

8. Second Language Acquisition II

@ The basic premise of **sociolinguistic-based SLA** research is that second language data does not represent a static phenomenon.

@ Many external variables affect learner production and the developing **interlanguage** system.

@ Therefore, learners in some instances produce **different** forms of language.

@ **Interlanguage Variation** ILs: seems to exhibit more variability than native languages. For example, a learner might alternate between forms to express the same language function.

@ **Social Interactional Approach**: Learning is not an intra-psychological process. It is not situated entirely in an **individual's cognition**; rather, it is linked to social and local ecology.

@ It is adaptive to a set of resources **embodied** in social interaction.

@ **Linguistic code** cannot be understood as an isolated phenomenon outside of its **social context** nor can one understand how learning takes place without the support of the social context.

@ **Interlanguage Pragmatics**: It deals with both: the acquisition and use of L2 pragmatic knowledge. In learning an L2, one must learn more than just the pronunciation, the lexical items, and the appropriate word order; one must also learn the appropriate way to use those words and sentences in the L2

@ **Krashen's 'Input Hypothesis'**: The Input hypothesis claims that exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for second language learning to take place.

@ "**Humans acquire** language in only one way - by understanding messages or by receiving **'comprehensible input.'**"

@ **Comprehensible input** is slightly ahead of a learner's current state of grammatical knowledge.

@ **Competence**: As a major concern, modern linguistics emphasizes what speakers know, rather than what they actually do on some particular occasion (**performance**).

@ **Affect**: Affect refers to feelings or emotions that individuals have about something.

@ In the case of language learning, it can refer to feelings or emotional reactions about the language, about the people who speak that language, or about the **culture** where that language is spoken.

@ **Language Anxiety**: It is an important factor for affecting learning and is a matter of personality: an **emotional** reaction to a situation or a combination.

@ Its low levels help, whereas **high levels** hurt.

@ **Social Distance**: These are the instances in which an L2 learner does not feel an affinity with the target language community. It results in a diminished amount of input.

@ The learners create both **psychological** and social **distances** from L2 speakers.

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@ **Acculturation Model** - if learners acculturate, they will learn. Thus, **acculturation** initiates a chain reaction including contact in the middle and **acquisition** as its outcome.

@ **Age Differences**: It is commonly believed that children are better language learners than **adults** in the sense that they can gain the mastery of an L2 **whereas adults cannot**.

@ **Aptitude**: It refers to one's potential for learning new knowledge or new skills.

@ **Motivation: A social-psychological** factor frequently used to account for differential success in learning an L2. It makes sense that **individuals** who are motivated will learn another language faster.

@ Numerous studies show that motivation is a predictor of **language-learning** success.

@ **Receptive Knowledge Includes • Recognizing the word in writing or orally.**

@ **Productive Knowledge Involves Greater Specificity and Includes**

@ **Apperceived Input**: The first stage of input utilization is called apperceived input.

@ **Apperception** is the process of understanding by which newly observed qualities of an object are related to past experiences.

@ It is an internal cognitive act, identifying a **linguistic form** as being related to some prior **knowledge**. It is a **priming device** that prepares the input for further analysis.

@ **Comprehended Input**: There are two differences between the notion of comprehended input and that of comprehensible input.

@ **Comprehensible input** is controlled by the person providing input, whereas comprehended input is **learner-controlled**.

@ **Secondly**, a comprehensible input in **Krashen's** sense is treated as a **dichotomous** variable: that it is either comprehensible or it is not. But there are different levels of **comprehension**.

@ **Intake**: It is the process of assimilating linguistic material.

@ The mental activity that mediates between **input and grammar**.

@ This suggests that intake is not merely a **subset of input**.

@ It is different from apperception or **comprehension** as the latter two do not necessarily lead to grammar formation.

@ **Integration**: After there is language intake, there are at least two possible outcomes, both of which are a form of integration

@ Learner output is often equated with their grammar. But it is not identical to one's grammar and is suggested by a number of factors, e.g., the **recognition** that there are individual differences among learners.

@ Learners produce different linguistic forms that have varying amounts of **accuracy** depending on the context and the task performed.

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9. Methods and Approaches of Language Teaching I

Structural view - language is a system of structurally related elements for the **coding of meaning**. - The **ALM** embodies this particular view.

Functional view - language is a vehicle for the expression of **functional meaning**. - The **communicative** movement in language teaching subscribes to this view.

Interactional view - sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations. - **TBL Teaching**.

10. Methods and Approaches of Language Teaching II

CLT was devised by **Caleb Gattegno** and is based on the premise that the teacher should be **silent** as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible.

Silence – the best vehicle for learning because it enables students to concentrate on the task to be accomplished and the potential means to its accomplishment.

The notion of methods came under criticism in the **1990s**.

A number of limitations implicit in the notion of all-purpose methods were raised.

Mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factor in **accounting** for **success or failure**.

Some spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term “**post-methods era**” was used.

Moreover, learners are also sometimes viewed as the passive recipients of the method, i.e. they must submit themselves to its **regime of exercises and activities**.

The concept of **learner-centeredness** and teacher creativity remains absent.

Methods remain less **flexible** and adaptive to **learners’** needs and interests.

Methods claim all-purpose solutions to teaching problems - useful in any context and under any **circumstance**.

Therefore, teachers ignore a **careful consideration** of the context.

This includes the cultural context, the **political context**, the **local institutional** context, and the context constituted by the teachers and learners in their **classrooms**.

It talks about **assumptions**; about the roles of teachers and learners that are not **necessarily culturally universal, and cultural imperialism**.

Curriculum planners debate over ‘teaching method’ as part of a broader set of **educational planning decisions**

11. Teaching of Listening skills

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#**Listening** Modes If we consider the roles we play in our listening interactions, we can identify three specific communicative listening modes:

#**Bidirectional**: The obvious mode is two-way or bidirectional communication listening.

#**Reciprocal** speech chain of speaker/listener is easily observed.

#Two participants take turns exchanging speaker and listener role as they engage in **face-to-face or telephone verbal interaction**.

#**Unidirectional**: The second mode is one-way or unidirectional communicative listening. The **auditory input** surrounds us as we move through the day.

Auto Directional: We think of this as **self-dialogue communication** in which we may not be aware of our internal roles as both speaker and listener/reactor in our own thought processes.

#**Listening Process/Stages in Communication**: Generally, five stages are involved in the listening process:

Receiving: The response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory **receptors** of the ear - receiving the words while we hear.

Understanding Learning: what the speaker means – the **thoughts and emotions**.

Remembering: Adding the message to **mind's storage box** - as our attention is selective, what is remembered may be different from what was **originally heard**.

Evaluating: Judging the message in some way – speaker's intentions or motives - even without conscious awareness.

Responding Verbal and/or nonverbal feedback determines if a message has been received and it also tells about the degree of success in communication.

The students can improve their listening skills, if they get valuable input.

It is a combination of extensive and intensive listening materials and procedures may improve **listening skills quickly**.

This provides learners with the opportunities to hear people in addition to an **instructor**; it enables them to acquire good speaking habits and **pronunciation**.

Extensive Listening The teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they listen to and to do so for pleasure and general language improvement **(Harmer, 2007: 303)**.

#**Principles for Teaching Listening (Harmer, 1998)** 1. Equipment (recorder, player, speakers, etc.) is as important as the listening material itself. 2. Preparation is necessary. 3. Teachers need to listen to the material before they come to the class. 4. Help them judge whether students will be able to cope with the listening material and tasks. 5. Need for repetition. 6. Subsequent listening is easier for students and helps them learn important linguistic features. 7. Encouragement to focus on the content of listening, not the language alone. 8. Different listening stages demand different listening tasks. 9. Good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.

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12. Teaching of Speaking skills

@ **Transactional Functions**: conveying information and facilitating the exchange of goods and services.

@ **Interpersonal Functions**: all about maintaining and sustaining good relations between people.

Interactive: when we buy a newspaper at a news kiosk, it is interactive.

@ **Non-Interactive**: leaving a message on an answer phone is non-interactive.

@ **Planned**: Such as a Lesson or wedding speech.

@ **Unplanned**: a conversation that takes place spontaneously when we bump into someone on the street.

@ More Genres (**Carter and McCarthy, 1997**) **Narrative**: everyday anecdotes told with active listener participation.

@ **Identifying**: Extracts in which people talk about themselves.

@ **Language-in-Action**: Data recorded while people are doing things such as cooking, packing, etc.

@ **Comment-Elaboration**: casual opinions and comments on things, other people.

@ **Debate and Argument**: Data, in which people take up positions, pursue arguments and expound on their opinions.

@ **Decision-Making and Negotiating Outcomes**: ways in which people work towards decisions/consensus or negotiate their way through problems towards solutions.

@ Apart from pronunciation and general language use, this helps to build **student confidence, contextualize language, develop students' empathy for other people, etc.**

@ **First**, planned grouping or pairing of students may be necessary to ensure a successful discussion outcome.

@ While there is no one right way to group students, considerations such as **gender, ethnicity, background, and talkativeness**, etc. may come into play.

@ **Second**, students need to be reminded that each person should have a specific responsibility in the discussion, whether it is to keep time, take notes, or report results.

@ **Finally, students need to be clear about what they are to discuss, why they are discussing it, and what outcome is expected.**

@ **Buzz group, instant comment (first thing that comes into their mind), formal debates, unplanned discussion, reaching a consensus are popular forms of discussions.**

@ **Simulation and role-play** can be used to encourage general fluency or to train students for specific situations.

@ Students may be given enough **information** about a situation.

@ **Fun and motivating**, it allows hesitant students to be more forthright in their opinions.

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@ Use a much wider range of **language as it includes the world outside the classroom**.

@ Suitable for practicing the **socio-culture** variations in speech acts.

@ Depending on **student** level, role plays can be performed from prepared scripts, created from a set of **prompts and expressions, etc.**

@ **Ordinarily**, the students give an **audiocassette** tape to the teacher, who starts **oral journal** on the tape by giving some directions for the assignment and perhaps suggesting a topic.

@ Can be an excellent resource for the teacher to provide individual **feedback** and instruction on pronunciation or grammar problems.

13. Teaching of Reading skills

Reading is the process of constructing meaning from written **texts, comprehending, and actively responding to what is read**. It is a complex skill requiring the **coordination** of a number of interrelated sources of information.

= **Jigsaw Reading** – students read different texts and then share the information they have gathered in order to piece together the whole story.

= **Strategic Readers**: Understand the goals of a reading activity, and have a range of well-practiced reading strategies at their disposal; apply them in efficient combinations, monitor comprehension appropriately, recognize miscomprehension, and repair comprehension problems effectively.

= **Previewing**: Reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.

= **Predicting**: Using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.

= **Skimming and Scanning**: Using a quick survey of the text to get the main **idea, identify text** structure, confirm or question predictions.

= **Guessing from Context**: Using **prior knowledge** of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.

= **Paraphrasing: Stopping** at the end of a section to check **comprehension** by restating the information and ideas in the text; learning new words through the analysis of word stems and affixes.

= **Summarizing**: Generating appropriate questions about the text; **repairing miscomprehension**. Slashed / Cut up Texts: This is a genuinely collaborative reading activity.

14. Teaching of Writing skills/Integrated Skills

Prewriting: It is the planning phase of the writing process; one can decide the type of writing, the intended audience, and determine the purpose for writing.

Children brainstorm to generate ideas for writing.

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Rough Draft: Children put their ideas on paper; they write without major attention to punctuation or grammar.

The purpose of this **rough draft** is to make students focus on their ideas and get them on paper without the distraction or fear of making mistakes in word choice, sentence structure, conventions, and presentation. Models of **exemplary** writing help students build a visual map in order to draft their ideas.

Peer Editing: Classmates share their rough drafts and make suggestions to each other for improvement. Revising: The students use the suggestions from classmates to make additions or clarify details.

Students rethink, rework, and refine their writing - improve on their own.

Skills: Idea organization, Voice, Word choice, and Sentence fluency.

Editing: Children work with the teacher and/or peers to correct all errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage.

Final Draft: Children produce a copy of their writing with all corrections made from the editing stage and then discuss this final draft with the teacher.

The teacher offers the last **suggestions** for improvement.

Publishing: This stage involves sharing the writing with an intended audience.

It involves preparing a neatly **handwritten** or **word processed** copy of the final draft and the addition of **illustrations** or other graphic elements.

Publication may extend to a **multimedia presentation**, a public performance or send their work to local newspapers. Here, the **teacher** is a member of the audience.

In the teaching of writing we can either focus on the product of writing or on the **writing process** itself.

When concentrating on the product, we are only interested in the aim of a task and in the end product (e.g., **genre approach**).

Process approach pays attention to the various stages that any piece of writing goes through.

Editing and re-drafting (**process approach**) are more important while writing in a foreign language. Writing process is complex and recursive in nature.

Focusing on the process of writing may be time **consuming**.

The writing process is **at least** as important as the product.

Genre: Genre represents the norms of different kinds of writing.

Students who are writing within a certain **genre need to consider a number of different** factors.

They need to have **knowledge of the topic, the convention, and style of the genre.**

The **context** in which their writing will be read as well as by whom.

It is appropriate, especially, for students of **ESP**.

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However, this can be prescriptive as it may encourage students to see writing as a form of **'reproduction'** rather than as a creative act.

Creative Writing: The term creative writing suggests imaginative tasks, such as writing poetry, stories and plays.

Creative writing is a journey and self-discovery promotes effective learning **(Gaffield-Vile,1998:31)**

#When teachers set up **imaginative writing tasks**, those students frequently strive harder than usual.

There is always a danger that students may find writing **imaginatively difficult**.

#A lot depends on how we **encourage** them - providing students with motivating straightforward tasks to persuade them that writing can also be great fun.

Writing as a Cooperative Activity: While writing, students may have advantage of the presence of others.

#**Cooperative writing** works well whether the focus is on the writing process or on genre. Successful if students are writing on computer.

The students and teachers can gradually **co-construct** a final product.

Building the Writing Habit: It especially is for the students lacking confidence.

Brainstorming: This is often a group exercise in which all students in the class are encouraged to participate by **sharing** their collective knowledge about a **particular subject**.

It generates far more material than any one student thinks of on his/her **own**.

Students can then utilize any or all of the **information** while preparing their first draft. .

#**Integrated-skill** teaching is at the level of realistic communication, that is the goal of **communicative** approach and many researchers believe that it is an integral part of essential conditions for language learning

#It exposes **English language learners to authentic language** and challenges them to interact naturally in the language.

It **stresses** that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of **interaction** and sharing among people.

#It allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. **Integrating** the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms.

The integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

15.Assessment of Language Skills I 16.Assessment of Language Skills II

Informal and Formal Assessment: Informal Assessment can take a number of forms: starting with incidental, unplanned comments and responses, along with coaching and other important feedback to the students.

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@ **Formal assessments** are exercises or procedures specifically designed to know the skills and knowledge.

@They are systematic, planned sampling techniques and are constructed to give teacher and student an appraisal of **student's achievement**.

@ **Formative Assessment** Evaluating students in the process of "forming" their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process.

@For all practical purposes, virtually all kinds of informal assessment are (or should be) **formative**.

@It is done at **a micro level** every time we indicate that something is wrong and help students get it right.

@**Summative** Assessment: It aims to measure, or summarize, what a student has **grasped**, and typically occurs at the end of a course or a unit of instruction.

@A test, in simple terms, is a method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or **performance** in a given domain (**Brown**, 2004).

@A **test is first a method**: it is an instrument - a set of techniques, procedures, or items.

@**Placement** Tests: These are used to place students in classes/programs which are appropriate to their level of proficiency.

@ Usually based **on syllabus and material**, they define characteristics of each level of proficiency, test grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and assess students' **productive and receptive** skills.

@ **Diagnostic Achievement Tests**: These are used to explore learners' difficulties, gaps in their knowledge and skill deficiencies during a course.

@They identify students' **strengths and weaknesses**. Although difficult to construct, they benefit future instruction.

@ **Progress or Achievement Tests**: They are designed to measure learners' language and skills progress in relation to the syllabus they have been following,

@**Proficiency Tests**: These tests give a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability in a language.

@They are frequently used as stages people have to reach if they want to be admitted to a foreign university, get a job or obtain some kind of certificate.

@ **Aptitude** Tests: These are used to predict a person's future success in learning a foreign language. They are usually taken before actual learning.

@**Language Dominance** Tests: These are used to assess bilingual learners' relative strength in two or more languages.

@ **Portfolio Assessment**: It has many benefits - provides evidence of students' efforts; helps students become more autonomous and **self-monitor** their own learning.

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@It has clear **validity** since students have a chance to edit before submitting their work and has an extremely positive wash back effect.

@ In order to judge effectiveness of any test, it is **sensible** to lay down criteria against which a test can be measured.

@**Validity**: A test is valid if it tests what it is supposed to test; if it produces similar results to some other measures – that is if we can show that Test A gives us the same kind of results as Test B.

@**Reliability**: A good test should give consistent results,

@ **Wash Back Effect**: Teaching may become dominated by the needs of future tests and their components as teachers want their students to pass the tests and exams.

@ Where **non-exam** teachers might use a range of different activities, exam teachers suffering from the wash back effect, might stick rigidly to exam format activities.

@ **Assessing Clear**, Unambiguous Objectives: Carefully examine the objectives of the test.

@ **Drawing Up Test Specifications** Test specification should consist of: a broad outline of the test; what skills will be tested; what the items will look like.

@ **Devising Test Tasks**: The tasks that the test-takers must perform need to be practical. They should be reliable and easily evaluative by the teacher.

@ The tasks themselves should strive for **authenticity, and the progression** of tasks ought to be biased for best performance.

@Start with some warm up **questions and comments**, then put objective questions that are level check questions, then probe (**opinion based question**).

@ In the end, wind down (**comments or reassurance**).

@ **Designing** multiple choice items and design each item to measure a specific objective.

@State both stem and options as simply as possible and make certain that the **intended** answer is clear and the only correct one.

@ Use item indices to accept, discard, or **revise items**.

Scoring, Grading and/or Feedback: Tests vary in the form and function of feedback, depending on their purpose.

@A **standardized test requires**:

@All test takers to answer the same questions or a selection of questions from common bank of questions in the same way.

@Is scored in a "**standard**" or consistent manner which makes it possible to compare the relative performance of **individual students** or groups of students.

@ **Standardization presupposes** certain standard criteria that are held **constant** across one form of the test to another.

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The criteria in **large-scale** standardized tests are designed to apply to a broad band of competencies that are usually not exclusive to one **particular curriculum**.

#A good **standardized** test is the product of a thorough process of empirical research and development.

#**Norm-Referenced Tests**: These tests are standardized tests designed to compare and rank test takers in relation to one another.

A **norm-referenced** score is typically reported as a percentile ranking. E.g., an individual who scores in the 90th percentile has performed as well as or better than **90%** of other test takers.

Criterion-Referenced Tests: It measures an individual's performance against a set of predetermined criteria or performance standards. It is desirable for an individual to earn a **perfect score**.

In **educational settings**, these tests may be used to assess whether the student has learned a specific body of knowledge.

Lesson-16 ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS II

It includes materials such as: **Essays and compositions in draft and final forms; reports, project outlines; poetry and creative prose; artwork, photos, newspaper or magazine clippings; audio and/or video recordings of presentations, demonstrations, etc.; journals, diaries, and other personal reflections; tests, test scores, and written homework exercises, and notes on lessons.**

#**Journals**: A journal is an account of one's thoughts, **feelings, reactions, assessments, ideas**, or progress toward goals.

#Usually written with little attention to structure, form, **or correctness**, it allows learners to articulate their thoughts without the threat of those thoughts being judged later (usually by the teacher).

#Most classroom **oriented journals** are known as 'dialogue journals'.

They imply an interaction between a reader (the teacher) and the student through **dialogues** or responses.

Conferences have been a routine part of the language classrooms, especially of courses in writing where mainly students participate and the teachers play the role of a facilitator.

It is a **conversation** about a draft that facilitates the improvement of the written work. Here, the teacher is able to direct feedback toward a student's specific needs.

#**Conferences** are not limited to written drafts.

#Possible Functions of **Conferencing**: • **Commenting on drafts of essays and reports** • **Reviewing portfolios** • **Responding to journals** • **Advising on a student's plan for oral presentations** • **Assessing a proposal for a project** • **Giving feedback on the results of a test** • **Clarifying understanding of a reading** • **Setting personal goals for the near future** • **Assessing general progress in a course.**

@Interview: It denotes a context in which a teacher interviews a student for a designated assessment purpose.

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& These **intuitive perceptions** are stored as little pieces of information about students that can form a composite impression of a student's ability.

& Determine the specific objectives of the observation.

& Decide how many students will be observed. 3. Set up the logistics for making unnoticed observations. 4. Design a system for recording observation. 5. Limited number of elements to be observed. 6. Determine specifically how you will use the results. 7. Recording, checklists, rating scales.

& Self and Peer Assessments: A conventional view might consider them a reversal of power relationships.

& Where **selfassessment** derives its theoretical justification from various principles; e.g., **learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation, peer-assessment appeals to similar principles, e.g., cooperative learning.**

& **Direct Assessment of (a specific) performance.**

& In **direct assessment of (general) competence.**

17. Teaching the Sounds of Language

& **Phonetics** is concerned with how sounds are produced, **transmitted and perceived.**

& **Phonology** is concerned with how sounds function in relation to each other in a language.

& In other words, **phonetics** is about sounds of language, phonology is about the sound system of a language.

& **Articulatory Phonetics:** the study of how speech sounds are made or articulated.

& **Acoustic Phonetics:** deals with the physical properties of speech sounds such as sound waves in the air.

& **Auditory** Phonetics: deals with the perception of speech sounds via the ear.

& **Consonants** are often classified by being given a so-called **VPM-label.**

& VPM stands for Voicing, Place, and Manner.

& **Voicing** means that the vocal folds are used; if they are not, the sound is voiceless (note that vowels always imply the use of vocal folds).

& **Place of Articulation** is the place where the air flow will be more or less obstructed.

& **Manner** is concerned with the nature of the obstruction.

& **Speech sounds** produced by the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (or windpipe) to the **larynx.**

& In short, sounds which are produced with vocal fold vibration are said to be '**voiced**' sounds.

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&The sounds which are produced without such vibration are called 'voiceless' sounds. E.g., the sound of [s] in the word 'miss'.

& Once the air has passed through the larynx, it comes up and out through the mouth and/or the nose.

&Most consonant sounds are produced by using the tongue and other parts of the mouth to constrict in some way and the shape of the oral cavity, through which the air passes, is modified.

& The terms used to describe many sounds in phonetics are those which denote the place of articulation of the sound.

& It has to do with the kind of obstruction the air meets on its way out.

&a complete closure (plosives),

& an almost complete closure (fricatives a smaller degree of closure (approximants).

& The obstruents are plosives, fricatives and affricates, all sounds with a high degree of obstruction.

& Obstruents usually come in pairs, one voiceless, one voiced, e.g., [p/b, t/d].

& Sonorants have much less obstruction and are all voiced and, therefore, more sonorous.

&They include nasals, the lateral, and approximants.

&A vowel is a type of sound for which there is no closure of the throat or mouth at any point where vocalization occurs.

&For close vowels, the tongue is quite high in the mouth, for mid vowels, the tongue is neither high nor low in the mouth, whereas for open vowels, the tongue is low in the mouth.

&English has a large number of vowel sounds which may have quite different lengths in different contexts. Short vowels are only relatively short.

&There are five long vowels: these are the vowels which tend to be longer than the short vowels in similar contexts.

& It is necessary to say "in similar contexts" because the length of all English vowels sounds varies according to their context and the presence or absence of stress.

& The symbols consist of one vowel symbol plus a length mark made of two dots ":".

& Diphthongs are the sounds which consist of a movement or glide from one vowel to another. In terms of length, diphthongs are similar to the long vowels described above. The total number of diphthongs is eight.

18.Teaching the Words of English Language

& Its etymology is Greek: morph - means 'shape or form'. The term literally means "the study of forms".

&It was originally used in biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, it has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic "elements" used in a language.

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& A study of investigating basic forms in a language is generally known as **morphology**.

Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, word formation, including the ways new words are coined in the languages of the world.

It also include forms of words that vary depending on their **usage** in sentences.

Words have internal structure in **two** very different senses.

On one hand, they are made up of sequences of sounds, i.e. they have **internal phonological** structure, e.g., English word '**nuts**' consists of four sounds.

The plural marker on nouns, for instance, occurs at the end of a word (e.g., law + s); while **derivational** affixes can occur at either the beginning or the end of a word (e.g., un + law + ful).

Morphology includes not only inflection but also derivation, e.g., 'singing', 'singer'. It handles both inflection and **derivation** by means of rules operating upon the same basic units –morphemes.

Native speakers have intuitive knowledge of how to form new words in their language.

Morphology is not equally prominent in all (spoken) languages.

A **lexeme** is a word in an abstract sense. E.g., 'live' is a verb lexeme. It represents the core meaning shared by forms such as live, lives, lived, and living.

In most languages, **dictionaries** are organized according to lexemes, so it is usually reasonable to think of a lexeme as a dictionary word. We need to think about how **dictionaries** come to be, and how much we credit them with the authority to decide what a word is.

Neither **lexicographers** nor the dictionaries they create are infallible.

On one hand, dictionaries do not list all the words of any language.

They cannot list all derivatives with **living prefixes and suffixes**, or all technical, scientific, regional, or slang words.

On the other hand, they sometimes include words used only once whose meanings are completely unknown - or the items we might hesitate to call **words**.

Mental Lexicon For the most part, dictionaries do not fix or codify the words of a language, but rather reflect the words that native speakers use.

Those words are encoded in what we will call the **mental lexicon**, the sum total of word knowledge that **native speakers** carry around in their heads.

This includes information about pronunciation, category, meaning, syntactic properties, level of formality, and the **specific conditions** under which we might use the word.

The average **English-speaking six-year-old knows 10,000 words**, and the average high-school graduate knows around **60,000 words**.

Mental lexicon is not organized alphabetically like a dictionary

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Dictionary Entries Core and other words (Murray et al., 1888). **Common Words** occur in all registers of English, e.g., mother, dog, and walk.

@ **Literary Words** recognized when we read, but would not necessarily be used in daily conversation, e.g., omnipotent, etc.

@ **Colloquial Words** are used frequently in spoken language, but far less frequently in written or formal language, for example, grubby, etc. Nobody would dispute the place of core words in the dictionary. Deciding which of these uncommon words merit inclusion in the dictionary is a judgment call, the size of the dictionary, its intended audience, etc. It is difficult to pin down all words in a pervasive language similar to English.

@ **Kinds of Morphemes** Free and Bound Morphemes

@ A **free morpheme** can stand alone as a word and does not need anything attached to it to make a word

@ **Lexical/Content** Morphemes: Morphemes with definitions outside the language.

@ A set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs carry the “content” of the messages we convey,

@ **Functional Morphemes**: Morphemes with purely grammatical purposes.

@ They consist largely of the **functional words** in the language; conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns.

@ **Bound Morphemes**: cannot stand alone as a word – attached to other forms,

@ It does not have any meaning without the free morpheme ‘cat’. Examples: un-, -less, -s, -er, -est.

@ **Derivational Morphemes**: These are used to make new words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Further, they change the definition of a word/class of a word. Example: the addition of the derivational morpheme ‘-ness’ changes the adjective ‘good’ to the noun ‘goodness’. Care + ful (careful).

@ **Inflectional Morphemes**: These are not used to produce new words in a language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function (e.g., tense, number).

@ **Allomorphs**: different phonetic variations of a morpheme;

@ There is a lot of regularity in the **word-formation** processes in a language.

@ **Etymology** It is the study of the origin and history of a word.

@ The word ‘**etymology**’ has its origins in Greek (‘etymon “original form” + logia “study of”).

@ **Etymologies** of words reveal that there are many different ways in which new words can enter the language.

@ **Coinage**: It is one of the least common processes of word formation in English. It is the invention of entirely new terms deliberately or accidentally.

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@ **Borrowing** is the taking over of words from other languages. It is one of the most common sources of new words.

@ **Throughout its history, English has adopted a vast number of words from other languages: croissant (French), dope (Dutch), piano (Italian), pretzel (German), sofa (Arabic), tycoon (Japanese), yogurt (Turkish).**

@ **Compounds of adjectives**: (fast) adjective plus noun (food) as in a fast-food restaurant or a full-time job.

@ **Compound adjectives**: good-looking, low-paid. Such examples are found in all languages.

@ **Blending**: The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process of blending.

@ **Clipping**: The element of reduction is even more apparent in the process of clipping.

@ **Conversion**: A change in the function of a word, for example, when a noun comes to be used as a verb without any reduction.

@ **Acronyms**: New words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words.

@ **CD (compact disk) or**

@ **VCR (video cassette recorder)**

@ Acronyms with single word pronunciation - **NATO, NASA or UNESCO**.

@ **Derivation**: The most common word formation process to be found in the production of new English words can be accomplished with the help of **affixes**, e.g., pre-fixes: (e.g., un-, mis-), suffixes: (e.g., -less, -ish).

19. Teaching the Sentence Patterns of English Language

@ **Constituent**: 'a syntactic unit that functions as part of a larger unit within a sentence'.

@ A **constituent** can be a word, phrase, clause or a sentence, but it will function as a complete unit (Meyer, 2009).

Constituency is at the center of any discussion of syntax.

Syntactic units are not simply arbitrarily grouped and ordered, but form identifiable units.

Syntacticians have identified four different levels of structure at which constituents occur: sentences → clauses → phrases → words

The largest constituent is the sentence; the smallest is the word. Sometimes sentences and clauses are identical: **a declarative sentence**, for instance, may consist of one main clause.

There are **two** types: Immediate constituents and ultimate constituents. Exactly which elements constitute immediate constituents depends upon what level of structure is there (sentence, clause, and phrase).

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At the **highest level**, the sentence itself is a constituent.

But within it, one can find several **immediate constituents**: separate units into which a given structure can be divided. (**e.g., subject and predicate**).

Constituency Test It help in identifying the constituent structure of sentences (Roberts, 1997). Many constituents are **phrases**.

A phrase is a **sequence** of one or more words built around a head lexical item and working as a unit within a sentence. There are **numerous** constituency tests applied to English language sentences.

Substitution (Replacement) Test Whether one word can be substituted for another (e.g., a pronoun for a noun) and if such a change yields a **grammatical** sentence where the general structure has not been altered, then the test sequence is a constituent. (**Redford**, 2004): e.g., I don't know the man who is sleeping in the car. I don't know him.

Omission (Deletion) Test: Constructions can be moved when systematic changes are made to a sentence. This usually involves using a definite pro-form (it, he, there, here, etc.) in place of a phrase or a clause. In most cases, adverbials (that give additional information) can be safely omitted and thus qualify as constituents (Roberts, 1997). For example, Fred relaxes at night on his couch. • **Fred relaxes on his couch.** • **Fred relaxes at night.** **Prepositional phrases 'at night' and 'on his couch' are constituents.**

Movement (Fronting) Test: Two or more words form a syntactic constituent if they can be moved together as one single unit to another position in the same sentence. Example: The man sat on the chair.

Head is a central part of any **phrase**.

Generally, it is a lexical word and defines the category of the **phrase**.

A **phrase** can be a single word or group of words. The words other than head are called modifiers.

A **Modifier** is a word, especially an adjective or noun used **attributively**, that restricts or adds to the sense of a head noun (e.g., good and family in a 'good family house') - make its meaning more specific.

The **modifiers** before head are called pre-modifiers while after head are called post-modifiers.

In the noun phrase 'a boy with black hat', 'boy' is a head word and article 'a' is a pre-modifier and **'with black hat' is a post-modifier.**

Similarly, 'very **cheap**' is an adjective phrase in which 'cheap' is a head word whereas 'very' is a modifier.

Compliments: Other phrases in a sentence that are not optional like modifiers; they are necessary to complete the sense.

The difference between modifiers and **compliments is that modifiers** are optional and compliments are obligatory.

This difference can be shown through a tree diagram.

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A Noun Phrase: It can be a noun (proper noun, plural noun) or a pronoun: e.g., People like to have money.

A noun phrase can occur in this way: Determiner + Adjective + Noun + Adjective / Prepositional Phrase.

Uses of **NP** A noun phrase is used as a subject, object, complement or adverbial in a sentence.

VP **(Verb Phrase)** In which the head word is a verb. e.g., 'Has been eating, eats, ate, is eating' etc. It consists of a main verb alone, or a main verb plus any modal and/or auxiliary.

The main verb always comes last in **VP We all laughed (main verb).**

Computers can (modal) be very annoying (main verb).

A verb phrase is used as a verb in the sentence and is the most important element in predicate.

PP **(Preposition Phrase)**: A preposition preceded by a noun phrase makes a prepositional phrase. E.g., In the room, at the party, for me, etc.

AP **(Adjective Phrase)**: In which the head word is an adjective. e.g., Very sensitive, too big, strong enough .

Use AP is used as a modifier in a noun phrase or as a complement in a sentence

She is very intelligent. (complement)

He is a smart boy(modifier).

AdvP (Adverb Phrase): In which the head word is an adverb. e.g., Very immediately, here, etc.

20.Studying and Teaching the Meaning of Language

@ **Semantics** is the study of meaning. (Lyons, 1977).

@ **Semantics** is the study of meaning in language. (Hurford & Heasley 1983).

@ **Semantics** is the study of meaning communicated through language. (Saeed, 1997).

@ The part of linguistics that is concerned with meaning. **(Löbner, 2002).**

@ Linguistic semantics is the study of literal, de-contextualized, grammatical meaning **(Frawley, 1992).**

@Linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings **(Kreidler, 1998).**

@Language uses a system **of linguistic signs**, each of which is a combination of meaning and phonological and **or orthographic forms.**

@ According to **Yule**, Semantics is the study of the meaning **of words, phrases and sentences.**

@ In **semantic analysis**, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might want hearer to mean on a particular occasion.

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@ **Etymology**: From the Greek, 'sign'. The term semantics was coined by **French linguist Michel Bréal** (1832-1915), who is commonly regarded as the founder of modern semantics.

@ It focuses on the relation between signifiers, e.g., **words, phrases, signs, and symbols, and what they stand for, their denotation.**

@ **Semantics**: It also tries to understand what meaning is as an element of language and how it is constructed by language as well as interpreted, obscured, and negotiated by speakers and listeners of language.

@ **Semantics** is closely linked with another sub discipline of linguistics 'Pragmatics.'

@ However, unlike **pragmatics**, semantics is a highly theoretical research perspective, and looks at meaning in language in isolation, whereas pragmatics is a more practical subject and is interested in meaning in language in use.

@ **Semantics**: The study of meaning within a linguistic system e.g., words and sentences.

@ **Semiotics**: The study of signs and symbols, not necessarily linguistic.

@ **Signs are of three types**: Iconic sign physically resembles what it stands for (e.g., a picture).

@ An indexical sign is related with some sensory feature (something directly visible, audible, etc.)

@ **Symbolic signs** have no relation with what they refer to.

The relation between **signifier and signified** is purely conventional and culturally specific, e.g., most words.

@ Lexical **Semantics** deals with the meaning of individual words.

@ Theories of Meaning

@ **Referential Theory of Meaning**: Meaning is reference to facts or objects in the world.

@ Ideational Theory of Meaning: The **ideational theory** takes speaker's meaning as fundamental. It assumes that meaning is attached to, but separable from words, because it originates somewhere else, namely in the mind, **in the form of ideas**.

@ **Mentalistic, Cognitive and Conceptual Theories of Meaning**: They deal with speakers' psychological grasp of the meaning, of expressions of their language; rather than with the relation between the expression and the possible worlds.

@ **Prototype Theory of Meaning**: A mode of graded categorization in cognitive science. Where some members of a category are more central than others.

@ **Semantic Features**: One way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful, would be as a means of accounting for the "oddness"

@ Meaning of linguistic expressions derives from **TWO** sources:

• **Language they are part of.** • **The world they describe.**

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@Utterance is created by speaking (or writing). Sentence plus sound is equal to utterance. It is considered to be the most concrete level of language

@ Proposition is a purely abstract level (Saeed, 2003) - more abstract than sentences; a way of capturing part of the meaning of sentences.

@ **Logicians discovered** that certain elements of grammatical information in sentences were irrelevant e.g., **active and passive**.

@Literal meanings are dictionary meanings.

@ **Non-literal** uses are traditionally called figurative. They are described by rhetorical terms including **metaphor**, irony, metonymy etc.

@ **Semantics**: transmission of meaning through language – sentence/word meaning. Pragmatics: transmission of meaning through language in use - speaker's meaning.

@ **Agent**: The initiator of some action – capable of acting with volition.

@ **Location**: The place in which something is situated or takes place. E.g., the baby was hiding behind the curtain. We offered prayers in the Mosque.

@ **Goal**: The entity towards which something is moved, either literally or metaphorically.

@The entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. E.g., He returned from Russia. We got the idea from a TV programme.

@ **Stimulus**: The entity causing an effect (usually psychological) during an experience. E.g., The noise of the horn frightened the passengers. The last performer entertained the guests.

@ **Recipient**: A role of recipient is sometimes identified as a type of goal involved in actions describing changes of possession. E.g., He sold me this house. He left his fortune to the church.

@ **Synonymy**: Words with very closely related/similar meanings are called synonyms.

@ **Simple Antonyms**: (non-gradable) such a relation between words such that the negative of one implies the positive of the other.

@ The pair is also sometimes called complementary pairs or **binary pairs**. E.g., dead/alive, pass/fail, hit/miss, male/female.

@ **Gradable Antonyms**: Such a relationship between opposites where the positive of one term does not necessarily imply the negative of the other, for example rich/poor, fast/slow, young/old, beautiful/ugly, old/new. Can be used in comparative constructions; I'm bigger than you.

@ **Hyponymy**: A relation of inclusion; a hyponym includes the meaning of a more general word, The more general term is called superordinate.

@ **Metonymy** One word or phrase is substituted for another with which it is closely associated.

@A **collocation** is made up of two or more words that are commonly used together in English. E.g., 'close a deal', **'open an account.'**

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@ **Homonyms** are unrelated senses of the same phonological words. E.g., lap 'circuit of a course' and lap 'part of the body.'

@ **Polysemy**: When the senses are judged to be related under same lexical entry.

@ **Deontic Modality**: Verbs mark the speaker's attitude to social factors of obligation, responsibility and permission.

@ They express ways to **influence** the action or event we talk about.

@ **Epistemic Modality**: It conveys a speaker's degree of knowledge about something.

@ It is possible for you to drive this car. (Epistemic modality) and You have my permission to drive this car (Deontic modality).

@ The **Expression of Modality**: They are expressed by means of modal verbs.

@ Examples of non-modal verbs with the same function as modal verbs are: Sarah had to leave early. Maya will be able to speak Spanish soon.

@ Adverbs, nouns, adjectives that indicate modality are especially certainty, possibility, or probability. E.g., Perhaps it will rain. Maya is probably at home now.

?

@ **Evidentiality**: It allows a speaker to communicate her attitude to the source of her/his information and to check whether the evidence exists for the statement and/or what kind of evidence exists (McLendon, 2003).

@ **Witness Evidentiality**: I saw him breaking the window.

@ **Sensory Evidentiality**: It smells like they are having a barbecue here.

@ **Inferential Evidentiality**: You must be very tired after a long journey.

@ **Reportative Evidentiality**: The jeweler was the criminal, allegedly.

@ **Assumed Evidentiality**: I think that he will go to seaside on this beautiful day.

Best of Luck 😊