UNIT 1

ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOK AND QUESTION PAPER

REFER STANDARD TEXT BOOK OF 8TH AND 9TH ...

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UNIT 2

ADVANCE GRAMMAR II

SENTENCE CONNECTION – DEVICES OF COHESION AND COHERENCE

Writing seems to be the most complex of the four basic skills. It is a process that requires both knowledge of Morphology and Syntax because letters have to be appropriately put to form words and words to form phrases and sentences. Bowen & Marks (1994) define writing as the most demanding of the language skills. That is, it requires more individual effort than other skills do. As indicated by McDonough & Shaw (1998), writing can be dealt with in four levels where handwriting, spelling and punctuation constitute the first level, sentences, grammar and choice of words the second level, paragraphs the third and the overall organization the last.

someone, something or somewhere mentioned by the speaker.

E.g.   He'll come tomorrow and attend the work.

When?

Hey, he just snatched he chain.

Who?

OTHER TYPES OF YES / NO AND WH – QUESTIONS

The following questions are either Yes / No questions or Wh – questions. These question types are presented separately however, because they serve specific functions that are different from the question types mentioned above. The names given to these questions reflect these functions.

1. Alternative Questions

These questions offer at least two alterative answers.

E.g.   Is your birthday in June or July?

Would you prefer coffee, tea or milk?

Are you coming or not?

2. Echo Questions

These questions repeat all or part of what has been said.

E.g.   Hannah will be leaving for Mumbai next week.

She will be leaving for where?

3. Exclamatory Questions

These questions are exclamations asserting the belief of the speaker.

Aren't you the gold medalist!

In this example, the second occurrence of *bear* refers to the first one. Also there is a referential link 'the' signaling that the same bear is intended. Repetition therefore establishes a cohesive tie between at least two identical lexical items.

(b) **Using Synonyms:** This refers to two or more words of expressions having the same meaning. In this case lexical cohesion results from the choice of a lexical item that is in some sense, synonymous with a preceding one.

E.g. I heard a <u>sound,</u> but I could not figure out where that <u>noise</u> came from.

In the above example, 'Noise' refers back to the 'sound'.

I saw a <u>beautiful girl</u>. She was really <u>pretty</u>. In fact she was <u>lovelier</u> than all the faces I have seen.

In the above example, 'pretty' and 'lovelier' refer back to 'beautiful'.

(c) **Using antonyms:** This refers to two or three words which have opposite meaning. Here, lexical cohesion results from the lexical item that is opposite in meaning to the preceding one.

E.g. Be <u>happy</u> with what you have. Don't have any reason to be <u>unhappy.</u>

Be <u>lenders</u> but not <u>borrowers.</u>

(d) **Collocation:** This refers to all the words that strike out our mind when we utter a word.

E.g. Teacher - dedication

Scholar

Learned

Guide.

From the perspective of teaching writing, the students are assumed to learn first to write down words – a combination of letters – and then to form sentences by using appropriate words with correct punctuation. And the final aim is to form a well-organized, unified, cohesive and coherent composition. That is why, discourse skill which consists of cohesion and coherence is found to play a vital role in writing.

Discourse skill constitutes an indispensable component of writing quality. Focusing on only grammar, spelling punctuation etc. is not enough for dealing with writing. In any writing cohesion and coherence are also very important. Every sentence in a paragraph should contribute to the development of the idea. Hence, knowing about cohesion and cohesive devices constitutes an important factor in making a text.

COHESION: The action of forming a united whole

As Halliday and Hasan (1976) put forward, the concept of cohesion is a semantic one, and it refers to relation of meanings that exist within the text. Cohesion is the lexical and grammatical linking within a text or sentence that holds it together and gives a meaning. There are two main types of cohesion namely, Lexical Cohesion and Grammatical Cohesion. Lexical Cohesion is based on lexical content and background knowledge. Grammatical Cohesion is based on structural content of the text.

1. Lexical Cohesion:

Lexical cohesion is a linguistic device which helps to create unity of text or discourse. Lexical cohesion is achieved by selection of vocabulary. Various categories of lexical cohesion are:

(a) Repetition: It is the mere identical recurrence of preceding lexical item.

E.g. Alan met a bear. The bear was bulgy.

In the above example, the word 'however' gives a contrast opinion. Other such words are, 'but', 'on the contrary', 'in contrast', 'in contradiction' etc.

c. Exemplification:

E.g.   There are various methods of teaching spelling. For example,Play way Method is one method which consists of various spelling games.

Here, the word 'for example' gives an example for the methods of teaching spelling. Other such words are, 'for instance', 'to give an example', 'an illustration' etc.

d. Cause and effect:

E.g.   John was so playful. He did not study well and spent most of his time in playing video games and chatting in the face book. As a result, he failed in the examination.

In the above example, the expression 'As a result' links the sentences. Other such expressions are 'in consequence', 'consequently' etc.

e. Summing up:

While concluding or summarizing a few points or ideas certain expressions are used as, 'In conclusion', 'To sum up', 'Briefly', 'In brief', 'In short', 'In summary' etc.

Thus, coherence helps the parts of a discourse stick together. A coherent composition gives the reader the opportunity to follow the writer's words from sentence to sentence and from paragraph to paragraph easily. The text has smooth flow that one sentence leads easily into the next sentence and the sentences are well connected. In this respect, the cohesive devices are the items that provide such a connection within the text.

2. Grammatical Cohesion

Grammatical cohesion is achieved mainly by the use of pronominal terms for antecedent Noun Phrases and Conjunctives.

E.g.   Last week, my uncle's family came from Mumbai. <u>We</u> went on a picnic <u>and</u> really we enjoyed <u>it</u>. But we had to return back earlier <u>since</u> my uncle had a phone call.

In the above example 'We' and 'it' are the pronominal forms and 'But' and 'since' are conjunctives.

COHERENCE (LOGICAL COHESION):

The quality of being logical and consistent

The meaning of the word 'coherence' comes from the Latin word 'cohaerere' (co = together, haerere = to stick) Corbet (1987). Coherence is another device by which paragraphs are structured by linking the sentences employing logical devices, which make paragraphs coherent. There are a number of logical relationships that bring sentences together. Coherence or logical cohesion is achieved by adding more points to the sentence in the following ways:

a.   Addition:

E.g.   The chief guest delivered a lecture on 'The Importance of Learning English'. <u>In addition</u> he insisted on the importance of developing writing skill.

In the above example, the word, 'In addition' adds something more. Other such words are, 'Further', 'Moreover', 'Besides', 'Apart from this' etc.

b.   Contrast:

E.g.   Direct Method is the best method of teaching English. <u>However,</u> it has a disadvantage that it does not suit all the students.

e.g.   By next year we shall have been living in this house for three years.

When he gets his degree, he will have been studying in Cambridge for four years.

Future Perfect tense is not very common.

AUXILIARY VERBS

An Auxiliary Verb is a Verb that helps to form the moods, tenses or voices of other verbs. An Auxiliary Verb is also called as a 'helping verb'.

Auxiliary Verbs are used in conjunction with main verbs to express shades of time and mood. The combination of helping verbs with main verbs creates what are called Verb Phrases or Verb Strings.

There are sixteen Auxiliary Verbs in English. They are:

1. Be
2. Have
3. Do
4. Will
5. Would
6. Shall
7. Should
8. Can
9. Could
10. May
11. Might
12. Must
13. Ought
14. Dare
15. Need
16. Use To

Auxiliary Verbs have been classified as **Primary Auxiliaries and Modal Auxiliaries.**

I suppose I shall reach the office on time.

She expects she will get first class.

FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

Form: Subject + will / shall + be +ing form.

She will be joining duty.

They will be attending the meeting.

The Future Continuous Tense is used:

To express an action which will occur in the usual course of events.

E.g.   We will be celebrating the festival

They will be enjoying the concert.

The children will be playing here this evening.

We will be watching the Tennis match tonight.

The post man will be coming soon.

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

Form: subject + will / shall + have + Past Participle.

The Future Perfect Tense is used to talk about actions that will be completed by a certain future time.

E.g.   I shall have completed my course by next year.

He will have completed the construction work by next month.

By the end of next month I will have worked here for ten years.

FUTURE PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

Form: Subject + will + have + been + ing form. ·

The Future Perfect Continuous tense shows an action going on over a period of time that will end in the future.

The climate is not good, is it?

They will not come, will they?

4. Modal Auxiliaries combine with infinitives to indicate certainty, obligation, possibility, necessity, permission, obligation etc. (When the auxiliary verbs combine with infinitives, 'to' is dropped).

E.g.   I will pass the examination (certainty).

You must attend the interview (obligation).

We should eat healthy food (necessity).

You may take leave (Permission).

He can swim (ability).

PRIMARY AUXILIARIES

1. **The Auxiliary 'Be' (Am, is, are, was, were).**

The functions of the Auxiliary 'Be' are:

1. To form Tenses (Continuous)

E.g.   I am writing.

They are talking.

He was driving.

2. To convey decisions, plan, agreement, arrangement etc.

E.g.   We are to buy a car next week.

I am to leave for Chennai tomorrow.

The Chief Minister is to meet the Prime Minister at the airport.

3. To denote a command.

E.g.   You are to wear the rain coat, as it is raining.

Children are to obey their parents.

PRIMARY AUXILIARIES:

The Auxiliaries 'Be', 'Have' and 'Do' are called Primary Auxiliaries.

The different forms of the Auxiliary 'Be' are: Am, Is, Are, Was, Were, Being and Been.

The different forms of the Auxiliary 'Have' are: Has, Had and Having.

The different forms of 'Do' are: Does and Did.

MODAL AUXILIARIES

The Auxiliaries, Will, Would, Shall, Can, Could, May, Might, Ought to, Dare, Need and Used to are called Modals are Modal Auxiliaries.

Functions of Auxiliaries

1. Auxiliary verbs are used to form tenses:

E.g.   They are singing (Present Continuous Tense).

He had written the novel (Past Perfect Tense).

I must go (Present Tense indicating compulsion).

2. Auxiliaries are used in short answers to avoid repetition.

E.g.   Does she play guitar? Yes, she does.

Have you ever visited USA? No, I haven't.

Must I answer this question? Yes, you must.

3. Auxiliaries are used to form question tags.

E.g.   The teacher has come, hasn't she?

They have gone, haven't they?

It is raining, isn't it?

The Auxiliary 'DO' (Does, Did)

1. To form the Negative and Interrogative of the Simple Present and Simple Past Tenses of Ordinary Verbs.

E.g: She doesn't like coffee.

I don't know swimming.

Does he learn grammar?

Did they go to Delhi?

2. To avoid repetition in short answers.

E.g. Do you like tea? Yes, I do.

Does she participate in the competition? Yes she does.

Did you go to the market? Yes I did.

3. To form question tags.

E.g. They came late, didn't they?

She sings well, doesn't she?

We go together, don't we?

4. To emphasize the affirmative nature of a statement.

E.g. I do like music.

You do look fresh.

He did commit a mistake.

5. To emphasize requests and intimations

E.g. Do come and join with us.

Do go and help her.

Do take care of her.

4. In the formation of the Passive.

E.g. The snake was killed.

The thieves were caught.

5. 'Be' is used in the Past Tense with the Perfect infinitive to denote an arrangement that was made, but not carried out.

E.g. My brothers were to have been gone to England last week but had to postpone the trip.

They were to have been finished the job in November but had to drop it in the middle.

The Auxiliary 'Have' (Has, Had).

The Functions of the Auxiliary 'Have' are:

1. To form Present and Past Perfect Tenses.

E.g. We have visited TajMahal.

She has completed the work.

He had missed the bus.

The train had left before we arrived.

2. To express compulsion or obligation

I have to prepare for the exam.

She has to travel alone.

They had to be there before 5 o'clock.

3. Have + Had

Sometimes 'have' as an Auxiliary Verb combines with 'had' the past participle of the finite verb 'have'.

E.g. I have had my breakfast.

We have had enough sweets.

She has had refreshment.

3. To express one's intention or decision or a promise (used with first person).

I will drop you in the bus stop.

I will do better the next time.

4. To express assumption or probability (used with second and third persons).

You will be the gold medalist, I suppose.

This will be the right time to approach the manager, I think.

He will be the culprit.

5. To express invitations or requests

Will you drop me at the office?

Will you accompany me to the library?

Will you lend me your bicycle?

B) WOULD

1. To express polite requests

Would you please help me to fill up this application form?

Would you please show me the way to the bazaar?

Would you mind lending me your bicycle for a day?

2. 'Would' is used after 'wish'

I wish she would get a job soon.

I wish you would buy a house.

I wish it would stop raining.

3. 'would' is used with the verbs 'like' and 'care'

I would like to play music.

THE MODAL AUXILIARIES

The verbs 'can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must and ought to' are verbs which help other verbs to express a meaning. It is important to realize that these "modal verbs" have no meaning by themselves. A few basic grammatical rules applying to modal verbs are:

(a) Modal verbs are never used with other auxiliary verbs such as do, does, did etc. The negative is formed by simply adding "not" after the verb; questions are formed by inversion of the subject and verb:

E.g. You should not do that.

Could you, please help me?

(b) Modal verbs never change form: We can never add 's' or 'ed' with a modal verb.

(c) Modal verbs are never followed by 'to' with the exception of 'ought to'.

Functions of Modal Auxiliaries

1. WILL, WOULD, SHALL, SHOULD

A) WILL

1. To express habitual actions in the future.

When summer approaches, birds will migrate.

Farmers will sow seeds just before the monsoon.

Christmas mood will start from November.

2. To express characteristic habit.

She will chat for hours together.

He will never speak in the public.

They will fast every Friday.

D) SHOULD

1. 'Should' is used to express duty. ✓

   We should not pollute nature.

   Teachers should prepare the lesson plans.

   Children should obey their parents.

2. Should + Present Perfect – shows a duty left un-done.

   Subject + should+ have + Past Participle.

   You should have prepared well for the examination.

   They should have advised their son to be humble.

   You should have attended the training.

3. 'Should' is used to express determination.

   We should be duty conscious hereafter.

   We should work hard to lead a successful life.

   I should learn grammar thoroughly.

4. CAN, COULD, MAY, MIGHT

A) CAN

1. 'Can' is used to express <u>ability, permission and pos-sibility</u>

   I can teach grammar.

   She can walk very fast.

   You can go now.

B) COULD

1. To express ability in the past.

   He could run fast before the surgery.

   She could play well when she was young.

We would like to join the choir.

Would you like (care) to meet the Manager?

4. 'Would' is used with Adverb 'rather' and 'sooner'

He would rather start a business than waiting for a job.

The patient be sooner get operated than bearing the pain.

C) SHALL

1. 'Shall' is used ~~in the first person~~ to express futurity.

I shall attend the seminar tomorrow.

I shall visit your house next week.

We shall plan for a picnic.

2. 'Shall' is used in the second and third persons to express an order or command, promise, threat etc.

You shall not see my face hereafter.

We shall conduct the meeting next week.

He shall be punished for this.

('Shall' is becoming outdated and formal and not used in everyday English).

3. 'Shall' is used to make offer and requests.

Shall we start the prayer?

Shall we go to the beach?

Shall I wait for you?

4. 'Shall' is also used to request instructions.

When shall I join duty?

When shall we arrange the dinner?

What shall we do now?

D) MIGHT

1. Used like 'may' to express permission or possibility

   He might be my teacher next year.

   She might be sleeping now.

   I asked my dad whether he might allow me to go to my friend's house.

2. 'Might' is also used to express a command.

   You might buy a book for me.

   You might shut the door.

3. MUST, OUGHT (TO)

A) MUST

1. To express obligation or necessity.

   We must pay income tax.

   We must obey the laws.

2. To express emphatic determination.

   I must pass this examination.

   He must be very loyal.

3. To introduce questions.

   Must I give the vote of thanks?

   Must he pay the bill?

B) OUGHT (TO)

1. To express duty or obligation

   We ought to salute our national flag.

   We ought to take care of our parents.

2. To express permission.

    She asked the Manager if she could take leave.

    The doctor told that the patient could be discharged after two days.

3. To express possibility

    My uncle could be here within half-an-hour.

    If he walked fast, he could be here on time.

4. To introduce a request

    Could I have a cup of tea?

    Could you please come with me?

    (Polite requests are introduced by 'would' but 'could' is considered more polite).

5. 'Could' is also used with Present Perfect Tense.

    I could have helped her in need.

    He could have settled the amount.

    You could have called me over phone.

C) MAY

1. To express permission and possibility

    You may send the email next week.

    You may leave if you want.

    I may go to the gym tomorrow morning.

    He may be waiting for me.

2. To introduce a request

    May I have some water?

    May I apply for the job?

1. 'dare' with and without 'to'

In the affirmative, however, he / she / it dares is often followed by the infinitive 'to'. With other persons 'to' can be dropped.

E.g.   His parents wonder how their son dares to do such things.

Some bold teachers dare speak out at every staff meeting.

In the negative and interrogative forms with do / did, 'to' is often omitted. In the negative and interrogative forms without do / did, 'to' is always omitted.

E.g.   Did he dare find fault with my presentation?

The boy didn't dare show his father his marks.

The people dared not come out of their houses during the storm.

Dare we interrupt them at work?

'Dare' is generally used in negative sentences. It is not widely used in the affirmative.

2. 'dare' as a Transitive Verb

As a Transitive Verb 'to dare' means 'to challenge' 'to be brave enough to'. It is followed by object + to – infinitive.

In the following sentences 'dare' is used as a transitive verb:

He dared his friend to catch a cobra.

The clown dared the audience to walk on the rope.

The magician dared anyone to do what he had done.

2. To express a strong probability.

We ought to attend the conference.

Our guests ought to be here this evening.

3. To show a duty left undone.

Subject + ought to have + Past Participle.

I ought to have attended the wedding of my friend.

You ought to have told me the truth.

She ought to have worked hard.

4. DARE, NEED, USED (TO)

a. DARE

1. I want to see how he dares to enter the prohibited area.

2. How dare you speak to me like that?

3. The frightened boy dared not enter the Principal's room.

'Dare' is conjugated like an ordinary verb in the affirmative: 'dares', 'dare', 'dared'. In the negative or interrogative 'dare' is conjugated either like an ordinary verb or like an Auxiliary.

Negative Present   : do / does not done - dare not

Negative Past   : did not dare -   dared not

Interrogative Present : do you / does he dare - dareyou / he?

Interrogative Past   : did you / he dare - dared you / he?

The auxiliary 'dare' like other auxiliaries, combines with the infinitives of verbs and the infinitives often drop 'to'.

I used to go to the library every Saturday.

He used to do exercise every morning.

'Used to' is used in the following type of sentences:

1. **Affirmative Sentence**

   Gandhiji used to spin for an hour daily.

   When I was young I used to work for 12 hours.

   He used to pay a visit every now and then.

2. **Negative sentences**

   She used not to tell lies.

   He used not to smoke; but now he is a chain smoker.

3. **Interrogative sentences**

   Used he to drink when he was young?

   Used sheto work hard when she was a student?

4. **Passive Voice Sentences**

   She is used to taking tea.

   I am used to simple life.

   He got used to rising early.

   We are not used to telling lies.

CONCEPTS: DIFFERENT WAYS IN WHICH VARIOUS CONCEPTS ARE EXPRESSED

Modals are those helping verbs that express the mode of action denoted by the main verb. These modals are used to express ability, permission, request, possibilities, invitations, instructions, suggestions, obligation, necessity etc. They have a special place in English language as they perform certain structural function in sentence formation. Good understanding of these modal auxiliaries is necessary to form various sentences.

b. NEED

Need can be used as a Transitive Verb, when it means, 'require'.

He needs urgent help.

She needs counseling.

As an Auxiliary Verb 'need' is generally used in the negative and it is not often used to convey an affirmative meaning.

1. To express absence or obligation.

    You need not pay the money.

    He need not go to the hospital.

2. Don't / won't need / need not / must not / don't have to

    You don't need to resign you job.

    You won't need to bring your lunch tomorrow.

    You need not prepare the breakfast (I've already prepared).

    You must not smoke (It is injurious to health).

    We don't have to go to the office on holidays.

3. Need not + have + Past Participle.

    To show an unnecessary action which was nevertheless done.

    He need not have sold the house.

    She need not have given such a punishment.

c. USED (TO)

1. To express a discontinued habit.

    He used to smoke before his marriage.

    They used to visit us when we were in the town.

2. To express a routine in the past.

<u>May</u> is another more formal and polite way of asking for permission:

> May I ask a question please?

> May we go home now?

We use <u>can</u> to give permission:

> You can go home now if you like.

> You can stay with me if you like.

<u>May</u> is a more formal and polite way of giving permission.

> You may leave early.

> You may go home now.

We use <u>can</u> to say that someone has permission to do something:

> We can go out whenever we want.

> Students can travel free.

<u>May</u> is a more formal and polite way of saying that someone has permission:

> We may go out whenever we want.

> Student may travel free.

INSTRUCTIONS AND REQUESTS

We use <u>could</u> you and <u>would</u> you as polite way of telling or asking someone to do something.

> Could you type this please?

> Would you please help me to lift the box?

> Could I have my bill please?

<u>Can</u> and <u>will</u> are less polite:

> Can you take a print out please?

> Will you please lift the box for me?

Given below are the different ways in which various concepts are expressed:

ABILITY:

We use <u>can</u> to talk about some one's skill or general abilities:

> She can speak several languages.
>
> I can type.
>
> He can swim like a fish.
>
> They can't dance very well.

We use <u>can</u> to talk about the ability to do something at a given time in the present or future:

> You can make a lot of money if you are lucky.
>
> Help. I can't breathe.
>
> They can run but they can't hide.

We use <u>could</u> to talk about the ability in the past:

> She could travel a lot.
>
> She couldn't dance very well.

We use <u>could have</u> to say that someone had the ability / opportunity to do something, but did not do it.

> She could have learnt Veena, but she didn't have time.
>
> I could have bought the house, but didn't.

PERMISSION

We use <u>can</u> to ask for permission to do something.

> Can I ask a question, please?
>
> Can we go home now?

<u>Could</u> is more formal and polite than 'can'.

> Could I ask a question, please?
>
> Could we go home now?

I'll fill up this form for you.

I'll lend you some money, if that helps.

I'll carry this bag for you.

We use <u>would you like (to)…</u> for invitations.

Would you like a drink?

Would you like to accompany me?

We use <u>you must</u> or <u>we must</u> for a very polite invitation.

You must come round and see us.

You must ring to me tomorrow.

We must meet again soon.

We must go on a picnic.

OBLIGATION AND NECESSITY

We use <u>must</u> to say that it is necessary to do something:

Soldiers must obey their commanders.

Parents must look after their children.

You must stop at a red light.

You can wear what you like, but you must look neat and tidy.

We use <u>had to</u> for this if we are talking about the past:

Soldiers had to obey their commanders.

Parents had to look after their children.

You had to stop at a red light.

We could wear what we liked, but we had to look neat and tidy.

SUGGESTIONS AND ADVICE:

We use <u>should</u> to make suggestions and give advice:

You should plan your budget.

You should have a balanced diet.

We use <u>could</u> to make suggestions:

We could meet tomorrow.

We could go for walking.

We use <u>conditionals</u> to give advice:

He will help you if you ask him.

Using would is more polite.

He would help you if you asked him.

Would you take your studies seriously?

Would you take medicine on time?

OFFERS AND INVITATIONS

We use <u>can I ...</u> to make offers:

Can I help you?

Can I do that for you?

We can also use <u>shall I ...</u>

Shall I help you with that?

Shall I call you on your mobile?

We sometimes say <u>I can...</u> or <u>I could...</u> or <u>I'll (I will)</u> to make an offer:

I can lend you some money, if that helps.

I can carry this bag for you.

If you lend me some money, I will be able to travel to England next summer.

PROHIBITION

We use mustn't to say something about which is prohibited.

You must not smoke in public places.

One must not pluck the flowers in the park.

SUPPOSITION (suppose)

We use 'will & must' when we talk about something which is supposed.

I suppose, my friend will be coming next week.

I think, he will be attending the interview tomorrow.

He behaved so rudely that he must be a rogue.

He pretends to be innocent but he must be the thief.

COMPARISON

Words such as, 'similarly and likewise' are used when there is a comparison between two things or concepts.

An Adjective qualifies a noun; likewise an Adverb qualifies a verb.

Writing is a skill; similarly reading is also skill.

CONTRAST

Words such as, but, however, on the other hand are used when there is a contrast.

He is poor but he is intelligent.

Direct Method is a good method of teaching English; however it has some drawbacks.

On the one hand he wants to write the exam; on the other hand he doesn't want to study.

COMMANDS

We use <u>will</u> and <u>shall</u> to give commands.

All the students will attend the roll call at 9 o'clock ".

You shall stay here till you're relieved", said the officer.

POSSIBILITY

We use <u>may</u>, <u>can</u>, <u>could</u> to tell something which may happen.

It may rain today.

You may get a prize.

Swimming after eating can be dangerous.

Making mistakes can be a good way of learning.

You could have caught the train if you had run fast.

If he had taken the medicine regularly, he could have recovered.

PURPOSE

We use <u>might</u> when we refer to the purpose of some action.

He ran fast so that he might catch the train.

He played well so that he might win the match.

She wore new clothes so that she might look beautiful.

CAUSE AND RESULT (Real conditional)

Both condition and the result are very likely to occur.

If you buy that car, it will cost you Rs. 18 lakhs.

If you buy a car, you can be home earlier.

Today you can easily travel abroad, if you have enough money.

****

UNIT 3

REFERENCE AND STUDY SKILLS IN ENGLISH

While studying a text, we do not just depend on the text to understand it. Sometimes, we may not be able to decipher the meaning of a word from the context given in the text. Similarly, while writing something, we struggle for words. We look for an appropriate word expresses the meaning we have in mind. In both these cases, we refer to reference books such as a dictionary and a thesaurus. The skills needed to refer to a reference book are called reference skills.

1) SQR3 Method of Reading

There have been a large number of manuals, study-aids and books for students to improve study skills. All of them talk of different methods, strategies and techniques of study. One most often quoted method is SQ3R method of studying, which was developed by Francis Robinson, an educational psychologist. He talks about this method in his book "Effective Study" (1970). This method is made of five steps in studying a text. SQ3R stands for the initial letters of each of these steps. S – for Survey; Q for Question; 3R – for Read, Recall and Review.

❖ **Survey:** Survey refers to an overview of the text we are studying, for example, in order to survey a textbook, we need to glance through the title page, preface/ introduction, the table of contents, etc.,

❖ **Question:** After survey, certain questions will have to be raised regarding the text like the following;

a) What shall I be able to do after reading the text?

b) Shall I get a good idea about the subject, which the text deals with?

c) Will it help me in doing my work more efficiently? Write the questions on a piece of paper.

❖ **Read:** Read the text carefully and critically. As you read, think of satisfactory answers for the questions, which you raised earlier. Do not accept the author's ideas / opinions as they are. Compare them with your own and arrive at a conclusion.

❖ **Recall:** Recall the information you had read from time to time and connect it with your previous knowledge and also with the knowledge you are going to gain in future lessons.

❖ **Review:** Review the questions and answers you identified critically against the backdrop of current thoughts and ideas. The main idea in doing this is to verify whether you have traversed the previous four stages properly.

2) Study Skills

Note taking, note- making, summarizing and paraphrasing are important study skills. Let us see them one by one.

i) Note Taking:

Note taking is an important study skill. Note taking refers to the skill of taking notes from a lecture. Not only in the classroom situation, but also in other situations like seminars, conferences and workshops, note taking plays a very important role. Note taking is not only a study skill, but also a skill necessary in official meetings. The person who takes down minutes of a meeting should be good at note taking.

Some of the points to be noted while note taking are as follows:

i. Listen to the lecture attentively

ii. In the introduction of a lecture, a good speaker usually tells the purpose of his lecture, what he is going to talk about and the structure of his lecture. This gives us an idea about the lecture. Listening to the introduction is like surveying in note taking.

iii. Note down the main points as you listen to the lecture. If you either miss or do not understand any point, you can ask the speaker immediately to repeat, if the speaker

allows. Otherwise, leave some space and fill it in with the information later at the end of the session when the speaker clarifies the point.

iv. A good speaker usually ends with a conclusion of the lecture. Listen to him carefully and note down the conclusion.

v. Some of the speakers use slides, OHP, etc. These are all useful while taking notes, but do not spend time in just studying them without listening to the lecture.

vi. You can use diagrams, flow-charts or abbreviations while taking notes. However, remember that the devices used in taking notes should be clear so that you can understand them easily without any effort.

ii) Note Making:

All of us have made notes in schools and colleges. The term note making refers to making notes from a textbook. Most of us used to copy phrases and sentences, which we thought were important, from our textbooks. This is not the correct way. Let us see the systematic way of note making.

The purpose of note making

Note making is an important activity in education. There are three main reasons for making notes:

i. to have a record of the writer's main ideas;

ii. to help our memory while revising. For example, preparing for an examination or interview.

iii. to make use of the knowledge and apply it to our daily lives.

Steps to make notes

There are three basic steps in note making: (i) surveying, (ii) comprehending and (iii) recording

i) Surveying

It is easy to read and understand a text, which deals with a topic familiar to us. But, if the topic is unfamiliar, we may find it difficult to understand. Hence, it is necessary to survey to make ourselves familiar with the text. We will know the direction in which the theme is developed. Surveying involves looking for the topic sentence in each paragraph of the text quickly to get to know what the text is dealing with. The topic sentence in a paragraph is usually either the first sentence or the last sentence. Sometimes, it may also be in the middle.

If we are surveying a chapter, we can survey information in the first and last paragraphs because the topic is introduced in the first paragraph and the chapter is usually concluded in the last paragraph. Surveying can be done only with written texts but not with lectures. Therefore, it is always better to survey before making notes.

ii) Comprehension

Now we know what the text deals with. We shall read the text again for understanding and looking for the main points. As we read the text, we need to identify the main points. It is not a good habit to underline the main points with a pen or a marker in the text itself, if the book is not ours.

iii) Recording

Once the main points are identified, they should be noted down in a way, which is clear and systematic. They can be categorized and represented diagrammatically. That is, the information to be noted can be transferred into a diagram since diagrams are usually easy to remember. If the information to be noted is in the form of a list, the points in the list can be numbered.

The notes should be short and related. Then only it is easy to refer to it quickly, whenever necessary. We should remember the following points while making notes from a text:

i. avoid repetition of a point

i. avoid articles, auxiliaries, prepositions, etc. Retain them

only if essential for meaning.

iii. Avoid many examples: one example is usually enough to illustrate a point.

iv. If there is a word with a specific meaning, you need to note down the meaning.

v. Write the notes in your own words as far as possible. Then only it is easy for you to understand when you refer the notes later on.

vi. Abbreviations and short forms can be used but remember you should be able to recall what those abbreviations and short forms stand for, when you refer the notes later on.

Comparison of Note making with Note taking:

While note making refers to the skill of making notes from a text, Note taking refers to the skill of taking notes from a lecture.
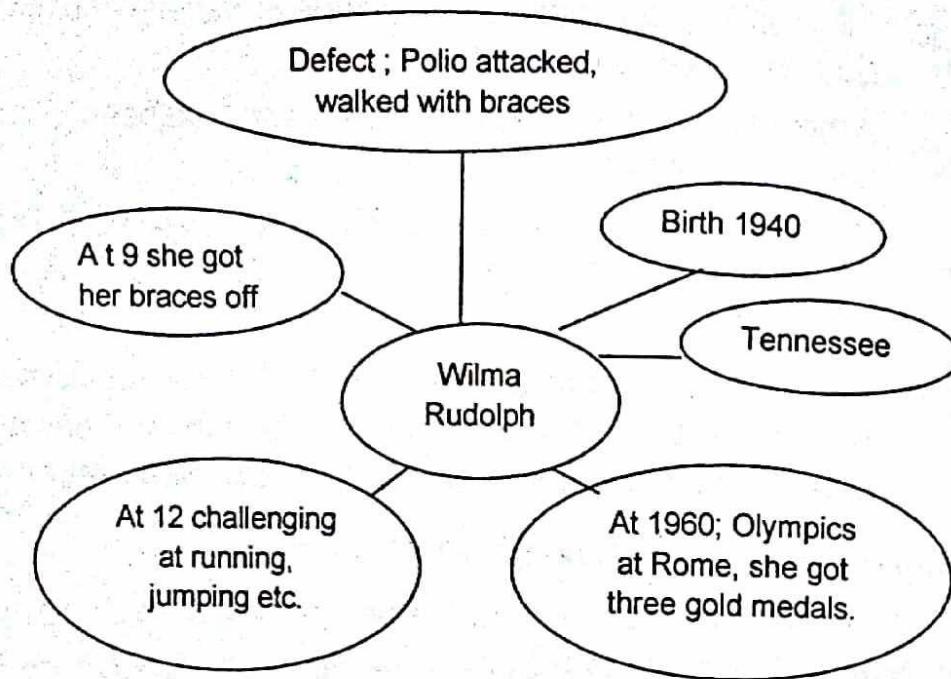
A comparison of these two skills reveals that note making is easier than note taking.

We can read a text any number of times till we understand it: but we cannot listen to the same lecture again and again unless it is a recorded one.
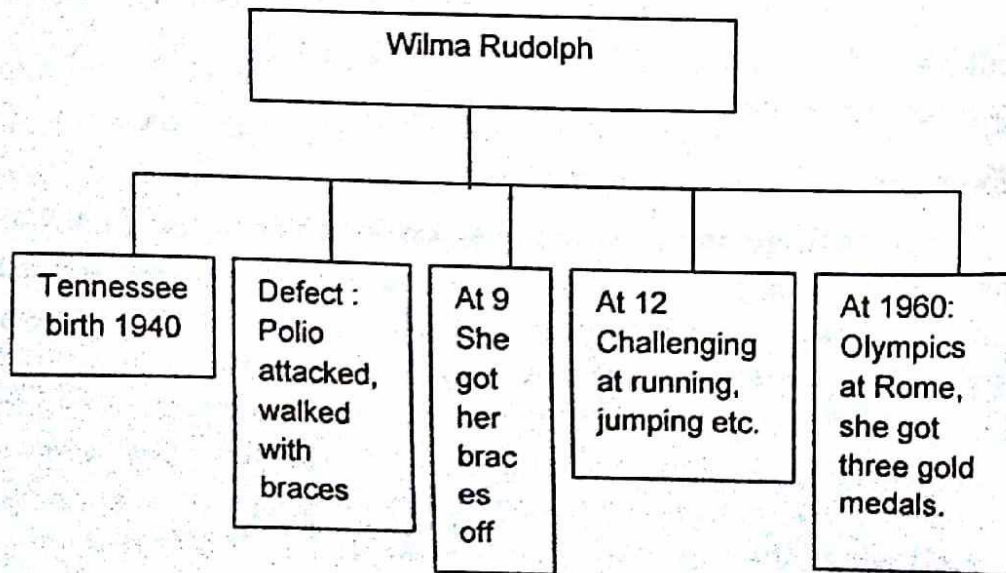
Example:

Wilma Rudolph was born in 1940 in Tennessee. Polio attacked her and the doctors said that she would never walk. She walked with her braces until nine years old. Her mother taught her very early to believe she could achieve any accomplishment she wanted to. The first was to walk without braces. Then she ran and ran and ran everyday. By the time she was 12, she was challenging everybody in her neighbour hood running, jumping over everything. Finally when she won three gold medals at the 1960 Olmpics at Rome, it became history, that a paralytic woman became the fastest woman on earth.

Type - 1

```
        ┌─────────────────────────┐
        │  Defect ; Polio attacked,│
        │   walked with braces     │
        └─────────────────────────┘
                     │
┌──────────────┐     │        ┌──────────────┐
│ At 9 she got │     │        │  Birth 1940  │
│her braces off│     │        └──────────────┘
└──────────────┘     │              │
              \      │        ┌──────────────┐
               \  ┌──────────┐│  Tennessee   │
                \ │  Wilma   │└──────────────┘
                  │ Rudolph  │
                 /└──────────┘\
                /              \
┌──────────────────┐      ┌──────────────────┐
│ At 12 challenging│      │ At 1960; Olympics│
│   at running,    │      │ at Rome, she got │
│  jumping etc.    │      │ three gold medals.│
└──────────────────┘      └──────────────────┘
```

Type - 2

```
              ┌─────────────────────┐
              │   Wilma Rudolph     │
              └─────────────────────┘
                        │
   ┌────────┬───────────┼───────────┬───────────┐
┌────────┐┌────────┐┌────────┐┌───────────┐┌───────────┐
│Tennessee││Defect :││At 9    ││At 12      ││At 1960:   │
│birth 1940││Polio   ││She     ││Challenging││Olympics   │
└────────┘│attacked,││got     ││at running,││at Rome,   │
          │walked   ││her     ││jumping etc.││she got    │
          │with     ││brac    │└───────────┘│three gold │
          │braces   ││es      │             │medals.    │
          └────────┘│off     │             └───────────┘
                    └────────┘
```

Type - 3

Wilma Rudolph:

Birth	: 1940 in Tennessee
Defect	: Polio attacked, walked with braces
At 9	: She got her braces off
At 12	: Challenging girl at running, jumping etc.
At 1960	: Olympics at Rome, she got three gold medals.

III) Summarizing:

Summarising is an important skill, for, all students are constantly required to summarise their lessons and all other materials that they read.

Note: It is easier to digest and remember summarised versions of lessons and other materials rather than the original versions which may be lengthy.

What are the steps to be followed while summarising?

1. Since each paragraph revolves around a key sentence (known as the topic sentence), identify the topic sentence, (Note: Usually, the topic sentence is placed either at the beginning or the end of the paragraph.

2. Identify all key words and expressions.

3. Leave out examples, comparisons, analogies, etc., for these are brought in to stress the main points. (**Note:** Summaries should contain only essential points).

4. Write down all key words and expressions along with the topic sentences separately.

5. Put them together in the form of a paragraph.

Iv) Paraphrasing:

The word "Paraphrasing" is defined as "restatement of the sense of a passage in other words", it is the reproducing in one's own natural idiom or style of the full sense of a passage written in

another idiom or style.

Paraphrasing has two important uses (a) As an exercise in composition (i) It is first, a good test of a pupils ability to understand what he needs, and is, therefore, an excellent method of training the mind to concentrate on what one reads and so as to read intelligently.

ii) It is, secondly, a fine training in the art of expressing, what one wants to say, simply clearly and directly. Incidently, it gives valuable practice in grammatical and idiomatic composition.

b) A second use of paraphrase is that it forms a valuable method of explanation of poem.

Characteristics of a good Paraphrase:

i)   It is a translation of one mans word into the words of another in the same language. It must faithfully reproduce and interpret the thought of the original passage.

ii) Paraphrase must reproduce, not only the substance or general meaning, but also the details of a poem. Nothing in the original may be left un represented in the paraphrase. It is, therefore, a full reproduction.

iii) In paraphrasing, the passage to be paraphrased must be treated as a whole. The practice of taking the original line by line or sentence by sentence and simply turning these into different words is not paraphrasing at all. until the poem is grasped as a whole, no attempt should be made to paraphrase it.

The paraphrasing of poetry, is a useful exercise in composition and may often be a valuable help in interpreting the meaning of poems.

Procedure for Paraphrasing

i)   First read the passage slowly and carefully until you have grasped its general meaning. If one reading does not make this clear read it again and again, and study it until you thoroughly understand it.

ii) Next, read the passage again with a view to its details.

Note all uncommon or difficult words and all idioms and unusual grammatical constructions, metaphors and figures of speech, remembering that you are to express, not only the substance, but also the details.

iii) Now, keeping clearly in mind, the main purpose of the poem, prepare to reproduce in your own words, in simple and direct English not leaving any thing.

iv) Treat the passage as a whole, do not work word by word, or line by line, but from the beginning keep the end in view.

v) you may rearrange the order of sentences and even of the whole passage, if this can make the meaning clear.

vi) Breakup a long sentence into several short ones, or combine several short sentences into one long, If by so doing you can make the whole poem to understand more easily.

vii) Write out a rough draft in order to avoid shabby work.

viii) Finally write out the fair copy neatly and legibly.

Paraphrasing (Speciman) Poem
Breathes there the man, with soul so dead
who never to himself hath said.
This is my own, my native land!
Whose heart hath ne'er with in him burn'd.
As home his foot steps he hath turn'd
From wandering on a foreign stand?
If such there breath, go, mark him well,
For him no minstrel raptures swell,
High though his titles, proud his name,
Boundless his wealth, as wish can claim,
Despite those titles, power and pelf,
The wretch, concentred all in self,
Living, shall forefeit fair renown.
And, doubly dying, shall go down,
To the vile dust, from whence he sprung
Un wept, un honoured, and unsung.

By SCOTT.

Paraphrase:

It is difficult to believe, that any man can be so spiritually dead as to have no love for his native country after travelling in foreign lands. But if such an unpatriotic person does exist, take careful note of his career and you will never inspire poets to celebrate him in death less song. He may be a man of high rank, of noble family and of riches beyond the dreams of avarice" but these great advantages will not save him from oblivion. Inspite of them all, he will win no fame during his life time, and when he dies, he will die in a double time. His body will return to the dust whence it came, and his name will be forgotten. None will weep for him, none will honour him, and no poet will keep his name alive in immortal poetry.

3. Reference skills:

A teacher, to be update, must always be a learner. To make class room teaching interesting and informative, to write supplementary exercise materials, to design interesting question papers and to write text books, the teacher needs to refer to source material such as library books, dictionaries, Thesaurus – encyclopaedia and so on.

i) Library Books:

The second type. I.e. thesaurus is a dictionary. That is, the words in this type of thesaurus are arranged alphabetically. Each entry has headword along with several synonyms following the headword. There are cross-references to relate major categories. Major categories include nouns, verbs and adjectives and are all related to one main idea.

Use of library and reference work:

"Some books are to be tasted, others to be swallowed, and some few to be chewed and digested; that is, some books are to be read only in parts; others to be read, but not curiously; and some to be read wholly, and with diligence and attention." Francis Bacon.

N. Rajeswari

Discuss the following in groups:

Libraries classify books following the Dewey demical system or the Library of Congress System.

A. The dewey classifies books under ten major categories:

000	General Works
100	Philosophy and Psychology
200	Religion
300	Social Sciences
400	Languge
500	Natural Sciences and Mathematics
600	Technology and Applied Sciences
700	Fine Arts
800	Literature
900	Geography and History

B. The Library of Congress system classifies books under twenty major headings:

A General Works

B Philosophy, Psychology and Religion

C General History

D World History

E-F American History

G Geography and Anthropology

H Social Sciences

J Political Sciences

K Law

M Music

N Fine Arts

P Language and Literature

Q Science

R Medicine

S Agriculture

T Technology

U Military Science

V Naval Science

Z Bibliography and Library Science

The three important sections of a library are:

(i) The Reference section where Dictionaries, Encyclopedias, Yearbooks, Atlases and Gazetteers are kept:

(ii) The stack where books are kept; and

(iii) The journal Section where journals, both current and back issues, are kept.

Searching an online catalogue:

Most libraries have an online catalogue of holdings (e.g., books, journals, electronic publications and audio-visual materials) available with them. An online catalogue is a lift of the materials available in the library, and this list can be accessed through the computer. You can make use of the online catalogue to locate books and other materials.

How will you use the online catalogue? The most common ways of locating a book are by (i) author's name; (ii) subject. If you type the author's name, e.g., Shakespeare, William, the computer produces a list of all works written by Shakespeare that are available in that library. Here is another example; If you type Tagore, Rabindranath, the computer will produce a list of all works written by Tagore (Rabindranath) that are available in that library. Note that you have to enter the surname first (e.g., Shakespeare, William or Tagore, Rabindranath or Einstein, Albert). If you enter the surname alone, e.g., Tagore, the computer will produce a list of all authors whose surname is Tagore and there are many Tagores in India.

If you are not sure of the author's name, you can enter the title of the work. For example, if you enter Gitanjali, the computer displays all details concerning Gitanjali, a collection of poems written by Tagore. If you are neither sure of the author's name nor the title, you can enter the subject; word; and the computer will display all titles related to that subject. For example, you want to refer to Abdul Kalam's book "Wings of Fire": An Autobiography and you do not know either the author's name or the title. If you type "wings" or "fire" the computer will show a list of all titles that are related to "wings" or "fire"

Yet another way of searching is by using the Library Accession Number. Once you enter the Library Accession Number the computer displays all relevant details of that book.

Apart from the online catalogue, you can use the card catalogue. Books in a card catalogue are usually listed by author, title and subject. Note that these cards are arranged alphabetically, and it is easy to locate either an author or a book.

Both the online and card catalogues supply us with all relevant details, namely, the author, the complete title, the place of publication, the publisher's name, the year of publication, Accession Number, ISBN (International Standard Book Number) and in some cases the exact location of the book in the library. The online catalogue will also inform us if anyone has borrowed a particular book and when he/she will return it.

Here a sample entry from an online catalogue:

AUTHOR	: Michael Lewis
TITLE	: The English Verb
IMPRINT	: London : Language Teaching Publications, 1986.
CALL NUMBER	: 425.52 LEW
LOCATION COPY	: Status
Stack	: In Library
PHYSICAL FEATURES	: 180 p. : 20 cm
SUBJECT	: Grammar
LC CARD	: 84521
ISBN	: 81 – 85986 – 11 – 8

Dictionaries:

Here are two sample entries from a card catalogue :

Type : 1

SHAKESPEARE	
Othello	
87151	822.33.T7 Sha

Type : 2

821 . 954 Tag G.5

    Tagore (Rabindranath)

    Githanjali : Song Offerings

    Macmillan 1977

            27434

In order to use a library effectively, you should know the various sections of a library. Most libraries have the following sections:

- ❖ Reference section
- ❖ The stacks
- ❖ Journal section
- ❖ Electronic section, including the Internet and Microforms
- ❖ Reprography

What do these sections contain?

- ❖ **Reference:** Indexes (Education Index), Bibliographies (MLA International Bibliography), Collection of Abstracts (Chemical Abstracts), Dictionaries, Encyclopaedias, Year books, Atlases, Gazetteers, and rare and important books in each dicipline (English, Tamil, Chemistry, etc.).
- ❖ **The Stacks:** Except those in the reference section, all books are stored here and the general practice is that only the library staff are allowed inside the stack section.

- ❖ **Journal Section:** Journals (which are different from Magazines) and periodicals are kept here. The back numbers are also kept here for research purposes.
- ❖ **Electronic System:** Most libraries have both print and Electronic sources. The electronic sources include audio visual materials such as audio/video cassettes and CD-ROMs, and also microforms ("Printed matter generally reduced in size by microphotography and which need a special mechanism to magnify them") like microfilm and microfiche. Computer facilities along with the Database and the Internet are part of the electronic section.
- ❖ **Reprography:** Facilities for photocopying (Xeroxing).

Classification of books:

To locate books easily, you should know something about the classification system. There are as many as eight types of classification. But the two most widely used systems of classification are: Dewey Demical System and American Library of Congress (system).

In order to search for a book, you can use:

- ❖ The author index (card catalogue)
- ❖ The title index (card catalogue)
- ❖ Computer Search

1. In the Author Index, books are arranged authorwise alphabetically.

eg.

Andrews, CF   Rowling, JK
Bacon, Francis   Rushdie, Salman
Das, Kamala   Ruskin, John
Eliot, TS   Seth, Vikram
Mehta, Ved   Singh, Kushwanth
Milton, John   Wordsworth, William

(Note: The surname is used here.)

2. In the Title Index, books and other materials are arranged according to the titles alphabetically.

3. Computer search: You can use the computer to search for books and other materials in four different ways:

a) You type in the author's name and the database shows all the titles under the author's name that are available in that library and you can select the title that you are looking for.

b) You type in the title, and the database gives you the complete details of that title including the author's name and other publication details, and also the accession and call numbers.

c) You type in the accession/call number and the computer displays the relevant details of that title.

d) In case you are not sure of the author's name and also the title, type in the Key Word(S) in that title and the computer displays all titles available in that library which contain the key words(s).

OPAC: OPAC is Online Public Access Catalogue. "It is an interactive Search module of an automated library management system. In the OPAC system, any document can be searched through the computer code in the school/college library's database and other library databases, connected by a network system."

General instructions for using the library:
1. Observe silence inside the library.
2. Do not write or scribble anything on the book or on the writing desks.
3. Do not fold the corners of a page. Use bookmarks.
4. Do not deliberately hide books.
5. Do not tear off pages from a book for your reference.
6. Do return the books on /before the due date.

It is the duty of the teacher to guide the students to make an efficient use of libraries.

ii) Dictionaries:

In simple words, a dictionary can be called a book of words. However, it cannot contain a mere list of words. Hartmann (1983) defines it as a "reference book or list of words (usually in alphabetical order) together in other languages."

If we go to a bookstore and look for dictionary of English, we come across a wide variety of dictionaries There are learners' dictionaries, reference dictionaries, bilingual dictionaries, and specialized dictionaries providing in-depth information about words in a particular field like medicine, law and engineering. Each type of dictionary has its own uses, its own methodology and its own purpose. Depending on our own use, we choose a dictionary. For example, we suggest a learner's dictionary like "Oxford Learners Dictionary" or 'Cambridge Learners' Dictionary'

Using a dictionary is a skill, which needs to be acquired consciously.

ii) Locating words

When we come across a new word or when we are searching for an appropriate word to express a particular meaning, we refer to a dictionary. So, if we take a long time to locate a word in the dictionary, we lose track of what we are doing in our main activity. How do we locate a word quickly?

iii) Alphabetical search

We all know that the words in a dictionary are arranged alphabetically. So, anyone who is familiar with the English alphabet can locate words quickly. At the top of every page in a dictionary, there is a word. The word at the top of the left page indicates the first word on the left page and the word at the top of the right page indicates the last word on the right page. These are the guidewords to locate words. These words help us decide whether the word we are looking for is on the page, before or after the page.

iv) Binary search

In this search, we do not go alphabetically locating a word in the dictionary. Open the dictionary randomly at some page so that you have one half of the dictionary in the left hand and the other half in the right hand. Depending on what letter the word you are looking for begins with, determine whether that word is in the left half or in the right half by looking at the word at the top of the page.

The more we practise, the faster we will locate words in the dictionary. We have given some strategies here to locate a word. You can develop your own strategy/method, which is convenient to you.

v) Dictionary entries

What does a dictionary tell us about a word? Is it only the meaning(s) of a word? Any standard dictionary gives us the following information about a word:

a) British and American pronunciations of the word. Usually the British pronunciation is given first.

b) grammatical information - Parts of speech, any specific grammatical usage like count, uncount, transitive, intransitive, co-occurrence with a particular preposition, etc.

c) use of the word - formal and informal

d) meaning(s) of the word.

e) examples showing the use of the word.

f) the derivation of other words from the headword.

There are also pictures illustrating certain words. Some dictionaries even provide the frequency of occurrence of a word in speech and in writing. Look at the following dictionary entry from Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English to know how the information about a word is presented:

What information is available about the word 'puncture'?

Headword **Homograph** **British Pronunciation** **American Pronunciation**

puncture^1/pʌŋkt ʃ əll-ər/n [C] 1 BrE a hole made accidentally in a tyre, so that air comes out of it; FLAT^2 AmE. *I'm sorry I'm late; I had a puncture. To mend a puncture* ^{2} a small hole made by a sharp point.

Variant

Meaning

Meaning number **Part of speech** **Specific grammatical information** **Example**
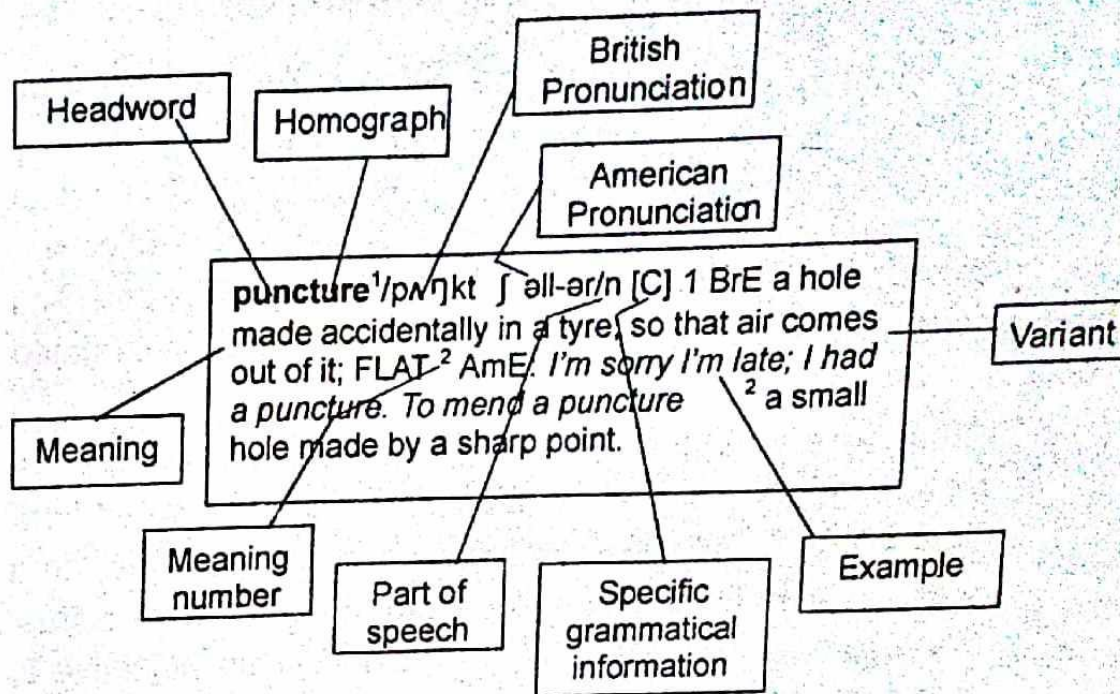
- ❖ 'Puncture' is used as a noun and also a verb. This is indicated by a superscript number in bold, (Puncture 1). The use of the word as a verb comes next in the dictionary.

- ❖ It has two pronunciations - British pronunciation and American pronunciation. The pronunciation is given between two slant lines and the British pronunciation is separated from American pronunciation by two parallel lines.

- ❖ Its part of speech is noun and it is used as a count noun. The part of speech is given in italics and the specific grammatical usage is given in square brackets.

- ❖ It has two meanings: (i) a hole accidentally made in a tyre, so that the air comes out of it and (ii) a small hole made by a sharp point. The number in bold specifies the number of the meaning.

- ❖ The examples are given in italics. Each example is separated from the other by two parallel lines.

- ❖ There is another word, 'flat', with similar meaning in American English and it is listed as a separated headword. The word printed in capitals indicates this.

vi) Headwords and Derived words

Headwords are those words, which are entered in a dictionary as separate words. The different types of headwords listed in a dictionary are: (a) compound words (e.g. black box, black pepper), (b) phrasal verbs (e.g. give up, look into), (c) homographs (e.g. lead - adjective, lead - verb) and (d) other words like affixes, irregular verbs, plurals, and abbreviations (e.g. un-, went, kitten, B.C.). Headword is usually printed in bold.

❖ Other words, which are not entered as headwords are usually, derived words, i.e., the words that are derived from headwords by affixation. Affixation is a process in which a prefix or a suffix is added to a word to derive other words. For example, the suffix -ly is attached to an adjective to make an adverb.

❖ Eager (adj.) + ly eagerly (adv.)

❖ Derived words are not normally listed separately since their meanings are closely related to the words from which they are derived. They are printed in bold letters towards the end of the entry of the words from which they are derived. The following entry is for the word eager, which also lists the derived words eagerly and eagerness.

Iii) Thesaurus:

A thesaurus is a specialized dictionary. Unlike a general dictionary, a thesaurus lists groups of words that have similar meanings. In other words, a thesaurus is called as books of synonyms. There are two types of thesaurus – a traditional style thesaurus and a dictionary – style thesaurus. In the traditional – style type of thesaurus, the words are arranged in terms of basic concepts – abstract relations, space, matter, intellect, volition and affections. Each of these is further divided into sub – concepts like existence, quantity, dimensions, organic matter, moral and religious. This style was developed by Peter Mark Roget, a British Doctor. That is why the traditional – style thesaurus is also called a Roget's thesaurus. A Roget's thesaurus has two sections – index and body. Index lists the words with several meanings, which are

closely related to one another. The body provides the synonyms of a word. To search a particular word, there are two steps involved in a Roget's thesaurus.. First, we need to look up a word in the index and choose a subentry that is closest to the meaning that we have in mind. There is a number next to the subentry. The next step is to look up that number in the body of the thesaurus. A group of synonyms, each separated with a semicolon / comma, are listed under this number. Let us look up the word sweet in a thesaurus.

The index has alphabetically arranged words. The word sweet is listed under 's'. In the index, the word sweet has the following types of subentries: simple words and compound words. These words are all related to the word sweet. The simple words are in italics and the compound words are listed with a hyphen (-) before them. For example, sweet smell is listed as - smell. Now let us took at the first subentry. The first subentry is saccharine and it is followed by the number 396. That is, we shall look up the number 396 in the body of the thesaurus to get the words related to sweet with the meaning saccharine. At the top of each page of the body of the thesaurus, we find the numbers representing the groups of words.

Under the number 396, the following entry is found.

sweet

saccharine 396

melodious 413

color 428

clean 652

agreeable 829

lovely 897

desire 865

love 897

endearment 902

- smell 400

- tooth 865,868

- wine 396

- words 894

396 Sweetness - N. sweetness, dulcitude, saccharinity.

sugar, cane-, beet-sugar, saccharine, glucose, syrup, treacle, molasses, honey, manna; confection, -ary, sweets, grocery, conserve, preserve, confiture, jam, marmalade, julep, sugar-candy, -plum; licorice, liquorice, plum, lollipop, bun bon, jujube, comfit, sweetmeat, caramel, toffee, butterscotch.

Nectar; hydromel, mead, metheglin honeysuckle, liqueur, sweet wine.

Pastry, pie, tart, puff, pudding, cake.

Dulc-ification, oration

V. be sweet, etc. adj.

Render - sweet etc. adj; sugar, saccharize, sweeten, edulcorate, dulcorate, -ify,; candy; mull.

Adj. Sweet, sugary, sacchr-ine, iferous; dulcet, honieo, candied, luscious, nectarious, melliferous,; sweetened etc.

Sweet as -a nut, -sugar, -honey

The second type of thesaurus is a dictionary-style thesaurus. That is, the words in this type of thesaurus are arranged alphabetically. Each entry has headword along with several synonyms following the headword. There are cross-references to related major categories. Major categories include nouns, verbs and adjectives and are all related to one main idea

iv) Encyclopedia:

Encyclopedia is nothing but the book giving information about every branch of knowledge. It gives more comprehensive information. There are two types of encyclopedia viz. I) General ii) Specialised.

General encyclopedia is useful for common man and specialized encyclopedia is useful for specialist in certain areas.

For eg. Every man's encyclopedia has general information on more noteworthy people and things. But if you want very

specialized information on a specific disease – if you are a student of medicine - you should use an encyclopedia of medical terms or something similar.

Secondary the encyclopedias come in many volumes. So look at the spine of the book which will give you the letters with which the topic begins. For examples, if the spine of the volume I says - A carbides - then you understand that the first entry is letter A and Carbides is the last letter. The next volume may say carbides - Euterpe and the third volume, Euthanasia - Janneguin.

Incidently you must remember that for all authors and people who find a place in the encyclopedic, the surname or second name is mentioned first and the first name last. This is how entries are made in the library cataloques too. For instance if you want some information on Mrs Indra Gandhi (ignore the titles Mrs, Mr, Dr or sir) look for the word Gandhi. the entry will be Gandhi, Indira (1917 - 1984) and next comes the entry. Gandhi Mohandas karamchand (1869 - 1948) because letter 'I' comes before 'M' in the alphabetical order.

v) Bibliography and Annotated Bibliography:

Research scholars will have to consult a variety of material on the area of their research. First they prepare preliminary bibliography of a list of books, articles, manuscripts, encyclopedias, yearbooks, news papers and other materials they intend to consult. The best way of preparing a preliminary bibliography is to use 4" x 6" cards with one card for each reference. The information includes the author, the title of the book, place of publication, date of publication translator, number of volumes, number of edition etc. These cards are arranged alphabetically and any new item can be easily inserted into the list and any item if it is not of use can be withdrawn easily. Now the scholar has to compile final bibliography. The entry differs for each type of sources.

Entries for books:

i) The name of the author reversed for alphabetizing is followed by a period,

ii) The title and the subtitle as it appear on the title page is entered in the second line of the card and is underlined and followed by a period.

iii) The place of publication followed by a colon, the name of the publisher followed by a comma and the year of publication on the last line. If it is a book by two or three authors, the first author's surname given first, followed by the name of other authors in a normal order.

vi) Annotated Bibliography:

Annotated bibliography has two additional entries.

1. The library call number of the book and the name of the library where the book is available and

2. A brief note on the content of the book – (the annotation) It is to inform the reader of the relevance, accuracy and quality of the sources cited.

WRITING SKILLS, STUDY SKILLS AND REFERENCE SKILLS

English is a skill subject and there are certain skills which have to be developed by each and every learner of the language.

Writing Skills

Writing is one of the most common ways of communicating with others. It is a complex activity which involves many sub-skills like, writing legibly, spelling correctly, using proper punctuation marks, developing ideas into paragraphs, summarizing, precise writing, report writing and so on. A good writer has the mastery of all these sub-skills. The following section deals with some of these skills:

PARAGRAPH WRITING (PARAGRAPHING)

A paragraph is a group of sentences related to one main topic or idea. A paragraph may be short or long with the nature of the sentences used and the topic. Paragraphs are needed to put each bit of information separate, which makes the passage easy to be comprehended. The bit of information may be an idea, a feeling, a problem and so on. A paragraph is not just randomly selected sentences put together. In a well-organized paragraph, each sentence in the paragraph depends on the other structurally and semantically. All the sentences in a particular paragraph are joined together to make a sensible paragraph.

Characteristics of a Good Paragraph

1. Each paragraph should have a main topic, theme or idea.

2. Each paragraph should have a unity of purpose.

3. Each paragraph must be coherent.

4. A topical beginning and a conclusive ending sentence will add to the style of a paragraph.

5. Each paragraph has careful organization of subject matter and flow smoothly from beginning to end.

In an essay, the different paragraphs deal with different ideas coherent to the topic. Proper knowledge of paragraph writing can help in writing essays, stories, biographies, autobiographies and so on.

SUMMARIZING

Summarizing is a writing skill which should be developed by the students of senior classes. Students should be trained to write summaries of newspapers, reports, articles in journals and magazines, their own lessons etc.

Characteristics of a good Summary

1. A good summary must be organized, inter related and expressed in a logical way.

2. It should contain all the essential ideas present in the original text.

3. Non-essential ideas, more examples etc. should be omitted.

4. The ideas should be in the same order as in the original.

5. A good summary should be as far as possible in the writer's own words, at the same time maintaining the style and spirit of the original.

6. Direct speech should be changed into indirect speech.

Steps for writing a Summary

1. The passage should be read intelligently, more than once if necessary.

2. The most important points should be selected and noted down.

3. The points should be arranged systematically in a logical sequence.

4. An appropriate title should be given related to the main theme of the passage.

5. It should be written in clear and précis language.

6. The length of the summary depends upon the ideas contained in the passage.

7. The content should be rephrased in simple language.

8. A rough draft and a fair draft should be written.

Summarizing serves as a good exercise in writing composition. Its value lies in teaching the students how to express their thoughts clearly, concisely and effectively. It develops the skill of comprehension and logical thinking. It helps in developing creative writing.

DICTATION

Dictation is a valuable exercise for developing writing. In dictation, the teacher speaks or dictates the content selected for it. The students listen and write it down in their notebooks. Dictation is given for helping the students to increase their speed of writing and thus develop their writing skill.

Dictation should be given out of a passage which the students have already practiced. It should be seen by

the teacher that there are no new words in the passage. If there are some new words in the passage, those words should first of all be written on the blackboard. During dictation, the teacher fist reads the whole passage once. The students listen to it. Then the teacher reads it again phrase by phrase at a reasonable speed. In dictation, the teacher should not repeat the passage unnecessarily. If the students know that it will be repeated, they will be inattentive in the class. Therefore the teacher should read it only once. After completing the dictation once, the teacher can read it again so that the students write the words which they have left.

Advantages

1. Dictation improves aural comprehension that the students listen carefully what is dictated.

2. It gives training in reproducing faithfully what is listened to in good handwriting.

3. It helps the students in fixing up in their mind the division of each sentence into phrases.

4. It is useful in teaching spelling and fixes in their mind spellings already learnt.

5. It gives practice to write at a reasonable speed.

Dictation is more useful at the school stage. It should be corrected thoroughly. The first correction is done by the students themselves. Then the students can be asked to exchange and get it corrected. The final correction is done by the teacher. He can get the help of some students, if needed.

TRANSCRIPTION

Transcription is transcribing or copying from a copy note book. The teacher can ask his student to take up copy book writing exercises at the early stage. This helps them to develop their skill of writing and also improves their handwriting.

STUDY SKILLS

In this world of knowledge explosion, in order to gather so much of information, the learners of the language have to develop certain good study skills. The following are some of the study skills:

NOTE-TAKING

Note-taking is an important study skill. It refers to the skill of taking notes from a lecture. It is the process of taking notes not only in the class room situation but also in other situations like seminars, conferences, workshops etc. Some points should be taken into consideration while taking note as follows:

1. Listen to the lecture attentively.

2. In the introduction of a lecture, a good speaker usually tells the purpose of the talk. He will give an overview of what he is going to talk about. This will give an idea about the lecture. Hence this should be listened carefully.

3. While listening, the main points should be noted down. If the listener happens to miss any point, he can ask the speaker immediately to repeat, if he allows. Otherwise he should have some space and fill in at the end of the session when the speaker clarifies the point.

4. A good speech is usually ended with a conclusion or summary. The conclusion should be listened carefully and noted down. Conclusion given by the speaker should be compared with the notes taken down and corrections can be made.

5. While taking notes from a lecture, too much of attention should not be given to observe the power point slides or the handouts given by the speaker. Because they may divert one's attention from listening to the speech and thereby missing certain extra points added.

6. Diagrams, flow-charts or abbreviations can be used while taking notes.

Note taking is an important process. It allows the learners to have a written record of the lecture. It ensures that the learners become active and involved listeners and learners. Good notes should be accurate, clear and concise. They should show the organization of the text and the relationship between the ideas.

NOTE-MAKING

One of the most valuable skills the learners need to develop is the ability to make notes effectively. While note-taking is a passive process which is done at lectures, note-making is a more active and focused activity where the learners assimilate all information and make sense of it.

Note-making is a means to capture the key ideas of a given passage in an easily readable and logically structural format. The style is fairly causal and the learners are even allowed to use abbreviations. The key to abbreviations at the end of the task ensures that any other reader may also be able to interpret the gist of the passage. Thus, note-making can be a wonderful tool to make notes in class, share notes with each other and even revise for an exam.

Technique: How to make notes?

1. The passage should be read carefully.

2. **Heading:** A heading should be framed based on the central idea and it should be written in the middle of the page. The heading should be short, crisp and interesting.

3. **Sub headings:** If there are two or three subordinate or associated ideas, sub-headings can be framed based on such ideas.

4. **Points**: The points of the sub titles should be indented. That is, they should be written with proper space and numbers.

5. All the subheadings should be written at a uniform distance from the margin.

6. **Indenting**: All the points should also maintain the same distance away from the sub-heading.

7. In note-making full sentences should not be written. Abbreviations can be used wherever necessary.

8. Key for the abbreviations should be given at the end of the notes.

9. All the information present in a paragraph should not be included, but the key points should be written.

10. There should be no grammatically correct, complete sentences in the notes. Phrases can be written which can be later expanded into sentences when writing the summary.

While note-making, the learner should be selective in noting down only the essential points. Note-making requires concentration as the learner has to select, analyze and summarize what he heard or read.

REFERENCE SKILLS

Language learning is basically a skill. In order to retain interest among students in learning a language, especially a foreign language like English, the teacher has to combine a variety of skills and present the information in an effective manner. To achieve this objective, the teacher has to take up a lot of reference work himself and then encourage his students to do reference work. There are a lot of reference materials and the students should develop the skill known as 'Reference Skill'. The various reference materials include Dictionary,

Thesaurus, Encyclopedia, Year Books etc. Making best use of the reference materials will help the children to attain mastery over the language.

DICTIONARY

A dictionary is a book which contains alphabetically arranged words of a language and explains, describes, defines or uses a synonym for information. A dictionary can effectively be used for checking pronunciation, spelling, meaning, grammar and references. Dictionary entry elements may include Spelling, Pronunciation, Parts of Speech, Common and Proper nouns, Abbreviations, Synonyms, Antonyms, Etymology etc.

Learning to use a dictionary is an important skill which needs a lot of practice. A teacher of English should encourage the students to make use of a dictionary effectively and quickly. He should teach them how to look up a word in a dictionary. Some of the techniques followed in the dictionaries are:

(a) **Alphabetical order:** Words are arranged according to their first letter. Words beginning with the same letter are arranged according to their second letter. When both the first and the second letters are the same, words are arranged according to their third letter etc.

(b) **Abbreviations:** The different abbreviations given in the dictionary are to be read and followed.

(c) eg. Pl – Plural; N – Noun, V – Verb; Tr. – Transitive; Mas. – Masculine etc.

(d) **Key to entries:** This provides us with the symbols relating to grammatical information, references to usage and meanings of words in different contexts.

(e) **Guide to entries:** A detailed guide to entries is generally provided at the end of the dictionary.

This gives us the information relating to the types of Guide words, verb patterns, synonyms of the Guide word and other combining forms.

The teachers should make the students understand these techniques to enable them to consult a dictionary efficiently as a part of their language learning skills.

Uses of a Standard Dictionary

A good dictionary provides us with the following:

(a) **Synonyms:** different meanings associated with a word with differences in contexts.

(b) **Antonyms:** Opposites of the words.

(c) Use of stress in words.

(d) Differences between British and American pronunciation.

(e) Different parts of speech.

(f) Grammatical usage of words.

(g) Differences between British and American spelling.

(h) Syllable division and phonetic transcription etc.

There are different kinds of dictionaries for different purposes. The **Advanced Learner's Dictionary of current English** by Hornby, gives us the grammar and usage of a word. The **Oxford Dictionary of English** tells us the etymology and formation of a word. The **Random House Dictionary** of the English language gives us the synonyms and antonyms of a word. **English Pronunciation Dictionary** by Daniel Jones provides us with the correct pronunciation of different words. Apart from these there are subject dictionaries for Computers, Education, Philosophy, Engineering, Medicine, Agriculture, etc.

Dictionaries are an integral part of any learning process and they help the learners to have a command over the language.

THESAURUS

The Greek word 'Thesaurus' means 'treasure'. Thesaurus is a book that lists words in groups of synonyms and related concepts. It is like a dictionary or encyclopedia. It differs from the dictionary in the sense that it does not define a word or give the meaning or usage of a word. Unlike a dictionary, it does not indicate pronunciation of words or their use in illustrative sentences. It helps the learner to find the related words when he has one of the meanings of a particular word in mind.

How to use a Thesaurus

There are some common techniques for a dictionary and a thesaurus like, following the alphabetical order, providing Guide words or Head words at the top of the page and using abbreviations. In the introductory pages, there will be instruction on 'How to use the Thesaurus'. It also gives some words in 'Small capitals' among the list of related words. These words refer to another set of related words or additional synonyms. At the end of a Thesaurus, there will be references to antonyms.

Uses of Thesaurus

(a) To know the synonyms of the words

(b) To know the antonyms of the words

(c) To develop vocabulary

(d) To use the language effectively while writing articles or essays

(e) To know related words

(f) To select appropriate words and use according to the context

A good Thesaurus is an inevitable and indispensable part of a writer and also anyone who aspires beauty, style and proficiency in any language. There are Rogets' **International Thesaurus, Collins Pocket Thesaurus, The Oxford Popular Thesaurus** etc. for references. Students and writers who wish to learn more synonyms should refer a good Thesaurus.

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Encyclopedias are reference manuals which give more information on a particular topic, subject or author. Each encyclopedia has many volumes and consists of a lot of information related to the particular subject. Encyclopedias are known as quick reference manuals. There are two types of encyclopedia, namely, General and Specialized. General encyclopedia is useful for each and every one and Specialized encyclopedia is useful for the specialists in the concerned subjects. Most of the big libraries consist of encyclopedias like Encyclopedia Britannica, Encyclopedia Americana, Columbia Encyclopedia etc. There are certain subject-specific encyclopedias like Encyclopedia of Science, Encyclopedia of Agriculture, Encyclopedia of Education etc.

Encyclopedias are to be referred to be in the same manner in which we refer to a dictionary or thesaurus. It also follows the alphabetical order and provides abbreviations. While referring to an encyclopedia, the learners should refer to the Index volume to locate the exact volume, page and column wherein they can find the required information to avoid any waste of time. Encyclopedia helps to have quick reference. It gives in-depth information on any subject we require.

There are so many reference materials which are useful for the children. The teachers should encourage them and help them to make the best use of the Reference materials and thereby develop the reference skill. If it is developed properly, it will certainly help them to improve their ability in the use of English language.

LIBRARY

Library which is called a store-house of knowledge consists of books written by learned persons. The books reflect the best experiences and thoughts of writers. Library plays a dominant role in teaching–learning process. The need of a library is great and its availability is a heart-felt need to almost all the students. The study of extra books supplements the knowledge acquired by the learners. A student who makes the best use of the library will be bold enough to answer the questions asked in the class and free from fear, hesitation etc.

It is the responsibility of the teachers to train the students in Library skill. The teacher should explain them how to use catalogues in the library. They must be trained to find out the required books quickly and they should be taught how to read silently with comprehension. Further, they should be able to put together the relevant information taken from different books or chapters and make a summary out of it.

The best place to stimulate the children to read freely is the library. Some general instructions can be given to the students to use the library as follows:

(a)   Observe silence inside the library.

(b)   Do not write or scribble anything on the book.

(c)   Do not fold the papers of a book.

(d)   Do not deliberately hide the books.

(e)   Do not tear off the pages from a book.

(f)   Do return the book on or before the due date.

In order to provide better library facility to the students of English, it would be better if the class room library is set up where all those books may be made available which

are frequently needed by the students. It will make the students all the more interested in the library.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bibliography (from Greek 'bibliographia, literally "book writing") as a discipline is traditionally the academic study of books as physical, cultural objects. In this sense, it is also known as 'bibliology' Carter and Barker (2010) describe bibliography as a twofold scholarly discipline – the organized listing of books (enumerative bibliography) and the systematic, description of books as physical objects (descriptive bibliography).

A bibliography is a list of books, scholarly articles and other sources used by a researcher when researching a topic and writing a paper. It is included at the end of the paper or report.

In general a bibliography includes the following:

(a) For printed source:

- ❖ Author's name
- ❖ Title of the publication (and the title of the article if it is a magazine or encyclopedia).
- ❖ Date of publication
- ❖ the place of publication of a book
- ❖ the publishing company of a book
- ❖ the volume number of a magazine or printed encyclopedia
- ❖ the page number(s).

(b) For Website:

- ❖ author and editor names (if available)
- ❖ title of the page (if available)

- ❖ the company or organization who posted the web page
- ❖ the web address for the page (called a URL)
- ❖ the last date the researcher looked at the page.

The bibliographic information of different types of resources are located in different places. So the researcher may need to do some detective work to get all the information for the bibliography. The following places may be referred:

- ❖ the title page of a book, encyclopedia or dictionary
- ❖ the heading of an article
- ❖ the front, second or editorial page of the newspaper
- ❖ the contents page of a journal or magazine
- ❖ the header (at the top) or footer (at the bottom) of a website
- ❖ the About or the Contact page of a website.

In a bibliography the entries should be listed in alphabetical order by the last name of the author. If there are two publications written by the same author, the order and format will depend on the style of writing. In MLA and Turabian style of writing, the entries should be listed in alphabetical order according to the title of the work. The author's name is written as normal for the first entry, but for the second entry, the author's name will be replaced with three hyphens.

If a source has more than one author, it should be alphabetized using the first one. If an author is unknown, it should be alphabetized using the title.

The examples in MLA Format or APA Format can be used as a template to ensure that each source is formatted correctly.

Bibliography entries are usually written in a **hanging indent** style. This means that the first line of each citation is not indented, but subsequent lines of each citation are indented.

The main purpose of a bibliography entry is to give credit to other authors whose works have been consulted in a research. Another purpose of a bibliography is to make it easy for a curious reader to find the source used by the researcher.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

[An Annotated Bibliography is a list of citations to books, articles and documents. Each citation is followed by a brief (usually about 150 words) descriptive and evaluative paragraph, the annotation. The annotation usually contains a brief summary of content and a short analysis or evaluation.] Depending on the assignment, the researcher may be asked to reflect, summarize, critique, evaluate or analyse the source. While an annotation can be as brief as one sentence, the standard annotated bibliography consists of a citation followed by a short paragraph.

An annotated bibliography may serve a number of purposes, including but not limited to:

A review of the literature on a particular subject

Illustrate the quality of research

Provide examples of the types of source available

Describe other items on a topic that may be of interest to the reader

Explore the subject for further research

The annotated bibliography may be selective or comprehensive in its coverage. A selective annotated bibliography includes just those items that are best for

the topic while an exhaustive annotated bibliography attempts to identify all that is available on a subject.

The organization of the annotated bibliography may be one of various methods, including but not limited to:

Alphabetical

Chronological: either by date of publication or by period of subject matter (century, era, decade, event, year).

By subtopic

By format (articles, books, government documents, media, web pages etc.)

By language.

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Unit 4

Words and expressions

Figures of Speech

A figure of speech is the use a word or phrase which transcends its literal interpretation. It can be a special repetition, arrangement or omission of words with literal meaning, or a phrase with a specialized meaning not based on the literal meaning of the words in it.

There are many writing techniques that anyone can employ to improve their written work. Most of the writing is meant to communicate others. Figures of speech enable the writer to add colour and variety to his writing to keep the reader engrossed.

They are not just an adornment. In some respects, they are bedrock of communication. Figures of Speech are a set of tools essential for all writers.

Figures of Speech serve two roles:

(a) Ornamentation:

A writer has the power to ornament his / her writing or not. Figures give beauty and variety to what we wish to say and lift it from a common place / monotonous level. Without Figures of Speech our writing would be plodding and boring.

(b) Clearness:

A complex subject can best be conveyed by an analogy.

A Figure of Speech usually contains both the above functions. They are at once ARTISTIC and EXPLANATORY.

It is important for a writer to be aware of the power and degree of choice he has when using figures of speech in English.

The four major Figures of Speech are:

SIMILARITY

Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Fable, Parable, Personification

CONTRAST

Antithesis, Oxymoron, Epigram, Irony, Sarcasm, Innuendo, Hyperbole, Litotes, Euphemism, Pun

ASSOCIATION

Metonymy, Synecdoche

ARRANGEMENT

Interrogation, Apostrophe, Repetition, Pleonasm, Bathos (Anticlimax), Climax.

SIMILARITY

An effective way of communicating a complex, abstract idea / notion is to emphasize how it resembles something else – preferably something which is familiar and concrete. In everyday life, we often use similarity to get our point across (Latin: Similis = like)

SIMILE:

Simile is an explicit / open / overt comparison. It brings out the 'likeness' between two things. Similes are clearly indicated by the words, Like or As (as if, as though).

E.g.   My love is like a red, red rose

A face like a frightened sheep.

As slippery as an eel.

Like peas in a pod.

As blind as a bat.

Eats like a pig.

As wise as an owl.

As brave as a lion.

Similes are usually drawn from History, Legend or Nature.

METAPHOR

Metaphor is an implied, hidden or convert comparison. In some way it is a CONDENSED SIMILE. The words 'like' and 'as' are not especially used. Instead of making the comparison side by side (like against like) a metaphor is stated together in combination. For e.g. ''Silver Moon' means that 'the moon is as bright as silver' – not that it is made of silver (Greek: transference / META – involving change + PHEREIN – to bear, carry).

E.g.　　Christ is the BREAD of life.

Thy word is a LAMP unto my feet and a LIGHT unto my path.

The law is an Ass (Dickens described the 'law' like this. He did not state: 'The law is like an ass).

The camel is the SHIP of the desert.

Life is a DREAM.

Variety is the SPICE of life.

Time is MONEY.

ALLEGORY

Allegory is a metaphor or series of linked metaphors expanded into a tale. Its purpose is to teach by illustrating

some abstract truth (e.g. moral or religious). Therefore once a written gets into a metaphorical mode, the imagination can stretch it into a full story or allegory. (Greek: ALLEGORIA: ALLO-other + AGORIA –to make a speech in public)

E.g. In John Bunyan's (1628 – '86) Pilgrims Progress, the hero's journey is comparable with that of an ordinary Christian's life.

Spencer's Faerie Queen is based upon the reign of Elizabeth I.

FABLE

Fable is a short moral story which is similar to an allegory in which animals or objects speak and act as people in order to highlight human failings. The moral is often stated at the end of the piece. (Latin: FABLA = discourse / speak)

The best known are AESOPS FABLES. Aesop was a deformed Phrygian slave B, (? 620 – 564 BC), but some of his tales have been traced back to Egyptian documents, 1000 yrs. earlier. Some of his fables are: Tortoise and the Hare, the Boy Who Cried Wolf, the Fox and the Grapes, the Ant and the Grasshopper.

PARABLE

Parable is a simple story from ordinary human (not animal) life, intended to imply some deep m oral or spiritual truth. (Greek: PARABOLE, analogy – placing side by side)

E.g.   Parables of,

The Good Samaritan (Luke 10:25 - 37)

The Sower whose Seeds fall on rocky ground (Mark 4:3-9)

The Buried Talents (Mathew 25: 14-30)

Ten Wise Virgins (Mathew 25: 1-13) etc.

PERSONIFICATION

Personification is a figure of speech which ascribes the animate qualities (life, thought, speech, feelings etc.) to things or abstract notions. Personification, therefore, is similar to Metaphor and Allegory but slightly different with the personal or human element.

(Latin: PERSONA = actor's mask, character in a play, human being).

E.g.   Necessity knows no law.

Hope springs eternal.

Let the floods clap their hands.

Death lays his icy hand on kings.

The flowers nodded.

Snowflakes danced.

Thunder grumbled.

Fog crept in.

The wind howled.

CONTRAST

The following Figures of Speech highlight Difference in order to communicate our meaning to others. (Latin CONTRA – against; STAER – Stand, stand against).

ANTITHESIS

Antithesis conveys a clear idea of what a thing is by stating what it is not. A striking opposition or contrast of words or sentiments is made in the same sentence. It is

employed to secure emphasis. (Greek: ANTI – against / TITHERM – place, putting).

E.g.   He wept for joy,

Speech is Silver

Silence is Golden

To err is human, to forgive is divine

Man proposes, God disposes

OXYMORON

Oxymoron is a statement which, on the surface, seems to contradict itself – a kind of concise paradox. It is two contradicting terms used together (Greek: OXUS = sharp / MORON – foolish; pointedly foolish or dull. The word oxymoron is an oxymoron itself.)

E.g.   Peace force

Small crowd

Free market

Bitter sweet

True lies

Masterly inactivity

EPIGRAM

Epigram is a pointed saying; a short poem with a witty ending; a thing written upon. An epigram was originally an inscription to some hero. If this was inscribed in stone, it obviously had to be a brief pointed expression of the person's qualities showing a contrast. (Greek: EPI-upon / above; GRAM - a thing written or recorded).

E.g.   The child is father of the man

Fools rush in where angels tread to fear

He makes no friend, who never made a foe.

"Here lies a man whose word no man relies on; who never said a foolish thing; and never did a wise one." (Epigram written to Charles II during his life time).

IRONY — *funny way or embarassing situation*

With irony the words used suggest the opposite of their literal meaning. The effect of irony, however, can depend upon the tone of voice and the context. An ironic remark implies a double/ dual view of things: a) a literal meaning and b) a different intention. Irony can be used to create amusement unlike sarcasm. (Greek: 'pretend ignorance' or saying the opposite of what is meant).

E.g.   Mark Anthony: "Brutus is an honorable man".

When it is raining, to declare, "What a nice day".

SARCASM

Sarcasm is irony, but with a bitter and offensive tone / intent (a parallel between Humour and Satire.) A sarcastic remark suggests a cruel and taunting ridicule; a bitter wounding comment. 'Sarcasm is the lowest form of wit'. (Greek: verb 'to tear the flesh' hence to 'bit one's lips in rage' or 'speak bitterly.

e.g.   See how these Christians love one another

He is a perfect Solomon.

INNUENDO

Innuendo is a figure of speech by which a certain meaning – usually unpleasant – is conveyed by insinuation. It is an oblique remark or hint; a remark with double meaning – usually suggestive / disparaging. (Latin–nod at or point to).

e.g.   The bank's resources are like the snakes in Ireland (none exist)

His idea of the truth is peculiar (he lies).

HYPERBOLE OR OVERSTATEMENT

Hyperbole is an exaggeration for effect (rather than deceiving any one). No one imagines that a hyperbolic statement be taken seriously (Greek: HYPER – over, beyond; BALLO – to throw, excess.)

e.g.   The burglar ran as fast as lightning

The professor's ideas are as old as hills

The troops were swifter than eagles and stronger than lions

I've told you a hundred times.

It costs a billion dollars

Everybody knows that.

LITOTES or UNDERSTATEMENT

Litotes is the opposite of hyperbole. In Litotes an affirmative is conveyed by negation of this opposite, the effect being to suggest a strong expression by means of weaker. (Greek: LITOS-plain, meagre).

e.g.   The nurse is not a fool (is clever).

The executive is not a millionaire (is poor).

I am a citizen of no mean city (a very celebrated city).

"That [sword] was not useless to the warrior now" (Beowulf).

I won't say the food was delicious (a terrible food).

It is just a scratch (a large dent).

EUPHEMISM — police

Euphemism literally means 'speaking well'. A euphemism contrasts something terrible with something pleasant in

order to soften the effect of the bad news. The words do not bear their literal meaning. Euphemism resembles irony and innuendo, but while the effects of the latter can be offensive or irritating, those of euphemism are meant to be soothing. A mild or vague expression instead of one thought to be too harsh or direct. (Greek: Eu-well; easily; PHEME-speaking)

E.g.   You are telling me a fairy tale (a lie).

Last night he passed away (died).

A little thin on top (bald).

Letting him go (fired him).

PUN —

Pun is a <u>play on words</u> – either their different meanings or upon two different <u>words sounding the same</u>. It is humorous use of a word to suggest different meanings; or of words of the same sound and different meanings. (17th century – perhaps from obsolete word PUNDIGRION – a fanciful formation).

E.g.   Is life worth living? That depends upon the <u>liver</u>.

An ambassador is an honest man who <u>lies</u>abroad for the good of his country.

That lie shall lie so heavy upon thy sword.

Not on thy sole but on thy soul, harsh fool.

ASSOCIATION

In Association two elements of comparison are FUSED into one word.

METONYMY –

In Metonymy, an item is replaced by <u>something closely associated with it.</u> (Greek: Substitute naming; META – involving transfer + ONOMA-a name)

E.g.	The Bench	-	Judges.
	The House	-	Members of LokSabha
	Laurel	-	success.
	The crown	-	Monarchy.
	Turf	-	Horse Racing.

SYNECDOCHE - *one thing is meant to represent the whole*

In Synecdoche a part is used to designate the whole or the whole to designate a part. (Greek: SYN – with, together, alike; EKDOKHE-to take up or understand, with another)

E.g.   A fleet of eighty Sail (Sailing Ship).

New faces at the meeting (new persons).

Give us this day our daily bread (food).

All the best brains in Europe could not solve the problem.

He has many mouths to feed

ARRAMGEMENT (of Words)

INTERROGATION

Interrogation is a rhetorical question. It is asked not in the hope of getting an answer, but for effect. (Latin: INTER – between, among; ROGARE - ask).

E.g.   Can a leopard change its spots?

To be or not to be?

What kind of fool am I?

Am I my brother's keeper?

Do men gather grapes of thorns, or figs of thistles.

APOSTROPHE

Apostrophe is a figure of speech by which a person – generally absent or dead – or personified abstract idea is addressed. (Greek: APO – from, away; STREPHO – turn, turning away).

E.g.   Our Father which art in heaven … Hallowed by thy name…

‘O World’, ‘O Death’.

‘O Fame! if I ever took delight in thy praises.

Good bye, Winter.

Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean – roll!

REPETITION

— In poetry repetition repeating words phrases lines.

Repetition as a figure of speech, is a mode of emphasizing a point by saying it more than once: (Latin: RE – again, back; PETERE - seek). This can take two forms:

(a)   **Same Words:** Same word repeated over and over.

E.g.   Water, water, everywhere, and not a drop to drink (Published 1798 by Samuel Taylor Coleridge (1772 - 1834))

Half a league, half a league, half a league onward (published 1854 by Lord Alfred Tennyson (1809 - 1892))

Forever and forever and forever.

She loves you, yeah! yeah! yeah! (The Beatles 1963)

(b)   **Different Words:** This is called **Parallelism.**

E.g.   At her feet he bowed, he fell, he lay down (Bible Judges 5: 27)

PLEONASM (Superfluous words)

This is a form of repetition in which the same idea is expressed again in a different grammatical construction. (Greek: Pleonasm's – to be excessive).

E.g.   I saw it with my own eyes.

Most falsely doth he lie.

Essex had a sole monopoly of the sweet wines,

Pleonasm can be effective, but should be used sparingly. The grave danger is that of slipping into TAUTOLOGY.

TAUTOLOGY

Tautology is a faulty style when the same thing is said twice in different words. (Greek: tautologos – needless repetition).

E.g.   At some old ancient inn

Sing of the filth and dirt

Free gift

Forward planning

Short summary

Newinnovation.

CLIMAX

Climax is the arrangement of a series of statements in order of ascendancy, so that the last is the strongest of all – the most positive, and uplifting. (Greek: CLIMAX - ladder)

E.g.   I came, I saw, I conquered.

I have no rest nor joy nor peace.

Hamlet: "What piece of work is Man? How infinite in faculties! In form and motion how express and admirable! In action how like an angel! In apprehension how like a God!"

ANTICLIMAX (BATHOS)

When the ideas are presented in a descending order, it is called Anticlimax (Greek: BATHOS - depth)

E.g.   He is a great philosopher, a member of parliament and plays golf well.

She lost her husband, her children – and her purse.

The soldier fights for glory and a shilling a day.

ONOMATOPOEIA

Onomatopoeia is a word that sounds like what it is describing. When the sound of the syllables brings out the meaning clearly or when a word is self – explanatory, it is called onomatopoeia.

E.g.   The slow repeated tap (The sound of tapping is echoed in the syllables)

The quick sharp scratch (The sound of 'scratch' is self – explanatory).

Whispering

Creaking

Buzz

Click etc.

ALLITERATION

Alliteration is the repetition of beginning sounds.

E.g.   Sally sells seashells

Walter wondered where Winnie was

Blue baby bonnets

Nick needed notebooks

Fred fried frogs.

Thus, Figures of speech come in many varieties. It is the use of a word or a phrase which transcends its literal interpretation. Figures of speech often provide emphasis, freshness of expression or clarity. The aim of using figures of speech is to use language inventively to accentuate the effect of what is being said.

IDIOMS AND PHRASES

The words 'Idiom' is derived from French 'idiome' or Latin 'idioma', or from Greek 'idioma – matos' = Private Property, idos=own or private.

Idioms can be defined as expressions peculiar to a language. The idiomatic usages play a very prominent role in all languages. Many verbs when followed by prepositions or adverbs acquire an idiomatic sense. It can also be observed that metaphors enter largely into idiomatic phraseology.

The normal method of constructing the meaning of the sentence is compositional. We combine the meanings associated with words, phrases and syntactic configurations contained in the sentences. But sometimes compositionality is not fully respected. In a sentence containing an idiomatic element, the interpretation of the sentence is not fully determined by the interpretation of its parts. Consider for instance, the sentences,

(a) John <u>broke</u> the vase.

(b) John <u>repaired</u> the car.

(c) John <u>broke</u> the ice.

In sentences (a) & (b) the verbs 'broke' & 'repaired' refer to the action of breaking and repairing.

But the sentence (c) has two interpretations: a literal one and an idiomatic one. In the literal interpretation, the sentence depicts a breaking event implicating breaking ice.

But it may have an idiomatic interpretation in which the event described is not one of 'breaking ice' but of starting a conversation, succeeding in communicating. The sentence (c) may be appropriate in a context in which John is with some people and he speaks first. In the idiomatic interpretation there need not be any ice in the situation depicted; the ice does not refer to the material which we normally indicate by the term. Rather the 'break of the ice' as a whole means 'start a conversation'.

Similarly, the idiomatic expression 'Mary Kicked the bucket' has two interpretations: one literal, fully compositional, interpretation in which there is a past act of Mary kicking the bucket. But the idiomatic interpretation of 'kick the bucket' means 'die'.

Following are some of the idiomatic expressions made into meaningful sentences:

1. <u>Eye to eye</u> (to agree)

    I do not see <u>eye to eye</u> with you at least on this point.

2. <u>Burnt his fingers</u> (got himself into trouble)

    He <u>burnt his fingers</u> by interfering in his neighbour's affairs.

3. <u>Fair and square</u> (just)

    I can believe only those who are <u>fair and square</u> in their dealing.

4. **Face the music** (to meet the criticism)

    Do not lie low; <u>face the music</u> boldly.

5. **From hand to mouth** (earning very little)

    He does not have surplus money. He lives <u>from hand to mouth.</u>

6. **From pillar to pillar** (from one place to another)

    He had to run <u>from pillar to pillar</u> for getting a job.

7. **The gift of gab** (power of speech)

    It is with the help of the <u>gift of the gab</u> that he convinces everyone.

8. **To grease the palm** (to bribe)

    He had to <u>grease the palm</u> of the officer to get the work done.

9. **To get into hot water** (to be in trouble)

    He <u>got into hot water</u> when he neglected the warning.

10. **To give the slip** (to escape unnoticed)

    The culprit <u>gave the slip</u> to the police and ran away.

11. **To hit the nail on the head** (to do the right job)

    Till you <u>hit the nail on the head</u> you will not succeed.

12. **Herculean Task** (difficult work)

    It is a <u>Herculean task</u> that needs a lot of labour to accomplish.

13. **In the nick of time** (at the last moment)

    He reached the railway station <u>in the nick of time</u>

14. <u>To nip in the bud</u> (to finish in the beginning)

   <u>Nip the evil in the bud</u> otherwise it will trouble you.

15. Poke one's nose (to meddle)

   Do not <u>poke your nose</u> in the affairs of others.

16. Pour oil on troubled waters (calm down)

   Agitations must be stopped; <u>pour oil on troubled waters.</u>

17. <u>To smell a rat</u> (to suspect correctly)

   The police <u>smelt the rat</u> and arrested him; he was a terrorist.

18. <u>Tooth and nail</u> (violently)

   If we are attacked we will fight <u>tooth and nail.</u>

19. <u>A white elephant</u> (a burden)

   The extravagant son was a <u>white elephant</u> to his parents.

20. <u>Crocodile tears</u> (hypocritical tears)

   He does not have real sympathy but he is shedding <u>crocodile tears only.</u>

21. <u>To cry in wilderness</u> (futile cry)

   A beggar wishing to be a millionaire is a <u>cry in wilderness.</u>

22. <u>An iron hand</u> (with strictness)

   The government will have to curb the movement with <u>an iron hand.</u>

23. <u>A hard nut to crack</u> (a difficult job)

   Passing the entrance examination is a <u>hard nut to crack</u>

24. <u>A fair weather friend</u> (those who remain friendly in good days)

The <u>fair weather friends</u> deserted the prodigal son when he lost everything.

25. By <u>hook or by crook</u> (somehow or other)

They wanted to win the match by <u>hook or by crook.</u>

SAME WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH

There are some words which can function as different parts of speech. It is the function or use that determines to which part of speech a word belongs in a given sentence. Given below are some of the most important words which may belong to different parts of speech according to the way in which they are used:

About

<u>Adverb:</u> Gypsies wander <u>about</u> everywhere.

<u>Preposition:</u> My father told me <u>about</u> his childhood days.

Above

<u>Adverb:</u> Birds fly <u>above</u>

<u>Preposition:</u> He valued safety <u>above</u> comfort

<u>Adjective:</u>The <u>above</u> statement is correct.

<u>Noun:</u> Our blessings come from <u>above</u>

All

<u>Adjective:</u>All birds do not fly.

<u>Adverb:</u> He was left <u>all</u> alone.

Before

Adverb: I have visited Delhi before

Preposition: He reached home before the rain

Conjunction: He left the house before I came.

Both

Adjective: you cannot work in bothplaces.

Pronoun:Both of them are clever.

Conjunction:Both the teacher and the student are from the same place.

Enough

Adjective: I have enough time to talk with you

Adverb: you know well enough about me.

Noun: I have had enough of this.

Even

Adjective: The squares are even.

Verb: They even the ground.

Adverb: Do you even suspect me?

Except

Verb: If the Principal excepts one student, the others will create problem.

Preposition: Everyone wrote the exam well except one student.

Conjunction: I will not let thee go except (unless) thou bless me.

Little

Adjective: There is <u>little</u> water in the pot.

Noun: He does not want much but a <u>little.</u>

adverb: He eats very <u>little</u>.

Much

Adjective: There is <u>much</u> rice in the bag.

Pronoun:<u>Much</u> of it is spoiled.

Adverb: He talks too <u>much.</u>

No

Adjective: It is <u>no</u> joke.

Adverb: He is <u>no</u> more.

Noun:He will not say a <u>no.</u>

One

Adjective: I'll meet you <u>one</u> day.

Pronoun: The little <u>ones</u> cried for joy.

Noun:<u>One</u> has to work hard to become successful.

Only

Adjective: She is my <u>only</u> sister.

Adverb: He acted <u>only</u> foolish.

Conjunction: Take what I have, <u>only</u> let me go.

Right

Verb: He is clever enough to <u>right</u> himself.

Adjective: She is the <u>right</u> person

<u>Noun:</u> We have rights.

<u>Adverb:</u> He stood <u>right</u> in my way.

So

<u>Adverb:</u> She felt <u>so</u> sorry

<u>Conjunction:</u> He performed well, <u>so</u> they selected him.

Some

<u>Adjective:</u> There are <u>some</u> problems to be solved.

<u>Pronoun:</u>some support his views and others oppose.

<u>Adverb:</u>some fifty students came for the picnic.

Till

<u>Preposition:</u> Never put off <u>till</u> tomorrow what you can do today.

<u>Conjunction:</u> Do not start <u>till</u> I give the word.

While

<u>Noun:</u> Take this novel and read a <u>while.</u>

<u>Verb:</u> They <u>while</u> away their time on chatting.

<u>Conjunction:</u>while there is life there is hope.

WORDS CONFUSED AND MISUSED

Affect and Effect

Affect is a verb; it acts upon something, some one or an emotion.

Effect is a noun.

e.g.The cold weather <u>affected</u> her health.

The medicine had much <u>effect</u> that she is better now.

Except and Accept

Except = exclusion or something left out.

Accept = receiving something or joining or group or entering into an agreement.

e.g.All the students wrote the exam <u>except</u> one girl.

He <u>accepted</u> the proposal.

Compliment and compliment

Compliment = something said to express praise or approval.

Complement = something that completes or prefects something else.

e.g.She <u>complimented</u> her friend on her birthday.

She selected a black coat to <u>complement</u> her blue dress.

Continual and continuous

Continual = something that is always occuring with obvious lapses in time.

Continuous = something continues without any stop or gaps in between.

e.g.The <u>continual</u> music next door made it the worst night of studying ever.

Her <u>continuous</u> talking prevented him from concentrating.

Lose and loose

Lose = have something taken away

Loose = not tightly fixed in place.

e.g.She wants to <u>lose</u> weight

He <u>loosed</u> his dog on the street.

Principal and Principle

Principal = most important

Principle = rules or beliefs

The <u>Principal</u> of the school *is* Mr. Naresh.

He always sticks to <u>principles.</u>

Lie and Lay

Lie = take up a horizontal position to rest on a supporting surface.

Lay = put something down.

e.g. I am going to <u>lie</u> down for an hour.

They are going to <u>lay</u> the carpet.

Rise and Raise

Rise = get up

Raise = lift or move upwards.

e.g. She <u>rises</u> early in the morning.

The M. D <u>raised</u> the salaries of the employees.

Hang and Hung

Hang = executing somebody.

Hung = be suspended from above.

e.g. No one has been <u>hanged</u> in Britain since 1964.

We <u>hung</u> the picture on the wall.

Hardly and Hard

Hardly = scarcely.

Hard = firm, rigid.

e.g. She rubbed her eyes <u>hard.</u>

The baby can <u>hardly</u> walk.

Many and Much

Many = a large number of

Much = a large amount

e.g. My brother has <u>many</u> books.

Is there <u>much</u> dust in the room?

Older (oldest) and Elder (Eldest)

This girl is <u>older</u> than that one.

This girl is the <u>oldest</u> of all.

My <u>elder</u> sister is a doctor.

My <u>eldest</u> sister is an engineer.

Farther and Further

<u>Farther</u> is used only for distance.

<u>Further</u> is used to mean both greater distance and more of something.

e.g. Turn the page for <u>further</u> instructions.

I live a bit <u>farther</u> away than you.

Wounded and Injured or Hurt.

People are injured or hurt as a result of an accident or a fight, but people are wounded in wars and battles.

e.g. He was <u>injured</u> in a car accident.

Many soldiers were <u>wounded</u> during the world war.

Latter and Later

<u>Later</u> refers to time.

<u>Latter</u> refers to order and means the second of two things.

She got to school <u>later</u> than I did.

Joe and John are friends. The former is a doctor and the <u>latter</u> is an engineer.

Beautiful, Handsome and good looking

We usually say that a man is handsome or good looking and that a woman is beautiful, lovely, good looking or pretty.

He is grown into a <u>handsome</u> young man

She looks <u>beautiful.</u>

House and Home

A <u>house</u>is any building used for dwelling in.

A <u>home</u> is the particular house in which someone is living. Take care not to say 'my house', 'his house' or 'your house' but 'home'.

e.g.I should go <u>home</u> now.

They are constructing a <u>house.</u>

Habit and Custom

A <u>habit</u> belongs to the individual but a <u>custom</u> belongs to a society or country.

e.g.Telling lies is a very bad <u>habit.</u>

The tribalshave strange <u>customs</u>.

Scene and Scenery

A <u>scene</u> refers to a particular place. A <u>scenery</u> refers to the general appearance of the place. We don't use scenery in plural.

e.g.A large crowd gathered at the <u>scene.</u>

The <u>scenery</u> in Kashmir is so beautiful.

Centre and Middle

Centre is a point that is equidistant from the edge of a circle. Middle is its area equidistant from two sides: middle of the room, middle of the road, middle of the page etc.

e.g. Stand in the centre of the circle.

He was in the middle of the street.

Poetry and Poem

Poetry is the form of literature dealing with poems.

A poem is one piece of poetry.

e.g. I have a poem to learn by heart.

I like poetry than prose.

A few more words often confused

adverse	=	unfavourable
averse	=	strongly disliking; opposed
aisle	=	a passage between two rows of seats
isle	=	an island
all together	=	all in one place, all at once
altogether	=	completely, on the whole
aloud	=	out loud
allowed	=	permitted
appraise	=	to assess
apprise	=	to inform someone
aural	=	relating to the ears or hearing
oral	=	relating to the mouth, spoken

balmy	=	pleasantly warm
barmy	=	foolish, crazy
bare	=	naked, to uncover
bear	=	to carry, to put up with
berth	=	a bunk in a ship, train etc.
birth	=	the emergence of a baby from the womb.
born	=	having started life
borne	=	carried
bough	=	a branch of a tree
bow	=	to bend the head.
brake	=	a device for stopping a vehicle, to stop a vehicle
break	=	to separate into pieces; a pause
cereal	=	edible grains
serial	=	happening in a series
chord	=	a group of musical notes
cord	=	a length of string
coarse	=	rough
course	=	a direction, a school subject, part of a meal.
council	=	a group of people who manage or advise
counsel	=	to advice
desert	=	a waterless, empty area
dessert	=	the sweet course of a meal
elicit	=	to draw out a reply or reaction
illicit	=	not allowed by law or rules

ensure	=	to make certain that something will happen
insure	=	to provide compensation if a person dies or property is damaged
forbear	=	to refrain
forebear	=	an ancestor
loath	=	reluctant, unwilling
loathe	=	to hate
pole	=	a long, slender price of wood
poll	=	voting in election
pour	=	to flow
pore	=	a tiny opening
sceptic	=	a person inclined to doubt
septic	=	infected with bacteria
sight	=	the ability to see
site	=	a location
stationary	=	not moving
stationery	=	writing materials
storey	=	a level of a building
story	=	a tale
wreath	=	a ring-shaped arrangement of flowers
wreathe	=	to surround or encircle

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UNIT 5

ANALYSIS OF ERRORS IN ENGLISH

Error analysis was first used as a way of studying second language acquisition in the 1960s. Corder's seminal paper "The Significance of Learner's Errors" (1967) had shifted researchers' attention from the teaching perspective to the learning perspective – and therefore also away from contrastive analysis, behaviorism and structuralism towards cognitive psychology. This development went hand in hand with the turn towards a communicative approach in language teaching.

Drawing on knowledge about first language acquisition, Corder posited that second language learners discover the target language by hypothesizing about it and testing their hypotheses more or less like children do. This process does not happen randomly, but follows the learner's built-in syllabus, so that errors will necessarily be made.

Corder used the term transitional competence for what has since become a widely accepted and often used concept: that of interlanguage (cf. Selinker 1972), the learner's individual, dynamic approximation of the target language. According to this view, errors indicate that a learner actively learns the target language, as they occur whenever a hypothesis tested by the learner does not work. In error analysis, the language learning process is regarded as being influenced by the learner's first language, his or her interlanguage and the target language. Thus, all of these three language systems have an influence on which errors a learner makes. But the gap between the interlanguage and the target language is considered the most important factor of the three. Even more importantly, however, the learner makes errors because of the learning strategies he or she employs to 'discover' the target language.

For all these reasons, inductive error analyses were carried out in order to arrive at generalizations about errors, interlanguage and, ultimately, second language acquisition. Error analysis reached its zenith in the 1970s, but soon turned out to be deficient as a research tool. By the late 1970s, it was merely contributing to broader second language acquisition theory and research, as it still does today.

Any teacher of English as a second language is ultimately faced with a dichotomy between knowledge and performance, especially if they teach courses with a major component of written expression. A class of English language learners can perform adequately in routine grammatical exercises, but then fail signally to translate this demonstrated knowledge into reality when faced with the task of writing original prose. The purpose of this paper is to present a numerical analysis of grammatical errors in students' writing as a means of identifying those aspects of English

grammar that do not translate well from routine testing of grammatical knowledge to original work.

Definition:

Error analysis is a branch of applied linguistics. It is concerned with the compilation, study and analysis of errors made by second language learners and aims at investigating aspects of second language acquisition.

Closely related to error analysis is the concept of interlanguage.

Some researchers distinguish error analysis from transfer analysis, which compares the learner's data with the respective first language, whereas **error analysis** compares the learner's data with the target language norm and identifies and explains errors accordingly

Aims:

The primary aims of error analyses were (i) to identify types and patterns of errors and (ii) to establish error taxonomies. These were supposed to be used to describe interlanguage and its development, i.e. the learner's internal syllabus. Common difficulties in second language acquisitionwere to be identified. On this basis, error analysis was supposed to contribute to a comprehensive knowledge about processes of second language acquisition -- always assuming with Chomsky that there is something like a language acquisition device.

In addition, results were intended to be used for a revision of theories of language learning as well as help to evaluate and improve language teaching.

Common mistakes / errors in spelling:

Common spelling mistakes and confusing words in English language.

Here's a list of words, which are often used incorrectly. List includes short explanations and links to lessons.

- Accept/Except
  - Accept : (verb) - to receive willingly, to approve, to agree
  - Except : (preposition or verb) - exclusion or leave out
- Ad/Add
  - Ad : an advertisement
  - Add : to combine, join, unite or to find a sum
- Advice/Advise
  - Advice : (noun) - suggestion or recommendation
  - Advise : (verb) - to suggest
- Affect/Effect
  - Affect : (verb) - to change, have an effect on
  - Effect : (noun) - result
- Ate/Eight

- o Ate : Past tense of verb [to eat]
  - o Eight : number 8
- Buy/By/Bye
  - o Buy : (verb) - to purchase
  - o By : next to something, by way of something
  - o Bye : used to express farewell. Short for [goodbye]
- Choose/Chose/Choice
  - o Choose : (verb) to make a choice or selection
  - o Chose : past tense of the verb [to choose]
  - o Choice : (noun) choosing; selection
- Cite/Site/Sight
  - o Cite : to mention something or to quote somebody as an example or proof
  - o Site : the location of an event or object. A website
  - o Sight : ability to see, a thing that can be seen
- Decent/Descent
  - o Decent : kind, tolerant, respectable, modest
  - o Descent : family origins or ancestry. Also the process of coming or going down
  - o Dissent : (verb or noun) disagreement with a prevailing or official view
- Desert/Dessert
  - o Desert : (verb) to leave or abandon. (noun) waterless land with no vegetation and covered with sand
  - o Dessert : sweet food served after the meal
- Eat/It
  - o Eat : to put food into the mouth, chew it and swallow it
  - o It : the thing, animal or situation which has already been mentioned
- Four/For
  - o Four : number 4
  - o For : to indicate the object, aim, or purpose of an action or activity
- Here/Hear
  - o Here : in, at, or to this place
  - o Hear : to perceive (sound) by the ear
- Knew/New
  - o Knew : past simple of the verb [to know]
  - o New : recently created
- Know/Now/No
  - o Know : (verb) to be familiar with someone or something
  - o Now : at the present time or moment
  - o No : negative reply, refusal or disagreement
- Many/Money
  - o Many : consisting of a large number, numerous
  - o Money : currency or coins issued by a government that can be exchanged for goods and services
- Off/Of
  - o Off : away, at a distance in space or time
  - o Of : belonging to or connected with someone or something
- Peace/Piece
  - o Peace : freedom from war and violence
  - o Piece : a part of something
- Than/Then

- o Then : refers to time or consequence
- o Than : used to compare or contrast things
- There/Their
  - o There : place or position
  - o Their : possessive word that shows ownership of something
- To/Too/Two
  - o To : preposition (I went to school) or part of an infinitive (to go, to wwork)
  - o Too : also (I like you too) or in excess (That is too much)
  - o Two : number 2
- Wander/Wonder
  - o Wander : to walk aimlessly or without any destination
  - o Wonder : (noun) feeling of surprise and admiration. (verb) desire to know
- Weather/Whether
  - o Weather : the atmospheric conditions in area, with regard to sun, cloud, temperature, wind and rain
  - o Whether : introduces indirect question involving alternative possibilities
- Where/Wear/Were
  - o Where : to, at or in what place
  - o Were : past tense of the verb [to be]
  - o Wear : to have clothing, glasses, etc. on your body
- Right/Write
  - o Write : (verb) To form letters, words, or symbols on a surface (like paper) with a pen or pencil
  - o Right : morally good, proper. Also opposite of left

Common mistakes in pronunciation:

The ability to pronounce the sounds of our target languages well is a big part of how our skills are perceived by others.
If you're an English-language learner, you're probably already well-acquainted with this struggle—use certain sounds incorrectly, and natives will have a hard time understanding you, or even judge your abilities to be worse than they are.

To make the best possible impression with your English language pronunciationskills, it is extremely important that you master some of the trickier sounds of English that cause non-natives to struggle.
The following is a list of five phonetic traits of American English that cause the most pronunciation mistakes for English language learners.

Note: This article makes use of symbols from the **International Phonetic Alphabet**. You can learn more about the IPA here.

1. The Two "th" Sounds – [θ]/[ð]

The English language has two sounds that are represented in writing as "th". In phonetics terms, they are known as the **voiceless interdental fricative** (IPA: [θ]) and the **voiced interdental fricative** (IPA:[ð]).
The **voiceless interdental fricative** is the initial sound in common words such as:

- ***Th**ing*
- ***Th**in*
- ***Th**under*

The **voiced interdental fricative** is the initial sound in common words such as:
- ***Th**e*
- ***Th**is*
- ***Th**at*

Interdentals—sounds made by placing the tongue between the upper and lower teeth—are not common, which is why English learners find them so difficult to pronounce. In the majority of cases, both of these sounds are **mispronounced by English language learners as [d] sounds** (as in *ding*) **or [t] sounds** (as in *ting*). These sounds, known as *voiced* and *voiceless dental/alveolar stops* are the closest sounds most languages have to the English interdentals, and so these incorrect sounds are used in place of the correct ones.

2. The "r" Sound – [ɹ]

Sounds written as "r" are notoriously difficult in many of the world's most commonly learned languages, but the "r" sound used in American English may be the most difficult of all.

The "r" sound of American English, known as the **postalveolar approximant** (IPA: [ɹ]) is a sound that exists in only a small handful of the 7099 attested languages on planet Earth.
The American English **postalveolar approximant** is the initial sound in common words such as:
- ***R**ed*
- ***R**ain*
- ***R**apid*

The sound is unusual because it requires the tongue to be in a "retroflex" (curled backward) or "retracted" (pushed altogether backward) position in the mouth.

Learners of English often mispronounce this sound by replacing it with the sound used for the written letter "r" in their own language. A common mistake made by Spanish speakers, for example, is to replace the American "r" with one of the two Spanish "r" sounds (the alveolar tap [ɾ], as in *pero*, or the alveolar trill [r], as in *perro*.

3. The Lax "i" Sound – [ɪ]

The English language has two vowels that are most commonly written using the letter "i".

The first and more common is the **close front unrounded vowel** (IPA: [i])
This sound, sometimes referred to as a *"tense 'i'"* is one you're most definitely familiar with, and is found in common words like:
- ***Ea**ch*
- *N**ee**d*
- *V**e**ry*

This sound exists in nearly all languages, and doesn't often pose a problem for learners.

There is another "i" sound, however, that is much more problematic.

This sound is known phonetically as the **near-close, near-front unrounded vowel**(IPA: [ɪ]),
This vowel is found in common words like:

- *In*
- *Sit*
- *Bu*sy

English language learners often mispronounce this sound by replacing it with the tense "i" ([i]) sound in all cases.
This can lead to a lot of confusion, as native English speakers use both tense and lax "i" sounds to distinguish between otherwise identical words, like:

- *Beet* (tense) & *bit* (lax)
- *Feet* (tense) & *fit* (lax)
- *Meet* (tense) & *mitt* (lax)

These are common mistakes amongst French speakers and Italian speakers in particular, as these languages do not have a tense/lax distinction, as English does.

4. Schwa – [ə]

There is yet another lax vowel that poses problems for English language learners: the vowel [ə], known phonetically as **schwa** or the **mid-central vowel.**
Schwa is found in common English words such as:

- *Ba*n*a*n*a*
- *A*bout
- *Th*e*

The use of schwa is difficult to master for English learners because **schwa can be represented in writing by any of the six written vowels of English**. This is because **the sound is often used by native speakers in any unaccented syllable or word**.
English language learners often mispronounce this sound by replacing it with the accented version of the written vowel. For example, a German native speaker would likely pronounce the word *banana* as [b**a**ˈn**a**n**a**] (no schwas) instead of [bəˈnænə] (two schwas).

5. Glided Vowels

The final trait that causes some of the most common pronunciation mistakes made by English language learners is a phenomenon known as **vowel gliding**.
Most non-English languages use exclusively **pure vowels.** This means that when a vowel is expressed, its sound is constant, and the position of the tongue is fixed.
In English, however, **most vowels undergo** *gliding*, meaning that as the vowel is expressed, tongue position changes slightly, and **the vowel is lengthened into a diphthong** (a combination of two vowels).
As a hypothetical example, let's take the following words:

- *Bait*
- *Home*
- *No*

An Italian speaker learning English would typically pronounce these (inaccurately) with pure vowels:

- [b**e**t]
- [h**o**m]
- [n**o**]

A native speaker of American English, on the other hand, would utter these words with the appropriate diphthongs:

- [b**eɪ**t]
- [h**oʊ**m]
- [n**oʊ**]

American English has five total sets of gliding vowels.

among /əˈmʌŋ/;	money /ˈmʌni/;
another /əˈnʌðə/ (UK), /əˈnʌðər/ (US);	**monk** /mʌŋk/;
brother /ˈbrʌðə/ (UK), /ˈbrʌðər/ (US);	monkey /ˈmʌŋki/;
colour /ˈkʌlə/ (UK), color /ˈkʌlər/ (US);	**month** /mʌnθ/;
come /kʌm/;	mother /ˈmʌðə/ (UK), //ˈmʌðər/ (US);
comfortable /ˈkʌmfətəbl/;	none /nʌn/;
company /ˈkʌmpəni/;	nothing /ˈnʌθɪŋ/;
cover /ˈkʌvə/ (UK), /ˈkʌvər/ (US);	**onion** /ˈʌnjən/;
done /dʌn/;	other /ˈʌðə/ (UK), /ˈʌðər/;
dove (a bird) /dʌv/;	**oven** /ˈʌvən/;

dozen /ˈdʌzən/;	**shove** (to push forcefully) /ʃʌv/;
front /frʌnt/;	some /sʌm/;
glove /glʌv/;	son /sʌn/;
govern /ˈgʌvən/;	**stomach** /ˈstʌmək/;
honey /ˈhʌni/;	ton /tʌn/;
London /lʌndən/;	tongue /tʌŋ/;
love /lʌv/;	**won** /wʌn/;
Monday /ˈmʌndeɪ/;	**wonder** /ˈwʌndə/ (UK), /ˈwʌndər/ (US);

Some common mistakes in speaking:

English is a global language, thus knowing how to speak English correctly can help you in various aspects of your life. Since we're not the native speakers, there are some common mistakes that we make whenever conversing in English. We've listed down 8 common mistakes made by us while we speak.

Mistake # 1

Use of double negative. Since most of the us try to translate a sentence to English from our **native language**, thus, we end up adding *double negative* while speaking out. This is wrong.

For example:

We say - *"I don't know nothing."*, this means that we know something, but the correct one is

Correct - *"I don't know anything."*

Mistake # 2

Use of the wrong tense. Many of us have the tendency to use the wrong tense. For example:

We say - *"I didn't cried when I saw the movie."* Here the word didn't is never followed by a past tense verb. So, the correct one is

Correct - *"I didn't cry when I saw the movie."*

Mistake # 3

Use of two comparatives/superlatives together. A sentence must not have two superlatives or comparatives together. For example:

We say - *"This could never have turned out to be more better."* Here, better is the comparative of the adjective good and more is the comparative to the adjective much. Thus, the correct one is

Correct - *"This could never have turned out to be better."*

Mistake # 4

Me v/s I. Clear it in your mind that "I" is the subject and "me" is the object. We usually confule between the two.

We say - *"They are going to send my wife and I a package."* Here, if we remove the the person and preceding the I. It would sound; "They are going to send I a package." This is wrong!

Correct - *"They are going to send me a package."*

Similarly, if we say *"Jim and me are going to the gym."* what's wrong here? When we remove Jim and. The sentence becomes "Me am going to the gym". This is also wrong. The correct one is

Correct - *"Jim and I are going to the gym."*

Mistake # 4

Say v/s tell. While we speak in English, most of use make mistake differentiating between say and tell. For example:

First with "Say"

We say - *"Say me your name."* Here, "say" is not the appropriate word because it is basically used to express something in words. Whereas, the sentence demands to say something. The correction done is as follows:

Correct - *"Tell me your name."*

Now, with "Tell"

We say - *"So I told what a good idea."* Told is the inappropriate word, because here, the sentence wants to express the phrase "what a good idea". So, the correct one here is:

Correct - *"So I said what a good idea."*

Mistake # 5

Fewer v/s less. The word fewer is only used for items that can be counted, whereas less is used for the uncountable. For example:

We say - *"Today, the market has less people."*

Correct - *"Today, the market has fewer people."*

Mistake # 6

Using 's' unnecessarily after every word. This is a very common mistake we usually make. For example:

We say - *"Unless you gets your act right."* This is wrong! Only if you is replaced by he/she and your is replaced by his/her. The correct sentence is:

Correct - *"Unless you get your act right."*

Mistake # 7

Does v/s do. "Does" is used for the singular form of the subject, while "do" is used to indicate the plural form of the subject.

We say - *"Why does they bother you a lot."*

Correct - *"Why do they bother you a lot."*

Mistake # 8

Blunder and mistake. Another common mistake we make while speaking is mixing blunder and mistake. Blunder is the synonym for mistake, thus it cannot be used together. For example:

We say - *"It was a blunder mistake"*

Correct - *"It was a blunder"*, or *"it was a mistake."*

Mistake # 9

Cope up v/s cope with. It is a common mistake that people make while speaking. This is a common mistake that we usually make. We generally use both cope up and with together.

We say- *"let's cope up with the classmates."*

Correct- *"Cope with the classmates"*

Mistake # 10

Revert back/ reply back and revert/reply. This mistake is mostly made by all of us. We always use 'revert back.' However, meaning of both the word are similar.

We say- "Please revert back or reply back to the mail."

Correct- "Please revert or reply to the mail."

Common mistakes in writing:

Remember mistakes in writing can be embarrassing and costly - would you buy from a company whose marketing material was peppered with common mistakes that could have been easily avoided?

Take some time to familiarise yourself with the mistakes listed on this page and remember to always get somebody else to check your writing before it is published - even the most confident writers make mistakes sumtimes!

Affect / Effect

Affect is a verb, for example "Sometimes, the weather affects my mood."

Effect is a noun, for example "The effect of weather on ice cream sales is well documented."

By thinking in terms of "the effect" you can usually determine whether to use affect or effect since "the" will not work in front of a verb.

To add to the confusion, bear in mind that some people may use "effect" as a verb (for example "Contractors seek to effect a settlement with strikers") but this usage is slightly archaic and most often used in legal writing.

Apostrophes

Apostrophes strike fear into the heart of many. However by learning a few simple rules, and the inevitable exceptions, you should be able to use apostrophes with ease. The apostrophe is used for a purpose, either to indicate a possession (implying ownership) or a contraction (in place of other letters). Since its use to indicate a contraction is easiest, we will deal with this first.

Using Apostrophes to Indicate Contraction

Where one or more letters have been dropped, an apostrophe is used as a replacement:

It is = it's

We are = we're

Does not = Doesn't

Of the clock = o'clock

Could have / Should have / Would have

Even though we might pronounce "could've" (a contraction of "could have") as "could of" this is incorrect. Always use could have / should have / would have.

It's / Its

It's is a contraction of two words: it is or it has.

Its is possessive, like hers, his, and whose.

The confusion between it's and its occurs because on virtually every other word 's (apostrophe + s) indicates possession, so English speakers naturally want to use it's to mean "something belonging to it."

But 'it's' is only used when it is a contraction of 'it is' or 'it has'.

There's / Theirs

There's is a contraction of there is.

Theirs is the third person plural possessive pronoun and replaces "their + noun". The idea that theirs needs an apostrophe (hence "their's") derives from the convention that, in virtually every other word, 's (apostrophe + s) indicates possession. However, theirs is an exception and "their's" is incorrect.

To / Too / Two

'To' has two functions. First, it is a preposition and always preceded a noun, hence:

I am going to the shops

This belongs to Mary

Second, 'to' indicates an infinitive when it preceded a verb, hence

I need to sleep

He wants to go for a walk

'Too' also has two uses, the first as a synonym for "also" hence:

Can I come too?

I think that's his bag too

Second, 'too' means excessively when it preceded an adjective or adverb hence:

I'm too tired to go out

You're too generous

'Two' is a number as in one, two, three…

Causes and types of errors

Poor Grasp of Phonics

Some commonly mispronounced words stem from a misunderstanding of how letters and combinations of letters are pronounced. One example is the word "ask" which is often mispronounced as "ax" because of a reversal of the "s" and "k" sounds in the word. A similar error occurs with "escape," which some mispronounce as "escape." Two commonly mispronounced words are "February" and "library" which often become "Feb-you-ary" and "liberry" because of a failure to pronounce the "r" after the "b" in each word. Words like "jewelry" and "miniature" are often mispronounced because of dropped syllables. "Jewelry" has three syllables but is often mispronounced as "jewlry." "Miniature" is commonly mistaken as "miniture."

Unusual Spellings

Some words are mispronounced due to their unusual spellings. One commonly mispronounced word is "often." The "t" is silent, but people sometimes pronounce it in speech. Other problematic words are "hyperbole" and "epitome," which go against the standard English rule of the final "e" being silent in a word. In these two words, the final "e" is pronounced. A very unusual spelling is the word "colonel" which is pronounced "kernel."

Misunderstanding of Words and Phrases

Other pronunciation problems occur when words or phrases are simply misunderstood in context. One example is the phrase "for all intents and purposes." This is often misspoken as "for all intensive purposes." Some mispronunciations stem from the use of non-words. "Nother" is one such example. It happens most often when people

say "That's a whole nother story," when what they mean to say is "other." Another example is the use of the non-word "irregardless," when "regardless" is the true word. Confusion exists between the words "liable" and "libel," causing mispronunciation problems. "Liable" is pronounced as three syllables, with the "a" pronounced as "uh"; it means "responsible for" or "likely to." "Libel" is a legal term for the maligning of someone's character through falsehoods.

Confusing Letter Sounds and Combinations

Non-native speakers may struggle with pronouncing certain letter sounds and letter combinations in English. One example is the "th" sound. This can be a voiced sound as in "this" or a voiceless sound as in "thick." It is a blend of sounds and not pronounced as a "t." A common problem for speakers of Asian languages is the confusion of the sounds "l" and "r," as there is no distinction between these two sounds in many Asian dialects. Therefore, "lollipop" becomes "rorripop" and "riddle" becomes "liddle." Another confusing set of letters are the w and v sounds: Speakers of Germanic languages may have trouble distinguishing between these two sounds; thus "supervisor" becomes "superwisor" and "water" becomes "vahter."

Influence of mother tongue:

A Child develops the speech habit of his mother tongue. When he learns a foreign language, his mother tongue speech habits come in the way. He thinks in his mother tongue and then translates his thoughts in English. Thinking and speaking should be in one language. Our English teacher and their pupils speaks English as it were English as it were Hindi, Bengali, Marathi, Punjabi, Haryanvi etc. our regional speech habits have influenced our spoken English and regionalized it.

Dearth of books on phonetics:

The books on phonetics can help the English teachers and their students. But today there is death of books on phonetics written in a simple language.

Lack of Phonetics Knowledge:

Most of our English teachers do not know about phonetics or phonology. Therefore they do not impart good training of speech to their students. They have got their defective pronunciation. The students learn the defective pronunciation from their teachers. This process goes on when the students become teacher they also impart the training of defective speech habit. This vicious circle of speech habit is developed and it is rather impossible to break it.

Reflection of Regional Area:

A sound of Indian Language differs from English Language. In India, English Pronunciation is different from region to region and it is marked by regionalism.

Pronunciation and spellings defects in teachers and students:

Many teachers are not able to pronounce correctly. This effects the pronunciation of their students. They have not sufficient knowledge of phonetics and phonology. The physical disability of a child sometimes causes poor pronunciation. It is cause of retardation in pronunciation as well as spellings .

Lack of Congenial Environment:

Sometimes speaking opportunity is not provided by the English teacher in the classroom. Oral practice is not done during teaching learning process. Oral aspect of the language is totally neglected which leads to wrong pronunciation. Proper attention is not paid to English Pronunciation. Most of the teachers have got their poor pronunciation and that is why they are unable to improve the pronunciation of their students. Proper congenial environment is not provided in school to improve pronunciation skills

Common types of error in English:

These first five errors usually have a BIG IMPACT ON A READER and are RULE BASED. If these occur repeatedly, it makes sense to address them first and to CONSULT RESOURCES as needed. Tutors will find SCAFFOLDING a useful technique here. (adapted from "Editing Line byline" by Cynthia Linville).

Subject-Verb Agreement Errors:

• Occur when the subject does not agree with the verb in person or number.

• Explained in more detail in Azar,

Example: He walk every morning.

Correction: He walks every morning.

Another Example: Every teenager knows how to choose clothes that flatters her.

Verb Tense Errors

• Occur when an incorrect time marker is used.

• Explained in more detail in Azar

Example: I was working on my paper since 6:00 am.

Correction: I have been working on my paper since 6:00 am.

Another Example: Even though this is my first day on the job, I have already found out that there were some difficult people here.

Verb Form Errors

• Occur when a verb is incorrectly formed.

• Explained in more detail in Azar,

Example: I will driven to the airport next week.

Correction: I will drive to the airport next week.

Another Example: I was cook dinner last night when you called.

Singular/Plural Noun Ending Errors

• Often occur when there is confusion about which nouns are countable and which aren't.

• Explained in more detail in Azar,

Example: I have turned in all my homeworks this week.

Correction: I have turned in all my homework this week.

Another Example: I set up six more desks for the afternoon class.

Word Form Errors

• Occur when the wrong part of speech is chosen.

• Explained in more detail on our Word Form Handout.

Example: I'm happy to live in a democracy country.

Correction: I'm happy to live in a democratic country.

Another Example: I feel very confusing this morning.

Sentence Structure Errors

• Refer to a broad range of errors that occur for a variety of reasons: a word (often a to be verb) is left out; an extra word (often a duplicate subject) is added; word order is incorrect; or clauses that don't belong together are punctuated as one sentence.

• Note that sentence structure errors often contain other types of errors within them.

• Sentence structure error may be repeated or may vary greatly.

• Asking intended meaning may be the best strategy for this error.

Word Choice Errors

• Refers to a broad range of errors, from completely incorrect word use, to connotation being off, to substitution of antiquated forms for more common ones, to using words together that do not typically appear with each other.

• For meaning and basic grammatical/usage information, consult a learner's dictionary in the Writing Center or online: wordsymth.com or learnersdictionary.com.

• For information about which words are typically used together in English, consult the collocation dictionary in the Writing Center or one online: ozdic.com

Articles

• See Writing Center handout.

Prepositions of Location, Time or Direction

• See Writing Center handout.

Phrasal Verbs

• See Writing Center handout for a collection of common phrasal verbs and their meanings.

Remedial measures for grammatical error:

Given the many errors that have been identified, suggested remedies to be put in place to improve performance in English and hence general performance in careers that use English as a medium of instruction.

i)   English language teachers should isolate errors from the learners' work and give individualized attention to those learners' with unique problems.

ii)   ii) English language teachers should categorize the errors that learners make and address them from that perspective.

iii)   That teachers should give spelling exercises to…

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UNIT 6

DEVELOPING FLUENCY

Fluency is oral expression of facts, ideas, attitudes etc in speech. It is the ability to speak independently with ease.

1) Use of Conventional Formulae

The use of conventional formula gives confidence to pupils. It gives training to speak fluently and develop speech habits. It supplies necessary words. We learn how to make use of certain expressions in certain occasions.

i) Greeting:

Greetings means the first words used on seeing somebody.

'Good morning', 'Good afternoon', 'Good night' are the greetings for morning, noon and night.

Good-bye:

It is used between people on familiar terms when they are parting from each other on a journey.

'Cheerio' is a slang term for good-bye.

'Hello' is a familiar term used on meeting. It would not be used to a superior.

Greeting friendly atmosphere is very important to make the children feel at home. They will be very much interested to imitate the teacher and speak simple short sentences in English.

ii) Apology:

All of us need to apologies from time to time, for no matter how careful we are, things do go wrong and arrangements break down.

Apology is a statement or expression of request for doing wrong, being impolite, hurting somebody's feelings.

"I am sorry, I'm terribly sorry,"

"I am really sorry, I am extremely sorry"

"I beg your pardon, Excuse me" etc, can be used for apology

"Excuse" me is used

a) When starting and interrupting a conversation.

b) When you want to meet a person.

c) After sneezing, coughing when we are in-group.

When we accept apology, we should make use of the following.
a) That is all right (b) It doesn't matter (c) Don't worry.

iii) Invitation:

Extending invitation is an art itself. It needs grace and style. Invitation is a request to come and do something.

Please attend and grace the function.

Will you have lunch with us?

Please call on the President.

Invitations can be accepted by saying Thank you very much', 'that's kind of you', 'very nice of you', etc.

iv) Refusal:

Refusals can be said like this.

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

Sorry, I can't, no sorry, I am sorry, I am helpless etc, can also be used to express refusal.

v) Accepting:

Invitations can be accepted by saying 'thank you very much', 'that's kind of you' etc.

'Yes, with pleasure', 'yes certainly', 'Oh! Sure' can also be used for accepting.

vi) Thanking:

Thanking is an expression of gratitude to somebody for something.

'Thank you', 'thanks a lot', 'thank you very much' are some of the terms.

'That's very kind', 'good', 'nice of you' can also be used.

To answer someone who thanks you the following expressions can be used.

'You are welcome'; 'It's a pleasure', 'That's all right', 'Not at all', etc.

2) Describing and interpreting pictures, tables, graphs, maps etc.

i) Describing and interpreting pictures,

A series of pictures depicting some events may be used for beginners. For the others composite pictures such as science research centre, war field, traffic island etc, can be used.

For e.g. A picture shows two persons viz Somu, and Babu picking berries in the forest during sun - rise.

Now the teacher can ask the following questions and elicit answers.

Where are Somu and Babu?
Somu and Babu are in the forest.
What are they doing?
They are picking berries.
Who are picking berries?
Somu and Babu are picking berries.
When are they picking berries?
They are picking berries in the early morning.

Thus the teacher can ask the questions and elicit the answers. This practice increases the fluency of the student's with good pronunciation.

ii) Describing and interpreting tables:

Here is a simple table of Annual fee particulars from a Matriculation school. We can interpret it by asking the following questions.

P.Kg L.Kg U.Kg	I	II	III to V	VI to VIII	IX	X
Rs.1100	Rs.1580	Rs.1780	Rs.1840	Rs.2300	Rs.2800	Rs.3600

i) How much does the 2nd Std student have to pay as annual fee?

ii) If you want to join your son in the P.Kg how much money do you need?

iii) What is the annual fee for IX std student?

iv) Is the school Hr. Secondary school?

v) Who pays the maximum amount in this school?

The oral fluency increases when this type of table is interpreted orally.

iii) Describing and interpreting graphs:

Graphs, Maps and tables are the Non-Verbal presentation. They make the presentation not only simple and brief but attractive as well.

A Non-Verbal representation is used more frequently now a days. In the fast moving world of today a verbal account of the various representation is consuming. Hence a non-verbal diagram is welcome during conferences, meetings, reports etc, It assists quick scanning and facilitates better grasping of information at a glance.
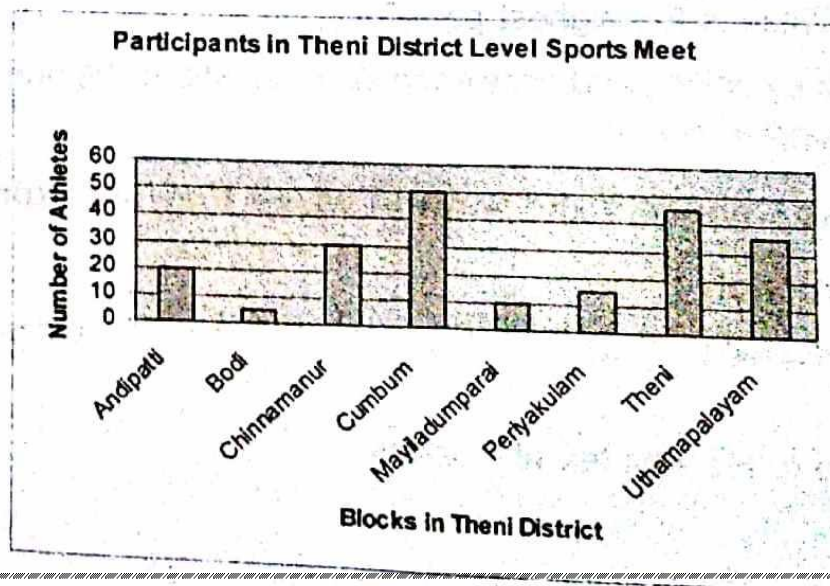
We can describe the above graph as.

215 atheletes participated in Theni District level sports meet - 20 atheletes from Andipatti block, 5 from Bodi block, 30 from Chinnamanur, 50 from Cumbum, 10 from Mayiladumparai, 15 from Periyakulam, 45 from Theni and 35 from Uthamapalayam.

We can interpret it by using the following questions:

(1) How many participated in Theni District level sports meet?

(2) Which block shows the highest number of participants?

(3) Which block shows the least number of participants?

(4) How many blocks are there in Theni District?

(5) How many atheletes participated in their block?

By asking such questions and answering the teacher can increase the oral fluency of the children.

iv) Describing and interpreting maps:

A map is an accurate representation in the form of a diagram. It is drawn according to scale.

The teacher displays a physical map of India. She explains the physical features of India with its major rivers. She makes a complete description of data of the map and asks some questions like.

a) Mention the major rivers of India.

b) Where does Ganges originate?

c) Which is the highest peak?

Thus by asking and answering such questions the oral fluency of the children increase.

II. TELLING STORIES

Story telling has existed for centuries. It is as old as the seas and has been embraced by various civilizations across the world to convey information, histories accents and entertain audiences. Stories can be magical and have the power to awaken, transform and enthrall listeners. A good story knows no boundaries. Everybody loves a good story.

The art of telling stories has always been an essential part of human nature. Stories, metaphors, anecdotes, similies and analogies have all been used as methods of communication and teaching since time immemorial.

Stories have had a potential effect on us all over the world for thousands of years and they continue to be part of our culture today, in terms of helping us to acquire knowledge and in helping our learning and development.

OBJECTIVES

At the end of the session, the trainees will be able to

☞ **Define stories for improving the classroom teaching.**

☞ **Write their own stories.**

☞ **Tell stories with correct gestures and modulation.**

☞ **Sharpen their curiosity and to motivate them to read further.**

QUALITIES

A storyteller requires -

☞ *Effective communication skills*

☞ *Patience and Endurance*

☞ *Ability to be attentive*

☞ *Good observation skills*

☞ *Good listening skills*

☞ *Good memory*

☞ *Excellent reading habit*

☞ *Compassionate outlook*

☞ *Positive attitude*

☞ *Expressive body language*

☞ *Good command over the language and vocabulary*

THE CONNECTION BETWEEN STORY TELLING AND EDUCATION

Long before the written word, story telling was used to pass on knowledge, culture and thought. Storytelling, however finds no place in the modern methods of teaching. The all-pervasive printed word however has left no space for the art of storytelling in our classrooms.

Because of this, teachers are missing out on a great tool that can help engage and educate children better. Storytelling opens up a whole new world for children. By integrating storytelling into the curricula, both teachers and students will be able to communicate more intelligibly.

UNDERSTANDING STORYTELLING

Story telling has been defined in many ways by many people.

Story telling is:

- A shared process which requires a teller and a listener.
- All about relating a tale to one or more listeners through voice and gestures.
- An effective medium of communication.
- A platform for reaching out and sharing ourselves with others.
- A very effective teaching tool.
- A medium for children to learn about their roots, traditions, cultures and values.
- The link between our imagination and surroundings.

ELEMENTS OF GOOD STORYTELLING

- ☞ Characters
- ☞ A plot
- ☞ Some sort of conflict Resolution
- ☞ Style of story telling
- ☞ Tone of your voice
- ☞ Pace of your voice
- ☞ Volume of your voice
- ☞ Non verbal communication
- ☞ Body posture
- ☞ Eye contact
- ☞ Gestures
- ☞ Involving the group

NARRATING INCIDENTS

Narration is the act of giving an account. The narrator is the person or entity within a story that tells the story to the reader. First-person narration presents the story from the viewpoint of one of the characters ("I maintain that the Ewell's started it all, but Jem . . . said it started long before that" . . . From *To Kill a Mockingbird*). Third-person narration presents events from the viewpoint of the writer, as if watching the story.

Narration, which usually assumes a more or less definite locality and period of time in which ensues a continuous and relevant action, is often combined with descriptive writing, since it is commonly desirable to enable the reader to imagine the setting and actors before he can imagine the action. And it is often combined with expository writing since explanations may sometimes be made clearer when couched in terms of specific action, and actions may sometimes be made clearer when explained.

The writer of factual narrative treats his story from a particular point of view that is appropriate to convey the underlying idea of the narrative. He must maintain his point of view consistently--that is, keep clear who is speaking and what the speaker's relation is to the point and purpose of the narrative. The first person narrator (the I) may be present as an observer, present as a participant

in the action, or not present but fully informed as to all that took place. The narrator who writes in the third person may be a disinterested observer, or he may have a bias. Either kind of narrator may pretend to have learned what he tells from some other person.

HOW TO WRITE NARRATION

1. Keep the events in chronological order, that is, in the order in which they occurred.

2. Maintain a consistent point of view. You must decide who you are in the story, take on the voice of your assumed character, and remain faithful to him or her for the duration of the story. You may be present as a participant in the action or as an observer. If, for instance, you decide to relate an incident from the point of view of yourself as a young boy, the language you use during the body of the narration should reflect your youthfulness. Any comments that you wish to make from a mature point of view should be saved for the conclusion, in which you may look back upon the time of immaturity and comment upon it.

3. Pace your narration to focus on dominant scenes. Pacing is an important and common sense principle of narrative writing; it means that unimportant times, events, and scenes are dismissed as the narrative focuses on and develops in details only what is important to its theme. A narrative about a favorite hiding place, for example, should develop the hiding place itself in detail, but skim over secondary material such as the places from which you escaped to hide there. Common sense must guide you in selecting the scenes and events to be developed, but the ultimate rule of thumb is the relevance of the material to your theme, the point you are trying to make.

4. Use details to make vivid the people and places in your narrative. People and places are the lifeblood of your narrative. Make them real and imaginable through the use of specific and concrete details, as you did in writing a descriptive theme.

5. Use more dialogue to make your narrative effective. Your characters will seem much more vivid if you record some of the things they actually said. When you use dialogue, make sure that you punctuate it correctly (refer to pages 324-326 in Guth handbook). Start a new paragraph every time you change speakers.

6. Develop a theme in your narrative. We have already pointed out that good writing must have unity; it must be centered on a thesis idea that controls the whole essay. Narrative is no exception. In narrative writing, however, the thesis idea is called the "theme" and is supported by an incident rather than by facts or examples.

Narration establishes its theme by first raising, then resolving conflict. The conflict gives rise to events that will determine resolution from which the theme can be stated. Your theme will actually be stated twice in your narrative. You will mention it first in the introductory paragraph so that the reader will know as he reads what point you will be making. Then after drawing your narrative to a definite conclusion that shows how the events ended, you will use the final paragraph to make your theme clear. The reader must be left with the impression that some problem or difficulty has been resolved or an idea established from your experience.

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UNIT 7

COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES

Communicative Activities:

In all conversations, people exchange information. There is something that one person does not know and wants to know. We can say that the person has a 'Communicative need'. Information gap - one person has information which another does not have. So, there is a need to communicative activities such as guessing games, information exercise and exchange of personal information which promote spoken English and improve the fluency and quality of English.

i) Debates:

'Debating' is a popular co-curricular activity in schools. Debate in English is viewed as a practice in speaking English rather than as a practice in debate itself. Most pupils feel shy of taking part in debating in English. For practice in speaking, the pupils are allowed to prepare their arguments in advance. For this, it may ever be necessary to pair off the competitors, one making a point and the other refusing it. This may not be a proper debating, but it would certainly encourage more pupils to take part. The teacher should only guide the pupils to prepare the arguments on their own. He should never make them repeat anything written out by him.

Advantage of Debates in quality improvement:

1. It helps the speaker to express his ideas, logically and argumentatively.
2. It gives an opportunity to express one's ideas clearly with meaningful facts.
3. It helps the speaker to artfully select the words and to present them in an efficient manner.

ii) Extempore speeches:

Extempore speech is a short speech given without previous preparation. The topic for the speech is given a few minutes before the speech and the speaker has to prepare his speech within that short time. The ability of the speaker is judged by the accuracy and fluency of the speech. It provides an opportunity for the speaker to show off his knowledge and efficiency in handling the language. The speaker should be able to arouse the interest of the audience through his speech. The speaker should pay attention to pronunciation and intonation, which are the important components of English speech.

iii) Role-play:

'Role- play' is a way of bringing situations from real life into the class room. When we do a role- play, the students are asked to imagine. They may imagine:

a) a role- play, where they pretend to be a different person.
b) a situation, where they pretend to be doing something different.
c) both a role and a situation.

Loyola-Pudhuva

The teacher must bear in mind that the situations we use for role-play should as far as possible be within the experience of the students. Some suitable roles for school classrooms would be:

a) People familiar to students from day-to-day life.

b) Characters from text-books and also from television.

Situations:

a) Situations which students see or take part in everyday life.

b) Fantasy situations from stories which they read or from their textbooks.

Dialogues:

Role-play can often be based on a dialogue from their text. Role-play gives the students a chance to use the language they have practiced in a more creative way. If a role-play is not based on a text or a dialogue in a text-book, it is called a 'Free Role-play. 'In a 'free role-play'. the students themselves decide what language to use and how the conversation should develop.

Advantages:

1. Role-play increases motivation.

2. It gives a chance to use language in new contexts and for new topics.

3. Role-play encourages students to use natural expressions and use gestures as well.

iv) **Dramatization:**

Dramatization is putting some prose or poetry into living actions. When a person plays a role, we get a dramatic view of the situation. A number of roles can be presented in dramatic form. In doing so, action, gestures, movements etc. are involved.

It appeals to the children. The reason is that it involves some action and some activity. It makes teaching activity-oriented. It is one of the methods of teaching.

In teaching English, one-act plays surely make a teacher act and draimatize the scene or situation. Dramatization puts life into any Literary work. As children like imitation, it can be incidental and spontaneous.

Advantages:

1. Dramatization helps children to form good speech habits.

2. It helps the learners to improve their pronunciation.

3. It develops the language skills.

4. It develops communicative and creative abilities in students.

v) **Elocution:**

Informal and formal contests in speech making can also be interesting, and at the same time fruitful. To make it more lively, the pupils play various roles and speak on a particular topic for particular time limit.

e) Silent letters:

The students are divided into groups and are asked for words they know that are spelt with silent letters..The teacher encourages the students by giving scores to the group that gives a greater number of words.

E.g. silent 'k's

    Know

    Knock

    Knit

ii) Word games:

a) Word building:

Students are given a word, which is productive in nature. They are asked to build as many words as possible, using the letters found in that word without adding new or more letters.

E.g.   Oxford - do, of, or, ox, for, fox, door, rod, roof.

b) Build a word:

Some letters are put up on the board together. The students are to form words from the given letters within a given time.

E.g. l, n. o, m, t, e, a, r, h, - meat, heat rat, late, etc.

c) Kim's game:

Small objects that the children see or use everyday, like flowers, fruits, stationary items, are placed on the table. The students are asked to have a close look at the objects for a few seconds. Then the things are covered and the children are asked to write down as many names of the objects as they remember in a fixed time limit.

iii) Sentence games:

a) Description:

This is a group game. A pupil of group 1 goes out of the room. Group 2 chooses a subject to talk about. The pupil from group 1 is then called in. Each member in group 2 gives a sentence about the subject, without giving the topic. The student is given an opportunity to guess the topic. The framing of sentences goes on till the topic is found.

b) Sentence relay:

Members of each team are given the first part of a sentence. The students should find an appropriate ending or the remaining part of the sentence.

E.g. The crying baby — was in the cradle.

The dog — barked all night.

vi) Panel discussion:

Panel discussion is a device well suited to carry on a debate. Panel discussion is a substitute for the formal debate. Young people in schools should have or lot of practice in taking up a problem, thinking about it at many angles as possible. They should organize their thoughts in a logical sequence and then discuss it with others who have made similar studies. Panel discussion gives an opportunity to match wits and words with fellow students.

GAMES:

Language games:

Language games develop the forms of language skills. They provide play-way method in developing oral fluency. They serve as pastime activities, and the intellectual exercises at any stage of the learners, are furnished with an incentive to learn.

i) Spelling games:

Spelling games enable a student to enhance his knowledge of vocabulary and spelling.

E.g.:

a) Spelling bee:

The whole class can prepare a rather difficult passage, from which the teacher makes a list of words and fires them at members of each team in turn. Prompting is allowed.

b) Word relay:

A member of one team tells a word. Then a member of the other team tells another word beginning with the last letter of word given.

E.g.

Boy, youth, hen, net, tap, etc.

c) Fore and Aft:

To reinforce spelling and stimulate an interest in words, the pupils are asked to write down as many words as they think, which begin and end with the same letter.

e.g. madam, bulb, eagle.

The student or the group that finds the longest word scores points.

d) Spelling challenge:

The students are divided into groups and each group has to say a letter, having a word in mind when saying that letter.

E.g. the first group starts with 'F' the second group adds 'R' (thinking of the word 'friend'), the third group adds 'U' (thinking of the word 'fruit'), etc. If the group whose turn it is thinks that the preceding letter was added without a word in mind, it can challenge. If no word is given in defense of the challenge, the group which is wrong loses a point.

a) Reading games.

The class is divided into 2 groups as A and B. The first student from A reads a sentence or a word from a flash card given to him. If he reads the word or sentence correctly, he scores a mark and the next turn goes to a student in group B, and the chain continues.

b) Conversation games

The class is divided into 2 groups with conversation card having a question and its answer written on it. Each pupil should ask the question written on the card, and the pupil from the other group gives the answer. Marks are awarded for each correct answer.

v) **Guessing games:**

a) Guess the picture:

The teacher has some pictures, and chooses one picture, but does not show it to the class. The students must guess what it is by asking questions.

b) Guess the sentence:

The teacher writes a sentence on a piece of paper, but does not show it. He / she writes the basic structure of the sentence on the board. The students guess the sentence by asking questions.

c) Miming:

The teacher gives a sentence secretly to one student, which describes an activity. The student mimes the activity and the other students try to guess the situation or activity.

E.g. artist, doctor, plumber, etc.

d) Famous People:

One student pretends to be a famous person who is known to others. Other students try to guess the person by asking questions.

Communicative activities provide intensive and interesting language practice and help in language teaching and quality improvement.

INTERVIEWS

Meaning of Interview:

Interview is an important selection technique where there is two-way exchange of information either on one-to-one basis or by an interview panel. The interview gets important information from the candidates and can also judge whether or not they can fit into the organisation culture.

Interview is a two-way conversation. It is a personal form of communication between two people. It is a beneficial process for both the interviewer and the interviewee. The interviewer tells the applicant about the job preview and helps the interviewee make his mind about whether or not he wants to take that job. Though conducting interviews is not based on fixed rules, certain guidelines for the interviewer and interviewee can make interview an effective process.

Features of Interview:
1. It is face-to-face interaction between interviewer and the interviewee.
2. It has a definite purpose known to both the parties.
3. It is generally based on pre-structured questions to be asked in a defined manner.

Importance of Interview:

Interview serves the following purposes:
1. Interview helps in selecting the candidate most suitable for the job.
2. It provides the candidate information about the organisation and the job for which he applied.
3. Interview helps in knowing details about candidate's personality.
4. It is a method of direct contact between the employer and the candidate. Employer can observe physical characteristics of the candidates. It helps managers to check authenticity of details in the application form.
5. It helps interviewer and the interviewee know each other in detail. Complete information about the company can be given to the candidate and negotiations on salary and other terms can be made.

TYPES OF INTERVIEW

There are several types of interview which you should be aware of. Often, the company will tell you what to expect but here are some examples and you will probably experience one or more of these at some point in your career.

ONE-TO-ONE INTERVIEW

Probably easiest to cope with as it is less threatening
♣ Probably easier to build rapport with the interviewer
♣ Could be one of a series of interviews as different specialists take turns to assess you
♣ Likely to be quite specific and focused as the interviewer could be directly involved in your future work

PANEL INTERVIEW

Probably more challenging that one-to-one
♣ Could involve facing between three to six interviewers
♣ Popular with large organisations

GROUP INTERVIEW

       Consists of several applicants answering questions either individually or as part of the group

♣ Could be given a topic to discuss as a group
♣ Could be asked to make a presentation either as a group or individually

COMPETENCY BASED INTERVIEW

♣ Increasingly used by organisations which look at key skills and qualities such as communication, problem solving and team work
♣ Questions based on providing examples of how you possess these skills and competencies
♣ Could involve detailed and persistent questioning – be prepared to be challenged

ASSESSMENT CENTRE INTERVIEW

♣ Multi-disciplinary method of assessing applicants
♣ Could involve up to two days of intensive interviewing, testing and exercises
♣ Could expect to experience all the above types of interview

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UNIT 8

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION:

In our daily speech we generally take language and literature as a same thing. For us both of them has the same meaning. If you ask any teacher of English, "what do you teach?", he would say "language and literature". When he says this, he does not make any difference between language and literature. He takes them as one thing as a compound word. In fact we use language and literature as a single compound word having the one meaning. But it is not so in reality. If we go deep into the meaning of the words, language and literature, we find a great difference between them. We also find that language is primary and literature is secondary. The Free Encyclopedia defines language as "the human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communications." (Wikipedia, the free encyclopedia). In fact the word, language, has been originally derived from Latin word, 'Lingua' which means 'tongue'. When we use language in general, it refers to the cognitive faculty which enables us to learn and use systems of complex communication. Language was originated when the early men, having different cultures, started co-operating with one another. At this time they needed a common language to convey their thoughts and ideas to others. So they invented a sign language which soon became very common. But, as the human being's nature is, they were not satisfied with the sign language. The wanted to convert their thoughts into words and wanted to hear the thoughts. So they started finding words which may produce sound. Ultimately they succeeded and the language with sound came into existence. Since the people had different cultures and regions, different languages came into existence. After the invention of language they learnt the art of writing and ,as a result, started expressing themselves in writing. Whatever they wrote was preserved and thus in this way literature came into existence. Thus we see that literature is the product of language and so it depends on language. If a language is dead, automatically, its literature is also dead. It has been rightly said that if you want to kill and destroy a community, first kill its language, the community will automatically be killed and vanished. Since there are many languages (nearly 3000—6000 languages are spoken in all over the world) so many different literature came into existence. Every language has its own literature. The literature of a language is rich because of the correct use of the language by the writers of that language. A group of language that descended from a common ancestor is known as a language family.

Differences between language and literature:

1. Language is a set of words to express our ideas to others. This is a means through which we express our thoughts. Without means we can not express our thoughts. On the other hand, literature is the thought which is expressed with the help of language. Thus it is clear that without language there is no existence of literature because without language we can not express our

thoughts. Language is the fundamental unit of literature. It can be said that language makes literature.

2. Literature is produced by the creation of works in a particular language by the writer of the language. On the other hand, language is a mode of expression of thoughts by means of articulate sound. There can be as many literature as there are languages.

3. A language comprises of sounds, words and sentences. While literature is made up of the thoughts expressed in any given language.

4. Thus it can be said that literature has several forms which are called literary forms like prose, poetry, drama, novel, epic, short stories etc. All these literary forms are laden with language in which it is written. In short it can be said that the entire literature is constructed by the language in which it is written.

5. Language is the method of expression whereas literature is the collection of such expression in the said forms mentioned above. Any literature can be said to be rich or poor depending upon the correctness of the language in which it is created.

Literary Language:

Literary language is that language which is used in literary criticism and general discussion on some literary works. English has been used as a literary language in countries that were ruled by the British Empire such as India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Malaysia, Nigeria etc. where English is official language even today. Before the 18th century the language of literature was totally different from the language which was used by the common man in spoken or written. So literature was not easy to understand for a common man. Only highly qualified and educated people could enjoy the reading of literature. So literature was far away from the reach of the common people. Shakespear's language was not easy to understand for common Elizabethans. Similarly Samuel Johnson's prose was not easy for common people because it was full of rhetoric with antecedent models in Greek and Latin. It was only Daniel Defoe (1660-1731) who wrote the major works of literature in the ordinary English language. Since then the language of literature has changed a lot. In the modern time we find literature written in the languages which are really used by common people in their daily life.

This is the reason why literature has become popular in our time. Now every literate person can enjoy the reading of literature of his or her choice because it is written in the language which he or she uses in daily life. So now a days literature has become close to the people and so its readership has increased. On the part of writers it has now become a style to write in ordinary and common language.

Literature:

To define literature is very difficult. In ordinary sense we can say whatever is written is literature but there can not be a clear and precise definition of literature because its scope is so vast that it covers almost all thee spheres of life. Different scholars have differently defined the

literature but those definition cannot be taken as final. Everyone has his own definition of literature based on his understanding of literature. But it is a universally accepted fact that literature is the mirror of our lives in which we see the reflections of our lives. Literature, in its most comprehensive meaning, includes all the activities of human soul in general, or within particular sphere, period, country, or a language. (Nabila Tanvir, Literature and its Scope, 2009, in www.classic-enotes.com). Literature is that form of writing which arouses our feelings of the beautiful by the perfection of form or excellence of ideas or by both. Collins English dictionary defines literature as written materials such as poetry, novels, essays, etc.. especially works of imagination characterized by excellence of style and expression and by themes of general or enduring interest.

Esther Lamba has defined literature as a term used to describe written or spoken material. Broadly speaking, literature is used to describe anything from creative writing to more technical or scientific works, but the term is mostly used for the creative imagination, including works of poetry, drama, fiction, and non-fiction (Esther Lamba, in www.classicallit.about.com). As we know, the word, literature, has been derived from the Latin word, 'litterae' which means letter. So literature means "things made from letters." But it is also not confined to only published works. Unpublished work also may be literature which is called oral literature. Like any other branch of studies, literature is also divided into four major classes namely poetry, prose, fiction, and non-fiction. It may also be divided according to historical periods, genres, and political influences. The Important historical periods in English literature are the Renaissance period, old English period, Middle English period, Shakespearean and Elizabethan period, 18th century Restoration period, 19th century Victorian period, and the 20th century modern period. There are also many important movements in English literature. Romanticism, Feminism, post-colonialism, post-structuralism, post modernism, psycho-analysis, Marxism etc. are the important movements in English literature.

Scope of literature:

The scope of literature is very wide. It can cover everything which is on the earth. Literature has the capacity to incorporate within itself the entire universe of discourses. In fact the scope of literature is everything which can come into the human mind. It includes everything from Mathematics to Philosophy and to the other intricate sciences. Since literature reflects life, so the scope of literature covers the whole life of every man. It can be best understand in the context of what Leo-Tolstoy, the Russian writer said while defining literature. He said that literature fails if it cannot answer the two fundamental questions: who we are and how shall we live. If literature does not teach us how to live and does tell our identification as human beings, then it is something else, not literature in a true sense. Tolstoy's this statement defines literature, tells us about the function and aim of literature as well as its scope. Tolstoy believes that these two questions drive all literature and should be guiding principles upon which all literature is based. These are the two questions which also deal with the scope of literature. The point here is that all literature should answer these two fundamental questions. Literature tells us who we are and how should we live in this world. It means that the literature has completely encompassed our life, since our birth to our death. This very idea shows how wide the scope of literature is.

NEEDS AND IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE:

Motivating material:

Literature exposes students to complex themes and fresh, unexpected uses of language. A good novel or short story can take the students to foreign countries and fantastic worlds. A play or a poem can bring up certain dilemmas and powerful emotional responses. All this can be transposed to their real lives.

Access to cultural background:

Literature can provide students with access to the culture of the people whose language they are studying.

Encouraging language acquisition:

Obviously, at lower levels, students may be unable to cope on their own with an authentic novel or short story in English. Any extensive reading we encourage them to do outside the classroom would probably need to be of graded material, such as graded readers. But at higher levels, students may be so absorbed in the plot and characters of an authentic novel or short story, that they acquire a great deal of new language almost in passing. *If recorded literary material is available (audio-books), then students can practice their listening skills.

Expanding students' language awareness:

One of the debates centred around literature teaching in the language classroom is whether literature language is somehow different from other forms of discourse in that it breaks the more usual rules of syntax, collocation and even cohesion. Using literature with students can help them to become more sensitive to some of the overall features of English. Some examples of different uses of English in literature are: - Bubbles gargled delicately, bluebottles/Wove a strong gauze of sound around the smell. ('Death of a Naturalist', by Seamus Heaney). - Who died, Daddy?"/"Nothing, Lisa," Jane told the child. "It's just big people's talk. Now eat your egg up, sweetie." (An Answer from Limbo, by Brian Moore). - Unthrifty loveliness, why dost thou spend/Upon thyself they beauty's legacy? ('Sonnet 4', by William Shakespeare) - I was out one night on the strict teetote,/Cause I couldn't afford a drain;/I was wearing a leaky I'm afloat,/And it started to France and Spain. ('The Rhyme of the Rusher Doss Chiderdoss', by A R Marshall).

Developing students' interpretative abilities:

Literary texts are often rich in multiple levels of meaning, and demand that the reader/learner is actively involved in 'teasing out' the unstated implications and assumptions of the text. Thus, by encouraging our students to grapple with the multiple ambiguities of the literary text, we are helping to develop their overall capacity to infer the meaning, and this can be applied in real life.

Educating the whole person:

Apart from all the linguistic benefits, we cannot forget the wider educational function of literature. It can help to stimulate the imagination of our students, to develop their critical abilities and to increase their emotional awareness. If we ask the students to respond personally to the texts we give them, they will become increasingly confident about expressing their own ideas and emotions in English.

Ways of using Literature in the language classroom:

Next we will consider several possibilities of exploiting literary texts for the benefit of the language learner.

A language-based approach:

Studying the language of the literary text will help to integrate the language and literature syllabuses more closely. Students are encouraged to draw on their knowledge of familiar grammatical, lexical or discoursal categories to make aesthetic judgement of the text.

Literature as content:

In this case literature itself is the content of the course, which concentrates on areas such as the history and characteristic of literary movements; the social, political and historical backgrounds to a text; literary genres and rhetorical devices, etc. (This is the case of our literature classes in Filología Inglesa).

Literature for personal enrichment:

Literature encourages students to reflect on their own personal experiences, feelings and opinions. At the same time of learning English, they become more active, both intellectually and emotionally. This method is also an excellent stimulus for groupwork.

Stylistics in the classroom Stylistics has two main objectives:

firstly, to enable student's to make meaningful interpretations of the text itself; secondly, to expand students' knowledge and awareness of the language in general.

CRITERIA FOR SELECTING THE TEXT

The student's cultural background:

When considering this factor, think about how far the students' cultural background and their social and political expectations will help or delay their understanding of the text. For example, it would be difficult to understand Jane Austen's novels without knowing about the class system and the values of society in England at that time. On the other hand, it is also true that remote texts may arise the students' interest.

The students' linguistic proficiency:

You might need to ask yourself questions like: - Are students sufficiently familiar with the usual norms of language use to recognise when these are subverted? - How much of the language in the text will students be able to infer? - Will students find it useful and enjoyable to study the text, or will they feel demotivated by the difficulties of the language? - Even if the language is difficult, will students be motivated by other factors to study the text?

The students' literary background:

If the students have some kind of literary competence in their mother tongue, they may already know similar conventions for reading and interpreting literature in English.

Availability of texts.

Length of the text.

Exploitability of the text.

Fit with syllabus.

USEFUL TECHNIQUES TO APPLY LITERATURE IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM.

1. Analyzing: the centre of attention is the language of the text.

2. Comparison and contrast: students have to find similarities and/or differences between two topic-related texts. In this case, the meaning is more relevant.

3. Expansion: students have to add certain elements to the text, for instance, what happens after the story finishes?

4. Matching: students are given two groups of items, which they must link taking into account both syntax and meaning.

5. Media transfer: a text is transformed from one medium to another, for example from poetry to prose or from written to oral.

6. Reconstruction: students have to re-establish certain elements in a text which have been omitted, or jumbled.

7. Reduction: contrary to 'expansion', students have to remove certain elements from a text so as to make it shorter, though still meaning the same.

8. Replacement: some elements of a text must be replaced with others of the same kind

OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE:

Through explorations of literature, students can immerse themselves in worlds unlike any they have seen before. When teachers educate their pupils in classic works of

literature, there are a number of objectives they may seek to accomplish. Though distinct from each other, each of these objectives works in tandem with the others to create an overall understanding of, and appreciation for, literature and the individuals who produced the masterworks.

Build Reading Skills

To build reading skills, students must practice reading regularly. Reading literature provides another avenue for this simple practice. Particularly during early-reading instruction, teachers who read literature in their class often aim to help students hone these all-important skills.

Create Connections

Reading literature isn't just about learning about the works themselves, but also about learning how the world works. Through the exploration of literature, students have the opportunity to put themselves in others' shoes, giving them the chance to see how people are connected and better understand the complex dynamic of the human relationship.

Promote Empathy

By seeing how actions of others can affect characters within literature, readers can develop their abilities to be empathetic. Teachers promote the development of empathy by engaging students in discussion of literary works, highlighting the emotional aspects of the pieces in question.

Foster Appreciation

Through regular reading and learning to understand literature, readers can develop an appreciation for the art form. Teachers often seek to foster this appreciation by providing students with works of literature that will appeal to them as well as ones that are relevant to their lives, showing them that literary works have merit and meaning.

Allow for Enjoyment

By carefully selecting literary works, teachers can show their students how enjoyable reading literature can be. Because many students fail to enjoy reading literature because they don't understand the words that fill the pages, teachers can allow for this enjoyment by helping students develop a better understanding of written works.

TEACHING OF DIFFERENT FORM OF ENGLISH LITERATURE:

The five genres of literature students should be familiar with are **Poetry, Drama, Prose, Nonfiction, and Media**—each of which is explained in more detail below. You'll see some overlap between genres; for example prose is a broader term that includes both drama and non-fiction. At the end of this article we'll also touch on a couple of narrower but still important literary categories.

PROSE

Once you know what poetry is, it's easy to define prose. Prose can be defined as any kind of written text that isn't poetry (which means drama, discussed below, is technically a type of prose). The most typical varieties of prose are novels and short stories, while other types include letters, diaries, journals, and non-fiction (also discussed below). Prose is written in complete sentences and organized in paragraphs. Instead of focusing on sound, which is what poetry does, prose tends to focus on plot and characters.

Prose is the type of literature read most often in English classrooms. Any novel or short story falls into this category, from *Jane Eyre* to Twilight and from "A Sound of Thunder" to "The Crucible." Like poetry, prose is broken down into a large number of other sub-genres. Some of these genres revolve around the structure of the text, such as novellas, biographies, and memoirs, and others are based on the subject matter, like romances, fantasies, and mysteries.

POETRY

This is often considered the oldest form of literature. Before writing was invented, oral stories were commonly put into some sort of poetic form to make them easier to remember and recite. Poetry today is usually written down, but is still sometimes performed.

A lot of people think of rhymes and counting syllables and lines when they think of poetry, and some poems certainly follow strict forms. But other types of poetry are so free-form that they lack any rhymes or common patterns. There are even kinds of poetry that cross genre lines, such as prose poetry. In general, though, a text is a poem when it has some sort of meter or rhythm, and when it focuses on the way the syllables, words, and phrases sound when put together. Poems are heavy in imagery and metaphor, and are often made up of fragments and phrases rather than complete, grammatically correct sentences. And poetry is nearly always written in stanzas and lines, creating a unique look on the page.

Poetry as experienced in the classroom is usually one of three types. There are the shorter, more modern poems, spanning anything from a few lines to a few pages. Often these are collected in books of poems by a single author or by a variety of writers. Edgar Allen Poe's "The Raven," is one of the most commonly taught poems of this type. Then there are the classical, formulaic poems of Shakespeare's time, such as the blank verse and the sonnet. And finally there are the ancient, epic poems transcribed from oral stories. These long, complex poems resemble novels, such as Homer's *The Iliad* and The Odyssey.

DRAMA

Any text meant to be performed rather than read can be considered drama (unless it's a poem meant to be performed, of course). In layman's terms, dramas are usually called plays. When

written down the bulk of a drama is dialogue, with periodic stage directions such as "he looks away angrily." Of all the genres of literature discussed in this article, drama is the one given the least time in most classrooms. And often when drama is taught, it's only read the same way you might read a novel. Since dramas are meant to be acted out in front of an audience, it's hard to fully appreciate them when looking only at pages of text. Students respond best to dramas, and grasp their mechanics more fully, when exposed to film or theater versions or encouraged to read aloud or act out scenes during class.

The dramas most commonly taught in classrooms are definitely those written by the bard. Shakespeare's plays are challenging, but rewarding when approached with a little effort and a critical mindset. Popular choices from his repertoire include *Hamlet*, *Taming of the Shrew*, and *Romeo and Juliet*, among others. Older Greek plays are also taught fairly often, especially Sophocles' *Antigone*. And any good drama unit should include more modern plays for comparison, such as Arthur Miller's Death of a Salesman.

NON-FICTION

Poetry and drama both belong to the broader category of fiction—texts that feature events and characters that have been made up. Then there is non-fiction, a vast category that is a type of prose and includes many different sub-genres. Non-fiction can be creative, such as the personal essay, or factual, such as the scientific paper. Sometimes the purpose of non-fiction is to tell a story (hence the autobiography), but most of the time the purpose is to pass on information and educate the reader about certain facts, ideas, and/or issues.

Some genres of non-fiction include histories, textbooks, travel books, newspapers, self-help books, and literary criticism. A full list of non-fiction types would be at least as long as this entire article. But the varieties most often used in the classroom are textbooks, literary criticism, and essays of various sorts. Most of what students practice writing in the classroom is the non-fiction essay, from factual to personal to persuasive. And non-fiction is often used to support and expand students' understanding of fiction texts—after reading Hamlet students might read critical articles about the play and historical information about the time period and/or the life of Shakespeare.

MEDIA

The newest type of literature that has been defined as a distinct genre is media. This categorization was created to encompass the many new and important kinds of texts in our society today, such as movies and films, websites, commercials, billboards, and radio programs. Any work that doesn't exist primarily as a written text can probably be considered media, particularly if it relies on recently developed technologies. Media literature can serve a wide variety of purposes—among other things it can educate, entertain, advertise, and/or persuade.

More and more educators are coming to recognize the importance of teaching media in the classroom. Students are likely to be exposed to far more of this type of literature than anything else throughout their lives, so it makes sense to teach them how to be critical and active consumers of media. Internet literacy is a growing field, for example, since the skills required to understand and use online information differ in important ways from the skills required to analyze printed information. Teaching media literacy is also a great way for educators to help students become participants in their own culture, through lessons on creating their own websites or home movies or commercials.

INDIAN WRITER IN ENGLISH:

R. K. NARAYAN 1906–2001

(Full name Rasipuram Krishnaswami Narayan) Indian novelist, short story writer, essayist, memoirist, travel writer, journalist, critic, and editor.

The following entry presents an overview of Narayan's career. For further information on his life and works, see *CLC*, Volumes 7, 28, and 47.

R. K. Narayan is considered one of the three best Indian authors writing in English; the other two are Rao Raja and Mulk Raj Anand. Narayan's fiction contains a unique blend of Indian mysticism and English form. His fictional world, Malgudi, is one of everyday concerns and common language set in southern India, which he successfully portrays through subtle prose and humor.

Biographical Information

Narayan was born in Mysore, India, in 1906. His father was an administrator and headmaster at several government schools and instilled in Narayan a love of literature. He did not have much academic success, however, having difficulty with his college entrance exam in English. In 1926, he enrolled in the B.A. program in English in Maharaja College, Mysore, after which he embarked on a short-lived teaching career. Finding the academic life was not for him, Narayan turned to writing. After being turned down by several publishers, Narayan gave the manuscript of his first novel, *Swami and Friends* (1935), to a friend and gave him permission to destroy it. The friend showed the novel to Graham Greene, who was impressed and found a publisher for the book. Narayan's writing career was born and the prolific writer went on to publish novels, several volumes of short stories, collections of essays, and his memoirs, entitled *My Days* (1974).

Major Works

Narayan's fiction inhabits the world of everyday events and common people in a fictional place called Malgudi. He incorporates traditional Hindu mythology and legends in stories of modern events. He tells stories of ordinary people who rely on Hindu principles to guide them through the ethical dilemmas and problems of modern life. Narayan's fiction avoids being overtly

political or ideological. His early novels focus on the conflict between Indian and Western culture. *Swami and Friends* chronicles an extroverted schoolboy's rebellion against his missionary upbringing. *The Bachelor of Arts* (1937) depicts an idealistic college student who attacks the bourgeois order but eventually reconciles himself to an obedient, lawful existence. In *The English Teacher* (1945; published in the United States as *Grateful to Life and Death*), an educator who endures the premature death of his wife overcomes his grief through religion and philosophy. After 1945, Narayan's fiction portrays middle-class characters who must reconcile Western ideals of financial and personal success with the everyday reality of Indian life. *Mr. Sampath* (1949; published in the United States as *The Printer of Malgudi*) chronicles a village printer's unsuccessful attempt to become a film producer. Narayan's most obviously political novel, *Waiting for the Mahatma*(1955), recounts the adventures of a man whose love for a young woman leads him to attempt to sabotage Mahatma Gandhi's peace movement. *The Guide*(1958) is Narayan's most popular and accomplished novel. This work is the tale of Raju, a former convict who is mistaken for a holy man upon his arrival in Malgudi. Implored by the villagers to avert a famine, Raju is unable to convince them that he is a fraud. Deciding to embrace the role the townspeople have thrust upon him, Raju dies during a prolonged fast and is revered as a saint. In *The Sweet-Vendor* (1967; published in the United States as *The Vendor of Sweets*), a merchant abandons his profession and his family concerns for a life of tranquillity and meditation. In *A Tiger for Malgudi* (1983), Narayan makes use of Indian legends and folktales to suggest that beasts may be as capable of thought and feeling as human beings. Narrated by a tiger, this novel traces the animal's spiritual development in overcoming its potential for violence. Narayan's collections of stories, such as *Gods, Demons and Others* (1965) and *The Grandmother's Tale* (1992), encompass many of the same themes as his novels in the tighter form of the short story.

Critical Reception

Critics often classify Narayan as arising out of the tradition of oral storytelling. Reviewers note his gift for wry, subtle humor, which he uses to expose the foibles of being human. Shashi Tharoor asserts that "Narayan at his best [is] a consummate teller of timeless tales, a meticulous recorder of the ironies of human life, an acute observer of the possibilities of the ordinary: India's answer to Jane Austen." Narayan's comedy is the focus of many reviews, and it is commonly held that his is a gentle humor. Hilary Mantel says, "At the heart of Narayan's achievement is this: he respects his characters, respects their created natures. This is why he can make jokes about them and stay friends with them." Critics also point out his ability to give individual stories arising out

of a unique cultural experience, universal significance. Reviewers assert that the creation of the fictional Malgudi helps Narayan portray the flavor of Indian life without worrying about the specifics of a real city. Critics attribute much of the popularity of Narayan's work to his ability to successfully use the English novel form to portray Indian life and Hindu culture. Chitra Sankaran says, "With Narayan's works … the deceptive simplicity of his fiction very often obscures his superb capacity to blend traditional Indian modes with the English novel form."

SAROJINI NAIDU 1879-1949

Indian poet, lecturer, and politician.

Naidu is remembered as a virtuoso of English metrical forms and romantic imagery in her poetry, which she wrote in English. Her mastery of such difficult poetic constructs as the dactylic prompted the English writers Edmund Gosse and Arthur Symons to praise her work widely and develop friendships with her. Equally concerned with India's freedom movement and women's rights as with writing poetry, Naidu became a close associate of Mahatma Gandhi and lectured on behalf of Indian independence throughout India, Africa, the United States, and Canada. Her political career reached its peak when she was elected the first woman governor of the United Provinces in 1947.

Biographical Information

Naidu was born into a high-caste Bengali family in 1879. Her father, Aghorenath Chattopadhyaya, became, after obtaining his doctorate from the University of Edinburgh in Scotland, a distinguished scholar and linguist who founded two Indian colleges, one for women. Naidu's mother, Varada Sundari, was a minor poet and noted singer. Naidu began writing poetry as a child and at the age of twelve passed the matriculation examination for the University of Madras. As a teenager, Naidu fell in love with Govindarajulu Naidu, a doctor who was neither Bengali nor of the Brahmin caste. Hoping to prevent their daughter from marrying outside her social group, her parents sent her to England in 1895. There Naidu attended King's College, London, and Girton College, Cambridge, where she further developed her poetic style and became friends with such well-known English critics and writers as Edmund Gosse and Arthur Symons, who helped her to refine her work. In 1898 Naidu returned to India and married Govindarajulu Naidu despite her family's disapproval. Because of her family's high status, Naidu had access to many of the most

prominent thinkers, writers, and political figures of India's modern intellectual renaissance. Her first volume of poetry, *The Golden Threshold,* was published in England in 1905; with an introduction by Arthur Symons. The book was well-received, and Naidu was encouraged to continue publishing her work until 1917, when she abruptly stopped. At this point, Naidu became active in Indian politics. She had met Gandhi in 1914 and soon decided to join him in the struggle for Indian independence. Naidu's first cause as a political activist was women's rights; she traveled throughout India lecturing on women's educational needs and promoting suffrage, and became the first woman to hold several prominent positions in the Indian government. In 1925 she was elected President of the Indian National Congress, and during the 1920s traveled throughout Africa and North America campaigning for Indian independence. Naidu was arrested and imprisoned for revolutionary activities several times during her career. In 1947-when independence was achieved-Naidu was elected acting governor of the United Provinces. She died in 1949.

Major Works

Naidu's early poetry evidences the strong Western influence of her Brahmin upbringing. Crafting poems in traditional English metrical forms, she concentrated primarily on Western themes and images. Edmund Gosse, upon reading her work when he met her in London, recognized Naidu's potential but encouraged her to incorporate Indian subjects into her work. Naidu followed Gosse's advice, and her first volume, *The Golden Threshold,* combines traditional poetic forms with lush images of India. The book achieved popular and critical success in England, where Edwardian readers admired Naidu's deft handling of the English language as well as the native view of Indian exotica it offered them. Naidu's second collection of poems, *The Bird of Time* (1912), confronted more serious themes such as death and grief as well as containing poems expressing Naidu's patriotism and religious convictions. Gosse provided the forward to this volume, noting Naidu's rich exploration of complex issues in delicate, romantic language. In her third volume, *The Broken Wing* (1917), Naidu included more poems of patriotism and description of Indian culture. More important, *The Broken Wing* contains the work many critics consider Naidu's greatest poetic achievement, "The Temple: A Pilgrimage of Love." A series of twenty-four poems, "The Temple" explores the joys, pain, and vagaries of a mature love relationship in graphic, sometimes violent, imagery, and concludes in a meditation on death. *The Broken Wing* was the last volume of poetry published in Naidu's lifetime. Many critics have wondered about the reason for her apparently sudden departure from literary pursuits to political involvement. Some speculate that her popularity dwindled, particularly in England, when she

moved away from the flowery, romantic style of her early poetry to a comparatively morbid and contemplative tone in her later work. Others contend that her preoccupation with patriotic themes caused readers to lose interest. In 1961 Naidu's daughter published a collection of her previously unpublished poems, *The Feather of the Dawn,* but it met with little critical interest. Her poetry has since undergone reevaluation by Indian critics, many of whom regard her as one of India's greatest twentieth-century poets.

RABINDRANATH TAGORE 1861–-1941

(Name also transliterated as Ravindranatha Thakura) Indian short story writer, poet, playwright, essayist, novelist, painter, and songwriter.

Tagore is widely regarded as the inventor of the modern Bengali short story and is credited with introducing colloquial speech into Bengali literature. He has been compared to such masters of the short story form as Edgar Allan Poe, Anton Chekhov, and Guy de Maupassant. Tagore's short fiction is often set in rural Bengali villages and is peopled by characters from the underprivileged sectors of society, reflecting Tagore's commitment to social realism in prose and his ten years among such individuals. Many of Tagore's short stories also include elements of the supernatural and bizarre. The celebrated Indian film director Satyajit Ray has adapted several of Tagore's tales into movies.

Biographical Information

Tagore was born May 7, 1861, in Calcutta, Bengal, India, which was then under British rule. His father was a famous religious reformer, mystic, and scholar who was popularly referred to as *Maharshi,* Great Sage. From 1879 to 1880, Tagore attended University College in London, but returned to India before completing his studies. At twenty-two, Tagore married his ten-year-old child bride. He published several volumes of poetry during the 1880s, and throughout the 1890s Tagore managed his family estates in rural Bengal. There he encountered the villagers upon whom many of his characters are based, and many of his most renown short stories were written during this period. In 1901, Tagore founded an experimental school, combining Indian and Western thought and culture; this school became Visva-Bharati University in 1921. During the first decade of the new century, Tagore suffered extensive personal tragedy as he endured the deaths of his wife, his father, and three of his children. In 1913, he was awarded the Nobel Prize for Literature

for his poetry collection *Gitanjali*(1910; *Song Offerings*); he spent the following years travelling throughout Europe, Asia, and the Americas to lecture and read from his works. Tagore was a supporter of the cause for Indian national independence from Britain, although he publicly criticized some of Gandhi's ideas. However, like Gandhi, Tagore was also active in combatting the Indian caste system. Throughout his life, Tagore was a prolific writer of novels, plays, popular songs, and numerous works of nonfiction. While in his seventies, Tagore began painting and made a significant contribution to modern Indian art. Tagore died on August 7, 1941.

Major Works of Short Fiction

Tagore's short stories are available to English-language readers in several major volumes, including *The Hungry Stones* (1916), *Mashi* (1918), and *Broken Ties*(1925). More recent translations include *Collected Stories from Rabindranath Tagore* (1970) and *Collected Stories* (1974). As a short fiction writer, Tagore was a practitioner of psychological and social realism. His stories depict poignant human relationships within a simple, relatively uneventful plots. In "Postmaster," a young orphaned girl employed by the postmaster in a remote village regards him as a surrogate father; when he returns to his home and family in Calcutta she is devastated at being left behind. Failing to appreciate the depth of her longing for family, the postmaster laughs at her request to be taken home with him. The story "Kabuliwalla" concerns a man who appears brusque, crude, and violent—to the extent that he is in prison—but is so sentimental about his faraway daughter that he cherishes a crumpled piece of paper because it is smudged with her fingerprints. "The Return of Khokababu" is about a servant who while caring for the infant of a wealthy couple briefly looks away from the child during which time it drowns and is never found. The servant moves away, marries, and has a son of his own. When the son is grown, the servant brings him to the wealthy couple claiming that he had in fact kidnapped their infant son years ago and is now returning him. Tagore's short stories often focus on the struggles of women and girls in traditional Indian society. Many of these tales are concerned with marital relationships and the various forms of estrangement and conflict between husband and wife. "A Wife's Letter" is narrated by a woman writing to her husband describing the many injustices imposed upon married women. In the tale "Vision" a woman goes blind after which her husband begins to neglect her and falls in love with a young girl. "Number One" depicts a woman who commits suicide in order to escape the conflict she feels between her sense of duty to her husband and her love for another man. In "Punishment," a man kills his wife in a fit of rage; his brother, wishing to save him from punishment, convinces his own wife to testify that she is the murderer.

Several short stories by Tagore involve elements of the supernatural and contain qualities of the eerie or weird tale, thus inviting comparison to the fantastic tales of Edgar Allan Poe. "The Hungry Stones" is about a man staying in an old palace who becomes enchanted by invisible ghosts; in "Living or Dead," a woman, thought to be dead, regains consciousness during her funeral only to be regarded by her family as a phantasm, and to prove that she is truly alive, she drowns herself; and "The Skeleton" portrays a man who engages in dialogue with the ghost of a skeleton used in classroom demonstrations.

Critical Reception

"The modern short story is Rabindranath Tagore's gift to Indian culture," observed Vishwanath S. Naravane in 1977. Of Tagore's two hundred short stories, Naravane asserted, "about twenty are pearls of the purist variety." Many of Tagore's short stories became available in English after he had gained international acclaim as the Nobel Prize-winning poet of *Gitanjali.* Early reviewers in English received Tagore's stories with mixed appraisal; while some applauded his short fiction, others found them of negligible quality. Later critics have commented that these early reviewers were ignorant of the context of Indian culture in which the stories are set. Commentators have praised Tagore for his blending of poetic lyricism with social realism, as well as the way in which his unearthly tales maintain psychological realism within an atmosphere of supernatural occurrences. Scholars frequently praise Tagore's short stories for the deeply human quality of the characters and relationships. Mohinder Kaur commented of Tagore, "With an infinite sympathy and rare psychological insight, he works out the emotional possibilities of different human relations." For example, B. C. Chakravorty says of "The Postmaster," counted among Tagore's finest short stories, "The story by itself is hopelessly uninteresting. But it acquires immense interest on account of the passages of lyrical grandeur which give a poetic expression to the feelings of the orphan girl and those of the postmaster."

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