

Knowledge about language

for

Primary School Teachers

A Self-Access Course

© by Mary Mason

Acknowledgements

This book was produced at the request of the UCE Faculty of Education and used with the PGCE Primary Course during 1997-98.

The author is indebted to the students on this course for their constructive comments, especially Caroline Panting and Diana Jackson.

The tutor in charge of the course, Kate Norman, was responsible for organising the pilot scheme and for making many valuable suggestions.

Preface

Following the introduction of the National Curriculum for schools we now have a National Curriculum for Initial Teacher Training. There is an overwhelming logic to this despite the fact that the school curriculum has been constantly revised since its inception and even as we approach the Millennium is being revised yet further. One of the major difficulties facing teacher educators is not the curriculum they have to follow - much of it is excellent - but the speed with which they have to comply with the Teacher Training Agency's timescale. Unfortunately as a Government Quango they have to reflect that Government's wish to have immediate results to problems they see as lying within the education system. As practitioners we know that there are no quick fixes to many of the issues about improving the educational experience of children in schools, and our professional training taught us to be sceptical of those snake-oil dispensers who profess to have immediate solutions.

Mary Mason, who is a Visiting Research Fellow in the Faculty of Education at the University of Central England, has never been accused of peddling instant solutions, but in her work on developing language as a tool essential to academic success for secondary pupils, which appears in course form in the three volumes of Breakthrough to Learning, she has provided the means to bring about quite amazing transformations in academic success rates. Building upon this work, Mary Mason has constructed a course called Knowledge About Language for intending primary teachers which addresses their needs under the National Curriculum for Primary School Teachers in Training. Not only does it audit their knowledge about language but it provides the means whereby students can demonstrably improve that knowledge. The students who piloted the course demonstrated, as had the secondary children before them, that explicit teaching of how language works enables them to meet the stipulated requirements of Knowledge About Language.

This course will also appeal to practising teachers who wish to use this book as a preparation for more advanced work in language. There is something quite unique and beguiling about studies in language. Not only are we provided with a picture of how language describes our world but we can also see it as a window through which other things can be seen and understood. This is an "irresistible challenge and one which, with Mary Mason's limpid technique for explanation, can place understanding within all our grasp.

Professor Stewart Buchanan
Dean of Faculty of Education
University of Central England

Introduction

Knowledge About Language

National Curriculum for Primary School Teachers in Training

This course has been written in response to the demands of the Teacher Training Agency that all teachers must show that they meet the stipulated requirements of Knowledge About Language.

The course was used with the Post-Graduate Certificate in Education Primary course in the UCE Faculty of Education during 1997-98.

It was so successful that it has been decided to publish it for others to use. (See the results below.)

Auditing KAL

As required by the TTA, the students' Knowledge About Language was audited in September 1997.

The items for the audit were derived from the National Curriculum. It consisted of 30 multiple choice questions.

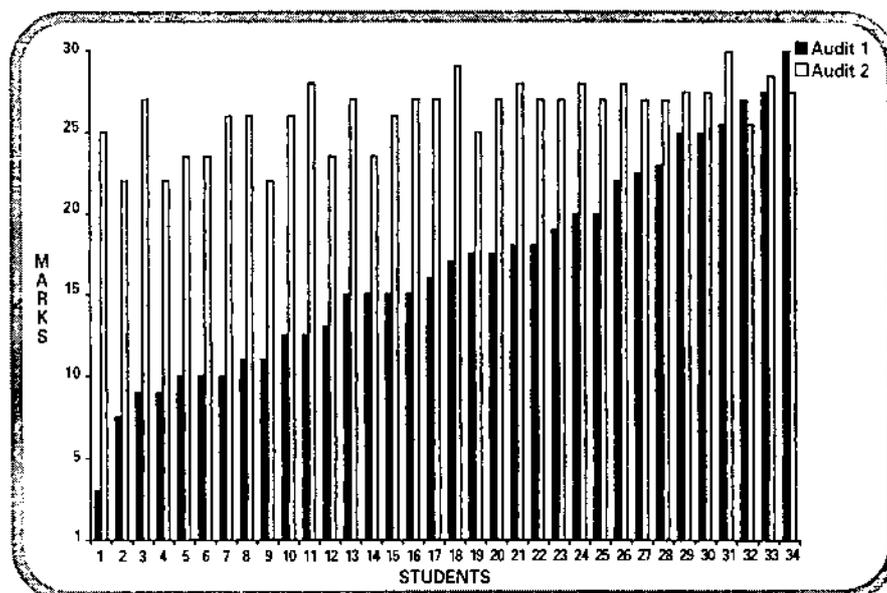
As expected, the results varied enormously - from those who scored full marks to those whose scores showed that they had done no explicit language study either at school or university. The average score was 57%.

Results of the final audit

The average score rose to 90% with no student scoring less than 73%. The results are laid out in the graph below.

What is most striking is that those students who knew nothing at the beginning of the year had achieved a good working knowledge of grammar and word structure by the time of the final audit.

Graph



How the results were achieved: a self-access course

The PGCE is a very full course and there was no teaching time for students to make up their knowledge about language.

They were given access to the three books of my course Breakthrough to Learning, which, among other things, cover all the basic points required by the National Curriculum.

These books train secondary school pupils in habits of independent study, and the Post-graduate students found few problems in working through the relevant chapters in their own time. Tutors offered support, but in fact it was not needed.

The students were given another audit to practise on before doing the final audit in April 1998.

All three audits are included in this book.

Needs assessment materials for Key Stage 2 teachers

These appeared between the completion of the final audit and the final editing of the book.

Notes have been added to some of the chapters to familiarise students and teachers with some extra terminology employed in this latest document. Also, ten items have been added to the audits to test some of the new points.

A systematic course

Presumably, at some stage, there will be a full syllabus for Knowledge About Language. At the moment it is not clear what the theoretical foundations of such a syllabus will be.

The present course meets all the basic requirements at present demanded of students and primary school teachers. Moreover, it is theoretically founded and teachers will gain from it a basic understanding of some of the interlocking systems which make up the marvellous complexity of human language. See Models of Grammar (page 221).

The old terminology, which will be familiar to some teachers and students, has been retained.

Chapter 15: The structure of stories

Surprisingly, the National Curriculum makes no demands that teachers should be aware of the work available in the field of discourse analysis.

The content of Chapter 15: *The structure of stories* is not on the National Curriculum. It is included here for the sake of completing the hierarchical description of the levels of language.

More importantly, teachers find it obviously illuminating and simple to teach to children learning to write.

It is the first chapter of Book 3 of Breakthrough to Learning. The four chapters which follow in that book are also accessible to primary school children. The discourse structures which are here applied to stories are equally useful for non-narrative writing.

English in the National Curriculum

All the items which Primary School children are required to know are covered in the curriculum for teachers in training.

The advantage of this course is that most of the exercises are suitable for use with older primary school children. Teachers who are not confident about their own Knowledge About Language can use and adapt them for direct use with their pupils.

Their suitability for this purpose is indicated on the front page of each chapter.

Using Knowledge About Language

This course will not only enable teachers to conform to the demands of the National Curriculum: it will also allow them to move on to more detailed language studies, especially as linguists produce more insights relevant to their work.

The last chapter introduces teachers to the technique of Error Analysis. This gives them a wide range of resources in helping children to become literate. It is a method applied to the teaching of reading in the Needs Assessment Materials for Key Stage 2 Teachers.

The piece on the use of the full-stop (page 74) dispels some of the fog which surround the hitherto baffling difficulty of persuading young writers to use this fundamental mark or punctuation. More detailed analyses of the differences between spoken and written English are already available in the work of M.A.K. Halliday and Martin Davies, but this has not yet been mediated for school use.

These practical applications of Knowledge About Language give some indication of the enhanced professionalism which teachers can gain from it.

As linguists produce more and more insights about language which are directly relevant in education, teachers who are equipped to make use of them will find much easier their task of giving children access to the world of learning.

Mary Mason

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Audit 1

Instructions

Circle the words or groups of words which are examples of the grammatical point:

For example:

A verb in the present tense:

He was thinking. He will think. He thinks

If you change your mind, write out the new answer.

1. a common noun:

rat hopefully Alice

2. a proper noun:

floor condensation London

3. a singular noun:

men tree circles

4. a plural noun:

height pigs Andrew

5. the definite article:

an but the

6. a verb:

person grow red

7. an auxiliary verb

She went. I have thought. We never knew.

8. a verb in the past tense:

They considered. They should know. They are trying.

9. the subject of this sentence:

Suddenly the roof collapsed.

10. an adjective:

She reads slowly. unfaithful husbands Open the door!

11. an adverb:

They jumped the stream. Look at it carefully.
What did you say?

12. a preposition:

Now he has to walk with a stick.

13. a prepositional phrase:

In the winter we get up later.

14. pronoun:

you beside has

15. a verb in the passive voice:

The children have finished their homework.

The stars came out.

The mixture was stirred.

16. a negative word:

would nothing exciting

17. a co-ordinating conjunction:

the and I

18. a subordinating conjunction:

because never moreover

19. a simple sentence:

The princess lived in a palace. One day, while she was having her hair done, she realised that she had never been outside its walls. She leapt up and ran downstairs.

20. a complex sentence:

The sun came out and everyone was glad. It was May Day. Marcia decided that she would call on her friend as soon as she had finished her breakfast.

21. the main clause of this sentence:

Before he had finished speaking, there was a crash which startled them all.

22. an adverb clause:

Put the kettle on and we'll have tea while we're waiting.

23. a noun clause:

No-one knew what he was talking about.

24. a relative pronoun:

The car which I bought last week is going wrong already.

25. an infinitive:

Although I love being here, I have to go home today.

26. a gerund:

Even though we haven't got much money, we all love shopping.

27. a prefix

unsuitable growth sentence

28. a suffix

co-ordinating respite matchbox

29. a particle:

He ran down the corridor. He ran down.

The business was very run down.

30. a Latin root:

subject warmth synonym

31. a Greek root:

subject warmth synonym

32. a synonym for "happy":

unhappy joyful quiet

33. an antonym for "clumsy":

awkward thoughtful graceful

34. a word with several meanings:

blonde fair brunette

35. a simile:

Her face was on fire. She turned red.

She went as red as a beetroot.

36. a metaphor:

She went as white as a sheet. Her face went white.

Her face blanched.

37. an example of personification

The mountain was dark. The mountain was threatening.

The mountain was as black as night.

38. A dialect word:

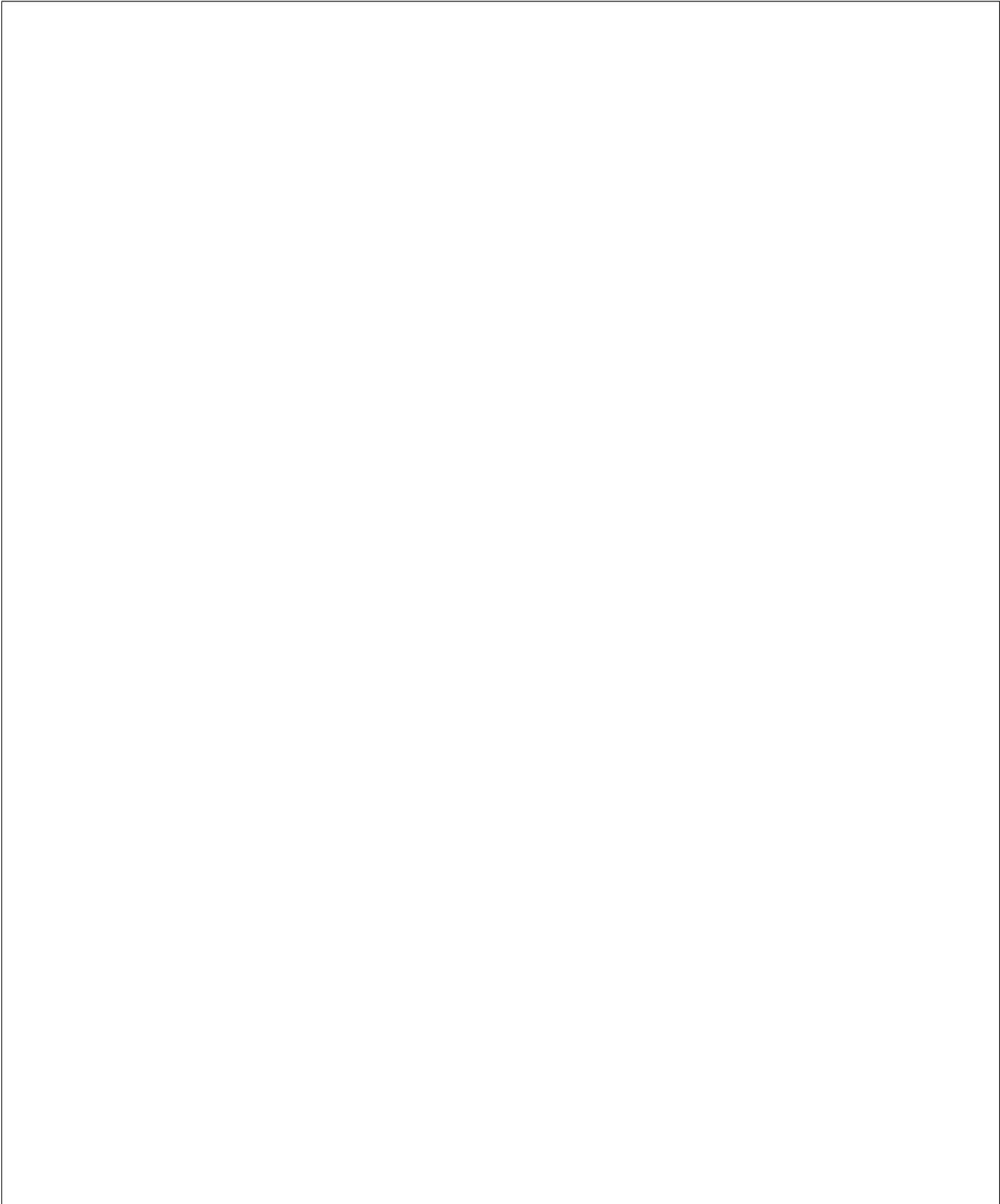
passage ginnel street

39. an example of dialect grammar:

She were going. We haven't finished. Keep cool!

40. an error at the level of the morpheme:

stik sincerly aSked



Programme of work

Working through the programme

Students should draw up their own individual programme of study to learn the items which the audit shows they need.

The course is systematic - the later chapters often depend upon what has been learned from the earlier chapters. Thus it is best to work through the chapters you need in the order in which they occur in the course.

Learning Programme

Below you will find the chapters which deal with the items in the audit.

Use the audit to check your own knowledge about language and tick the items you need to work on.

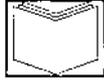
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6. verb	3
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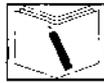
A self-access course

This book is designed for learners working through it in pairs.
It can also be used by people working on their own

Logos



Read



Read and write



Write



**Talk (or think if you
are working alone).**

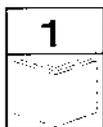
Part 1

How to describe language

Chapter 1

Levels of Language

Suitable for primary school pupils? Yes



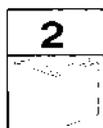
Human and animal languages

It is not only human beings who communicate: birds sing, ants leave scent trails, wolves use sounds and body language.

The "languages" of animals are very simple, consisting of a limited repertoire of sounds or postures. For instance, a bird's warning call can only tell that there is danger of some kind. By contrast, human language can give very precise warnings. We can say: "Look out! You're going to trip on that wire!" or "There's a heavy lorry coming down the drive!" or "Petrol fumes can cause asthma."

Human language is constantly changing in response to the new things that people need to do. Animal "languages", by contrast, are fixed.

The organisation of human language is very complex. In order to describe how it works, we divide it into levels and then examine each level in turn.



Levels of language: from letters to words

The basic building blocks of written English are LETTERS. For example: **a b d m e** These combine to form WORDS. For example: **mad dam bed dame**



How many words can you make with the letters below?

Write them on your paper.

For example: *pine*

c	e	d	i	n	P	r	s
---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Use each of the groups of letters below to make words.

For example: 1. *the*

1.	h	e	t	3.	1	1	n	a	b	e	t	
2.	y	b	b	b	0	4.	c	d	e	i	k	k

3

From words to simple sentences

WORDS combine to form SIMPLE SENTENCES.

For example: **has brother America to my gone**

From these words we can make the simple sentence:

My brother has gone to America, or Has my brother gone to America?



Make simple sentences out of the words below:

1. do computer enjoy people some games not
2. year our not get family this a did holiday
3. could I early home go

4

From simple to complex sentences

When we join two SIMPLE SENTENCES together, we make a COMPLEX SENTENCE.

For example: Sentence (1): **The factory poured its waste into the canal.**

Sentence (2): **The fish died.**

We can combine these into the complex sentence:

**The fish died because the factory poured its waste into the canal, or
When the factory poured its waste into the canal, the fish died.**



Combine the following pairs of simple sentences into complex sentences.

Note: there is often more than one way of doing this. Also you sometimes need to change a word.

1. (1) Hermann doesn't believe in ghosts. (2) He has never seen one.
2. (1) She dyes her hair. (2) It's naturally brown.
3. (1) It's so cold today. (2) We don't want to go outside.



From sentences to paragraphs

We take sentences (simple and complex) and combine them into paragraphs. Here is the first paragraph of one of Aesop's fables:

The Fox and the Stork

The fox and the stork were very good friends, The stork invited the fox to have dinner with him. The fox was hungry when he got to the stork's place and was looking forward to his dinner. It smelt and looked delicious. But it was served in tall glasses. This was fine for the stork, whose long bill reached to the bottom of the glass to take the food. But the poor fox could not reach it at all. He went away as hungry as he had arrived.



The sentences below make up the next paragraph in the story. They are not in the right order.

Write out the numbers of the sentences in the order they should be.

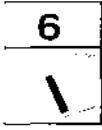
Begin: 4

1. The food looked and smelt delicious.
2. The fox had had his revenge.
3. This was fine for the fox, who gobbled down his food.
4. He invited the stork to come to dinner at his place.
5. The fox ate the stork's food as well as his own.
6. But it was served on a flat plate.
7. But the stork's pointed bill could not pick up the soft food.



Read the paragraph to one another to check that it makes sense.

If you are working alone read the paragraph to yourself.



From paragraphs to texts

Finally we combine paragraphs into complete texts, such as stories or newspaper articles or answers to examination questions.

Below is a Chinese short story. It consists of 8 paragraphs, but they are not in the right order.

Write down the numbers of the paragraphs in the correct order.

Begin: 5

The Judge and the Painter

1. The day came when the picture had to be delivered. The judge was full of eagerness as the painter ceremoniously unrolled his picture.
2. "The cows have eaten it," replied the painter.
3. The judge heard of a famous painter who had moved into his district. He sent for the painter and ordered a picture from him. The painter had heard about the judge's bad habits and did not want to do it. But he was afraid to offend the judge and agreed to paint a picture for him.
4. "Where is the grass?" demanded the judge.
5. There was once a Judge. He was a very dishonest man who did not pay for what he wanted. But he was very powerful and people were afraid of him.
6. "And where are the cows?" asked the judge.
7. The scroll was empty! But at the bottom was a title: "Cows and Grass".
8. "Well, when they'd eaten all the grass, they moved somewhere else."



Read the story to one another or to yourself, with the paragraphs in the correct order.



Language levels

This chapter has been an introduction to the levels of language. It shows why human languages are much more complicated than animal languages.

Here is a summary of what you have been working on:

LETTERS

combine to form

WORDS

which combine to form

SIMPLE SENTENCES

which may combine to form

COMPLEX SENTENCES

which combine to form

PARAGRAPHS

which combine to form

TEXTS

You do not have to remember all this now. You will discover more about how the different language levels work throughout this course.



Fill in the gaps in the following sentences. Below are the words you need. They are not in the right order. Write the numbers and words on your paper.

For example: 1. *spelling*

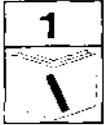
grammar	complex	stories	spelling	paragraph
---------	---------	---------	----------	-----------

- Letters combine to form words by the rules of
- Words combine to form sentences by the rules of
- Simple sentences may be joined together to form sentences.
- One or more sentences make up a
- We combine paragraphs to make complete texts - for example: essays, newspaper articles and

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

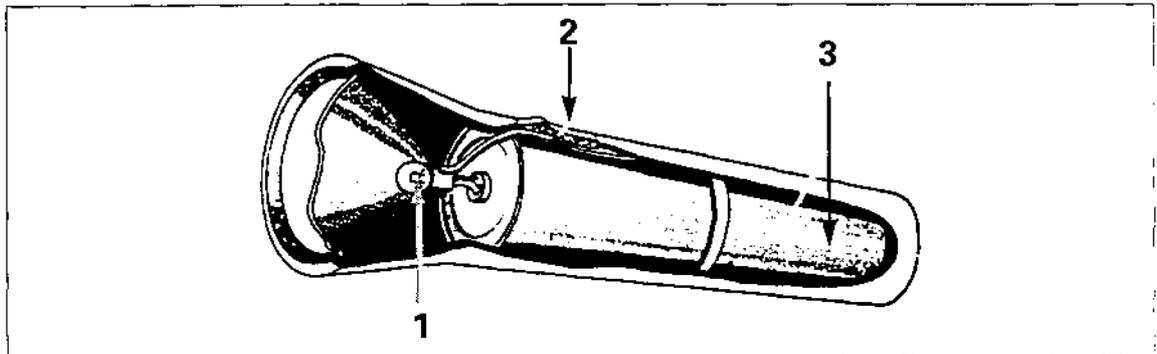
**Chapter 2
Nouns**

Suitable for primary school pupils? Yes



Introduction: What grammar is

When we describe an instrument, we first label its parts: For example;
The torch



Write on your paper the numbers 1-3. Write against them the part of the torch that has this number in the diagram.

Switch | battery | bulb These are the parts of the torch.

In our description of the instrument, we then say what each part does.

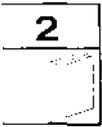
Match these columns by writing the numbers 1-3 on your paper and A, B or C against each.

Part of the torch	What it does
1. battery	A. turns the power on and off.
2. bulb	B. supplies electric power.
3. switch	C. turns electricity into light.

Because the parts of the torch work together, we are able use the torch for a certain purpose.

Write on your paper the number which describes purpose of the torch:

1. to light a fire 2. to find our way in the dark 3. to play a tune.



Grammar

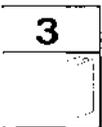
Human language is a much more complicated and powerful instrument than a torch.

Like a torch it has parts, traditionally called **parts of speech**.

Like the bulb, battery and switch of a torch, each part of speech **does** different things in the sentence and obeys rules different from the other parts of speech.

The sections in this course called **Grammar** describe the parts of speech and what they do in the sentence.

Like a torch, language has a purpose: we use it to communicate with one another and to talk about the world.



Nouns

The first part of speech is the **noun**. Our senses tell us that things exist in the world. Nouns enable us to name them.



Write down six nouns that name things in the room you are in now.
For example: *chair, pen, goldfish*

Write down	three things we can hear	three things we can smell
	three things we can touch	three things we can taste

For example: *Hear 1. music 2. , 3.*

Put a tick against those we can see as well.



How nouns differ from other parts of speech

Nouns, unlike other parts of speech, can have **the** in front of them.

Note that they do not **always** have **the** in front of them, but they **can** have.

For example: He never sits on chairs. She dislikes **the** chairs.

Chair is a noun for two reasons:

1. It names something in the world.
2. It can have **the** in front of it.

The technical word for **the** is the **definite article**.



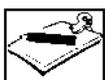
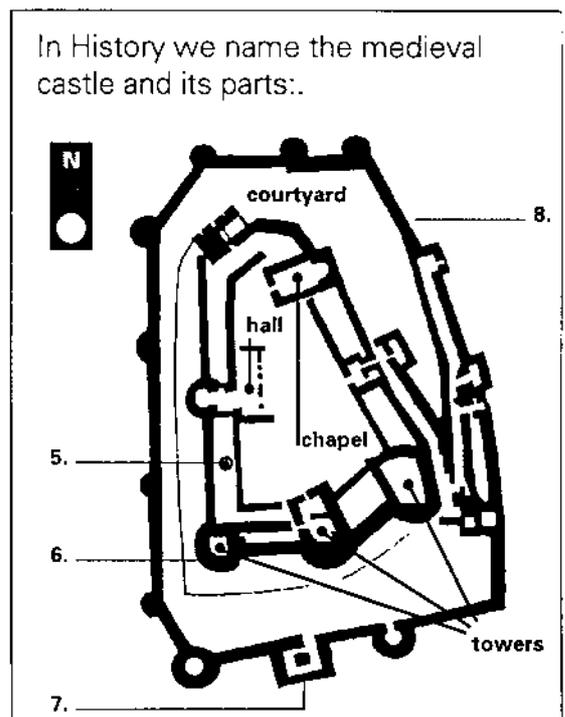
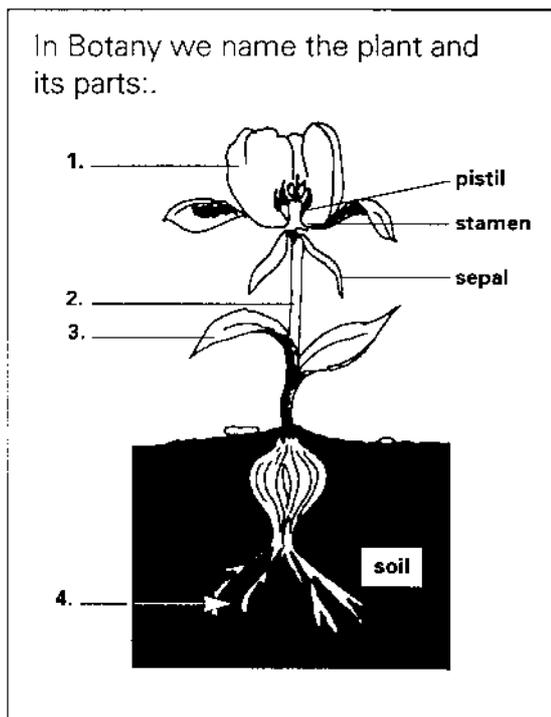
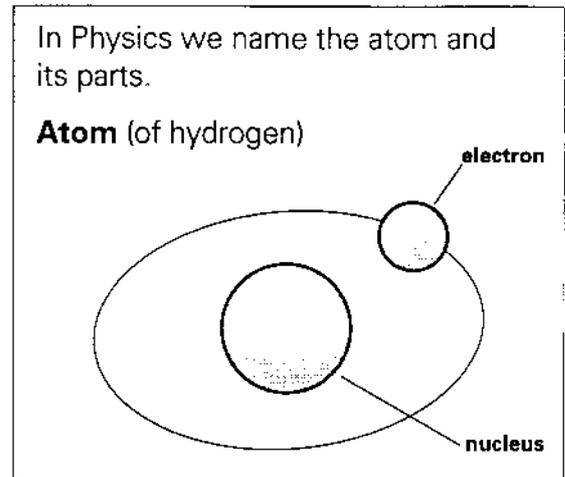
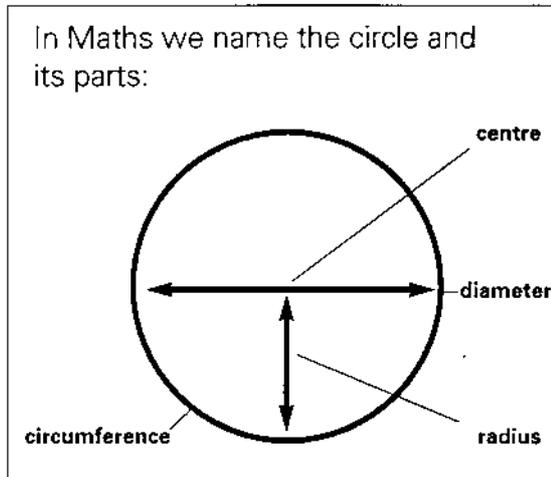
Look through the nouns you have written down.

Check that you can put **the** in front of each one.



Naming (or labelling)

In all school subjects we name things and their parts, using **nouns**.



Write 1-4 on your paper.

Write, against the numbers, the nouns for the parts of the plant which are not labelled.

Use these words:

stem	root	petal	leaf
------	------	-------	------

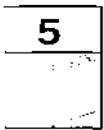


Write 5-8 on your paper.

Write, against the numbers, the nouns for the parts of the castle which are not labelled.

Use these words:

south-west tower	east wall	outer gate	well
------------------	-----------	------------	------



Point of View: Nouns

According to our point of view, we use **different nouns** for the **same things**.

If we like somebody or something, we call them by one noun. If we dislike them, we call them by another.

For example: If someone is playing a record I like, I call it **music**.

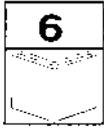
Someone who does not like it will call it a **din** or **racket**.



Match the columns below:

For example: 1 C

We like these	We dislike these
1. music	A. cur
2. flower	B. banger
3. car	C. din
4. dog	D. brat
5. child	E. weed



Singular and plural

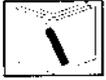
We shall now look at another feature that makes nouns different from other parts of speech.

Compare these columns:

house	houses
piece	pieces
dog	dogs

What is the difference in meaning between "house" and "houses " ?

The technical words for this difference are: **Singular** and **Plural**. (House is Singular; **houses** is Plural.)



Regular and irregular plurals

Write down the letter we add to turn a singular noun into a plural noun.

We form the plural of most English nouns in this way. These are **regular** plurals.

A few English nouns have **irregular plurals**.

For example: Singular Plural

sheep sheep

child children

Write down the plurals of these nouns

man	mouse	foot	stratum	tooth	radius	deer
-----	-------	------	---------	-------	--------	------

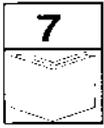
Write down any more nouns you can think of which have irregular plurals.

Some English nouns have slightly different spellings in the plural.

For example: lady ladies leaf leaves potato potatoes

Write down the plural of these nouns:

spy	bully	knife	wife	tomato	hero
-----	-------	-------	------	--------	------



Proper nouns

All of us have our own names - at least two and sometimes more. The nouns that mean our name refer to a particular person and to no-one else. The technical word for such nouns is **proper nouns**.

Other examples of proper nouns are the words for places, days of the week, titles of records and books, school subjects etc.

We show that these are proper nouns by using a capital letter.

For example:

Joseph Hickinbotham

Hong Kong

Monday

"Gone with the Wind"

February

Geography

Write down two proper nouns referring to each of the following:



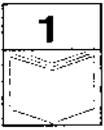
countries cities months people rivers languages

Note: **proper** comes from the French word **propre**, meaning **one's own**.

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 3
Verbs**

Suitable for primary school pupils? Yes



Verbs

The second part of speech is the **verb**.

Nouns **name** people and things. Verbs tell us what they **do**.

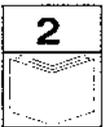
A sentence without a verb is like a torch without a battery: nothing happens.



Write down some of the commands you give to your pupils.

For example: *Talk quietly ! Open your books.*

Underline the verbs.



Saying what things do

In studying many subjects, we name things and their parts (using nouns) and then say what each part **does** (using verbs). For example:

The Plant

The pistil **carries** the seed.

The stamen **produces** the pollen.

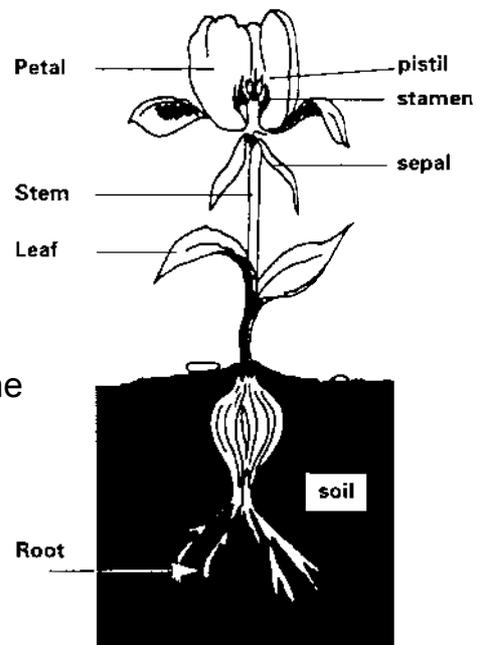
Petals **attract** the bees.

Sepals **protect** the petals in the bud.

The stem **supports** the flower.

Leaves **turn** sunlight into food.

The roots **take** food and water from the soil.





What people did in the past

In History we learn about what people **did** in the **past**. So in History we use the **past tense** a great deal.

For example: the Second World War **started** in 1939.



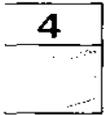
Write down the past tense of these verbs:

invade	murder	drop	build	break out
--------	--------	------	-------	-----------

Below are some sentences with the verbs missing.

Write against the number of the sentence one of the verbs above. For example: 1. *built*

1. The Ancient Egyptiansthe pyramids.
2. The Americansthe atomic bomb on Hiroshima in 1945.
3. The RomansBritain in 49 A.D.
4. The French Revolutionin 1789.
5. Hitlermillions of Jews.



Point of view: Verbs

We saw in the last section that we choose different nouns for the same thing according to our point of view.

For example, what is **music** to us may be a **din** to other people.

We also express our point of view by our choice of verb. For instance, when we think we are **smiling**, someone else may think we are **grinning** or even **leering**.

Match the words in the columns below:

For example: *I.D*



We like these	We dislike these
1. smiling	A. daydreaming
2. dancing	B. guzzling
3. laughing	C. jiggling about
4. eating	D. leering
5. thinking	E. shrieking

5

How verbs differ from other parts of speech

A verb contains a lot of information besides its meanings.

For example, it shows whether the action happens in the **present** (now) or the **past** (then).

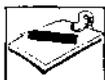
This is done by making small changes to the verb.

For example:	play	played
	scratch	scratched
	write	wrote

We **play** together every day **now**. (present)

We **played** together every day **last year**, (past)

You can check whether a word is a verb by seeing if you can give it a past form. The **technical word** for the difference between past and present is **tense**.



Write down three short sentences which say what you do when you get up in the morning.

For example: *I yawn and stretch.*

Underline the verbs. (I yawn and stretch.)

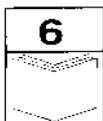
What tense are the verbs? (Present or Past)

Rewrite the sentences, saying what you **did** last Sunday.

For example: *I yawned and stretched.*

Underline the verbs. (I yawned and stretched.)

What tense are the verbs? (Present or Past)



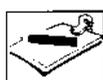
Other tenses of the verb

The past and present tenses of the verb consist of a single word (*yawn, yawned; stretch, stretched.*) We call these the **simple present tense** and the **simple past tense**.

There are many other tenses of the verb. These consist of two or more words - these are called **verb phrases**. (A phrase is a group of words which act together.)

The table below shows the main tenses of the English verb:

	Simple	Continuous	Perfect
Present	I play	I am playing	I have played
Past	I played	I was playing	I had played
Future	I shall play	I shall be playing	I shall have played



Copy the table of tenses for the verb "to think" below. Complete it. Use the table for the verb "to play" above to help.

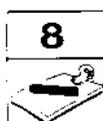
	Simple	Continuous	Perfect
Present	I think		
Past		I was thinking	
Future			I shall have thought



Write down these tenses of the verb "to live":

For example: 1. *I had lived*

- | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Past Perfect | 2. Future Perfect | 3. Past Continuous |
| 4. Present Continuous | 5. Present Perfect | 6. Future Simple |



Write the names of these tenses of "to ride":

For example: 1. *past continuous*

- | | | |
|-----------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I was riding | 2. I rode | 3. I shall ride |
| 4. I had ridden | 5. I shall be riding | 6. I ride |



Auxiliary verbs:

In addition to the word which carries the meaning (*think, ride*), verb phrases have one or more **auxiliary verbs**. These are verbs which **help** form the verb phrase (from Latin *auxilium* - help). In English the auxiliary verbs are: **be, have, do, will, shall**.

Underline the auxiliary verbs you have used in exercise 6.



Regular verbs

Write out the past tense of these verbs

I bake

I produce

I invade

I mix

Present tense

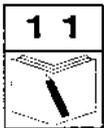
Past tense

For example: I bake

I baked

These verbs form their past tense very simply. They are **regular** verbs.

What letters do we add to regular verbs to form the past tense?



Irregular verbs

Write out the past tense of these verbs

I break

I sing

I think

I wear

Present tense Past tense

For example: I break

I broke

These are **irregular verbs**. There are about 100 irregular verbs in English. They are some of the commonest verbs in the language and people learning English just have to remember them.

Write down three other irregular English verbs.

To be

1 2

The verb to **play** is regular:

	Present Tense		Past Tense	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1st person	I play	we play	I played	we played
2nd person	you play	you play	you played	you played
3rd person	he she it	} plays they play	he she it	} played they played

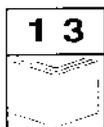


The verb **to be** is very irregular.

Make out a table for the verb "to be" like the one for "to play" above.

These sentences will help you:

I am sure that you are ready and that she is not ready. They are always late but we are always early. She was old but they were young. You are happy now, but some time ago you were miserable.



The past participle

There is a third part to the English verb which learners of the language have to remember. It is called the **past participle** and it is used to form the **perfect tenses**.

For example: I have **baked** I have **produced**

In irregular verbs it is often different.

For example:	Present	Past	Perfect
	I take	I took	I have taken
	I break	I broke	I have broken
	I sing	I sang	I have sung



Write out the irregular verbs below, adding the past and perfect tenses, as above:

buy cut forget freeze know make ring see tell win

For example:	Present	Past	Perfect
	I buy	<i>I bought</i>	<i>I have bought</i>

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 4
Simple sentences**

Suitable for primary school pupils? *Yes*



Sentences

You now know about the two most important parts of speech - nouns and verbs. On their own, nouns and verbs are not very useful - any more than a bulb and a battery and a switch on their own are useful.

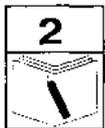
If we put a bulb, a battery and a switch together in the right way, we have a torch. We can use it to see in the dark.

If we put **nouns** and **verbs** together in the right way, we have **sentences**. We can use them to talk about things in the world.

With them we make **sentences**. The sentence is the way human beings think and talk about the world.

What is in a sentence

Most sentences have a verb and at least one noun. For example:



- | | | |
|-----------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Lions growl. | 2. Fishes swim. | 3. Birds twitter. |
| 4. The child sneezed. | 5. The house collapsed. | 6. The sea sparkles. |

1. The verb

Write down the verbs in the sentences above. Write them underneath one another and leave a space to the left. Give the heading: Verb

For example:

	Verb
1.	growl

2. The subject

This is the person who **does** the verb.

To find the subject, first find the verb - **growl**.

Then ask: "Who or what growls?" Answer - **lions**.

Lions is the **subject** of the sentence.

Find the subjects in the sentences above. Add them to the verbs you have written out. Put the heading Subject in front of the Verb.

For example:

<i>Subject</i>	Verb
1. Lions	growl
2.	

3. The object

People often do something to other people or things. In that case there will be two nouns in the sentence. For example: **Lions eat meat.**

To find the object of a sentence:

1. First find the verb - **eat**
2. Find the subject (Who or what eats?) - **Lions**
3. Ask who or what the Lions eat - **meat** **Meat** is the **object** of the sentence.

Describe the grammar of the sentences below -that is, find the verb, subject and object.

Make three columns:	Subiect	Verb	Obiect
For example:	Lions	eat	meat

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. Lions eat meat | 2. Fishes lay eggs |
| 3. Birds buiid nests | 4. The child read a book |
| 5. The house cost a fortune | 6. The sea destroyed the ship |



3

Making sentences

Here are some nouns and verbs.

See how many sentences you can make using them.

Change the form of the verb and add **the** or **a/an** to the nouns if you wish. The nouns can be singular or plural according to your meaning.

Nouns: dog cat rabbit spider snake child egg

Verbs: chase fear see hate love eat kill

Remember that a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

For example: *Rabbits fear snakes.*



4

Choose any five of the sentences you have just written. Set out the parts of these sentences in three columns:

Subject Verb Object

For Rabbits fear snakes

example:



5

Transitive and intransitive verbs

Verbs which have an object are called "transitive". For example: the verbs in the sentences in the box on page 25 are transitive.

Verbs which have no object are called "intransitive". For example: the verbs in the box on page 24 are intransitive.

Some verbs may be either transitive or intransitive in different sentences.

For **Transitive** **Intransitive**

example:

My sister swam a length. Fishes swim.

The people rang the bells. The bells rang.



Make up two sentences for each of these verbs, the first transitive (with an object) the second intransitive (without an object):

sing

run

play

write

wave

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 5
Adjectives**

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Revision

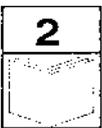
We have learned that **nouns** are **naming words**, and **verbs** are **doing words**.

From the list of words below write out:

1. three **nouns**

2. three **verbs**.

comfortable	carpet	grab	pencil	the
blue	throw	choose	large	candle



Adjectives

The third **part of speech** is the **adjective**. Adjectives are **describing words**.

They describe nouns.

Using nouns, we name things in the world. **For example:** (the) dog

There are many dogs in the world. Using adjectives, we can tell one dog from another.

For example: the nice, little, black-and-white dog
the ugly, bad-tempered, evil-smelling dog

The words in the box above which are not nouns or verbs are adjectives.

Write them out. For example: *comfortable*

Put a suitable noun after each of them.

For example: *comfortable pyjamas*

Write down three nouns for food you like. For example: *chips*

Put in front of each noun an adjective that describes it.

For example: *crisp chips*

Write down three nouns for food you dislike. For example: *chocolate*

Put in front of each noun an adjective that describes it.

For example: *sticky chocolate*

Adjectives



Sometimes we want more than one adjective to describe a noun. **For example:** The **cheerful young English** teacher.

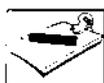
Here are some kinds of adjectives:

Nationality	Size	Colour	Age	Qualities
English	little	black	young	interesting
Welsh	big	red	old	boring
Chinese	tall	green	early	happy
Nigerian	enormous	grey	new	miserable

Choose three adjectives from these columns and put them in front of each of the following nouns:

cat	book	doctor	city
-----	------	--------	------

For example: *the little grey Chinese cat.*



Write down some adjectives to describe your friends. **For example:** Germain is **quiet**.

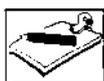
Do the same for your enemies (if you have any).

Revision

We have learned that **sentences** have the form:



Subject	Verb	Object
The children	caught	the bus.
The dog	shivered.	
The soldiers	killed	the villagers.
Her parents	have bought	a house.
The birds	were singing.	



We can add adjectives to any nouns, whether they are subject or object.

For example: The **lucky** children caught the **early** bus.

Write out the sentences in the box, putting an adjective in front of each noun.

Noun phrases: *The tired children caught the last bus* are examples of **noun phrases**. A noun phrase is a group of words acting together as a noun - as subject, object etc.



Complements

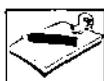
There is another kind of sentence, which has this form:

Subject	Verb	Complement
Anne	is	a pilot.
Ahmed	was	lucky.

In this kind of sentence, the verb is usually **to be**.

The complement is either a **noun** which is the same as the **subject** or an **adjective** which **describes** the **subject**.

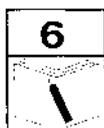
Use the adjectives below to add a complement to these sentences:



poor	famous	red	bright	happy
------	--------	-----	--------	-------

For example: 1. *famous*

- | | | |
|------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|
| 1. Napoleon was... | 3. The villagers are . . . | 5. Pete is |
| 2. The flame was . . . | 4. Her face was | 5. I want to be... |



The importance of adjectives

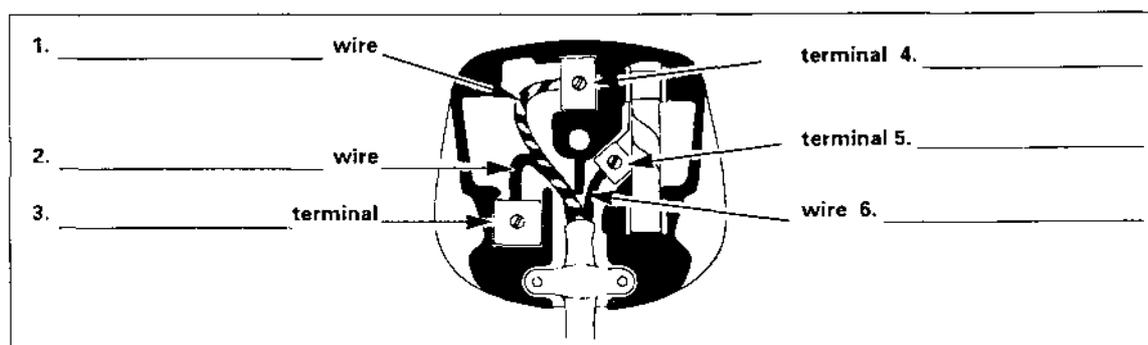
It can often be very important to get the adjectives right. For example, in wiring up an electric plug you must be sure of getting the right coloured wires connected to the proper pins.

Read the following and write out the correct numbers to label the diagram.

For example: 1. *green and yellow*

There are three terminals in a modern electric plug: live, neutral and earth. In the diagram, the earth is at the top, the live is on the right and the neutral terminal on the left.

The blue wire must be connected to the neutral terminal, the brown wire to the live, and the green and yellow wire to the earth.



7

Comparisons

Adjectives, unlike other parts of speech, enable us to compare things. For example:

Your dog is **nasty**. Fred's dog is **nastier** than yours. Sharon's dog is **the nastiest** in the street.

Or: My dog is **intelligent**. Your dog is **more intelligent** than mine. Garvin's dog is **the most intelligent** of all.

In other words, there are **degrees** of nastiness and intelligence. These are shown by:

the **comparative degree**: nastier **more intelligent**
and the **superlative degree**: the nastiest **the most intelligent**.

Copy out the table below. Fill in the comparative and superlative degrees of the following adjectives:



Adjective	Comparative	Superlative
nasty	nastier	nastiest
intelligent	more intelligent	the most intelligent
clever		
big		
cheerful		
happy		
interesting		
good		



1. Write about members of your family, using adjectives:

For example: My mother is **sensible**.

My sister is **bossy**

My uncle is **nice**.

2. Write about members of your family, using the comparative:

For example: My sisters are **older** than me.

My brother is **younger** than my sister.

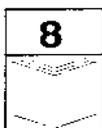
My grandfather is **more sensible** than my grandmother.

3. Write about members of your family using the superlative:

For example: Jane is the **youngest**.

Jasmin is the **most spiteful**.

Aunt Polly is the **prettiest**.



Point of view: adjectives

Adjectives are very important for giving our opinions about people and their actions. The words we choose to describe them often depend on our point of view.

For example: Robin Hood robbed the rich and gave the money to the poor.

If we had been poor, we would probably have described Robin Hood as a **good, brave, generous man**. If we had been the Sheriff of Nottingham, we would more likely have described him as a **bad, lawless, villainous** person.

Below are two lists of adjectives - one good and one bad.

Fill in the gaps in the sentences below. Choose one adjective from each column, according to the point of view.



For example: 1. (a) *daring* (b) *stupid*

Good		Bad	
brave	sensible	foolhardy	miserly
daring	prudent	stupid	obstinate
witty	determined	rude	selfish
clever	funny	ill-mannered	crazy
loyal	honest	mean	cruel
careful	firm	pig-headed	hard

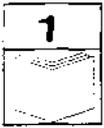
- Barbara climbed out of a bedroom window onto the roof for a dare.
 - Her friends thought she was
 - Her mother thought she was
- Earl refused to sponsor his friend's run for charity, because he was saving for the school trip.
 - His friend thought Earl was being
 - Earl thought he was being
- Elma imitated an old lady with a limp.
 - Her friends thought this was
 - The old lady thought it was
- Ranjit got too much change from a shopkeeper. He took it back.
 - His friends thought this was
 - The shopkeeper thought it was
- Helena kept interrupting her friend's story with funny comments.
 - She thought she was being
 - Her friend thought she was being

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 6
Adverbs**

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Revision

We have learned that a sentence may have **two parts**:

Subject	Verb
The dog	fled
Freda	is laughing

or **three parts**:

Subject	Verb	Object
The dog	eats	cat food.
Pip	has lost	his gloves.



Make three columns headed: *Subject, Verb, (Object)*

Break the sentences below into their parts and put them under the columns as above.

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. Everyone laughed. | 4. The fat boy cannot run.. |
| 2. My best friends were playing cards. | 5. Hide! |
| 3. France won the match. | 6. The rich woman spent all her money. |



Adverbs

The fourth part of speech is the adverb. It tells us **how** the verb is done. For example: "The burglar opened the door."

Question: **How** did he open the door?

Answer: quietly, confidently, fearfully etc.

To describe the sentence we need a fourth column for the adverb:

Subject	Verb	(Object)	(Adverb)
The burglar	opened	the door	quietly.



Add an adverb to each of the sentences above.

For example: 1. *heartily*

You may find these adverbs useful:

easily	quickly	slowly	immediately	well	carefully
--------	---------	--------	-------------	------	-----------

3

Word order

The adverb does not always come at the end of the sentences. For example: The ghost **suddenly** appeared. **Hastily** he wiped his fingers

Pick out and write down the adverbs in the following sentences:

For example: 1. *enthusiastically*

1. The girls play netball enthusiastically.
2. The goldfish passionately likes ants' eggs.
3. Carefully the scientist examined the specimen
4. My sister badly needs a haircut
5. Bill plays the piano well.
6. The donkey brayed loudly.

How adverbs differ from other parts of speech

Answer these questions:

1. What is the ending of most of the adverbs we have met so far?
2. If you take the ending off, what part of speech are you left with?
3. What exception did you meet in the box on page 34?

Form adverbs from these adjectives: For example: *sharp - sharply*

quick	light	sincere	happy
faithful	careful	helpful	thirsty

Giving instructions

When giving instructions, adverbs of manner can be very useful. **For example:** Light the bunsen burner **carefully**.

Add some suitable adverbs to the following instructions

You may find these words useful:

seriously firmly quickly quietly thoroughly carefully clearly lightly

For example: 1. *thoroughly*

1. Mix the ingredients
2. Read the passage
3. Close the door....
4. Hold the screwdriver....
5. Drink up
6. Check your work . . .



Kinds of adverbs

The kind of adverb we have looked at so far answers the question: **how?** These adverbs tell us the **manner** in which things were done and they are called **adverbs of manner**.

Other adverbs answer the questions **when?** and **where?** They tell us the **time** and **place** in which things were done. They are called **adverbs of time** and **adverbs of place**.

For example: The visitors arrived **Yesterday**. (Question: **When** did they arrive? - Answer: **yesterday**.)

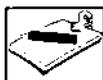
Yesterday is an **adverb of time**.

The child ran **home**. (Question: **Where** did he run? - Answer: **home**.)

Home is an **adverb of place**.

Some common adverbs of time are:

now	then	first	last	soon	before	afterwards	today	tomorrow
-----	------	-------	------	------	--------	------------	-------	----------



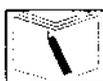
Use them to fill the gaps in the sentences below:

For example: 1. *first*

- | | |
|---|-----------------------------------|
| 1. The best runner came in | 4. I made a mistake |
| 2..... I shall clean out the cupboards. | 5..... the villagers celebrated. |
| 3. He should be ready | 6. We shall make a start. |

Some common adverbs of place are:

here	there	everywhere		
in	out	up	down	away
inside	outside	underneath	above	below



Use them to fill the gaps in the sentences below.

For example 1. *here*

- | | |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| 1. Come ! | 4. Put the boxes |
| 2. His clothes are | 5. . . . the people were celebrating. |
| 3. The orphan ran | 6.....went the balloon. |

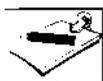
7

Order of adverbs

Sentences often have more than one adverb. For example:

Go **in quietly**.

Soon she will be able to play the guitar **easily**.



Make up five more sentences with two adverbs. State what kind of adverb each one is (time, place or manner).



Work out the rule for the order of adverbs when they are both at the end of the sentence.

Which comes first and second - time, place or manner?

8

Comparisons

Adverbs, like adjectives, have comparative and superlative degrees.

For example: Joan sings sweetly.

Ahmed sings sweeter (or **more** sweetly) than Joan.

Donna sings **the** sweetest (or **the most** sweetly) of all.



Use the words in the columns below to make up six sentences. Use the comparative and superlative degrees of the adverbs.

For example: *Donna makes tea better than Joan.*

Subject	Verb	Object	Adverb
Joan	plays	basketball	expertly
Ahmed	runs	tea	hard
Donna	thinks	the garden	beautifully
	makes		well
	digs		fast
	writes		badly
	reads	books	clearly



Point of view: adverbs

We have seen that our choice of nouns, verbs and adjectives depends on our point of view.

This is also true of adverbs.

Below are some adverbs.

Choose two for the gap in each sentence, one from Daphne's point of view, the other of someone who disapproves of what she did.

For example:

1. Daphne **carefully** counted out her money. (Daphne's point of view)
Daphne **meanly** counted out her money, (disapproving point of view)

Write the number of the sentence and the adverbs:

For example: 1. *carefully, meanly*

2. Daphne drank the last drop.

carefully	carelessly	cheekily	cleverly	greedily
meanly	sneakily	thirstily	unluckily	wittily

3. Daphne dropped her pencil-case.
4. Daphne played a trick on her grandmother.
5. Daphne answered the neighbour back
6. Daphne got through the window

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 7
Prepositions**

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Revision

Write out the adverbs of place in these sentences (that is: the words which answer the question **where?**)

For example: 1. *there*

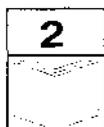
1. Put the sugar there.
2. The gunman was shot here.
3. Everywhere people were laughing.
4. It is dark outside.
5. Come in!
6. He walked around importantly.

Write out the adverbs of time in these sentences (that is : the words which answer the question **when?**)

For example: 1. *then*

1. She started work then.
2. Yesterday I met an old friend.
3. You can do your homework later.
4. She will soon qualify as an engineer.
5. He is doing the dusting now.
6. Meanwhile the cowboys were hiding.

Parts of speech: Prepositions



Put the sugar **there**.

She started work **then**.

There is an adverb of place; **then** is an adverb of time.

They do not tell us a lot. If we want to know **exactly** where to put the sugar or **exactly** when she started work, we need more than one word.

For example:

Put the sugar { in your shoes.
on the table
behind the teapot

She started work { on Friday
in the morning
after Christmas

The words in bold are **adverbial phrases**. They consist of two parts:

Preposition	+	Noun
in		your shoes
on		the table
behind		the teapot
on		Friday
in		the morning
after		Christmas

Prepositions



Prepositions are often very little words, but they are very important.
Some common English prepositions are:

**in, at, on, by, for, with, to, over, between, up, down,
through, beside, after, before, behind, in front of, from, of**

Write down as many prepositions as you can which make sense in the gap below:

He put his coat the cupboard.

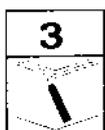
Choose prepositions and nouns from the lists below to make six adverbial phrases.

For example: **preposition** **+ noun =** **adverbial phrase**
 through + *the city =* *through the city*

Prepositions	Nouns
through	mountain
along	forest
over	road
under	sea
up	field
down	country
in/into	city
out of	plain

Use the adverbial phrases you have made in sentences.

For example: *I love wandering through the city.*



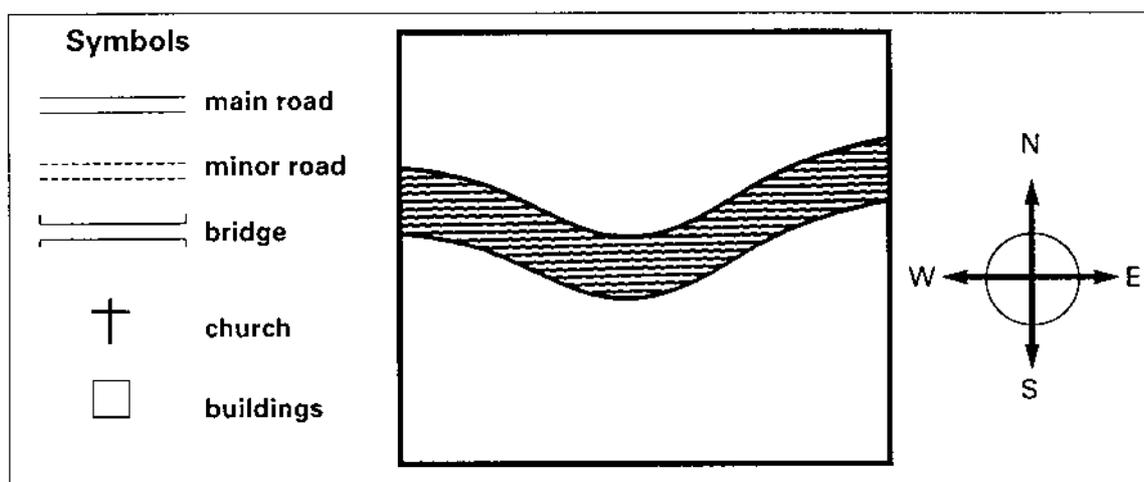
Using adverbs and adverbial phrases

In all school subjects we need to use adverbs and adverbial phrases of place.

Below is the description of an imaginary village, and also the beginnings of a plan of the village. The information in the first paragraph of the description has been put on the plan.

Copy the plan, then complete it, using the information in the rest of the description.

Plan of a village



North is **at the top of the plan**. A river runs **from West to East across the middle of the plan**. It bends **to the South in the middle**.

A main road runs **from North to South in the middle of the plan**, crossing the river by a bridge **at its Southernmost point**. A minor road follows the course of the river **on the northern bank**.

Next to the bridge on the main road to the South-West of the river is a ruined castle.

On the other side of the main road is a church. There are some old cottages **round the church**. **On the North side of the minor road in the far West of the map** is a supermarket. There is a garage **next to the supermarket on its Eastern side**.

Note: The words in bold are adverbial phrases of place.

In each of the sentences below there is either an adverb or an adverbial phrase (preposition + noun).



Write down whether the word in bold in each sentence is an adverb or a preposition. Write A for adverb and P for preposition.

For example: /A

1. They crawled **inside**.
2. **Inside** the house it was quite dark.
3. He decided to come **along**.
4. They wandered **along** the street.
5. Put these papers **on** the top.
6. These can go **underneath**.
7. **Over** you go.
8. She threw her coat **over** the chair.
9. The daffodils were **beside** the lake
10. The dance went **round** the town.

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 8
Pronouns**

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes

1

Parts of Speech: Pronouns

Read the following paragraph:

Samantha woke up early one morning. Samantha lay still for a while. Samantha could hear a faint chink-chink outside. Softly Samantha got out of bed and went to the window. Down below in the next-door garden Samantha could just make out the shadowy figure of the man next door. The man was digging a hole in the soft earth of the vegetable patch. The man looked around furtively. The man picked up an oddly shaped bundle and carried the bundle to the hole. The bundle seemed to be very heavy. The man put the bundle into the hole and covered the bundle with soil.

Write out the paragraph. Replace **Samantha**, **the man** and **the bundle** by **he**, **she** or **it** so that the story sounds more natural.

He, **she** and **it** are **pronouns**. That means they stand instead of a noun, and save us repeating it every time.

They are little words, but they contain a lot of information.

Work out from the story above when we use **he**, when we use **she** and when we use **it**.

Note: Pronouns are part of the system of **cohesion**, which links sentences together to make texts.

A Story

2

A man and his son were involved in a bad road accident. The man was killed outright and the son very badly injured. The son was rushed to hospital where he was taken at once to the operating theatre. The surgeon who came to perform the operation said: "I can't operate on this patient. It's my son."

Gender in Pronouns

In telling this story, you have to be careful not to use a pronoun to refer to the surgeon. If you do, you give the game away.

Most nouns in English are all the same from the point of view of gender. That is - they do not show whether a noun is masculine, feminine or neuter.

We have seen above that English pronouns differ according to gender - **he**, **she** or **it**.



Gender in nouns

A few nouns in English do show gender, however. For example: actor, actress.

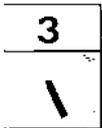
Also the words for some jobs date back to the time when there was "men's work" and "women's work". For example: nurseryman, washerwoman, milkman, tea-lady.

Write down the following words.

The masculine for princess, manageress.

The feminine for salesman, duke.

Jobs where the words suggest that only men or only women can do that job.



Gender in Textbooks

Pick out the nouns and pronouns which show gender.

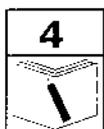
1. A geographer is concerned with how things are distributed over the earth's surface One reason why he studies these patterns is to be able to help with the task of planning the best use of the land available. He will want to choose the right location for new schools, new towns, new factories, motorways and so on.
2. Your teacher will have switched on an oscilloscope, showing a stationary spot on the screen, or he will probably tell you how to obtain a spot on your own. (Control Technology)
3. If the guests are staying overnight, the hostess should prepare the bedrooms beforehand. (Cookery)
4. Working surfaces in the kitchen: They must be near the sink and the cooker, must be well lit, of a reasonably large size. WHY: For the convenience of the housewife.
5. You have been to an estate agent and he has offered you a house that fits your requirements.

Consider these questions:

1. It is possible to write without supposing that all geographers are men and all housework is done by women. How?
2. As times change, the language changes too. The old word for someone elected to chair meetings was "Chairman". Women chair meetings as well as men, so the word we use nowadays is "Chairperson" or "Chair".



How would you change the names for the jobs above to make it clear that they may be done by men or women?



Number

Write out the pronoun which you would use to replace the nouns in bold in the following sentences:

1. **Jim and Darren** are brothers
2. **2. Samantha and Sarah** are sisters.
3. **The bundle and the hole** were a mystery to Samantha.
4. **Jim and Samantha** were good friends.

The pronoun you have used stands for **plural** people or things. Unlike the **singular** pronouns (he, she it), it does not change according to the gender of the noun it replaces.

Case

The nouns underlined in the sentences below can be replaced by pronouns.

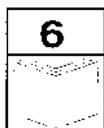
Write out the sentences, using pronouns instead of the nouns in bold.
For example: 1. *He is a nurse. I employed him.*

1. **Fred** is a nurse, I employed **Fred**.
2. **Sylvia** is a nice girl. I like **Sylvia**.
3. **Fred and Sylvia** came to tea. I entertained **Fred and Sylvia**.
4. **The book** is in the cupboard. I have found **the book**.

Answer these questions

1. Which pronouns do you use when they are the subject of the sentence?
2. Which pronouns do you use when they are the object of the sentence?
3. Which one is the same whether it is subject or object?

When nouns or pronouns change according to their function in the sentence, we call this **case**.



The Genitive Case

English nouns have one case - that is, an ending which shows what they are doing. That is the Genitive Case.

If we want to say that that plants belong to the gardener we say "the gardener's plants". We add the ending's to show possession.

(Note: This apostrophe is a great nuisance. There has always been a genitive case in English, but the apostrophe was introduced only in the seventeenth century by so-called "experts". The great playwright, George Bernard Shaw, refused to use it at all! Unfortunately most of us are not important enough to do that. We just have to learn the rules.)

Possession in English

In English we have two ways of showing that one thing belongs to another We can say:

the man's blood or **the blood of the man.**

If we choose to say **the man's blood**, we are using the **genitive case** of "man".

If we choose to say **the blood of the man**, we are using the preposition **of** to show the meaning.

The possessive phrases below are in the genitive case.

Write them out using the preposition "of" instead.



For example: *the king's head* - *the head of the king*

the teacher's desk

the beast's growling

the children's behaviour

the books' covers

the class's homework

the dogs' barking

Pronouns



Below are examples of the two ways of showing possession in English.
Work out the rule for the placing of the apostrophe.

the man's hat	the hat of the man
the earth's crust	the crust of the earth
the stars' size	the size of the stars
Jean's dress	the dress of Jean
Tess's fate	the fate of Tess
the men's decision	the decision of the men
Dickens's books	the books of Dickens
two years' work	the work of two years



Below are **of** phrases for showing possession.

Write out the genitive phrases which mean the same. Use the rule you have just worked out.

For example: the work of a moment *a moment's work*

the labour of a day

the labour of five days

the hair of Bobby

the problem of Midas

the shop of the grocer

the will of the people

the plays of Shakespeare

9

Personal Pronouns in the Dialects

The personal pronoun system of Standard English can be set out like this:

	Singular		Plural	
	Subject	Object	Subject	Object
1st person	I	me	we	us
2nd person	you	you	you	you
3rd person masculine	he	him	} they	them
feminine	she	her		
neuter	it	it		

The pronouns of the English dialects are not always the same as those of Standard English.

For instance, the Yorkshire dialect has a second person singular pronoun **thou** (pronounced "tha") and **thee**. For example: "**Tha's** a grand lad. I know **thee** well." It is used among close friends and by parents to children (but not by children to parents).

In the Black Country dialect the third person feminine singular subject pronoun is **her** (not **she**). For example, this is from a poem about a racehorse:

"The Signal draps! they'm off; by gom! an ' Kreetons's chestnut's leadin'!
Her'll win, **her'll** win! I'll bet a quid, **her's** jom full up wi' breedin'!
 Twice round they go, the third's the name, "**Her** tak's it 'asy, do '**her**?
Her comes in fust above five yards, an ' could a won by more."

Work out what the pronoun system is for the dialects in your area.

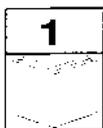
Write it out as a table like the one for Standard English



**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 9
Active and passive**

Suitable for primary school pupils? *No*



We have learned that most sentences are made up of: Subject - Verb - Object.

Divide these sentences into Subject - Verb - Object:

1. Find the **verb** (What is happening?)
2. Who or what is doing it? (Answer: **Subject**)
3. Who or what is it being done to? (Answer: **Object**)

- | | |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. Lions eat meat. | 2. Caterpillars eat cabbage. |
| 3. Sharon groomed the dog. | 4. Chris broke the window. |
| 5. The Americans dropped the bomb. | 6. Shasta likes Science. |



Active and Passive

In Academic English we are often more interested in describing what happens to something rather than who made it happen. For example, instead of saying: **The gardener sowed some lettuce seed**, we can say: **Some lettuce seed was sown** (by the gardener).

Sometimes it is a good thing for the person who did the action **not** to have his/her name mentioned. For example: **The window was broken** and **The bomb was dropped**.

Sentences where the Subject does the action are called **Active**.
Sentences where the Subject has the action done to it are called **Passive**.

These sentences are **Active**: The gardener sowed some lettuce seed.
Chris broke the window.
The Americans dropped the bomb.

These sentences are **Passive**: Some lettuce seed was sown.
The window was broken.
The bomb was dropped.

We can add the agent (the person who does the action) to Passive sentences:

Some lettuce seed was sown **by the gardener**.

The window was broken **by Chris**.

The bomb was dropped **by the Americans**.

Active and passive



Turn these sentences from Active to Passive:

1. Joe laid the table for tea.
2. Doreen mended the fuse.
3. Someone started a fire in the shed.
4. People play football all over the world.
5. Cars kill and injure people on the roads every day.
6. I lost the tin-opener.
7. The scientist allowed the rat to die.
8. Ghosts haunt the castle.
9. The police caught the burglar.
10. The government will close the factory.

Turn these sentences from Passive to Active:

1. The bunsen burner was lit (by the scientist).
2. The stage was set (by me).
3. The lamp was lit. (by my grandmother).
4. The shield was not won (by the town team).
5. The World Cup will be won (by Poland).
6. The next war will be won (by no-one).
7. Greenland must have been explored (by someone).
8. The soil is carried away (by the rivers).
9. Every year forests are cut down (by people).
10. The tap should have been turned off (by someone).



Passives in an academic text

The sentences in bold type in the text below are Active.

Rewrite them in the Passive. For example:

Active: Narrow inlets called fjords indent the coastline.

Passive: The coastline is indented by narrow inlets called fjords.

Agriculture in Western Norway

The West coast of Norway consists of high steep mountains known as the Scandinavian Highlands. **Narrow inlets called "fjords" indent the coastline. Snow covers the high plateaus or "fjellen"**, through the year. The ground descends steeply, often directly to the water's edge. There is little flat land, except for terraces, benches and deltas built up by the rivers in the millenia since the Ice Age. The climate is cold and wet, with short summers and long winters. Agriculture is difficult in such harsh conditions.

The most profitable kind of farming in these circumstances is animal farming. **Farmers can use the steep slopes** for grazing cattle in the summer months and they can keep the animals indoors in the winter. We call this system of farming "transhumance".

Under this system, **the farmers take the cattle** to pastures high on the mountainside in the summer. The farmers spend the three months of summer living in small wooden huts. These huts, called "saeter", are very simple with just a stove, bunk beds and a table.

The farmers sell the milk from the cattle to the co-operative dairy in the lowlands. **They may use mountain streams** to overcome the problem of keeping the milk fresh. **They then transport it** in churns down the mountainside by whatever means are available. This may be by overhead cable built for skiing or railway, by boats over lakes or pony and cart over rough ground.

In the winter **they keep the cattle** in large barns. **The farmers feed them on**

the fodder grown in the summer months on the terraces - hay grown and dried on the upper terraces (the "outfields"), and oats, barley and root crops on the terraces near the farms on the fjord (the "infields").

4

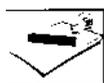
Writing up experiments

When we do an experiment in Science, we write it up afterwards. It is usual for scientists to use the passive for writing up their work.

The reason for this is that they are interested in **what happened** not in **who made it happen**.

For an experiment to be any use, anyone must be able to perform it and get the same results.

Below is an account of an experiment. The method section is written up in the Active using **we** as subject.



Rewrite this section, changing the sentences from Active to Passive. Miss out "we".

For example: *Active: We set up the experiment*

Passive: The experiment was set up

**An experiment to find the weight of a ruler using moments.
Introduction**

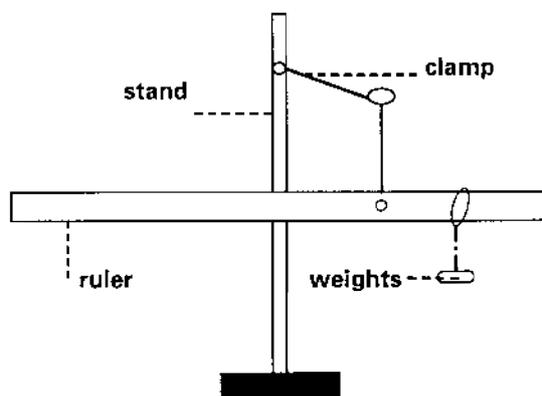
This is an experiment to find the weight of a ruler using moments.

Apparatus

Metre Ruler

0.5 Newton Weights (50g mass)

Top Pan Balance String



Method

We set up the experiment as shown in the diagram. **We suspended the ruler** at a point to one side of its centre of gravity. **We hung weights** on the shorter side of the ruler and **moved them** about until the ruler was in equilibrium, i.e. balanced. **We measured the distance between the weights and the pivot and the centre of gravity.** **We placed the weights** on the top pan balance to find their mass. **We recorded all results.**

5

Here is another account of a scientific experiment. All the verbs are Active.

Rewrite the account with the verbs in the Passive.

An experiment to find the acceleration due to gravity using the free fall method.

Introduction

This is an experiment to find the acceleration due to gravity using the free fall method.

Apparatus

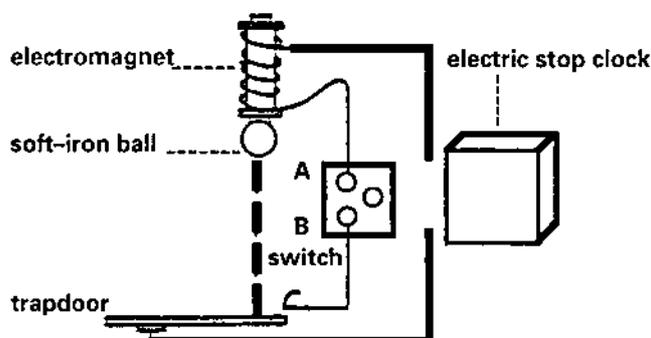
Electromagnet

Electric Stop Clock

Soft Iron Ball

Switch

Trap Door



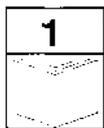
Method

We set up the apparatus as shown above and we zeroed the stop clock. We fixed the ball onto the magnet and measured the distance from the bottom of the ball to the trapdoor: we recorded this distance. We then threw the switch over to B. This dropped the ball and started the clock. We then recorded the time shown on the clock (in 100ths of a second.) We repeated this procedure until we had obtained six sets of results. We checked each height three times to find an average value for S .

**Part 2 Grammar:
From words to simple sentences**

**Chapter 10
Negatives**

Suitable for primary school pupils? *Some of it*



(1) Verbs

We have seen that verbs may be past or present. They may also be positive or negative.

The verbs in these sentences are positive:

The cheese **was** mouldy.

The team **practises** every Tuesday.

Will she **look** silly?

Can they **be** quite sure?

Feed the ducks!

The verbs in these sentences are negative:

The cheese **wasn't** mouldy.

The team **doesn't** practise every Tuesday.

Won't she **look** silly?

Why **can** they **not** be quite sure?

Don't feed the ducks!



What is the negative word in each of the sentences above?

How do we turn a positive verb into a negative verb

when the sentence is a statement?

when the sentence is a question?

when the sentence is a command?

When the verb is **can**, **will** or part of the verb **to be**?



(2) Other negative words

Adjectives:

We can make **nouns** negative by putting the adjective **no** in front of them.

For example, instead of saying:

Words **cannot** express my astonishment.

we can say: **No** words can express my astonishment.

Pronouns:

We also have negative **pronouns**:

no-one nobody nothing none.

Adverbs:

We find negative **adverbs**:

never nowhere not at all



Make the sentences on the opposite page negative by using a negative adjective, pronoun or adverb.

Are there any differences in the meanings, when you have changed the negative words?

3

Double negatives

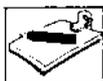
In most languages and in most dialects of English two negatives make a statement still more negative.

Standard English is the exception. In Standard English two negatives make a positive.

For example: **Nobody went nowhere.**

In the English dialects this means: **Nobody went anywhere.**

In Standard English this means: **Everybody went somewhere.**



Rewrite the dialect sentences below in Standard English:

I never told nobody.

I didn't touch nothing.

Never say nothing!

He can't remember nothing.



If you know one or more languages other than English, consider whether it uses the double negative with positive or negative meaning.

Tricky negatives

Below you will find sentences with negative words. Which of the statements below each one **a**, **b** or **c** means nearly the same?

For example: 1. *b*

1. She was in no way prepared for this experience.
 - a. She was prepared for this experience.
 - b. She was not at all prepared for this experience.
 - c. She was prepared for this experience to some extent.
2. Few of the children had never been to the seaside before.
 - a. Most of the children had been to the seaside before.
 - b. Most of the children had not been to the seaside before.
 - c. many of the children had been to the seaside before.
3. The shopkeeper will scarcely want to give evidence.
 - a. The shopkeeper will want to give evidence.
 - b. Few shopkeepers want to give evidence.
 - c. The shopkeeper will not want to give evidence.
4. Only if something unexpected happens, shall we not see you in the New Year.
 - a. We shall see you in the New Year certainly.
 - b. We shall probably see you in the New Year.
 - c. We may possibly see you in the New Year.
5. Not the least of the advantages of using steel was the saving in weight.
 - a. The main advantage of using steel was that it saved weight.
 - b. The least important advantage of using steel was that it saved weight.
 - c. A very important advantage of using steel was that it saved weight.
6. The lack of sunshine prevents the growth of crops on a large scale.
 - a. No crops can be grown because of the lack of sunshine.
 - b. A lot of crops can be grown in spite of the lack of sunshine.
 - c. Some crops can be grown in spite of the lack of sunshine.

Tricky negatives

- 7.** Hardly had they got used to the shortage of books, when the paper ran out,
- a. They had not got used to the shortage of books, when the paper ran out.
 - b. They had not quite got used to the shortage of books, when the paper ran out.
 - c. They had just got used to the shortage of books, when the paper ran out.
- 8.** She never had nothing to grumble about. (Standard English meaning)
- a. She always had something to grumble about.
 - b. She never had anything to grumble about.
 - c. She rarely had nothing to grumble about.
- 9.** We rarely fail to send one another postcards.
- a. We always send one another postcards.
 - b. We nearly always send one another postcards.
 - c. We very seldom send one another postcards.
- 10.** Unless you don't want to do it, I'll make sure you're given the job.
- a. If you want to do it, I'll make sure you're given the job.
 - b. If you don't want to do it, I'll make sure you're given the job.
 - c. Unless you want to do it, I'll make sure you're not given the job.

Part 3
Grammar:
From simple to complex sentences

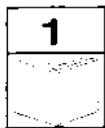
Chapter 11
Conjunctions

Note:

The National Curriculum for English does not include the material in the next four chapters.

It is, however, part of the curriculum for teachers in training. The chapters have been written to meet their need for a basic understanding of how clauses combine to form sentences.

Suitable for primary school pupils? *No*



Conjunctions

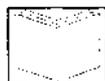
You have already learned six **parts of speech**: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions.

Conjunctions are another part of speech.

The name **conjunction** means **joining-word** . (Latin: con - with, together; jugere, junctum - to join).

Conjunctions join together words and groups of words.

There are two kinds: (a) co-ordinating and (b) subordinating



(a) Co-ordinating conjunctions

There are only three co-ordinating conjunctions: **and**, **or** and **but**.

1. Joining words

2.

Co-ordinating conjunctions join together **words** of the same kind. The words are always the same part of speech. For example:

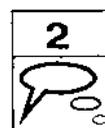
She was **poor** but **honest**, (adjectives) Phyllis will **sing** or **dance**, (verbs)
Joan and **Gareth** (nouns) work together **quickly** and **happily**.(adverbs).



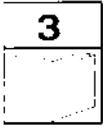
Complete the sentences below by adding a suitable word after "or", "and" or "but":

1. They are rich but
2. Mervyn runs and
3. Carry the candles slowly and
4. You can help or
5. Teachers and in this school work very hard.
6. He walked up and

What part of speech is each of the words you have added?



Conjunctions



2. Joining phrases

Co-ordinating conjunctions also join together **phrases** which are of the same kind. For example:

We walk the dog **in the morning** and **in the evening**, (adverb phrases)

The little boat in the harbour and **the big boat out on the sea** belong to me. (noun phrases)

Do you want the hats **with feathers** or **with pompoms**? (adjective phrases)



Complete the sentences below by adding a suitable phrase after "or", "and" or "but". You will find some phrases in the box below.

1. Would you like your supper **before the film** or
2. I could see **some stuffed birds in cages** and
3. He planted daffodils not **in the garden** but
4. I like the pony **with a rough coat** and
5. **In the woods** andthe cries of the owls could be heard.
6. **Children with flags** andlined the route of the parade.

with sad brown eyes	some old books with leather bindings
grown-ups with funny hats	at bedtime
in pots	by the lake



What kind of phrase have you added in each case?

5

3. Joining sentences

We use *co-ordinating conjunctions* to join together simple sentences.

The opening of this story consists of simple sentences.

Anwar woke up. He lay quietly in bed. He heard a strange noise. He was not afraid. It might have been a cat on the roof. It could have been a mouse under the floorboards.

We can use the co-ordinating conjunctions **and**, **or** and **but** to join together these simple sentences:

Anwar woke up **and** he lay quietly in bed. He heard a strange noise **but** he was not afraid. It might have been a cat on the roof **or** it could have been a mouse under the floorboards.

Clauses

We call each of the simple sentences which make up the compound sentence a **clause**. There are two clauses in each of the compound sentences in the story in the box above.

Co-ordinate clauses

The name **co-ordinating** comes from Latin, **co - with, together; ordinare - to rank**. Co-ordinating conjunctions join together words, phrases and sentences **of the same rank or level**. We call them **co-ordinate clauses**.

Compound sentences

We call sentences like those above **compound sentences**.

The story below is written in simple sentences. Rewrite it, using co-ordinating conjunctions to form some compound sentences with two or more co-ordinate clauses in each.

The princess was very sad. She moped around the castle. Her parents tried to cheer her up. Nothing had any effect. Perhaps she was ill. Perhaps she had a broken heart.



(b) Subordinating conjunctions

These also join together simple sentences.

The co-ordinating conjunctions **and**, **but** and **or** do not add much meaning to the clauses they join.

The subordinating conjunctions add very important meanings. For example:

Anwar woke up **because** he heard a noise. (**Because** tells us the **reason** Anwar woke up.)

Although he was afraid, he tiptoed downstairs. (**Although** tells us that it was **in spite of** the fact that he was afraid.)

He ran back upstairs **when** he saw the burglar. (**When** tells us the **time** he ran back upstairs.)

There are a great many subordinating conjunctions. For example:

because, while, since, so, before, after, if, unless, although, that, when, yet, as

Subordinate clauses

The name **subordinating** comes from Latin: **sub - under; jugere, junctum - to join.**

Unlike co-ordinating conjunctions, subordinating conjunctions join clauses which are not of the same rank.

A clause beginning with a subordinating conjunction is a **subordinate clause** - that is, it cannot stand alone but is dependent on another clause.

For example: Anwar woke up **because he heard a noise**. The subordinate clause **because he heard a noise** cannot stand alone - there has to be another clause that it is the reason for (in this case - why Anwar woke up.)

Complex sentences

A sentence which contains a subordinate clause is called a complex sentence. The story below consists of three complex sentences. Each sentence has two clauses joined by a subordinating conjunction.

Anwar woke up **because** he heard a noise. **Although** he was afraid, he tiptoed downstairs. He ran back upstairs **when** he saw the burglar.



Using subordinating conjunctions

In the next two chapters we shall study the kinds of sentences and clauses which we can form with the use of subordinating conjunctions. For the moment we shall practise using them to join simple sentences.

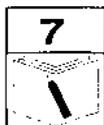
Time conjunctions

In the box are some conjunctions which give the time:

before	after	since	as soon as	when
until	once	as	while	

Use them to fill the gaps in the sentences below:

1. Ranjit was allowed to ride his bikehe passed his test.
2. Ranjit was not allowed to ride his bikehe had passed his test.
3. Ranjit was very happy,he cycled off with his friends.
4. Margaret heard the whistleshe was running.
5. Margaret knew she was lateshe woke up.
6. Margaret had wanted to play netball for the school, she was a little girl.

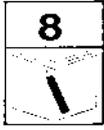


Order of clauses

We can re-order the sentences above. For example:

After he passed his test, Ranjit was allowed to ride his bike.

Rewrite the sentences above, starting with the conjunction.



Condition

A very important joining-word is **if**. It is the way we introduce the condition which applies if something is to happen.



Match the sentences in column 2 below with a suitable clause of condition from column 1.

1

- 1.If we had some money,
- 2.If the baby wakes,
- 3.If Farad gets married, (
- 4.If you go out in the dark,
- 5.If you change the air pressure,
- 6.If I had my way, (
- 7.If she practises the piano.

2

- (a) we'll all go to the wedding.
- (b) take a torch.
- c) we all wear ear-plugs.
- (d) we'd share the housework.
- (e) change his nappy.
- f) the temperature at which water boils also changes.
- (g) we could buy Christmas presents.

9

Fill in the gaps in the texts below. For example: 1. (1) *but*.

The words you will need are given above the texts (but not in the right order).

1. and but if so that

Modern table settings are usually fairly simple,...(1)...care is needed to ensure that cutlery, dishes, etc. are ready to hand ...(2)... that the food is easily served ...(3)... looks attractive and appetizing. Much time and labour can be saved ...(4)... everything is planned. Linen, china and cutlery should be stored, ...(5)... they are easily available.

2. and before until when

Food is any substance which, ...(1)... swallowed, provides the body with material which enables it to function. Food does not become part of the body ...(2)... cannot fulfil any of its functions...(3)...it has entered the bloodstream through the walls of the digestive tract. ...(4)...this absorption into the bloodstream can take place, the food must be converted into simple soluble substances.

3. and because if until when

a)An iron ship floats ...(1)... it displaces a large amount of water...(2)...the pressure of the surrounding water exerts a large upthrust on it. ...(3)...a ship weighs 100 million newton, then it must sink into the water ...(4)... it displaces 100 million newton of water.

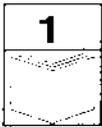
b)...(5)...your teacher can supply you with a balloon filled with hydrogen, tie a long piece of string to it ...(6)... then cut off bits of string ...(7)...the balloon just floats in mid-air. What happens ...(8)... you take it into a colder room? Why?

Part 3
Grammar:
From simple to complex sentences

Chapter 12
Kinds of sentence

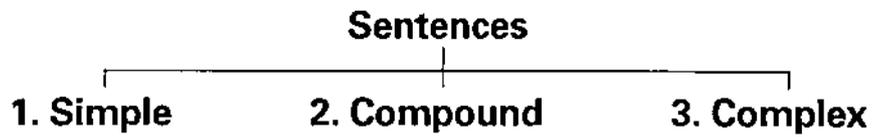
Suitable for primary school children?

No



Kinds of sentence

There are three kinds of sentence:



We shall consider each kind in turn:

Revision: simple sentences

We first learned about simple sentences in Chapter 4.

A simple sentence has the structure:

	Subject	Verb (Object)	(Adverbs)
For example:	Lions	growl.		
	Lions	eat	meat.	
	Lions	eat	meat	ravenously.

Make four columns as above:



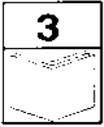
	Subject	Verb	(Object)	(Adverbs)
--	----------------	-------------	-----------------	------------------

Put the parts of the following sentences under the columns:

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>1. Fishes swim.</p> <p>2. Haroun swims badly.</p> <p>3. The stem supports the flower.</p> <p>4. I love my little cat.</p> | <p>5. She respects her grandfather very much.</p> <p>6. Suddenly the dam burst.</p> <p>7. I shall take the letters to the post in the morning.</p> <p>8. The dog with the loud bark has died.</p> |
|--|---|



Which parts of the sentence are obligatory? Which are optional?



Kinds of simple sentence

The examples above are only one kind of simple sentence - the **statement**.

There are three other kinds:

Question:

For example: Does Haroun swim well? How does Haroun swim?

Command:

For example: Take the letters to the post!

Exclamation

For example: Oh dear! That old dog has died! What a shame!



What are the grammatical differences between these four kinds of sentence?

For example, what does each begin with?



Punctuation

We punctuate each sentence according to whether it is a statement, a question, a command or an exclamation.

Punctuate the following sentences with a full-stop, question- mark or exclamation mark:

- | | |
|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1. The stem supports the flower | 6. Can you open this bottle |
| 2. What does the stem support | 7. Pick up your litter |
| 3. Read this book today | 8. Mind your manners |
| 4. Never | 9. Over my dead body |
| 5. Do you like cats | 10. In the night the owls come out |



Learning to punctuate

All teachers know that the most difficult point of punctuation for children to learn to use properly is the full-stop.

There is no problem in punctuating simple sentences like the above. The problem comes when pupils start writing compound and complex sentences.

The reason is that the unit of speech is the clause. The sentence is the unit of the written language.

We have seen that simple sentences consist of a single clause. Compound and complex sentences consist of two or more clauses.

In speech we use intonation patterns (the stresses and ups and downs of our voices) to indicate the relationship between clauses.

In writing we lose these subtle and complex aids to understanding. That is why we have to use conjunctions and punctuation marks to help our reader understand the connections between clauses.

For example, the story below consists of simple sentences only.

Marmaduke lost the key to the shed.

He had been thinking about something else.

It had fallen out of his pocket.

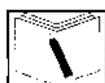
He was panic-stricken.

Everybody's Christmas presents were in the shed.

If we were telling somebody the story, the intonation pattern would show our listener not only the connection between the sentences but also how we felt about it.



Read the story aloud with full expression.

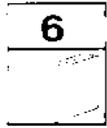


From speech to writing

In writing we are left with the bare words. So we use conjunctions and punctuation to assist our reader. For example:

Marmaduke lost the key to the shed, **because** it had fallen out of his pocket **while** he was thinking of something else. Everybody's Christmas presents were in the shed **and** he was panic-stricken.

This is only one way of joining these simple sentences. Join them in other ways, using some different conjunctions.



Sentences with more than one clause

These are of two kinds - compound and complex. We shall deal with each in turn.

Compound sentences

A compound sentence consists of two or more clauses joined together by a co-ordinating conjunction (**and**, **but** or **or**).

We constructed some of these in the previous chapter. For example:

The princess was very sad and (she) moped around the castle.
Her parents tried to cheer her up but nothing had any effect.
Perhaps she was ill or perhaps she had a broken heart.

This consists of three compound sentences.



Join the groups of simple sentences below into compound sentences using co-ordinating conjunctions.

1. Jules is tired of working for other people. He wants to set up his own business. He needs someone to help him.
2. For my birthday I may go to the theatre. I may have a party for my friends. I may just sneak off for a quiet day alone.
3. Can you type? Can you do shorthand? Are these skills no use in the world of computers?

7

Complex sentences

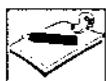
Compound sentences consist of two or more clauses joined together by **subordinating conjunctions**.

We constructed some of these in the previous chapter. For example:

Anwar woke up **because** he heard a noise. **Although** he was afraid, he tiptoed downstairs. He ran back upstairs **when** he saw the burglar.

Other subordinating conjunctions are:

while	since	so	before	after
although	unless	that	yet	as if



Use some of them to turn the following groups of simple sentences into complex sentences:

Reg was angry. His car would not start. It had been serviced the day before.

You will not get lost. You can read a map. It is quite foggy on the hills.

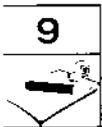
I have loved reading. I was given "Swallows and Amazons" as a child. I now give children books for their birthdays.

Kinds of sentence



Say whether each of the following sentences is simple, compound or complex.

1. At the next peg the Queen turned again.
2. Alice looked again and the Queen had disappeared.
3. Alice remembered that she was a pawn.
4. When Alice looked around, the Queen was gone.
5. The idea quite took her breath away at first.
6. Alice was quite upset because she had forgotten everything that she had ever known.
7. Alice got up and (she) curtsayed and (she) sat down again.
8. So with this excuse she ran down the hill.

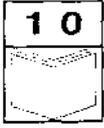


What is a sentence?

What we all need to be able to do is to recognise a sentence and punctuate it appropriately.

Which of the following groups of words are sentences?

1. Turning away from the fair
2. Alan turned away from the fair
3. When Julie had finished her task
4. When Julie had finished her task, it was already dark
5. People and places and things
6. I can't see because you
7. Because you are between me and the light, I can't see



Sentence adverbs

These are very useful words. Examples are:

However moreover nevertheless fortunately first therefore

These make a link between sentences, but they do not join them together grammatically. For example:

Diamonds are very beautiful stones. **However**, their value lies more in their rarity than in their beauty.

Shamala is interested in designing clothes. **Moreover**, she hopes to open her own business.

Insert a sentence adverb into each of the spaces below:

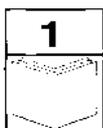
1. He is very rich, he is very mean.
2. It is important to make sure that the apparatus is safe ,
check the plug.
3. Reg had used that garage for many years, the car had
been serviced only the day before.
4. People who buy lottery tickets hope to win a fortune,
only a very few win a substantial sum.
5. I lost my season ticket yesterday....., it only had a couple of
days to run.

**Part 3 Grammar:
From simple to complex sentences**

**Chapter 13
Kinds of clause**

Suitable for primary school children?

No



Kinds of clause

Revision: kinds of sentence

In the previous chapter we studied the three different kinds of sentence: simple, compound and complex.

Match the kind of sentence with its definition.

Kind of sentence	Definition
1. simple	(a) two or more clauses linked by subordinating conjunctions
2. compound	(b) a single clause
3. complex	(c) two or more clauses linked by co-ordinating conjunctions (and, or or but)

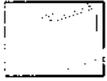
In this chapter we shall study the different types of clauses.

Major and minor clauses

In this chapter we shall study **major clauses**. (We shall examine minor clauses in the next chapter.)

A **major clause** has a **verb** with a **subject**.

There are several kinds of major clauses and we shall look at each kind in turn.



Main clauses

Every sentence, of whatever kind, must have at least one main clause. A main clause can stand alone.

A simple sentence consists of a main clause only. For example:

Lions eat meat.

A compound sentence consists of two or more main clauses joined by co-ordinating conjunctions. For example:

Lions eat meat but they do not usually hunt alone.

Each of the clauses in the above sentence can stand alone.

A complex sentence consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. For example:

Lions do not usually hunt alone, unless they are separated from the pride.



Main clauses can be statements, questions or commands.

Find the main clause (s) in the sentences below:

1. We could not find the key to the shed, because Marmaduke had lost it.
2. When he found that he had lost the key, Marmaduke was panic-stricken.
3. Marmaduke is very forgetful but everybody likes him.
4. If we don't find the key, the children will be very upset, because they won't get their Christmas presents.
5. Will you put the food out if we help you?
6. Stir the sauce when it begins to thicken.
7. Don't open the door unless you know who's there.
8. Who was on the phone when I came in?
9. If you're in any doubt, keep the door locked.
10. Because she was asleep, we tiptoed out and (we) closed the door.

Subordinate clauses

Lions do not usually hunt alone, unless they are separated from the pack.

The main clause in this sentence is **Lions do not usually hunt alone**.

The second clause **unless they are separated from the pack** is a clause joined to the main clause by the subordinating conjunction **unless**. This clause cannot stand alone. It depends on (or is **subordinate** to) the main clause - it gives the condition for the action in the main clause.

Subordinate clauses are of three kinds: **adverb, noun and adjective**.

We shall study each kind of subordinate clause in turn.

1. Adverb clauses:

Adverb clauses, like adverbs, answer questions about the verb. There are many different questions which can be answered. Here are a few examples:

1. *Question:* **When** did Marmaduke lose the key?

Answer: While he was thinking about something else.

This tells us the **time** he lost the key.

2. *Question:* **Why** did Marmaduke lose the key?

Answer: Because it dropped out of his pocket.

This tells us the **reason** he lost the key.

3. *Question:* Under what **conditions** would we find the key?

Answer: If we looked for it.

4. *Question:* For what purpose were the presents locked in the shed?

Answer: So that the children would not find them.

5. *Question:* **In spite of** what were the presents safe? (**concession**)

Answer: Although Marmaduke had lost the key to the shed.

Kinds of clause



Add an adverbial clause to the main clauses below, answering the question in brackets:

1. Marmaduke was horrified (why?)
2.the Queen had gone, (when?)
3. Everyone liked Marmaduke (in spite of what?)
4. We ate very little. (for what purpose?)
5. Alice grew larger (under what conditions?)
6. Marmaduke could remember things under what conditions?)
7. Alice was very surprised (why?)
8. Marmaduke lost the key (when?)

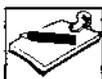


2. Noun clauses

We most often use noun clauses to say what people say or think or feel. For example:

Alice said **that she wanted to be a queen.**

Marmaduke felt **that he had been very foolish.**



Add a suitable noun clause to each of the main clauses below:

1. We decided
2. No-one knew
3. Alice hoped
4. Her father grumbled



Introducing noun clauses

All the noun clauses above have been introduced by the subordinating conjunction **that**.

Noun clauses may also be introduced by the **question words: why, when, what** etc. For example:

She asked **why** we wanted the key.

I know **how** we can get over the fence.

We found out **where** he had lost the key.

Functions of noun clauses in the sentence

All the noun clauses above are the **direct object** of the verb in the main clause.

This is the most common use of noun clauses. Noun clauses can, however, occupy other positions in the sentence. For example:

Subject: **That she wanted to be queen** was Alice's ambition.

Complement: Her idea was **that they should go on the bus.**

After a preposition: Give me an idea of **what you are thinking.**

Kinds of clause



There are some noun clauses in the box below. Fit each of them into one of the gaps in the sentences underneath.

where he has disappeared to	that it was the end	
that you are guilty	that the case is now closed	how to start the engine
how he will take it	who stole the treasure	what he told the police

For example: 1. *that it was the end*

1. We all decided (object)
2. is quite baffling. (subject)
3. I am very doubtful about (after a preposition)
4. No-one believes..... (object)
5. The fact is (complement)
6. Show me (object)
7.is anybody's guess. (subject)
8. We have no knowledge of (object)

5



3. Adjective clauses

Relative pronouns

Adjective clauses are introduced not with a conjunction but with a relative pronoun.

(The word **relative** in this sense means **joining** from Latin: re - back; ferro, latum - to carry.)

For example:

This is the key, **which** Marmaduke lost.

The person **who** lost the key got into a lot of trouble,

The presents **that** were in the shed were quite safe.

These complex sentences come from the simple sentences:

This is **the key**. Marmaduke lost **the key**.

The person got into a lot of trouble. **The person** lost the key.

The presents were quite safe. **The presents** were in the shed.



Join the following pairs of sentences, using a relative pronoun.

1. Gervaise is very ambitious. He wants to run his own business.
2. The book has disappeared. I put it on the table.
3. The doctor felt the patient's pulse. It was very slow.
4. The film is very frightening. I saw it last night.

Kinds of clause

6

Using adjective clauses

Adjective clauses act as adjectives - that is, they describe nouns. For example:

At the next peg the Queen, **who had never stopped talking**, turned again.

The clause **who had never stopped talking** is an adjective clause describing the queen.



Below are some simple sentences. In the box underneath are some adjective clauses.

Add a suitable adjective clause to describe the noun in bold in each of the sentences below:

For example: 1. (b)

1. The shed had been locked.
2. The Christmas presents were quite safe.
3. This is the key
4. Marmaduke should not have been given the key.
5. The drink made Alice grow very large.
6. The cake made her shrink again.

(a) that she nibbled at	(b) where we had hidden the presents
(c) who is very absent-minded	(d) which was on the table
(e) that Marmaduke lost	(f) that the children were looking forward to

7

**Divide the sentences below into clauses and say what each kind is:
Start by finding the verbs and their subjects.**

1. The King ran wildly up and down, while the rest of the party went back to the game.
2. Maybe it is the pepper that makes people so savage.
3. The Queen said that the Duchess was in prison.
4. When I am a Duchess, I won't have any pepper in my kitchen at all.
5. The executioner argued that you couldn't cut off a head if there wasn't a body.
6. What the Queen said was nonsense.
7. The Queen's argument was, that if something wasn't done about it in less than no time she'd have everybody executed, all round.
8. It was this last remark that had made the whole party look so grave and anxious.

**Part 3 Grammar:
From simple to complex sentences**

**Chapter 14
Minor clauses**

Suitable for primary school children?

No



Minor clauses

Major clauses

So far we have considered only major clauses - that is clauses which have a verb with a subject. There are three major clauses in this sentence:

Marmaduke lost the key to the shed, because it had fallen out of his pocket while he was thinking of something else.

<u>Subject</u>	<u>Verb</u>	<u>Object</u>	<u>Adverb</u>
Marmaduke	lost	the key to the shed	
it	had fallen		out of his pocket
he	was thinking of	something else	

Minor clauses

Minor clauses have a verb but no subject. For example:

Thinking about something else. Marmaduke lost the key to the shed.

We hunted high and low to find the key.

Cycling in the mountains is a strenuous sport.

We found a rabbit caught in a trap.

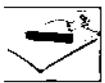


Finite and non-finite verbs

We call verbs which have a subject **finite verbs**. Verbs without a subject are called **non-finite verbs**.

In the examples above, **lost**, **had fallen** and **was thinking** are finite verbs (with the subjects: **Marmaduke**, **it** and **he**). They form part of major clauses.

Thinking, **to find**, **cycling** and **caught** are non-finite verbs. They have no subjects and form part of minor clauses.

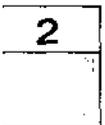
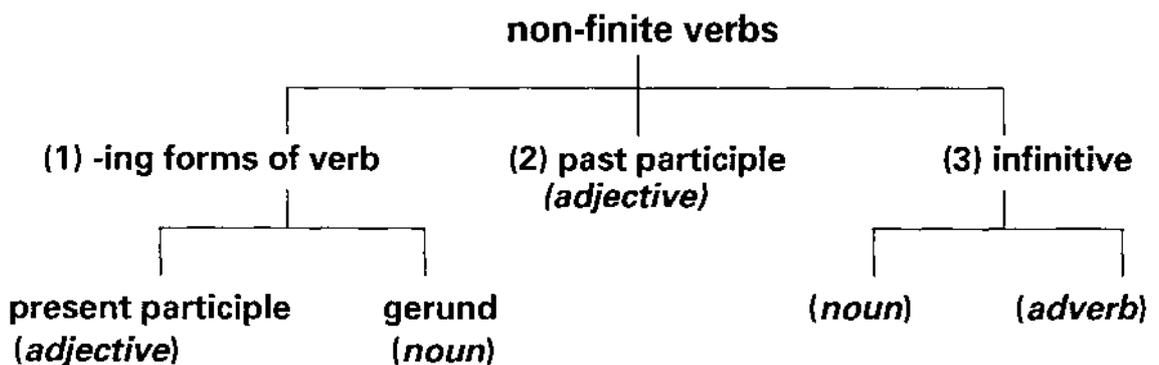


Find the verbs in the clauses below. Say whether each verb is finite or non-finite.

- (1) I found my brother (2) flying a kite.
- (3) She checked the door again (4) to make sure (5) that it was locked.
- (6) His favourite pastime is (7) playing chess.
- (8) With closed eyes (9) she imagined (10) that she was far away.
- (9)

Kinds of non-finite verbs

There are several kinds of non-finite verbs:





(1) -ing forms of the verb

For example: flying playing closing thinking

(a) Present participle.

This is used as part of a finite verb to form the continuous tenses. For example:

She is **thinking** hard. They were **laughing** at something.

We will be **reading** our Christmas cards.

It is also used on its own as an adjective. For example:

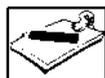
It is **closing** time. I need more **washing** powder. He takes **sleeping** pills.

Minor clause with present participle

It is used as part of a minor clause acting as an adjective. For example:

I found my brother **flying a kite in the field**.

Running for the bus, he tripped up.



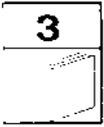
Join the following pairs of sentences by turning the second verb into the present participle:

For example: We could see the sea. We **opened** the window .

Opening the window, we could see the sea.

1. That is the best picture. The picture **hangs** on the wall opposite.
2. He made a bad mistake. He **rushed** to finish his homework.
3. We trained every night. We **hoped** to finish first.
4. I have a book. The book explains the subject.
5. She is very busy on Fridays. She **collects** her money.

Minor clauses



(b) Gerund.

For example: **Jogging** is good for you.

We love **skiing**.

We can use the gerund in any slot in the clause where we would use a noun.



Fill the spaces in the sentences below with a suitable gerund:

1. is my favourite pastime. (subject)
2. He loves (object)
3. She hopes to succeed by (after a preposition)
4. We were punished for (after a preposition)
5. I once tried (object)
6. is no use to anyone. (subject)
7. My least favourite sport is (complement)



Minor clause with gerund

The gerund can form part of a minor clause. For example:

Jogging round the park every day is good for you.

We love **skiing in the winter**.

Take the sentences to which you added a gerund above and use the gerund to make a minor clause.

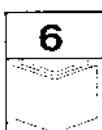
For example: **Swimming** is my favourite pastime.

Swimming half a mile every day is my favourite pastime.



5 In the sentences below there a number of -ing forms. Say which are present participles and which are gerunds:

1. I hate staying in in bad weather.
2. She could see someone coming through the hedge.
3. Do you enjoy staying up late?
4. Overlooking the park, the flat was very desirable.
5. Eating too much is bad for you.



(2) The past participle

For example: played jogged caught swum

We use this form of the verb to form some tenses of the verb including the passive.

For example: The game was **played** in spite of the snow.

Measles can be **caught** very easily.

We can also use it on its own as an adjective. For example:

a **lost** ball **stuffed** toy a **valued** opinion the **scratched** table

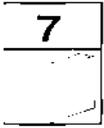
Fill the spaces in the sentences below with one of these past participles:



borrowed closed stifled stolen torn

1. We found thebike in the shed.
2. I hate a book withpages.
3. We knocked on thedoor in vain.
4. He greeted the news with ayawn.
5. I had to go to the party in adress.

Minor clauses



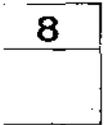
Minor clause with past participle

The past participle can also form part of a minor clause. For example:

We looked everywhere for the ball **lost in the park**.

Take the sentences above in which you inserted a past participle and use the past participle to make a minor clause.

For example: We found the bike **stolen last Wednesday** in the shed.



(3) The infinitive

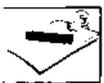
This is the part of the verb which has **to** in front of it. For example:

to jog to write to lose

We use it in two ways:

(a) As a noun.

For example: I like **to swim**. **To swim** is good for the heart.



Insert a suitable infinitive into each of the spaces in the sentences below:

1. 1. He wants (object)
2.can be dangerous. (subject)
3. Mary hopes (object)
4. Your best chance is (complement)
5.is not a good idea. (subject)

Minor clauses with infinitive

The infinitive can also be used as part of a minor clause. For example:

I like to **swim in the sea**.

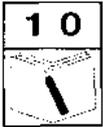
To swim several lengths a day is good for the heart.



9

Take the sentences above to which you added an infinitive and use it to make a minor clause.

For example: He wants to study. He wants to study Engineering.



10

(b) As an adverb expressing purpose.

For example:

He baited the trap **to catch the mice.**

Add to the following sentences a minor clause beginning with an infinitive which tells us the purpose of the main action:

1. She came home early
2. He ran
3. I came over here
4. I am willing to send the book back to the Library.
5. . I studied hard

Part 4

Discourse

From sentences to text

Chapter 15

Writing stories

Note:

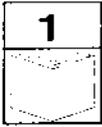
The material of this chapter is not part of the National Curriculum from Primary School teachers in training.

It is included here for two reasons:

1. It completes the levels of language - how sentences combine to form texts.
2. It is easy for teachers and pupils to benefit directly from. The structure studied here applies to non-narrative as well as narrative texts.

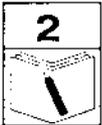
Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Stories

All human beings tell stories. When we are children, we enjoy stories like *Cinderella* and *Jack and the Beanstalk*. Later we enjoy stories on film and television - like *Coronation Street* or *Neighbours*.



What is a story?

Not all the sentences that people string together are stories. But we all know what is a story and what is something else.

Read each of the short passages labelled A - F below. Some are stories and some are not.

Write the Letters A - F on your paper. Put a tick against those passages which you think are stories. Put a cross against those which are not stories.

A

Pete's school had a strict rule that everyone had to turn up to PE. lessons with the correct kit. The PE. teacher was very fierce and Pete always made sure that he had his kit with him on PE. days. One day Pete's kit was with the rest of the family wash in the machine when disaster struck. The door wouldn't open! There was no way he could get his kit out ready for the lesson, so Pete's mother wrote a note to the PE. teacher explaining what had happened. To Pete's relief the teacher laughed and sent him to spend the PE. lesson in the library.

B.

Rula hated crossing the park. It was nice to be out in the fresh air, but there were dogs who ran after her and barked. Worst of all, her particular enemies would lie in wait for her there.

C. Autumn is a sad time of year. The leaves, which have been green and red and yellow, fall off the trees and lie brown and sodden in the gutters. The nights get longer and we know that soon we shall be getting up in the dark.

D. Narbal and Rihta had found the treasure of the Black Pirate and were trying to get home with it. They were resting in the deserted cottage but realised their enemies had discovered them. There were armed men all round the house and even on the roof. In a moment they would break in and kill them. Then Rihta cried: "There's a loose board here." Narbal prised it up and they saw a dusty ladder leading into an underground chamber. Rihta and Narbal scrambled down it and pulled the board in place above them. Out of the chamber was a stone passageway leading away from the house. "We're saved!" whispered Narbal.

E. I am afraid of fireworks, so I stay in on Bonfire Night. I hear the bangers and the smell gets in even through my closed windows. I hate Bonfire Night.

F. Amber's father was away at the war. Amber missed him very much. The other children were too little to remember him well, but Amber and her mother felt the house very empty without him. When the war ended, Amber's father came home. All the family were overjoyed.



1. Consider why the ones you have chosen are stories and the others are not. In other words, what makes a story?



2. Consider the passages which you decided were not stories. What do you think they were?

3

The structure of stories

If you look again at the passages that are stories (A,D and F), you will see that

they all have a four-part structure. For example:

1. Pete's school had a strict rule that everyone had to turn up to PE. lessons with the correct kit. The P.E. teacher was very fierce and Pete always made sure he had his kit with him on PE. days.

2. One day Pete's kit was with the rest of the family wash in the machine, when disaster struck. The door wouldn't open! There was no way he could get his kit out ready for the lesson,

3. so Pete's mother wrote a note to the PE. teacher explaining what had happened.

4. To Pete's relief the teacher laughed and sent him to spend the PE. lesson in the library.

We can label the four parts of the story structure as follows:

- 1. Situation:** Pete's school had a strict rule that everyone had to turn up to PE. lessons with the correct kit. The PE. teacher was very fierce and Pete always made sure he had his kit with him on PE. days.
- 2. Problem:** One day Pete's kit was with the rest of the family wash in the machine, when disaster struck. The door wouldn't open! There was no way he could get his kit out ready for the lesson,
- 3. Solution:** so Pete's mother wrote a note to the PE. teacher explaining what had happened.
- 4. Outcome:** To Pete's relief the teacher laughed and sent him to spend the PE. lesson in the library.



The story about Narbal and Rihta can be labelled in the same way.

Write on your paper the headings below. (Leave several lines below each heading.)

Situation

Problem

Solution

Outcome

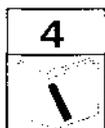
Write out the four parts of Story D under the appropriate headings:

- D.** Narbal and Rihta had found the treasure of the Black Pirate and were trying to get home with it. They were resting in the deserted cottage /but realised their enemies had discovered them. There were armed men all round the house and even on the roof. In a moment they would break in and kill them. /Then Rihta cried: "There's a loose board here." Narbal prised it up and they saw a dusty ladder leading into an underground chamber. Rihta and Narbal scrambled down it and pulled the board in place above them. Out of the chamber was a stone passageway leading away from the house. / "We're saved!" whispered Narbal.



Write out the same headings, and under them the four parts of story F. (Note that a part may consist of more than one sentence or only part of a sentence.)

- F.** Amber's father was away at the war. Amber missed him very much. The other children were too little to remember him well, but Amber and her mother felt the house very empty without him. When the war ended, Amber's father came home. All the family were overjoyed.



Order in stories

- 1 Below are some simple four-part stories.
The parts are in the wrong order, however.

On your paper write:

Situation

Problem

Solution

Outcome

Write the number of each part next to the headings, so that the parts are in the correct order.

- A. 1. Sheila wanted to go to a party. It was her best friend's eighteenth birthday and everyone would be there.
2. Her sister was in a good mood and lent her a very trendy one. Sheila was the best-dressed person there!
3. She asked her sister to lend her a dress.
4. She hadn't got a suitable dress. She had spilt glue on her old one and it wouldn't come off.
- B. 1. Nearly all the tinned food had gone.
2. so that there would be a crop for her to eat later in the year.
3. After the war Margot was the only person left alive in the valley.
4. However, there was still a big sack of potatoes. Margot decided to plant some,
- C. 1. Joan's mum had a favourite teapot.
2. Their mother was angry with him and not Joan.
3. Her brother told their mother he had been tickling Joan and made her drop the teapot.
4. One day Joan was dusting the mantelpiece and dropped the precious pot. It broke into several pieces.



Read aloud to one another the stories you have just put in order.



Check that they sound right.

Telling and writing stories

Although some people have a lot of good ideas, they write poor stories because they do not realise their readers expect a certain pattern. The work you have done in this chapter will help you write better stories.

There are also differences between **telling** a story and **writing** a story. For example, when you are telling a story to a friend, you do not always have to start with the Situation, because your friend already knows the background to the story. You might begin: "Do you know what she said today?" And it is very likely that your friend will know who **she** is.

You never know who is going to read what you write, so you have to make the Situation very clear at the beginning. So you will have to write very clearly who she is. (For instance: *Our teacher, Miss Scattergood, is well-known for her sharp tongue.*)

Stories will only feel like stories if they have a point to them - what we have called a Problem. Our story about Miss Scattergood might go on: *The other day she told Herbert Smoke, "I've seen faster thinkers than you in our goldfish bowl."*

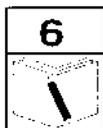
This creates a problem for Herbert Smoke, which he has to respond to in some way - what we have called a **Solution**. The story might go on: *Herbert turned bright red.*

The story is not finished until we add something that makes the reader feel it is at an end - what we have called an **Outcome**. This story might end: *The class thought it was a shame for Herbert and disliked Miss Scattergood even more.*



Write another story which begins with the same Situation as the one above.

Make up your own Problem, Solution and Outcome.



Below are some simple stories with one of their four parts missing.

Make up the missing part and write it out, so that the stories are complete.

A.	Situation:	Jamila had three little sisters.
	Problem:	She had to help them get up in the morning so she was often late for school.
	Solution:	She persuaded her brother to help her. At first he was not very helpful, but he soon learned how to tie shoelaces and make breakfast.
	Outcome:	
B.	Situation:	Rula hated crossing the park. It was nice to be out in the fresh air,
	Problem:	but there were dogs who ran after her and barked. Worst of all, her particular enemies would lie in wait for her there.
	Solution:	
	Outcome:	Rula was not afraid any more.
c.	Situation:	Emil loved music. As a child, he wanted to play the piano and guitar.
	Problem:	
	Solution:	He took up singing instead.
	Outcome:	When he grew up he became a well-known baritone. He never regretted his decision.



Read aloud to one another the stories you have completed. Check that they sound like stories.



Tell the story of the latest episode of your favourite television soap-opera.

Discuss whether it fits the pattern: Situation, Problem, Solution, Outcome.

Part 5
Words

Chapter 16
Long words from short words

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Spelling

Look at the spelling of these words.

Then talk or think about the questions below:

unneeded	(un + need + ed)
unironed	(un + iron + ed)
happiness	(happy + ness)
business	(busy + ness)
sincerely	(sincere + ly)
faithfully	(faith + ful + ly)
disagreeable	(dis + agree + able)
dissimilar	(dis + similar)

1. Why is there one **n** in **unironed** and a double **n** in **unneeded**?
2. Why is there one **l** in **sincerely** and a double **l** in **faithfully**?
3. Why is there one **s** in **disagreeable** and a double **s** in **dissimilar**?
4. What happens to the **y** in **happy** and **busy** when they combine with
..... **ness**?

3

Long words from short words: Latin

Short words and long words in three languages.

Look at the words below.

English	four	side	quadrilateral	to write	about	describe
German	vier	Seite	vierseitig	schreiben	be-	beschreiben
Spanish	cuatro	lado	cuadrilatero	escribir	de	describir



Use the information in the box above to answer these questions:.

1. What is the German word for **quadrilateral**?
2. What small words make up the German word for **quadrilateral**?
3. What is the German word for **describe**?
4. What small words make up the German word for **describe**?
5. What is the Spanish word for **quadrilateral**?
6. What small words make up the Spanish word for **quadrilateral**?
7. What is the Spanish word for **describe**?
8. What small words make up the Spanish word for **describe**?
9. In which language is there no connection between the words for **quadrilateral** and the basic words which carry the meanings **four** and **side**?
10. In which language is there no connection between the words for **describe** and the basic words which carry the meanings **write** and **about**?
11. Are the words for **four** and **side** in English more like those words in German or in Spanish?
12. Is the word for **quadrilateral** more like that word in German or in Spanish?

English as a mixture

A language is like a person - it belongs to a family.

Some people's parents, grandparents and great-grandparents all come from the same village. At the other extreme, people can have an Indian father, an English mother, a Polish uncle, a West African aunt and a Chinese great-grandmother.

German and Spanish are like the first group of people - they have a single origin. English is like the second - it has a mixed origin.

This is one reason why there are more words in English than in some other languages. It is also a reason why it is harder to guess the meaning of long English words.

The basic words of English come from Anglo-Saxon, which was a **Germanic** language. German **vier** and **Seite** are still quite like **four** and **side** in sound.

Many other English words are from **French** - like **precious** and **season**.

Latin was the language of the Roman Empire. There are many Latin words in English, because for centuries Latin was the language of education. **Quadrilateral** and **describe** came into English from Latin.

In this chapter we shall look at some long English words of Latin origin. If we can learn to break them down into their parts, it makes them easy to remember and spell.



Hundreds and hundreds

A hundred in Latin is **centum**.

Here are some English words beginning with **cent**:

1. centigrade	2. centimetre	3. centipede
4. centenarian	5. cent	6. centenary

Write on your paper what they mean.

Look up the meaning of the second part of these words:

centigrade **centipede**

Write down as many English words as you can think of that contain:

grad ped

Note that not all words beginning with **cent** . . . come from Latin and mean **100**.

Look up the origin of "centre". Write it down.



Latin into English

Below you will find some English words of Latin origin and a choice of four definitions. Write down the letter of the one you think is correct.

For example: / b

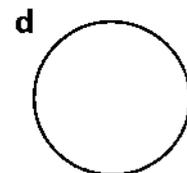
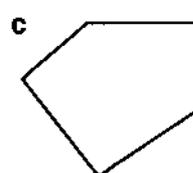
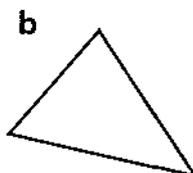
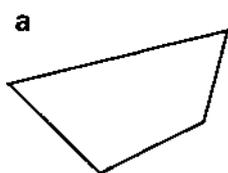
You need the words on page 77 and also the following words:

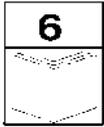
Some numbers in Latin:

1 un(um)	3 tri	5 quinque	10 decem
2 du(o)	4 quad	8 octo	1000 milli

More Latin words: latus, lateris - side remus - oar sonus - sound

1. **Dual** controls in a car are worked by
(a) one person (b) two people (c) nobody (d) a lot of people
2. An **octopetalous** flower has
(a) four petals (b) five petals (c) six petals (d) eight petals
3. A **millipede** is a creature with
(a) thousand legs (c) no legs
(b) thousand eyes (d) a hundred legs
4. A **quinquereme** is a ship with
(a) five engines (c) seven rows of oars
(b) five rows of oars (d) seven engines
5. When people sing in **unison** they sing
(a) the same tune (b) different tunes (c) out of tune (d) loudly
6. **Decimal** currency is money based on
(a) eight parts (b) five parts (c) ten parts (d) a thousand parts
7. An organisation which meets **triennially** meets every
(a) six months (b) one year (c) two years (d) three years.
8. A quadrilateral is





Long words from short words: Greek The ancient Greeks and ourselves

In the fifth century B.C. a handful of Greek scholars started a new way of looking at the world, a way which we still use today. They invented science, politics and medicine as we understand them now.

That is why the language of subjects which we study is still full of words of Greek origin - for example: **morphology cardiology psychology**.

In Greek these words were quite ordinary. If we know what some of the Greek words mean, we can guess what these long words mean in English. We can also remember and spell them more easily.

The Greeks understood that we can only learn through language. So the word **logos**, which means **word**, also means **study**. Thus many subjects of study have names from the Greek - such as **Geology, Biology, Zoology**.



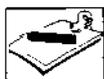
Greek into English

Below are some Greek words with their meanings in English. Use them to match the subjects of study with their meanings.

For example: 1. *E*

bio - life	kardia - heart	geo - earth
morphe - form	psyche - mind, soul	zoion - animal

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 1. Biology | A. the study of animals |
| 2. Cardiology | B. the study of the earth |
| 3. Geology | C. the study of the mind |
| 4. Morphology | D. the study of forms or shapes |
| 5. Psychology | E. the study of living things |
| 6. Zoology | F. the study of the heart |



Here are some more Greek words with their meanings in English.

micros - small	photos - light
phone - voice	scopeein - to see, to look at
grapheein - to write	tele - far

Write down some English words you know which come from these Greek words.

Use the meanings of the Greek words in the box above to fill in the gaps in the sentences below.

The words you need are in the box (not in the right order).

phonology	geography	microscope	telephone
microbiology	microphone	photography	telescope

For example: 1. *photography*

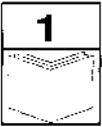
1. We make pictures with light by means of
2. We look at very small things through a
3. We look at very distant things, like stars, through a
4. We speak to people who are far away by
5. An instrument which makes small voices bigger is a
6. The study which describes the earth is
7. The study of the sounds made by the human voice is
8. The new science ofis the study of very small life forms.

Part 5
Words

Chapter 17
Prefixes and suffixes

Suitable for primary school pupils?

No



Revision: long words from short words

We discovered that long hard words in English are made out of short simple words. We can often work out the meaning of a long word in English by breaking it down into smaller parts,

For example: **un + kind + ness**



Break down these words into small parts:

hopeful	unfairness	troublesome	undercooked
overworking	misplace	defrost	unfriendliness



Roots, prefixes and suffixes

The words above - and many other words - consist of:

(prefix +) root (+ suffix)

The **root** is the part of the word which carries the meaning and can stand on its own. For example: un - **kind** - ness

A **prefix** goes before the root. For example: **un** - kind - ness

A **suffix** comes after the root. For example: un - kind - **ness**

Sometimes we add more than one suffix. For example: spite + **ful** + **ness**



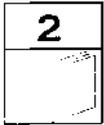
Look at the words you broke down above. Underline the root of each word.

Make a list of prefixes.

Make a list of suffixes.

Notes: The **root** is sometimes called the stem.

Roots, prefixes and suffixes are **morphemes** (that is, the smallest part of a word that has a meaning.)



Changing the meaning: prefixes

We use prefixes to change the meaning of words. For example, adjectives with a positive meaning can be made negative by putting the prefix **un-** in front of the word.

For example: **unhappy** is the opposite of **happy**.

The prefixes **non dis im in mis-** and **mal-** also make negatives out of positives.



Add a negative prefix to the following words, so that they have a negative meaning:

tidy	loyal	smoker	sane	inform	perfect
pleased	favour	sensitive	precise	true	treat



Use ten of the words you have formed in the sentences below:

For example: 1. *misinform*

1. The train left minutes ago: whoever told you it goes at 12.O'clocked you.
2. She was found guilty but, so she was sent for medical treatment.
3. Please put out your pipe: this carriage is for
4. The vase had been thrown away, as it was
5. We cannot invite guests when the house is so
6. She starved and beat her dog; I hate people who theiranimals.
7. You are always late and rude; I am verywith you.
8. He used to be very popular, but he has fallen into

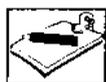
3

Changing the grammar: suffixes

(1) Nouns to adjectives

A suffix changes the grammar of a word. For example, we can turn a **noun** into an **adjective** by adding a suffix:

spite + ful	spiteful	friend + ly	friendly
hope + less	hopeless	cream + y	creamy
child + like	childlike	child + ish	childish
natur(e) + al	natural	spac(e) + ious	spacious



Add a suffix to each of these nouns to turn them into adjectives:

faith fire lady grace self
sense territory coward dream Turk



Use one of the adjectives you have formed in sentences below:

1. She refused to enter the room because there was a big spider in the corner: I thought it was of her.
2. They smashed up the good furniture in quite away.
3. She entertains her guests in a very way.
4. You have to mind what you say to him: he has a verytemper.
5. He had aexpression on his face as he looked at the travel poster.
6. A dog is afriend.
7. France hoped forgains as a result of the war.
8. She ate all the sweets herself in a verymanner.



(2) Adjectives to nouns

In the previous exercises we made **adjectives** out of **nouns** by adding a suffix. We can also make **nouns** out of **adjectives** by adding a suffix. For example:

happy + ness	happiness
reliable + ity	reliability
warm + th	warmth
dependent + ence	dependence



Turn these adjectives into nouns by adding a suffix:

cheerful sane wide narrow patient
generous empty certain prudent available



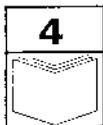
Use one of the nouns you have just formed in each of the sentences below:

For example: 1. *emptiness*

1. After the family had left, I found theof the house very depressing.
2. She has been waiting for hours, but nothing seems to affect her
3. Two cars could not pass, because of theof the road.
4. He does such crazy things that I begin to doubt his
5. He gave me a lot of money when he needed it: I was amazed at his
6. I am not sure whether we can get your car repaired by the end of the week: it depends on theof spare parts.
7. He is very careful with his money. Some people say it is meanness, but he regards it as
8. Maybe you can get a dress out of three metres of material: it depends on the

4

Concrete and abstract nouns



We can divide nouns into two classes: **concrete** and **abstract**.

Concrete nouns can be seen, heard, touched etc. We can draw pictures of them. Examples are:

horse	builder	pie	Africa	friend
-------	---------	-----	--------	--------

Abstract nouns are ideas: we can think about them, but we cannot see, hear or smell them. Nor can we draw pictures of them. Examples are:

kindness	hopefulness	truth	warmth	amazement
----------	-------------	-------	--------	-----------

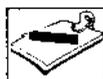
All the nouns that we have made from adjectives in the previous exercises are abstract nouns.



Make two columns headed *Concrete Nouns* and *Abstract Nouns*

Write the nouns in the box in the column you think they belong to:

earth	sandwich	sanity	Penelope	India
generosity	tea	tenderness	beast	depth



The nouns in the **abstract column** are all made from adjectives.

Write out the adjectives the nouns are made from.

Part 5

Words

Chapter 18

Particles

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Yes



Few words - many meanings: English

In the last chapter we learned some of the ways in which we use those very useful little words:

in up out through down from (etc.)

In this chapter we shall learn of yet another use for them.

We can add them to verbs to make new meanings. When we use them in this way, we call them **particles**.

For example:

Verb	Particle
break	in
	off
	out
	into
	down
	up



Write out the phrasal verb "break + particle" in each of the sentences below:

For example: 1. *broken off*

- Joan and Bob have been engaged for five years and suddenly she has broken off their engagement.
- Young horses are wild and have to be broken in.
- School broke up last week and we are on holiday till September.
- When he heard the sad news he broke down and wept.
- Thieves broke into the house and stole the video-recorder.
- The Second World War broke out on September 3rd 1939.

Match the verbs you have written out with the words below:

For example: 1. D

A. entered by force	B. burst into tears	C. trained
D. ended	E. came to an end	F. began

2

Particles and phrasal verbs

When we add **on, by, up** etc. to a verb we call them **particles**.

A verb with a particle is called a **phrasal verb**.

Put is another verb which changes its meaning when we add particles to it. Here are a few of these meanings:

put by	=	save
put down	=	crush (rebellions)
put off	=	postpone
put out	=	(1) extinguish (2) be annoyed
put up	=	give temporary accommodation to

Add a particle to the sentences below, so completing the phrasal verb. The verbs you need are in the box above.

For example: *1, down*

1. The government used the police to putthe strike.
2. I ought to visit my grandmother today, but it's raining and I think I'll put ittill tomorrow.
3. The firemen soon put the blaze
4. I shall be in your area tomorrow. Could you put mefor the night?
5. He was very putwhen I refused to help him.
6. You should putsome money for a rainy day.



3 Put the phrasal verbs in the box into the sentences below: For example 1, *fell out*

fall in	=	get into line
fall off	=	decrease (of numbers)
fall on	=	attack violently
fall out	=	quarrel
fall through	=	fail to happen

1. They had been good friends for years, but suddenly theyand now do not speak to one another.
2. With the increase in unemployment, attendance at football matches has,
3. The sergeant shouted to the troops toas the Queen was due to arrive.
4. My plans to go on holiday haveas the airline company has gone bankrupt.
5. The gangtheir victim in the alleyway, and left him severely injured.



Add the correct particle to the verb "to turn" in the sentences below. The meanings of the phrasal verbs in the box will help you.

turn away	=	refuse admittance to
turn down	=	reject an offer
turn into	=	change into something else
turn in	=-	go to bed
turn on	=	attack suddenly
turn out	=	be revealed

For example: 1. *on*

1. The dog had always been friendly, but one day it turnedher and bit her.
2. He offered me **£10** for my ring but I turned it
3. We hammered at the door but no-one answered. It turnedthat it was the wrong house.
4. It was already midnight and we decided it was time to turn
5. The prince turneda frog.
6. We tried to get into the club but we were turnedby the doorman.



5

Match the phrasal verbs with their meanings.

The sentences below will help you.

For example: *I.C.*

1. look up	A. be reconciled
2. make up	B. explode
3. turn up	C. improve
4. blow up	D. stop
5. think up	E. arrive unexpectedly
6. draw up	F. invent

The weather was terrible this morning but it's **looking up** now.

My sister and I fell out but we've **made it up**.

We were all sitting down to tea, when my uncle from Jamaica **turned up**.

Someone lit a cigarette in the petrol station and the whole place **blew up**.

My little brother loves stories and I have to **think some up** for him.

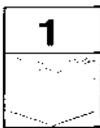
We told the driver to **draw up** by the paper shop.

Part 5
Words

Chapter 19
Latin prefixes

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Some of it



Few words - many meanings: Latin

Like English, Latin used few words to make many meanings. Like English, it used a verb plus particles.

Unlike English, the particle came first and was called a **prefix**. Also the new verb was written as a single word.

We still use Latin prefixes to make new words (especially in science).

For example:

sub (= under)	in "sub-atomic"	(below the level of the atom)
super (= over)	in "supersonic"	(above the level of sound)
re (=again)	in "re-fuel"	(to put fuel in again)
pre (=before)	in "pre-war"	(before the war)
post (=after)	in "post-war"	(after the war)

Take a prefix from column 1 and combine it with a word from column 2 to form words with the meanings given below:

For example: a) *pre-Conquest*



1	2
sub	natal (Latin: natus-born)
super	marine (Latin: mare-sea)
re	Conquest (1066)
pre	address
post	annuated (Latin: annus-year)

a) before 1066

b) after birth

c) a machine which goes under the sea.

d) to write an address again (i.e. a new one)

e) over age

Put the words you have formed into the sentences below:

For example: 1. *post-natal*

1. After the birth of her child she took the baby to theclinic.
2. He retired because his firm said he was
3. When my sister left home, we had toall her letters.
4. To hide the missiles from aeroplanes they put them in
5. Alfred was the most famous of thekings of England.

Latin prefixes



Using your knowledge of Latin prefixes, match the words in column 1 with their definitions in column 2.

For example: 1 C

1	2
1. superhuman	A. people who live after us.
2. subhuman	B. to decorate again
3. prefabricated	C. greater than human
4. posterity	D. less than human
5. to redecorate	E. made beforehand .

Put the words above into the sentences below:

For example 1. *posterity*

1. Trees planted now will be enjoyed by
2. We put the coffee table together quickly because all the parts were
3. The house had been empty for many years and we had toit.
4. To lift that tree-trunk neededstrength.
5. The monster was huge but not very bright - its intelligence was

4

A Latin verb with prefixes

The Latin verb **vertere** means **to turn**. It combines with prefixes to make new meanings:

For example:

Prefix	New Verb	Meaning
con - with (completely)	convert	change
re - back, again	revert	turn back
di - in two, aside, asunder	divert	turn aside
in - in	invert	turn upside down
ab - from, away	avert	turn away
per - through, beyond (sometimes in a bad sense)	pervert	turn to evil
sub - under	subvert	undermine

Fill in the spaces in the sentences below, using the above verbs

(based on the Latin "vertere" - to turn):

For example: 1. *avert*

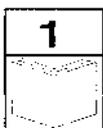
- Her brakes suddenly failed but by turning quickly into the bank at the side of the road, she managed todisaster.
- When he came out of prison he tried to go straight for a while, but he could not get a job and sooned to stealing.
- There had been an accident on the main road and the policeed the traffic through the side streets.
- I said that Vi was very brave, but Peteed my words and old Vi that I had said she was foolhardy.
- The Jehovah's Witnesses came to the door and tried tous to their beliefs.
- The pupils' names were in alphabetical order but the new teacher decided tothe list and began with the letter "Z".
- The secret agent was planted tothe organisation.

Part 5
Words

Chapter 20
Greek prefixes

Suitable for primary school pupils?

No



Greek prefixes

We have seen that a knowledge of Latin prefixes can help us to tackle unknown words.

The same is true of Greek prefixes. We still form new words using Greek roots, especially in science.

For example:	prefix	meaning	example
	anti	against	anticyclone
	hypo	below	hypothermia
	hyper	over	hypersensitive
	dia	through	dialysis
	para	beside	paranormal

The second part of these words also comes from either Greek or Latin:

For example:	prefix	meaning	example
	cyclone	Greek	to whirl around (kikloein)
	thermia	Greek	heat (thermos)
	sensitive	Latin t	to feel (sentire)
	lysis	Greek	to loose (lyein)
	normal	Latin	a rule (norma)

Match the words in column 1 with their meanings in column 2:

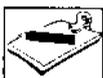
For example: 7.C



1	2
1. anticyclone	A. a system of separating substances by passing through a filter
2. hypothermia	B. beyond the normal
3. hypersensitive	C. a system of winds blowing outwards from a centre of high pressure, the opposite of a cyclone
4. dialysis	D. cold, below normal heat
5. paranormal	E. over-reacting

Put the words in column 1 in the sentences below:

For example: 1. *hypothermia*



- Old people often die ofin cold weather
- He is interested in ghosts, poltergeists, telepathy and other kinds ofhappenings.
- The weatherman said there was anover the British Isles.
- Her skin isand she has to use rubber gloves for washing-up: if she doesn't she comes out in a rash.
- My aunt's kidneys do not work properly; we hope she can get a kidney machine to filter her waste products artificially.

2

Few words - many meanings:Greek

The Greek word **pathos** means **feeling**.

From it we get the English word **pathetic** meaning **pitiful**. For example:
The starving children were **pathetic**.

The root can be combined with prefixes to form other meanings:

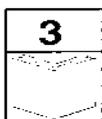
For example:

- antipathy (**anti** = against)
- sympathy (**syn/sym** = for, with)
- empathy (**en/em** = in, into)
- telepathy (**tele** = far)
- apathy (**a** = without)

Fill in the gaps in these sentences with the words above:

For example: 1. *sympathy*

1. When her father died, her friends were full of
2. He is a loud-mouthed nasty-tempered person and I feel great
.....towards him
3. After her long illness she took no interest in anything; her friends took
her on holiday in an attempt to rouse her from her
4. When we watch a film, we feelwith the good people.
5. It is said that there isbetween twins: they feel what is
happening to one another even when they are apart.



Synonyms and Antonyms

The Greek word for **name** is **onoma**.

It combines with several prefixes to form other meanings:

	word	prefix	meaning
For example:	antonym	(ant/anti - opposite to)	a word opposite in meaning
	synonym	(syn - with)	a word meaning the same
	homonym	(homo - same)	a word sounding the same
	anonymous	(an - without)	without a name



Use the words above to fill in the gaps in the sentences below:

- The charity received a large gift but they could not thank the giver because he wanted to be
- Dark** is theof **light**.
- Polite** and **courteous** ares.
- Hear** and **here** sound the same: they ares.

Write out pairs of synonyms from these columns:

For example: *wild, savage*

wild	pleasant
nice	plump
rich	savage
fat	wealthy
awkward	skinny
thin	clumsy

Write out pairs of antonyms from these columns:

For example: *fat, thin*

fat	tall
rough	thin
nice	smooth
short	nasty
young	rich
poor	old

Form the antonyms of these words by adding the correct prefix:

	Word	Antonym
For example:	<i>pleasant</i>	<i>unpleasant</i>
	agreeable	
	kind	
	patient	
	exact	
	fair	



Homonyms

There are quite a few **homonyms** in English.

Homonyms are words which sound the same but have different meanings. Sometimes the spelling helps to distinguish the different meanings:

For example:	no	know
	new	knew
	hear	here

Know and **knew** are present and past tenses of the verb to **know** and are connected with **knowledge**.

Here is an adverb of place like **there** and **everywhere**.

We **hear** with our **ears**.



Think of other homonyms in English

Write them down.

Put each in a short sentence to show you understand the difference in meaning.

For example: *She is a dear friend. We saw some deer in the park.*

Here are some to start you off: dear/deer blue/blew hare/hair

5

Medical words from Greek

A lot of medical words which sound mysterious and learned in English are based on very simple Greek words. For example:

Parts of the body		Medical Terms		People	
pneum	lung	-itis	inflammation, soreness	paedos	boy (child)
arthron	joint			gynaekos	woman
kystis	bladder			geras	old age
derma	skin			iatros	physician
mastos	breast	- ectomy	cutting out		
hystera	womb				
ophthalmos	eye	- ology	study of		
haema	blood				
neuron	nerve				
phlebos	vein				



Work out what is wrong with someone if they have the following complaints: **For example:** *cystitis - inflammation of the bladder*

cystitis	arthritis	neuritis
phlebitis	dermatitis	tonsillitis
appendicitis	pneumonia	anaemia

What are the following doctors specialists in?

For example: *haematologist - blood*

haematologist	dermatologist	geriatrician
neurologist	ophthalmologist	paediatrician
gynaecologist		

What are the following operations?

For example: *appendectomy - cutting out of the appendix*

appendectomy	tonsillectomy	mastectomy
hysterectomy	pneumonectomy	

Part 5
Words

Chapter 21
Words with more than one meaning

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Some of it



Words with more than one meaning

One of the things we have to look out for in reading is words with several meanings. Some words have an everyday meaning which we know, and also a technical meaning which we may not know.

Below is part of a Geography text: **Agriculture in Western Norway:**

The West coast of Norway consists of high steep mountains known as the Scandinavian Highlands. The coastline is indented by narrow inlets called "fjords". The high plateaus, or "fjellen", are covered in snow all through the year. The ground descends steeply, often directly to the water's edge. There is little flat land, except for **terraces**, **benches** and deltas built up by the rivers in the millennia since the Ice Age. The climate is cold and wet, with short summers and long winters. Agriculture is difficult in such harsh conditions.

Look at the words in bold type.

One of them is **bench**. This usually means something we sit on in the park. Here, however, it has a technical meaning - a stretch of flat land between water and mountain.

Another word in the passage which has a common meaning and a technical meaning is **terrace**.

Terrace can mean several things. **What is the meaning in the passage?**



1. a connected row of houses
2. a flat roof top
3. a level stretch of land along the side of a slope
4. a gallery open at the side



How many meanings can you think of for the following words?

pipe line plate drop caravan right

Look up these words in your dictionary to find more meanings.

2

One word - many meanings

Some English words have a lot of different meanings. For example, the word **suit** can mean:

- (a) a two-piece set of clothes, as in: "She bought a new **suit** for her interview."
- (b) to be good for the purpose, as in: "It **suit**ed him to work nights, as he could look after the children during the day."
- (c) to look good in appearance, as in: "Blue **suits** me because my eyes are blue."
- (d) a case in law, as in: "He was nearly ruined by a series of expensive law **suits**."

What single words have the following multiple meanings?

- | | |
|---|---|
| 1. a) blonde | 6. a) elegance |
| b) pretty | b) favour |
| c) honest | c) God's mercy |
| d) just | d) a title |
| 2. (a) something made in the shape of a cylinder | (e) a short prayer before a meal |
| (b) a register or list | 7. (a) a gentle knock |
| (c) to move like waves | (b) a pipe with a valve for running off a fluid |
| (d) to wrap round on itself | (c) a screw for cutting an internal thread |
| (e) to peel | 8. (a) low in rank |
| (f) to flatten using a special tool | b) stingy |
| 3. a) a bird | c) average |
| b) a chess-piece | d) to signify |
| c) to ruin somebody by cheating them | e) to have in mind |
| 4. a) a contest | 9. a) a knock |
| b) marriage | b) a sudden misfortune |
| c) close resemblance (e.g. of colours) | c) to bloom |
| (d) a piece of wood with a tip of easily ignited material | d) to produce a current of air |
| 5. a) a tree | 10. (a) advantage |
| b) flat or level | (b) premium paid for the use of money |
| c) a tool | c) a state of engaged attention and curiosity |
| d) a flying-machine | d) to arouse a state of engaged attention and curiosity |

You may find more meanings in the dictionary.

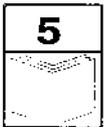


Here are some words with more than one meaning:

dock draw main sack throw

How many meanings can you think for each of them? Make up a sentence to illustrate each of the meanings.

Look the words up in a dictionary (or the glossary).



Puns

A lot of jokes depend upon puns - that is, words which sound the same but have two meanings. For example:

Question: What is the difference between a cat and a comma?

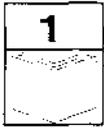
Answer: A comma is a pause at the end of a clause, and a cat has claws at the end of its paws.

Part 5
Words

Chapter 22
Comparisons

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Some of it



Similes and metaphors

Similes

In everyday language we often describe one thing by comparing it with another.

For example: She was **as cool as a cucumber**. He was **like ice**

These comparisons are open - the words **like** or **as** tell us clearly that a comparison is being made. Such open comparisons are called **similes**.



Match these columns so as to make sensible similes.

For example: 1. *h*

as	1.brown	as	a. soot
	2.red		b. a button
	3.green		c. gold
	4.white		d. the dodo
	5.black		e. fire
	6.good		f. a sheet
	7.dead		g. grass
	8.bright		h. a berry

2

Metaphors

"He was like ice" is a **simile** - the word **like** makes it an open comparison. Very often we make a comparison without using the words **like** or **as**.

For example: He was **icy**. (or **icy** cold)

This is a hidden comparison. Such comparisons are called **metaphors**.

In the sentence "He was **icy**" we have taken a noun **ice** and made it into an adjective **icy** by adding the suffix - **y**.



Make these nouns into adjectives by adding a suffix:

gold wire rose mould lead ash

Match the adjectives you have made with a suitable noun from the list below:

For example: *leaden feet*

cheeks hair voice eyes feet face idea

3

Literal and metaphoric language

If we talk about a **gold** coin, an **icy** pavement, a **rose** bowl, we mean the coin is really made of gold, the pavement really has ice on it, the bowl really is intended for roses. The words **gold, icy, rose** are being used **literally**.

When we talk about a golden voice or hair, an icy manner, rosy lips or cheeks, we mean that the voice (or hair) is **like** gold, the manner is **like** ice, the cheeks (or lips) are **like** roses.

The words **gold, icy, rosy** are being used **metaphorically**.

We have quite a lot of adjectives for colour in English. For example: **red, blue, green**.

But if we want to describe exact shades of colour we use metaphors. For example, **sky-blue, sea-green, orange, chestnut, mulberry**.

Write down more words for colours which are a metaphor.



Comparisons

Here are pairs of sentences.

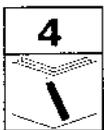
In one, the word in heavier print is used **literally** - that is, it stands for something in the real world.

In the other, it is used **metaphorically**- that is, it is a hidden comparison.

Write the number of the sentence. Against it write L if the word in heavier print is used literally. Write M if the word in heavier print is used metaphorically.

For example: 1(a)L (b)M

1. a) I had to go to hospital because I got something in my **eye**.
b) He has **eyes** in the back of his head.
2. a) It is very cold: we need an extra **blanket** on the bed.
b) The world was **blanketed** in snow.
3. a) The detective hoped to solve the mystery by getting to the **heart** of the matter.
b) She has to have an operation on her **heart**.
4. a) We climbed a very **high** mountain.
b) She has a very **high** opinion of herself.
5. a) Look both ways before you cross the **road**.
b) The **road** of life is full of difficulties.
6. a) I am sorry I am late: I got **entangled** in an argument.
b) The kitten got **entangled** in the ball of wool.
7. a) The doctors tried to trace everyone who had been in contact with the typhoid patient, but one person slipped through the **net**.
b) He kept the fish in a **net** in the water until the judges had been round.
8. a) The Minister **fell** from power when the Government changed.
b) He **fell** from the top of the stairs: it was amazing he was not badly hurt.
9. a) He has a **black** heart
b) She has a new **black** coat.
10. a) He **aimed** the gun at the rabbit.
b) He **aimed** to be a millionaire at thirty.



Metaphors for describing people

Match these metaphors with their meanings:

For example: *l.d*

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|-----------------------------|
| 1. He is the apple of her eye. | a | He is exhausted |
| 2. He is on the road to recovery. | b | She is a very greedy person |
| 3. He is worn out. | c | He cannot be trusted |
| 4. She is an angel. | d | He is her favourite. |
| 5. She is a pig. | e | She is a very good person. |
| 6. He was spitting pips. | f | I am tired of it all. |
| 7. He is a snake in the grass | g | He was very angry. |
| 8. I am sick to death of it all. | h | He is getting better. |



Think of more metaphors in everyday use.

(We use them for praising and insulting people, for instance)



Similes and metaphors in poetry

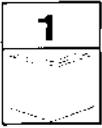
Look through some poems and find similes and metaphors. Are they common ones or new and surprising ones?

Part 5
Words

Chapter 23
Personification

Suitable for primary school pupils?

No



The Fox and the Crow

The Crow had found a piece of cheese and flew up into a tree to enjoy it. A hungry Fox was passing by. He cast greedy eyes on the piece of cheese. "Good morning, Mr. Crow," he said respectfully.

The Crow just winked in reply.

"That's a fine piece of cheese you have in your beak," pursued the Fox.

"Do tell me where you found it."

The Crow cleared his throat, but just winked again, this time with the other eye.

"Oh, Mr. Crow," said the Fox, "all the animals say that you have a wonderful voice. I long to hear you sing. Please sing me a few notes just to hear how sweet music can be."

The Crow could not resist this flattery. He closed his eyes and opened his beak. "Caw!" he said.

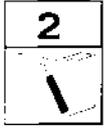
The piece of cheese fell from his beak. The Fox snapped it up, ate it in one bite and ran off laughing.

The silly Crow opened his eyes to find neither the Fox nor his piece of cheese.



In this story the animals speak as though they were human beings. Real animals do not behave like this at all, of course.

Think of other stories in which animals behave like human beings.



Personification

Making animals behave like persons is called **personification**. It is a special kind of metaphor.

It is used not only in stories for children, but also in Academic English. In school textbooks things are often personified.

Here are some activities which people (but not things) can do. Below are examples from school textbooks of things personified - that is, presented as people.

1. Move freely

e.g. The valleys **pass** through the Chiltern Hills.

As the century rushed on, railways **pushed** their way into the remotest corners of Britain.

2. Have possessions

e.g. The valleys **possessed** some deeper, richer soils.

Many metals **have** a high density.

3. Live and die

e.g. In time some villages **died**.

The yeast is **rejuvenated**.

4. Have a body

e.g. Water runs off the **sides** of the hills.

Avalanches rarely reach the **foot** of the mountain.

5. Act on purpose

e.g. One or more branching filaments **conduct** impulses towards the cell body.

Sulphuric acid groups swap their hydrogen ions for the unwanted metal ions in the water.

3



Personification in academic English

Write down the things which are personified in these sentences.

What are the words which show they are being treated as people?

1. Together the farms employ 18 farm-hands full-time and over 40 casual workers.
2. The gluten entangles the bubbles of carbon dioxide, and when heated, sets, giving bread its typical open texture.
3. A battery is an 'electron pump'- It pushes electrons in at the cathode and sucks them out at the anode.
4. Food might pass undigested through the alimentary canal, even assuming it negotiated the hazard of the windpipe.
5. The farmhouse faces the farmyard
6. Manchester grew enormously in the nineteenth century.
7. The large intestine is rich in bacteria
8. Malaria and dysentery thrived in an age which lacked a sewage system.

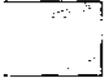


Consider each of the sentences above.

In each case is the thing personified:

- | | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. moving freely | 2. having a body | 3. living and dying |
| 4. acting with a purpose | 5. having possessions | 6. doing something else? |

Personification



Personification of ideas

We not only personify **things**. We also personify **ideas**. Here are some examples:

Freedom and patience do not **go hand in-hand**

Extreme cold can **lead** to death

The action of the stomach muscles **helps** to reduce the food to a soft consistency.

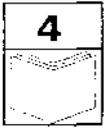
Many industrial processes **need** water.



Write out the words which show that something has been personified.

What has been personified in each case?

1. There was a mood of growing despair.
2. The arteries of trade had been cut.
3. Whisking egg-whites gives lightness to a mixture.
4. Heat plays a part in the breakdown of tissues.
5. Lack of easy transport hindered the development of industry.
6. Re-kneading (of bread) breaks down the large bubbles of carbon dioxide into small ones of even size. It also allows the entry of air.
7. Discontent grew, with strikes by the miners and lock-outs by the employers.



Personification of countries

There are other abstract ideas that we meet in academic texts.

When we read about China or Peru in History books, we are not usually thinking about the coastline or mountains. We are thinking of the idea of a country in people's minds - the country that people feel they belong to and that belongs to them.

The coastline and mountains of a country change very slowly. The idea of a country changes quite quickly.

Take the noun **Britain**, for instance. It now means England, Wales, Scotland and Northern Ireland. In Anglo-Saxon times **Britain** did not exist as an idea - people lived in Mercia, Wessex, etc. Scotland was an independent country until the eighteenth century, often at war with England. **Great Britain** included the whole of Ireland until 1923, when the Irish Republic gained independence.

Britain is an idea in people's minds. It used to be personified as Britannia.



Write out the words in the sentence below which show that something has been personified.

What has been personified in each case?

1. Britain had lost her American colonies in the eighteenth century but gained others like Canada and India
2. Old empires were tottering, new empires growing and young nations springing up like mushrooms.
3. Every country felt some effects.
4. Countries raised customs barriers.
5. Peace treaties took away all of Turkey's Arab lands.
6. Russia was growing - and growing fast
7. America decided to intervene in the dispute.
8. This Moscow-Berlin pact astounded the world.

Part 6
Standard English and language change

Chapter 24
Standard English

Suitable for primary school pupils?

Some of it



The written language

Standard English is the name we give to the kind of English we use in writing.

Until writing became widespread, people of all classes spoke their local dialect and did not regard one dialect as "better" than another. The few people who could write wrote down their own dialect and spelt it as they fancied.

However, with the development of English as the language of the law and government, a more standard way of writing emerged, based on the dialect of the capital. By Shakespeare's time, the spelling was more or less standardised - though Shakespeare spelt his own name several different ways.

By the eighteenth century there was a demand among the aspiring middle classes for handbooks to help them write "correctly". This was a great time for self-appointed rule-makers. They described English grammar in terms of Latin grammar, and attempted to impose rules of their own invention on the way English was written. It is from this period that we have inherited such nonsense as the apostrophe to show possession.

Standard languages become necessary with the development of literate nation states which demanded a wide range of written communication across dialect boundaries. For example when Bulgaria became a nation in 1878, they chose the dialect of Stara Zagora (in the middle of the country) as the form of written Bulgarian to be adopted throughout the new nation.

More recently, when the new African states had to decide on what should be the standard written language of their country, they sometimes chose the language of their former colonial masters. In Zambia, for instance, there are four major and many minor local languages. If one of these had been chosen, it would have been unacceptable to all the others. Hence, they chose English as the official language.

The importance of Standard English

English is spoken in very different ways in different parts of the British Isles. Someone speaking broad Scots has difficulty in understanding a Cockney.

But because the written language is the same for both, they both say they speak English.

The same is true of English in other parts of the world. The English spoken in Australia is very different from the English of the Caribbean. But they too share the written language.

Because it is the standard for so many different kinds of speech, the written language is called Standard English.

Correctness in writing

Good readers read more quickly than they speak. They do not mutter the words under their breath: they let their eye travel rapidly over the pages.

They could not do this if they did not know what spelling to expect and if they were not helped by standard punctuation. This is why it is important to spell and punctuate in a standard way. Otherwise we cannot expect people to bother with our message.

Below is a story written by a boy who was very good at telling funny stories, but very bad at writing

The sick sow

won day The sow was sick and the old from went four the vethn and the old sow whd't not hethy and fanit and the old from sidn to vethn the old sow is on hethy so the wethn sidn to the frmh I will cumb and see the lod sick sow sidn the vethn and the frmh went to see the lod sick sow and the vethn and the frmh see lod fat sick sow sidn the frmh and went at the frmh and not thefrmh ount the big fat sick sow went and ladh down



Write down his story in Standard English.

Compare your version with the upside down version printed below.

One day the sow was sick. It was not healthy and fainted. The old farmer went for the vet.
"The old sow is not healthy," he said.
"I will come and see her," said the vet.
The vet and the farmer went to see the old sick sow. The sow saw the farmer and went for him. She knocked him down, then went and lay down.



Standard English in speech

Bulgarians all write a language based on the dialect of Stara Zagora. But they continue to speak in their local dialect with no feeling that it is inferior. This is also true of attitudes to the dialects in Germany.

The emergence of the idea of "correctness" in speech is intimately connected to the idea of class in English. Sir Walter Raleigh wrote his reports to the queen and his poetry in Standard English, but he spoke in the dialect of his native South- West. It was the gathering together of upper class males in the "public" schools of the nineteenth century which led to the acceptance of a single "Received Pronunciation" of English. This was actually described as "the Queen's English" and was very different from the speech of most of her subjects.

In the last fifty years, with the development of broadcasting and the emergence of eminent people who choose to speak with a regional accent, a much less rigid attitude to "correct" speech is prevalent.

The local dialects

If we wish, we can all learn to speak and write with the words and grammar of Standard English, but to speak a local dialect you have to be born into the dialect community.

If you are lucky enough to have a dialect, you should be proud of it. The local dialects have a very long history, going back to the languages of the Anglo- Saxons and the Vikings.

In this chapter we shall take examples from the Black Country dialect. The Black Country is a group of small industrial towns to the West of Birmingham. It is so called because it used to be black from the coal and smoke of the mines and foundries in the area.

The Black Country dialect is a very ancient one: it is descended from the language of the Anglo-Saxons who settled in the region before 1066. It is different from the dialect of nearby Birmingham. Each little town in the Black Country - Oldbury, Rowley Regis, Smethwick etc. - has a slightly different dialect from the others.

2

Talking in Dialect

For some purposes dialect is better than Standard English - for telling jokes, for example.

Here is a joke about two famous Black Country characters, Enoch and Eli:

Aynuck and Ayli were strolling along the canal tow path and they had a bit of an argument and eventually started shouting at each other.

"Eh," says Aynuck, "if yoh doh shurrip I'll chuck yo' across the cut." (cut= canal) "I bet yo' five bob yo' cor do it," says Ayli.

Next minute Aynuck picked Ayli up and twirled him round several times then let him go. Ayli fell into the middle of the canal.

"See," says Ayli, "I told yo' yo' couldn't do it. Yo' owe me five bob."
"I doe," says Aynuck, "I day say as I could do it fust time."

Think of some famous comedians (and other entertainers) who use their dialects.



For example: Billy Connolly

Describe a situation in which you would use dialect.

There are some jobs where it helps to have a dialect and some where you have to speak Standard English.



Here is a list of jobs. In which ones is it necessary to speak Standard English?

switchboard operator	garage mechanic
painter	hotel receptionist
computer operator	teacher

Think of other jobs where it is helpful to be able to speak Standard English.

3

Accents and Dialects

In describing a language we have to consider three things:

1. Words
2. Grammar
3. Sounds

For example: in the Black Country you might hear: "Ay yoh, bull yed! I bay gooin ter tell yoh agen!"

You probably won't know the Black Country **word** "bull yed". It is a dialect word "bull-head" meaning tadpole. You can guess that it means someone stupid!

You may not know the Black Country **grammar** of the verb "to be". "I bay" in Black Country is "I'm not" in Standard English.

Some of the **sounds** of Black Country dialect are different from the sounds of Standard English. "You" rhymes with "blue" in Standard English, but with "go" in the Black Country.

Dialect speakers use a language which differs from Standard English (and from other dialects) in all three respects: words, grammar and sounds.

Many people speak with an **accent**: that is they use the words and grammar of Standard English, but the sounds are different.

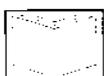
For example: a Northerner will pronounce the "a" of "bath", as in "bad", while a Southerner will pronounce it as in "card".

Read the Aynuck and Ayli story on page 157 again.



Read it aloud and answer the questions below:

1. What Black Country dialect word can you find? What are some other words that we use only in speech but not only in the Black Country?
2. What is Black Country grammar for Standard English "don't", "can't", "didn't", "I didn't say that"?
3. You can't really tell what Black Country dialect sounds like from the written version. The names of the characters are usually spelt "Enoch" and "Eli". From the spelling in the story how do you think they are pronounced in the Black Country?



Describing a dialect

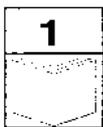
You will find examples of dialect grammar in the chapters on pronouns (chapter 8, page 50) and negatives (chapter 10, page 60.)

Part 6
Standard English and language change

Chapter 25
Language change

Suitable for primary school pupils?

No



Language change and "correctness"

Languages die when nobody speaks them. For example, when tribes of Native Americans or Australian aborigines are wiped out, their languages die with them.

Or a language dies when most of the speakers find it more convenient to speak something else. For instance, the Cornish language died out about a hundred years ago, because the Cornish people found they needed to speak English more than Cornish.

Such languages are **dead languages**.

Dead languages are the only ones which do not change. Like all other living things, living languages change all the time.

People who do not understand this sometimes get very cross. They think anything new is bad, and write to the newspapers complaining about new uses for old words, or about changes in grammar and pronunciation. They are wasting their time: languages change because the speakers change.

You can see this in your own life. You do not speak exactly the same as your parents. And they do not speak exactly the same as **their** parents. Languages change a little bit with every generation. If they did not, they would die.

How quickly languages can change is shown by the following true story:

The Inuit Eskimos have lived for centuries on either side of the Bering Straits, that separate Alaska (in the U.S.A.) from Siberia (in Russia). Because of bad political relations between the U.S.A. and Russia after 1945, Inuit Eskimo families were cut off from one another for fifty years.

Then, in the early 1970's, the Bering Straits iced over and the two groups met by chance. They were full of joy. But their joy changed to grief: they could not understand one another! In just fifty years without contact their one language had changed so much that it was now two mutually incomprehensible languages



Writing and language change

The language of the Inuit people have changed so quickly because their language was not written down.

By contrast, the Icelandic language, which was isolated for several centuries, changed very little because the population was highly literate and the written language kept the language unchanged.

Thus, writing acts as a brake on language change. Without Standard Written English as a common Standard Language, there is no doubt that Australians and English people would now be speaking two different languages.

Changes in words

We are always adding new words to the language. For example, we have recently taken on board many new words from computer technology - downloading, surfing, software etc.

We also use words which are in fashion to show we are up to date.



Think of examples of the following:

1. The latest word for "very good"
2. Some words which mean "very good", but are now out of fashion (for example: "Fabulous!" "Ace!")
3. The latest word for "very bad" .
4. Words which mean "very bad", but are now out of fashion (for example: "Diabolical!" "Crummy!")
5. The latest word for "fool".
6. Words which mean "fool" but are now out of fashion (for example: "Wally!")



Changes in grammar

Changes in grammar happen more slowly than changes in words. However, grammar does change all the time.

For example, up to the seventeenth century it was Standard English for people to address one person as "thou" (like "tu" in French or "Du" in German). "Thou" and "thee" continued to be used for people they knew intimately, such as family and friends, for a further century, but it has now entirely disappeared.

In Shakespeare and the Authorized Version of the Bible we find not only "thou" but also different verb forms. For example, we find "hath" instead of "has" for the third person singular present perfect tense ("England hath put himself in arms,")

Another grammatical structure which has almost vanished is the inverted expression: "Were it possible." We now say: "If it were possible" or: "If it is possible."

Correctness

People who learned their grammar from learning to read and write a dead language - Latin - got into trouble with their teachers if they wrote something that varied from the Latin of the classical period. If it did not correspond to what Cicero would have written, it was "wrong".

The living speakers of Latin, of course, made many such "mistakes" - to such an extent that classical Latin is now preserved only in literary texts and the living language moved on to become the "dog" Latin of the middle ages and, eventually, French, Spanish and Italian.

People brought up in such a tradition of "correctness" do not always realise that living languages change. They fasten on to points at which the grammar of English is changing and try to compel everyone to use the older forms.

In the end, they are wasting their time - language changes for more compelling reasons than the prejudices of a handful of pedants. Meanwhile, however, they can make people feel insecure about their use of language.



Some points of language change

Below are some sentences which some people would regard as "incorrect", They are actually points of language change. Whether you feel them to be incorrect almost certainly depends on your age as well as the particular form of education you received.

Which of the sentences below would you consider incorrect?

1. Hopefully, we shall be able to resolve the matter.
2. She is very much against him working away from home.
3. The family have decided to raise the money for the repairs to the house.
4. Can I help you?
5. I would appreciate your help.
6. He is a person who I would like to see more of.
7. Due to the inclement weather, the match has had to be cancelled.
8. Between you and I it won't be long before the place closes.
9. Opening the window, the sea could be glimpsed.
10. It can only be dealt with by a judicial review.

Comments

Some of these points of grammatical change are covered in this course. The page references are given under the item.

1. **Hopefully**, we shall be able to resolve the matter.

(page 78)

Hopefully, thankfully etc. in British English were used only as **adverbs of manner**, meaning "in a hopeful manner", "in a thankful manner".

For example: He asked the question hopefully. She accepted their offer thankfully.

The American use of these words as **sentence adverbs** (Chapter 12) is increasingly current. Here they qualify the sentence as a whole, not merely the verb.

For example: Hopefully, the interview will not take long.

 Thankfully, nobody was injured.

2. She is very much against **him** working away from home.

(pages 92 - 94)

The **-ing form** of the English verb is used in several ways (Chapter 14):

- (1) To form the continuous tenses. For example: I am **working**.

(Chapter 3, page 19)

- (2) As an **adjective**. For example: **Working** people have to pay tax.

- (3) As a **noun**. For example: I can't understand the **workings** of the tax system.

In Latin the second use (called a present participle) was clearly distinct from the third (called a gerund) - "laborans, laborantis" and "laborandum" respectively.

When grammarians used Latin categories to describe the grammar of English, they insisted on keeping the two uses of the -ing form very distinct. According to this view, sentence 2 should read:

She is very much against **his** working away from home.

Comments

3. The family have decided to raise the money for the repairs to the house.

(page 12)

In English, as in many languages, the verb varies with the **number** of the subject (singular or plural). This is called **agreement**.

For example: The cake **is** burning. The cakes **are** burning.

Some nouns are singular in form, but we feel them to be plural in meaning. For example: family, committee, government etc.

People who use Latin grammar as a model for English insist that the verb should agree with the grammatical form rather than the meaning of the subject noun. For them the following is correct:

The **family has** decided to raise the money for the repairs to the house.

Subject - verb agreement occurs in other ways.

For example: Neither the government of the day nor the opposition **has/have** the power of the multi-national corporations.

It means rethinking the theoretical structures on which the whole of their education and professional work **has/have** been based.

4. **Can** I help you?

At one stage grammarians made an over-simple distinction between the meaning of **can** and **may**:

can - to be able For example: He can sing very well.

may - to be permitted For example: You may borrow it, if you like.

In fact, native speakers of English use **can** and **may** in several ways, including the use of **can** to mean permission.

As a result of the interference of the pundits, however, many people are now confused about the matter and use **may** in contexts where **can** was once normal.

Hence we find: **May** I help you?

Comments

5. I **would** appreciate your help.

Again an over-simple distinction between the use of **should** and **would** in certain meanings has been made, reserving **should** for the first person and **would** for the second and third.

		singular	plural
For example:	1st person	I should think	we should think
	2nd person	you would think	you would think
	3rd person	he, she, it would think	they would think

A description of the many meanings of **should** and **would** is extremely complex. Fortunately, native speakers can rely on their intuitive mastery of the distinctions.

6. He is a person **who** I would like to see more **of**.

(pages 47, 86)

The relative pronoun **whom** has almost disappeared in the last fifty years, being replaced by **who** in all but the most formal written styles.

A second controversy used to surround prepositions (like **of**). On the analogy of Latin, it was believed that it was incorrect to put a preposition at the end of a sentence. This had never been English usage. The losing battle of the old grammarians is illustrated by:

Never use a preposition to end a sentence up with.

The "correct" version of sentence 6. would be:

He is a person **of whom** I would like to see more.

Few native speakers of English would find that natural.

Comments

7. **Due to** the inclement weather, the match has had to be cancelled.

(chapters 5 and 6)

There used to be a distinction between **due to**, which was adjectival, and **owing to**, which was adverbial.

For example: His death was due to accidental causes.

He eventually died, owing to a hereditary condition.

According to this view sentence 7. should read:

Owing to inclement weather, the match has had to be cancelled.

8. Between **you and I** it won't be long before we have to move,

(page 47)

There was a fashion among school grammarians for castigating the English "It's me!" as incorrect. In classical Latin the case of a noun or adjective in complement position (after such verbs as "to be") had to be the same as the subject. Hence, on analogy with Latin upwardly mobile people were persuaded to say: "It is I!"

Because of this, people became nervous about the use of "me" and used "I" where it is improbable (even according to the rules of Latin grammar). The normal form of a pronoun after a preposition such as between is "me". Here, because it is separated from the preposition by "you and", people sometimes use the nominative pronoun in an endeavour to please their teachers.

Comments

9. **Opening** the window, **the sea** could be glimpsed.

(page 92)

This is a case of the **detached participle**. As we have seen in 2 above, the Latin present participle was clearly adjectival and therefore had to modify a noun, changing its number, gender and case to agree with that noun.

On analogy with this, the sentence above means that the sea was opening the window. If you feel that this is so, you would have to rewrite the sentence:

Opening the window, **she** could glimpse the sea.

10. It can **only** be dealt with by a judicial review.

According to the books on correctness, **only** should be placed immediately in front of the word it is modifying. On this view the sentence should read:

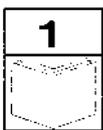
It can be dealt with **only** by a judicial review.

Part 7
Using knowledge about language

Chapter 26
Error analysis

Suitable for primary school pupils?

No



Error analysis for writing

When you have worked through this course up to this point, you will know enough about language to understand what is meant by Error Analysis.

The Diagnostic Tests for Primary School teachers use error analysis for helping pupils to read.

Here we will use it to help pupils to write effectively.

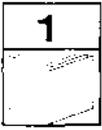
Marking

Teachers spend a great deal of time in "marking". There are two reasons for this: one is to categorise the learner in relation to some outside norm. The second is pedagogic - to help the learner, at whatever stage s/he is currently at, to become a competent writer. Only the pedagogic reason is considered here.

"Marking" is important in a very simple way - it is one of the ways in which writing is made worthwhile for the learner. The teacher's feedback shows the learners that someone is reading their work and taking an interest in it.

However, much time-consuming marking produces little more than discouragement in the learner and despair in the teacher. A very little linguistic knowledge will give teachers the tools to do the job much more professionally.

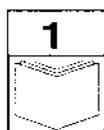
To do error analysis you need to be able to analyse a piece of writing in terms of the levels of language.



Levels of language

This was introduced in the very first chapter of this book and extended in the chapters shown below:

	Chapter
LETTERS combine to form	1
MORPHEMES which combine to form	16(page 106) 17(page 116)
WORDS which combine to form	16-23
PHRASES which combine to form	3 (page 19) 5 (page 29) 7 (page 40)
CLAUSES which combine to form	13
SENTENCES which combine to form	12
PARAGRAPHS which combine to form	15
TEXTS	15



The value of error analysis

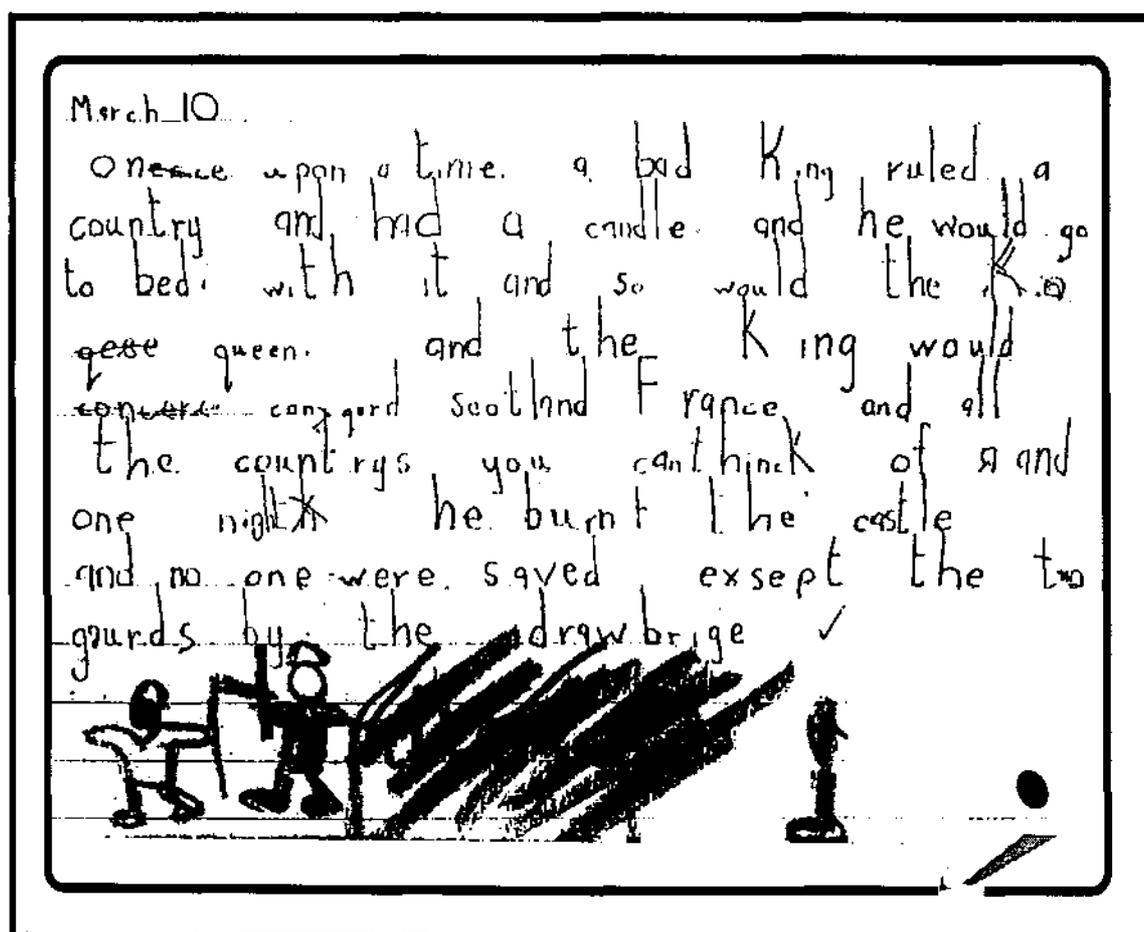
The problem with learning to write is that one has to operate on all linguistic levels, from the letter to the text, simultaneously. Too often the teacher's help is limited to only two of these levels - the word (spelling) and the sentence (punctuation).

Error analysis provides the teacher with a much more sophisticated tool for helping children to become proficient writers.

It is, however, a time-consuming task and it is not suggested that teachers can do it on a regular basis. Even a little experience, however, will show the teacher the nature of the errors which can occur and provide him/her with a much richer repertoire of ways to help an individual learner at a particular stage.

Note that the emphasis is as much on what the learner **does** know as on what s/he **does not** know. This produces a positive attitude in the teacher as well as encouraging the learner.

An example of a learner's written work is given below - by John aged 6. We shall use it to show how to analyse errors and use them to improve our pupils' writing.





How to do error analysis

1. Write out a version of the text in the target language.

Once upon a time there was a king. He ruled over his own country and even conquered Scotland, France and all the countries you can think of.

The trouble was that he would go to bed with a candle and so would the Queen. The result was that he burnt down the whole castle.

No-one was saved except the two guards by the drawbridge.

2. Compare this version with the original at each level in turn..

First, list what the learner **does** know.

Second, list what s/he **does not** know,

Letters:

What the learner knows:

Most of the lower case letters. Most of the upper case letters.

Capital for proper nouns - France, Scotland, the King

What the learner does not know:

Lower case : a

Upper case letters: O and S

Tails on letters b, d, l, d etc. too long - problem is s/he thinks s/he has to take the tail to the top of the line.

Word division: cant hink

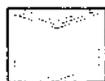
Morphemes:

What the learner knows:

rul-ed save-d burn-t guard-s

What the learner does not know:

conqerd countrys



Words

What the learner knows:

once upon time bad kin ruled country candle and he would go to bed with it so queen Scotland France all the you of one night burnt castle were saved two by

What the learner does not know:

Rule on capital for King and Queen,
conquer think except guards drawbrige

Phrases

What the learner knows:

upon a time a bad king to bed
Scotland, France and all the countrys you can think of
except the two guards by the drawbridge

What the learner does not know:

would conquered no-one were saved

Clauses/sentences

What the learner knows:

All the clauses correctly constructed.

What the learner does not know:

S/he joins all the clauses into a single sentence, linking them by "and".

Full stops in places where it would be possible to start a new sentence or where there might be a pause.



Paragraphs

What the learner knows:

No evidence

What the learner does not know:

Probably no concept of paragraphs.

Text

What the learner knows:

S/he tells the story in time sequence.

What the learner does not know:

No evidence of problem - solution structure.

Discussion

The passage we have been considering was written by a child in the second year of the Infant School.

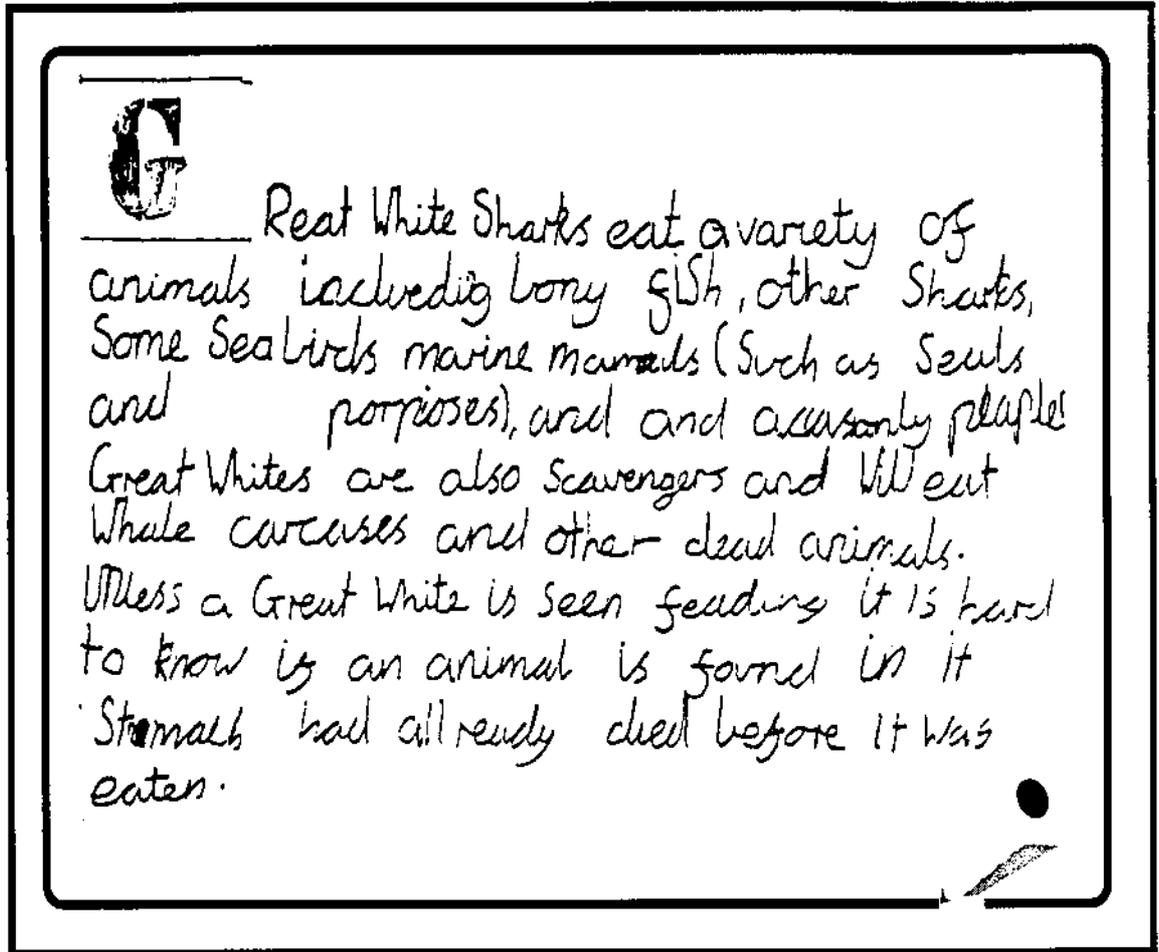


Discuss what (if anything) you would write on the work and what you would say to the child.



An example for practice

Below is a piece of writing by Sean, who was ten at the time.



Discussion

Take each level in turn and consider:

1. What the writer can do.
2. What errors (if any) the writer makes.
3. What errors you would draw the writer's attention to.

Audit 2

Instructions

Circle the words or groups of words which are examples of the grammatical point:

For example:

A verb in the present tense:

He was thinking.

He will think.

He thinks

If you change your mind, write out the new answer.

1. a common noun:

Archibald

doctor

explode

2. a proper noun:

Yarmouth

people

absence

3. a singular noun:

graves

bomb

mice

4. a plural noun:

ocean

cheese

articles

5. a definite article

the

if

a

6. a verb:

rosy

expertise

ride

Audit (2)

7. an auxiliary verb:

I had believed She was pretty I often think.

8. a verb in the past tense:

They will finish They argued Open the door!

9. the subject of this sentence:

Has Albert done his homework yet?

10. an adjective:

under the sun Hurry up! greasy fingers

11. an adverb:

She sneered unpleasantly red shoes down the road

12. a preposition:

Somewhere over the rainbow bluebirds fly.

13. a prepositional phrase:

Somewhere over the rainbow bluebirds fly.

14. pronoun:

somehow us would

15. a verb in the passive voice:

We mended the fence.

The fence will be mended.

Everyone ran away.

16. a negative word:

having sometimes never

17. a co-ordinating conjunction:

but yes though

18. a subordinating conjunction:

and over if

19. a simple sentence:

Iqbal was very fond of leeks. He had a big garden and hoped to grow a lot of them. Unfortunately, the slugs were also very fond of leeks and they always got to the leeks before Iqbal. Then someone told Iqbal that if he put down saucers of beer at night, the slugs would get drunk and leave the leeks alone. He tried it and found it was true! Iqbal threw away the drunken slugs and had the leeks for himself.

20. a complex sentence:

Iqbal was very fond of leeks. He had a big garden and hoped to grow a lot of them. Unfortunately, the slugs were also very fond of leeks and they always got to the leeks before Iqbal. Then someone told Iqbal that if he put down saucers of beer at night, the slugs would get drunk and leave the leeks alone. He tried it and found it was true! Iqbal threw away the drunken slugs and had the leeks for himself.

21. the main clause of this sentence:

If you like, we'll tell everyone that we're going away.

22. an adverb clause:

If the sun comes out, we'll all go for a picnic.

23. a noun clause:

I didn't know that you were going to Spain until Sandra told me.

24. a relative pronoun:

The person who came to the door last night was very odd.

25. an infinitive:

I've no objection if everyone decides to take the afternoon off.

26. a gerund:

She seems a nice person but no-one likes working with her

27. prefix:

underline thinking friable

28. suffix:

unsuitable overcome daffodil

29. particle:

The troops put down the rebellion.

I put the tea leaves down the sink.

Put the cat down!

30. Latin root:

photosynthesis heat superstructure

31. Greek root:

happiness fraternisation theoretical

32. a synonym for "same":

similar different identical

33. an antonym for "beginning":

start end middle

34. a word with several meanings:

pear rent obese

35. a simile:

I have a gold bracelet.

He has golden hair.

His hair is as yellow as gold.

36. a metaphor:

There is a bridge over the stream.

The coins fell from the bag like a stream of gold.

Tears streamed down his cheeks.

37. an example of personification

Summer smiled upon the land.

It was lovely weather.

People bathed in the sunshine.

38. a dialect word:

mardy spoilt horrid

39. an example of dialect grammar:

She's a pest Keep your hair on! Her's a pain.

40. an error at the level of the letter:

arGue finishd neice

Audit 3

Instructions

Circle the words or groups of words which are examples of the grammatical point:

For example: A verb in the present tense:

He was thinking. He will think. He thinks

If you change your mind, write out the new answer.

1. **a common noun:**
write cheerful car

2. **a proper noun:**
paper Wilhelmina grass

3. **a singular noun:**
friend playmates women

4. **a plural noun:**
event phenomena radius

5. **a definite article:**
under the a

6. **a verb:**
yet rosy conquer

Audit (3)

7. an auxiliary verb:

Think carefully! I am a teacher. We have thought.

8. a verb in the past tense:

Open the window. I knew the answer. I shall go.

9. the subject of this sentence:

Have you really thought carefully about this?

10. an adjective:

icy freeze snow

11. an adverb:

wipe slim hastily

12. a preposition:

although there up

13. a prepositional phrase:

Under the mat you will find several keys.

14. a pronoun:

wheret hem until

15. a verb in the passive voice:

The bath must be cleaned every day.

Our visitors never clean the bath properly.

Has anyone cleaned the bath lately?

16. a negative word:

painful naughtily not

17. a co-ordinating conjunction:

before over or

18. a subordinating conjunction:

after but which

19. a simple sentence:

If you hurry up, you can be home before it gets dark. It's quite frightening in the park at night. You can leave that and do it tomorrow.

20. a complex sentence:

If you hurry up, you can be home before it gets dark. It's quite frightening in the park at night. You can leave that and do it tomorrow.

21. the main clause of this sentence

Fiona had written the letter because she wanted her family to know that she was all right.

22. an adverb clause

Although she had promised not to take chances, Maria could not resist the opportunity of breaking the world record.

23. a noun clause

Did you say that you hoped to go skiing if you can find the money?

24. a relative pronoun:

No-one likes the horse that I backed yesterday.

Audit (3)

25. **an infinitive:**
I have tried to stop smoking for several years without success.
26. **a gerund:**
Walking in heavy rain is not my idea of a good time,
27. **a prefix**
horrible disagreeable snottily
28. **a suffix**
excite frightful undertake
29. **a particle:**
She came round at last. The car came round the bend.
Turn the table round.
30. **a word with a Latin root:**
oversight supercede photograph
31. **a word with a Greek root:**
extra-curricular geology precipice
32. **a synonym for "sack":**
dismiss create criticise
33. **an antonym for "pleasure":**
delight activity pain

34. a word with several meanings::

concerto air growl

35. a simile:

She is blooming She is very well.

She sings like a lark.

36. a metaphor:

He bottled up his feelings He was furious.

He was as mad as a hatter.

37. an example of personification:

The house was in disrepair.

The house was like an old lady who had seen better days.

The house was crying out for repair.

38. a dialect word:

brill gradely lovely

39. an example of dialect grammar:

Have you seen them books?

Have you seen them?

Have you seen those books?

40. an error at the level of the word:

droping anser soFt

Models of Grammar

Models of grammar

Traditional Grammar

"Traditional" grammar was the model of grammar which used to be taught in "Grammar Schools".

Traditional grammar was devised to help English speakers learn Latin. It was essentially a description of Latin grammar and the description of English was forced into that mould. There was thus great emphasis on the features which English learners found difficult to master in Latin, such as case (which is comparatively unimportant in English), and no description at all of such vital features in English as word-order.

The teaching of traditional grammar continued long after Latin had been replaced by English at the centre of the curriculum. However, it was so inadequate as a description of English that, in the absence of better models, the study of grammar lost credibility and was dropped with relief by English Departments in most secondary schools.

The situation is very different now. Scientific Linguistics over the last fifty years has produced a number of models to describe the grammar of English and other languages. Two of these models are described briefly here:

A Sociological Model

The grammatical model underpinning this course is Systemic Grammar, developed by the British linguist, M.A.K. Halliday. This is one of the Sociological models of language available. The theory on which it is based is that the structure of language is determined by the social needs of human beings. For example, the basic structure of the clause (Subject - Verb - Object) enables us to talk about who is doing what to whom. The power of human beings to change the world depends on this simple fact.

This model takes as its data the actual texts - spoken and written - produced by particular people in a given context. It has been used for the huge databases which the computer has made it possible to store and access. An example is the Cobuild database at the University of Birmingham, which has used the evidence of millions of words of actual usage to produce surprising descriptions of grammatical categories which have been hitherto taken for granted.

Systemic linguistics has many practical applications. For instance, it is used to detect forgery in Forensic Linguistics. It is also used for Stylistics - the linguistic analysis of literary texts.

A Psychological Model

The model which has excited most attention and which occupies many linguists across the world is Transformational Generative Linguistics. This was initiated in the late fifties by the American linguist, Noam Chomsky.

It was a truly innovative model derived from the Communications theory of the period and it opened up a new paradigm for Linguistics. Its originality at the time lay in that it hypothesised that language is innate - it is wired into the human brain just as the ability to steer by the earth's magnetic force is wired into the brain of a pigeon. At the time this was a controversial idea, because the emphasis in traditional Linguistics was on children's learning language by imitation. The idea is now very generally accepted,

Transformational Generative Grammar opened up a new kind of research into language acquisition, and many fascinating studies of the way children find their way into their language community continue to be produced under that paradigm,

One aspect of Transformational Generative Grammar which is radically different from more traditional models is the data which it uses to work on. This is the native speaker's intuitive understanding of what is grammatical. It comes out of the heads of native speakers of a language (usually the linguist's own) without any empirical investigation.

The model is not therefore useful for describing what people actually say.

Common Ground

At the elementary level the categories used by all linguists of whatever school are basically very similar (though they may be labelled differently). Many are not unlike those of traditional grammar - for instance, all linguists would agree on what is a verb and what is a noun.

The differences between traditional grammar and any modern linguistic model are that the latter is scientific: it is descriptive rather than prescriptive. It is conscious of the paradigm it is using and it is not satisfied until it has accounted for all the data.

The bibliography suggest some books for students who wish to do more than acquire the basics of grammatical knowledge.

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