and then communicate their content to others in the class.

Most of these techniques operate by providing information to some and withholding it from others. (Johnson 1982: 151).

Littlewood (1981) draws the distinction between “functional communication activities” and “social interaction activities” as major activity types in Communicative Language Teaching. Functional communication activities include such tasks as

learners comparing sets of pictures and noting similarities and differences;

working out a likely sequence of events in a set of pictures; discovering missing features in a map or picture; one learner communicating behind a screen to another learner and giving instructions on how to draw a picture or shape, or how to complete a map; following directions;

and solving problems from shared clues.

Social interaction activities include conversation and discussion sessions, dialogues and role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates.

18.4.4. Learner roles

Since process of communication is the primary focus in Communicative Language Teaching, rather than language forms, roles of learners are also have become distinctive. Breen and Candlin describe the learner's role within CLT in the following terms:

The role of learner as negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning – emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way. (1980:110)

18.4.5. Teacher Roles

Several roles are assumed for teacher in Communicative Language Teaching, the importance of particular roles being determined by the view of CLT adopted. Breen and Candlin describe teacher roles in the following terms:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process between all students in the classroom, and between the students and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it.

These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as a facilitator of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities. A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner, with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities. (1980: 99).

The other roles expected of a teacher in CLT are:

Needs Analyst: The CLT teacher assumes the responsibility for determining and responding to learner language needs. It may be done formally through administering a needs assessment instrument and informal one-to-one sessions, as suggested by Savignon (1983)

Counselor: In this role, the teacher-counselor is expected to exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback.

Group process manager: Guidelines for classroom practice (e.g.,Littlewood 1981; Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983) suggest that during an activity the teacher monitors, encourages and suppresses the inclination to supply gaps in lexis, grammar and strategy but notes such gaps for later commentary and communicative practice.

The focus on fluency and comprehensibility in Communicative Language Teaching may cause anxiety among teachers accustomed to seeing error suppression and correction as the major instructional responsibility, and who see their primary function as preparing learners to take standardized or other kinds of tests. A continuing teacher concern has been the possible deleterious effect in pair or group work of imperfect modeling and student error. Although this issue is far from resolved, it is interesting to note that recent research findings suggest that "data contradicts the notion that other learners are not good conversational partners because they can't provide accurate input when it is solicited" (Porter 1983).

18.4.6. The role of instructional materials

A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning, practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Three kinds of materials currently used in CLT are considered and labeled as text-based, task-based, and realia.

Text-Based Materials: A typical lesson consists of a theme (e.g., relaying information), a task analysis for thematic development (e.g., understanding the message, asking questions to obtain clarification, asking for more information, taking notes, ordering and presenting information), a practice situation description (e.g., "A caller asks to see your manager. He does not have an appointment. Gather the necessary information from him and relay the message to your manger."), a stimulus presentation (in the preceding case, the beginning of an office conversation scripted and on tape), comprehension questions (e.g., "Why is the caller in the office?"), and paraphrase exercises.

Text-Based Materials: A variety of games, role plays, simulations, and task-based communication activities have been prepared to support CLT classes. These typically are in the form of one-of-a-kind items: exercise handbooks, cue cards, activity cards, pair-communication practice materials, and student-interaction practice booklets. In pair-communication materials, there are typically two sets of materials for a pair of students, each set containing different kinds of information.

Realia: Many proponents of Communicative Language Teaching have advocated the use of "authentic," "from-life" materials in the classroom. These might include language-based realia, such as signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, or graphic and visual sources around which communicative activities can be built, such as maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts.

18.5. PROCEDURE

According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 170) a number of procedures can be brought in connection with CLT as for example group work, language games or role plays. However, none of these exercises are used in CLT classes exclusively. In a typical lesson teaching points such as for example the function "making a suggestion" are introduced via dialogues. Then the grammatical items are practiced in isolation. After the controlled practice freer activities are provided such as group or pair work. In group and pair work the practice of the language functions and forms is encouraged. Further the context and situation in which the dialogues and exercises take place are described as well: people, roles, setting, topic and degree of formality or informality of the language used (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 170-171). Richards and Rodgers (2007: 171) observe that such teaching procedures have much in common with those adhering to Audiolingualism or SLT. According to them "traditional procedures are not rejected but are reinterpreted and extended" in CLT (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 171).

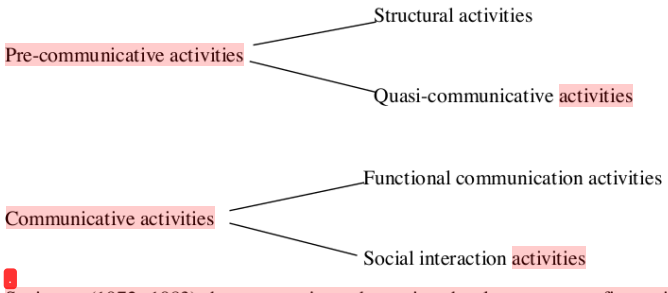
Because communicative principles can be applied to the teaching of any skill, at any level, and because of the wide variety of classroom activities and exercise types discussed in the literature on Communicative Language Teaching, description of typical classroom procedures used in a lesson based on CLT principles is not feasible. Savignon (1983) discusses techniques and classroom management procedures associated with a number of CLT classroom procedures (e.g., group activities, language games, role plays), but neither these activities nor the ways in which they are used are exclusive to CLT classrooms.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit offer a lesson outline for teaching the function "making a suggestion" for learners in the beginning level of a secondary school program that suggests that CLT procedures are evolutionary rather than revolutionary:

1. Presentation of a brief dialog or several mini-dialogs, preceded by a motivation (relating the dialog situations(s) to the learners' probable community experiences) and a discussion of the function and situation, people, roles, setting, topic, and the informality or formality of the language which the function and situation demand. (At beginning levels, where all the learners understand the same native language, the motivation can well be given in their native tongue)
2. Oral practice of each utterance of the dialog segment to be presented that day (entire class repetition, half-class, groups, individuals) generally preceded by your model. If mini-dialogs are used, engage in similar practice.
3. Questions and answers based on the dialog topic(s) and situation itself. (Inverted *wh* or *or* questions)
4. Questions and answers related to the students' personal experiences but centered around the dialog theme.
5. Study one of the basic communicative expressions in the dialog or one of the structures which exemplify the function. You will wish to give several additional examples of the communicative use of the expression or structure with familiar vocabulary in unambiguous utterances or mini-dialogs (using pictures, simple real objects, or dramatization) to clarify the meaning of the expression or structure…….
6. Learner discovery of generalizations or rules underlying the functional expression or structure. This should include at least four points: its oral and written forms (the elements of which it is composed, e.g., "How about + verb + ing?"), its position in the utterance; its formality or informality in the utterance; and in the case of a structure, its grammatical function and meaning.
7. Oral recognition, interpretative activities (two to five depending on the learning level, the language knowledge of the students, and related factors).
8. Oral production activities – proceeding from guided to freer communication activities.
9. Copying of the dialogs or mini-dialogs or modules if they are not in the class text.
10. Sampling of the written homework assignment, if given.
11. Evaluation of learning (oral only), e.g., "How would you ask your friend to _____? And how would you ask me to_____?"

(Finocchiaro and Brumfit 1983: 107-108)

Such procedures clearly have much in common with those observed in classes taught according to Structural-Situational and Audiolingual principles. Traditional procedures are not rejected but are reinterpreted and extended. A similar conservatism is found in many "orthodox" CLT texts, such as Alexander's *Mainline Beginners* (1978). Although each unit has an ostensibly functional focus, new teaching points are introduced with dialogues, followed by controlled practice of the main grammatical patterns. The teaching points are then contextualized through situational practice. This serves as an introduction to freer practice activity, such as a role play or improvisation. Similar techniques are used in Starting Strategies (Abbs and Freebairn 1977). Teaching points are introduced in dialogue form, grammatical items are isolated for controlled practice, and then freer activities are provided. Pair and group work is suggested to encourage students to use and practice functions and forms. The methodological procedures underlying these texts reflect a sequence of activities represented in Littlewood (1981: 86) as follows:



Savignon (1972, 1983), however, rejects the notion that learners must first gain control over individual skills (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary) before applying them in communicative tasks; she advocated providing communicative practice from the start of instruction. How to implement the CLT principles at the level of classroom procedures thus remains central to discussions of the Communicative Approach. How can the range of communicative activities and procedures be defined, and how can the teacher determine a mix and timing of activities that best meets the needs of a particular learner or group of learners? These fundamental questions cannot be answered by proposing further taxonomies and classifications, but require systematic investigation of the use of different kinds of activities and procedures in L2 classrooms.

18.6. CONCLUSION

CLT is an approach, which emphasizes the communicative potential of language and which is compatible with a great variety of classroom procedures and which according to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 172) can be best described by the following principles:

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 172).

Further, CLT includes procedures which identify learners' needs and classroom exercises which promote communication such as group work, task- work, information-gap activities etc. (Richards & Rodgers: 173). Richards and Rodgers (2007: 173) state that these principles today are largely accepted in foreign language teaching, also because they are very general. According to them, a large number of textbooks and other teaching materials have been based on principles of CLT, although to different degrees (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 173).

Dendrinos (1992: 123), however, supports the view that communication is an unpredictable process and therefore attempts to predict learners' communicative needs do not make much sense: the Communicative Approach claims to consider learner's individual needs since it is related to what learners wish and are able to do. However, Dendrinos argues, this is not the case because curricula and syllabuses are designed for large groups of pupils

who are presumed to have common needs because of their similar characteristics like their age. Furthermore, the interests of the market also have their say on the topic (Dendrinos1992: 124). Especially multinational publishers want to appeal with their textbooks to a large audience (Dendrinos 1992: 124).

Since its inception CLT has passed through a number of different phases as its advocates have sought to apply its principles to different dimensions of the teaching/learning process. In its first phase, a primary concern was the need to develop a syllabus that was compatible with the notion of 'communicative competence'. This led to proposals for the organization of syllabuses in terms of notion and functions rather than grammatical structures (Wilkins 1976). In the second phase, CLT focused on procedures for identifying learners' needs and this resulted in proposals to make needs analysis an essential component of communicative methodology, such as group work, task-work, and information-gap activities (Prabhu 1987).

18.7. SUMMARY

In this lesson we have discussed the characteristics features of CLT. Like the framework followed in the analysis of the other methods in the previous lessons, we have described CLT under the headings of Approach, Design Procedure. It is clear that CLT an approach within which there are many methods. Even today the degree of acceptance of CLT in EFL/ESL teaching all over the world is remarkable.

18.8. SELF-ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. What were the conditions in the ELT scene which led to CLT?
2. Distinguish between Chomsky's 'linguistic competence' and Hymes' 'communicative competence'.
3. What is the significance of Wilkings' contribution to syllabus?
4. Discuss the theories of language and language learning underlying CLT.
5. What types of syllabus are used in CLT?
6. Mention the roles of teachers and learners in CLT.
7. Write about the various classroom procedures followed in CLT.

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Lesson Writer: **Prof. K. Ratna Shiela Mani**

201EG21

M.A (Previous) DEGREE EXAMIANTIONS, OCTOBER 2021

Second Semester

English

Paper-I – STRUCTURE OF MODERN ENGLISH- II

Time : Three hours Maximum : 70 marks

Answer ALL questions.

All questions carry equal marks

UNIT I

1. What are the prominent varieties of English, and comment on their individual Characteristics.

Or

2. Discuss the major elements of English grammar and comment on their function.

Or

3. Write short notes in any two of the following:

(a) Verbs

(b) Auxiliary verbs

(c) Verbal phrases

(d) Phrases.

UNIT II

4. Define Basix Noun Phrases and discuss them through exemplification.

Or

5. Define prepositions and preposition phrases and discuss them through exemplification.

Or

6. Write short notes on any two of the following:

(a) Basic elements of grammar

(b) Accent

(c) Intonation

(d) Descriptive grammar.

UNIT III

7. Correct any seven of the following sentences and provide grammatical explanation for the correction.

(a) Children attempt to do whatever their parents done.

(b) He went to work despite of his illness.

(c) Raju, who he is my best friend, is a writer.

(d) No matter what that I o, I can's make her happy.

(e) She is busy at the work and won't be home before 10.30.

(f) I have decided to quit my job a week ago.

(g) The more you read the lesser you understand.

(h) On the way home, I saw an old beggar accompanied with a child.

(i) Will you please borrow me your copy of "Crime and Punishment?"

(j) What is the difference among these two dresses?

UNIT IV

8. Discuss Grammar Translation Method and Bilingual Method and comment on their efficacy.

Or

9. What is Direct Method? Explain its features and significance of the same.

Or

10. Write short notes on any two of the following:

(a) Objectives of teaching

(b) First language

(c) Second language

(d) Materials development

UNIT V

11. Compare and contrast Audio-lingual and Situational Language Teaching Approaches.

12. Comment on the efficacy of Communicative English Language Teachnig.

13. Write short notes on any two of the following:

(a) Situational language teaching

(b) ESL

(c) EFL

(d) Mother tongue impact on learning English language.

201 MA ENG

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