

GRAMMATICAL BACKGROUND AND REFERENCE
FOR PATTERN PRACTICE DRILLS IN ENGLISH

by 4589

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1.0 Introduction.

1.01 In the introduction to Language Teaching Analysis (1967), W.F. Mackey notes that language teaching is a controversial and unsettled discipline. One of the reasons for this state of affairs is undoubtedly the nature of the discipline; in so far as one can speak of language teaching theory, one must recognize that the theory is related to, if not a composite of, many other disciplines, and that these are subject to change themselves. Among the fields that influence the development of language teaching theory at present are linguistics and psychology. Both these fields serve to define central concepts; language and language learning. Psychological theories have long been a part of pedagogy, and recently have shifted the emphasis from language teaching to language learning. Linguistics, the scientific study of language, has not until this century become an important factor in language pedagogy, but in that short time, trends in linguistics have created vogues in the theory and practice of language teaching. Such vacillation complicates the role of the language teacher.

1.1 Statement of the Problem.

1.11 Courses for teaching English as a Second Language are nominally linguistically oriented, and this characteristic in itself makes materials vary. "Differences in language theory affect language teaching in two ways. They may affect the analysis of the language on which a method is based, for example, by producing different types of grammar; and they may affect the classroom techniques of language teaching by stressing either meaning or form." (Mackey: x-ix)

1.12 Aside from influencing the method and technique of teaching a language, the growing prominence of linguistics has also predisposed the teacher in favor of a course content scientifically relevant to language learning; that is, materials prepared with a sound understanding of the structures of the languages

involved. At the same time, it has made him aware of the necessity of having more than just a layman's knowledge of language in general, and of the structure of the specific languages he is dealing with. A familiarity with different views of grammar makes the teacher less linguistically provincial, and gives him a basis from which to choose what is important.

1.13 Speech 070, a course in spoken English for international students at Kansas State University, has a strong linguistic grounding. The method (content and order of presentation) and the technique (manner of presentation and teaching) are dictated by the inherent nature of the material used in the course, and reflect the theoretical school of linguistics upon which they are based. The content of the materials used is a series of pattern practice drills to be used with the audio-lingual method, stressing structure rather than meaning. Because the course is for a linguistically diverse group, the emphasis of the content is on the presentation of the essentials of English structure; contrastive analysis cannot be used to expedite preparation, nor focus on problem spots.

1.14 Materials for English as a Second Language (hereafter referred to as ESL) courses vary as to the amount of reference material and direction included within the body of the text. The 070 materials offer a great deal of flexibility and freedom to the teacher, for they do not include what in any way could be called a teacher's manual. The character of the materials for Speech 070 and departmental requirements, make it imperative that the teacher have a solid background in linguistics and English grammar for effective and modern language teaching. As this author can attest, a new teacher confronted with this material could be at a loss as to how to proceed. Even an experienced teacher, before having acquired a "feel" for the materials, might be unsure of what to stress in each lesson. It is the purpose of this report to provide grammatical reference and background for the first section of the materials to supplement the information already given in the preface to the pattern drills, and to provide lesson plans to guide the teacher in class presentations.

1.20 Justification.

1.21 The intent of this study is as follows: 1) to write a manual for the novice teacher of Speech 070 that will assist him in preparing lesson plans and in class presentation. 2) to research carefully all the important points of grammar in the first section of the pattern practice drills for the teacher's reference. This report was written for a reader assumed to have a certain knowledge of linguistics and ESL methodology, given departmental requirements of competency for the teacher. It was considered feasible, therefore, to use rather technical language and superfluous to include preliminary explanation of basic subject matter.

1.22 Such an endeavor can aid the teacher in a number of ways: 1) it may serve as a teacher's handbook, indicating the key points in a lesson that should be covered; 2) it may serve as a reference book containing a compendium of information on these points. In addition, bibliographical references cited in the text might be useful, if the teacher were to want further coverage of a subject.

1.23 It is the belief of the author that such an endeavor is a needed undertaking, as well. Considering the circumstances of heterogeneous class composition and the consequent invalidation of the contrastive analysis approach for class preparation, an alternative is an error based analysis (Dšková) which would highlight the points on which to concentrate. As the new teacher has not had time to do this, he will benefit from the direction.

1.24 Proceeding from the assumption that materials will differ in one or more ways (points covered and emphasized, sequencing etc.), it is safe to assume that no single set of materials will include adequate background and reference upon which the teacher can rely. A selected group of source materials could be of aid.

1.25 Finally, the overriding consideration is the fact that the author of the pattern practice drills intended them to be used by an instructor with a solid foundation in linguistics and English grammar, and consequently the prefatory remarks contain but a skeletal and technical outline of the syntactically oriented analysis behind the drills. Supplementary material for the new teacher to enable him to operate knowledgeably, immediately, is part of the course rationale, and a requirement if the class is to be effective.

1.30 Review of the Literature.

1.31 Works on Linguistics and Second Language Teaching. The study that first emphasized the relationship between linguistics and language teaching was Leonard Bloomfield's Language (1933). Fries (Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, 1964), was perhaps the most prestigious systematizer and proponent of contrastive analysis and deals specifically with teaching English as a Second Language, while Lado (1957, 1964) deals with foreign language teaching problems, and the addition of culture to the curriculum.

1.311 Recent articles and books explain the teaching approach propounded by the "mentalist" school of linguistics. An example par excellence would be Robin Lakoff's "Transformational Grammar and Language Teaching." Mackey (1965) has a large volume analyzing language teaching.

1.32 Linguistically Oriented Studies of Language. The classical work on the nature of language for American linguists is Bloomfield's Language (1933). This work synthesized previous work of such linguists as Boas and Sapir, but had many contributions in its own right. Works by descriptive linguists and texts for the study of linguistics give an objective appraisal of language as a structured form, and serve as an introduction to a new way of looking at language. An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics by Gleason (1961) may be considered in this category. The exposition of language as a process may be examined in any of the works of Transformational Generative Grammarians, most particularly in those of Chomsky: Syntactic Structures (1957) and Aspects of the Theory of Syntax (1965). To avoid an ethnocentric view, works by European linguists Martinet and Saussure are helpful.

1.33 English Grammars.

1.331 General. A work that deals with English grammar in general and also gives reference to other authors' treatment of the subject is Linguistics and English Grammar (1965) by H.A. Gleason. Again Bloomfield's Language (1933) can be cited for his coverage of many topics of English grammar, even though his book does not focus on this. A meaning-based grammar of English is Jespersen's Essentials of English Grammar (1933). Descriptive works of

English include The Structure of English (1952) by Fries, Trager and Smith's Outline of English Structure (1951) and Nida's A Synopsis of English Syntax (1961). The emphasis of these works varies; Fries and Nida concentrate on the structure of syntax, while Trager and Smith concentrate mostly on the phonemic level.

1.332 Most studies of English by Transformational Generative Grammarians do not cover the grammar, but give an outline of it. Popularizers of the grammar, such as Roberts (1967) and Jacobs and Rosenbaum (1968) give a more extensive, but simplified, idea of the interworkings of the grammar as a whole. There are, however, lengthy and more detailed works that deal with facets and the components of the grammar, among which are: Chomsky and Halle's (1968) recent work on the phonological component, and Katz and Postal's (1964) treatment of the semantic component.

1.34 Specific Topics. There have been many useful studies done on specific topics of English that have supplemented and deepened the understanding of English grammar as a whole. Some are necessary, almost indispensable, to the teacher as basic reference books. Foremost, in regard to the first section of the pattern drills, are The English Verb Auxiliaries (1968) by W.F. Twaddell, Pike's Intonation of American English (1946) and Engler and Haden's "Status of Utterance" (1965). Joos (1964) and Palmer's (1966) works on the English verb are helpful. The concept of sentence patterns is well explained by Fries (1952).

1.40 Procedure. The procedure consisted of four main stages: delimitation, selection, research, and collation.

1.41 Delimitation. It was determined that covering the entire drill book would be too extensive a project. A thorough coverage of the first section dealing with the verb 'be' was considered to be adequate for two reasons: 1) the verb 'be' is one of the most frequently used, and one of the most troublesome. 2) after an introduction to the suprasegmentals and morpho-phonemic variation of conversational English, the teacher will have a framework within which to proceed and more self confidence with which to do so.

1.42 Selection. The first step was the selection of the points to be covered. It was decided that the material to be considered should be strictly relevant to class; interesting, but esoteric, points of grammar should not be dealt with. Each set of drills was examined, and elements that were recognized to be recurring and important to the section were chosen. Past consultations with the author of the pattern practice drills served as a guide to these choices. Class experience, an informal method of error-based analysis, further confirmed the decisions.

1.43 Research. An attempt was made to research thoroughly, but impartially. Each part of speech, pattern, or pronunciation problem was considered from the vantage point of different authors and different schools of linguistics, lest personal misunderstanding or preference for a view obscure the total picture. Attention was also given to various presentations of pattern practice drills, since the coverage given to a certain point by different authors is often indicative of its relative importance, and since their coverage might suggest new ways of presenting a point.

1.44 Collation. Information collected was divided topically, with various facts and various views under each division.

1.50 Summary.

1.51 The new teacher, unfamiliar with teaching materials, and perhaps unaware of some of the subtleties of English grammar and its application to teaching, is sometimes unprepared to teach English; intuitive and unconscious abilities do not imply an objectively conscious knowledge, and may in fact, obscure relevant points. It was deemed expedient and helpful to provide the novice 070 teacher with background and reference material, so that he might be prepared more thoroughly to face a linguistically heterogeneous class. Reference material was compiled from diverse sources, and background material for the application of the material, from different pedagogical grammars, under the guidance of the author's experience.

1.52 Although the teacher may not be a professional linguist, this does not preclude the necessity of his full comprehension of the subject matter.

Different schools of linguistics see "language" in different ways, and have distinct approaches to describing languages. Language analysis may make a difference in the grammar of a language--for example, a taxonomic, signals grammar versus a multi-dimensional model--and consequently in the presentation of grammar. Many insights can be gained from focusing on the subject from many angles. It was therefore decided that reference materials should be theoretically diverse.

1.53 However, whatever theoretical school the teacher adheres to, pedagogical goals must be kept to the forefront. The teacher may have to be impartial and take an eclectic approach, deciding for what he finds workable. Hence, a description of other authors' presentations from ESL materials will be included. These descriptions were included as samples of how theory must be modified for pedagogical application and because of the comprehensiveness and conciseness of their presentations.

1.54 Linguistics has not complicated the role of the teacher unnecessarily. Different conceptions of the nature of language in general, and of specific languages, have given a broader perspective to the teacher; the shift of emphasis has prevented a stability that can lead to dogmatism, and has made his subject matter an exciting one.

Chapter 2

2.0 Preface.

2.01 The impetus for the development of the materials for Speech 070 was the assumption that most international students have already been exposed to English grammar, reading, writing, and translation, and that their deficiencies lie in the areas of hearing and speaking English. The oral-aural approach is ideally suited to the correction of these problem areas. The use of this approach makes it necessary for the teacher to be conscious of all "levels" of English structure: phonology and morphology, as well as syntax.

2.02 The use of the pattern practice drill, considered crucial by the author of the drills, enables the student to practice the maximum amount of time possible, and in this way achieve an unconscious control of the patterns of English. Since understanding and making himself understood are the student's biggest problems initially, pronunciation is stressed. The style of speech taught is that which the educated speaker uses in informal situations, in other words, that style appropriate to a university environment.

2.03 Drills were constructed on the model of basic English sentence types, differentiated by the type of verb involved. The classification "combines concepts borrowed from three theories of grammar current in linguistics: The 'structural slot and filler' approach, immediate constituent analysis, and transformational or generative grammar. . . A major advantage is the fact that it allows us to deal with the suprasegmentals as grammar signals." (Engler, 1962: 6) Sentence patterns with corresponding intonation are explained in the preface to the drills. The growing automaticity of these signals as patterns furthers the student's control over the structure of English and enriches his communicative powers.

2.1 Grammatical Reference and Background Material.

2.2 The Verb 'Be'.

2.21 Gleason notes that 'be' is "morphologically very aberrant. . . and

syntactically it is unique also." (Gleason, 1963: 303) 'Be' has eight forms rather than the usual five, and it is classified variously as a verb (Gleason), an empty verb (Twaddell), a quasi-auxiliary (Stageberg), and a copula and empty surface form by different generations of Transformationalists, etc.

2.22 Through formal contrasts of derivational and inflectional morphemes, and distribution, Fries classified traditionally considered verbs as "class 2" words. However, 'be' is in one of the smaller subclasses of class 2, and does not seem to fulfill all the derivational and inflectional requirements of class 2 words.

2.23 Stageberg considers 'be' a verb that has four suppletive forms--am, is, was, were--and therefore not conforming to the normal paradigmatic norms. At times, 'be' is said to function as an auxiliary, and might be called a "quasi-auxiliary".

2.24 'Be' has been treated distinctly by Transformationalists in different stages of the development of their grammar. Originally 'be' was one of the optional elements of the verb phrase, apart from the auxiliary. After the advent of "deep structure" it was postulated that 'be' was not present in the abstract, deeper levels of meaning, but rather, was a surface element, necessary in English, but not in other languages.

2.25 In A Linguistic Study of the English Verb, F.R. Palmer distinguishes between three verbs 'be' and one auxiliary 'be'. 'Be' is a full verb because its verbal forms function in a manner parallel to regular verbs, but it exhibits characteristics of the auxiliary. An auxiliary occurs with negation, inversion, deleted phrases and emphatic affirmation.

2.26 Perhaps one of the most concise and helpful statements is found in The English Verb Auxiliaries by Twaddell. ". . . the copula has a grammatical function significantly parallel to that of do. Copula be is the empty verb as do is the empty auxiliary; both have purely grammatical functions, and neither has any lexical meaning. In the absence of any lexical verb, the copula fulfills the requirements of English grammar for a verb form in full sentences, and performs the special functions in negation, interrogation, insistence and echoing, like do in the presence of a lexical verb but the absence of another auxiliary."

(Twaddell, 1968: 6, 7)

2.261 Twaddell has also analyzed that the copula 'be', related to the auxiliary 'be', is involved in a formal system that modifies the verb head, or lexical verb. Two "Modifications" as Twaddell calls them, are relevant to the material under consideration. "Zero Modification" is the lexical verb, without auxiliaries or inflection for the past. This is normally called simple present. It is compatible with any chronological meaning overtly signalled elsewhere in the sentence or situation. . . . Most commonly, a predicate with zero Modification is simply timeless--pure description implicitly justified by a past record and a presumption of future continuation." (Twaddell, 1968: 6,7) The subject-verb agreement markers are on the lexical verb, and in the case of the copula, on am, is, are.

2.262 "Modification I" is the Modification for "past" inflection, / -t, -d, -ɪd / for the copula Modification I is shown by was, were. This Modification gives to the lexical verb an additive meaning. It means "either a limitation to the chronological past, or a focus upon non-reality, or is automatic in 'sequence-of-tenses.'" (Twaddell, 1968: 7) Section I of the pattern practice drills does not include any instance of Modifications II, III, and IV.

2.3 The copula has the grammatical functions of interrogation and negation, according to Twaddell. These two roles will be examined.

2.31 Negation. By negation we refer to sentence negation by the morpheme /nat/ or the reduced form / -nt /.

2.311 Twaddell writes that occurrence before -n't (not) for sentence negation is one of the grammatical roles of the copula 'be'. "True sentence negation requires an auxiliary to precede the signal / -n't / 'not'; any other location of "not" specifically makes the negation partial, affecting part, but not all of the sentence. The unstressed suffix -n't is not only the normal negative signal with an auxiliary; it can occur ONLY with auxiliaries and related copula 'be'."

(Twaddell: 16)

2.312 Fries classifies 'not' as a function word whose group is limited to one member. Function words, as opposed to class words, can occur alone only in response utterances, but are normally found in expanded utterances. One must learn to recognize the particular structural signal to understand what its full

meaning is, Fries contends. The distribution of 'not' Fries shows to be after group B words (may, might, can etc.) and after group G words (did, do, does) and after certain class 2 words (am, is, are, were, was).

2.313 In the early days of Transformational Grammar, the negative in a terminal string had been inserted by the negative transformation. Later, with the advent of deep structure, the negative morpheme came to be considered an optional element, introduced in the first phrase structure rule. The negative was no longer a late surface element, but was part of the deep structure. Chomsky stated: "A grammatical transformation is in other words, a rule that applies to Phrase-markers rather than to strings in the terminal and non-terminal vocabulary of the grammar." (Chomsky, 1965: 89) Therefore, a treatment comparable to Bowen, Stockwell and Martin's, in the Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish, which has transformations changing simple sentence types (ie. affirmative to negative) is out of date.

2.32 Questions.

2.321 In The Structure of English Fries classifies utterances according to the type of response elicited. If some utterances consistently elicit one type of response, and some utterances another, "there must be some basic contrastive difference in the formal arrangements of these two groups. It is these contrastive differences in the formal arrangements of the various groups of utterances that constitute the basic structural patterns of English sentences." (Fries: 142)

2.322 Questions, then, are those utterances that elicit oral responses other than repetitions and answers to calls because of their formal differences which contrast with other patterns. Generally the differences are a result of the arrangements of words of class one (words like 'professor') and class two (words like 'is', 'run'). Fries' pattern for a question (which contrasts with other syntactic patterns having the same intonation) is: Class 2 \leftrightarrow Class 1 (tied by a certain correspondence or concordance of forms.) Correspondence of forms is shown when the class one form has a plural morpheme and class two form is 'are' or when the class one form has no plural morpheme and the class two form is 'is', 'are' or 'am'; in other words, what is called subject-verb agreement. These

formal signals are necessary for maintaining contrasts.

2.323 However, there is a question that is signalled solely by another type of contrast--intonation. The utterance is a repetition of another speaker's utterance and therefore has the same ordering of class one and class two words as a statement: Class 1 \leftrightarrow Class 2 (tied). The intonation contour terminals contrast--falling for a statement, and rising for this type of question.

2.324 In regard to the use of the negative function word 'not', in reversal questions, Fries states that it does not change the situation to a negative one, but rather that "the negative appears in those situations in which an affirmative seems to be expected." (Fries: 167)

2.325 Originally, Transformational Grammarians considered a question with 'be' to be a permutation of the basic 'kernel sentence' word order, brought about by an optional transformation. Bowen, Stockwell and Martin list a 'yes-no' transformation that inverts word order and intonation terminal, and an interrogative generated by terminal inversion only (echo question). This is a useful pedagogical gimmick to show sentence relatedness. However, a more recent development makes the question element, like the negative element, a part of the deep structure of an utterance, not a transformation. If one is to be theoretically consistent, the use of the gimmick is precluded.

2.326 The grammatical role of 'be' as a substitute for the entire verb construction and its complements in statements is paralleled by its role as a substitute in tag-questions. Twaddell notes that "The echo-substitute function is also found in the very common English question formula consisting of statement followed by tag-question: an auxiliary (+ -n't) + pronoun subject. . . If the tag-question has a rising intonation, it is a genuine request for information that the questioner lacks. If it has a falling intonation, it signals a request for confirmation of the questioner's expectation." (Twaddell: 18) Twaddell's formula for a tag-question with 'be' would be: be (+ n't) + pronoun subject, with the opposite sign (affirmative or negative) from that of the preceding statement. Hostility is signalled, Twaddell adds, if the sign is the same as in the preceding statement.

2.33 Answers. Utterances that exhibit subject-verb reversal, / 233[^]/ intonation, or both, are questions, and according to Francis, these questions elicit a response of the yes/no variety (which includes a small group of stereotyped responses or a sequence sentence that enables the responder to avoid answering the question. 'Be' is present in yes/no responses to questions in which 'be' appears. Twaddell calls this the echo-substitute role of 'be'. The formula for a yes/no answer is: yes/no + pronoun + be + (-n't), where the sign of the verb agrees with the sign of the function word yes or no. Fries points out that the answers ". . . address themselves to the fact, not to the negative or non-negative form of the question." (Twaddell: 167)

2.4 Pronunciation.

2.41 Robert Politzer believes that teaching methods are inevitably influenced by ideas of grammar. One of the contributions of phonemics has been "to make pronunciation an initial concern which is completely integrated with all other parts of language learning." (Politzer: 22) However, although phonemics serves to enumerate the contrasts of a language that are important to the native speaker of a language, these contrasts are not sufficient for teaching that language as a second or foreign language; the point of contact between two languages is allophonic. (Gleason: 347, 1961) ". . .both phonetics and phonemics play an essential part in the teaching of pronunciation: phonemics in the realm of simplification, systematization, and guidance, in the preparation of the groundwork for the inter-linguistic comparison. But the comparison itself, the actual description of the speech sounds, and the articulatory exercises remain primarily in the domain of phonetics." (Politzer: 27)

2.42 Although the production of an utterance is linear, and through time, pronunciation can be seen theoretically as a composite of different levels and dimensions. The University of Michigan series (An Intensive Course in English) subdivides pronunciation into sound segments, intonation and rhythm. This organization is a convenient way of dealing with it, and will be followed below.

2.43 Sound Segments. One of the goals of teaching pronunciation is to introduce the learner to a different system of sound contrasts. This can be done by

presenting a phonemic inventory of the sounds of a language, starting with the vowels. The Trager and Smith analysis is presented in the preface to the drills. The articulatory description of the phoneme, according to R. E. Weinstein, should correspond to the phonetic norm, that is, the most usual realization of the allophone, "since within one phoneme a choice can be made as to which positional variants are most relevant in the acquisition of a reasonably good pronunciation; in the case of 'free' variation, the most desirable allophone can be chosen; and in regard to fluctuation between full phonemes, these may be handled within their morphemic units." (Weinstein: 38)

2.44 Lado (1965) directs teachers to always introduce a sound in the context of a word, although at times it will have to be uttered alone to isolate it. It is suggested that the student first learn to perceive the sound, and then go on to production exercises.

2.441 The most useful props for the teaching of a sound, Lado believes, are: a simplified articulatory description focusing on the feature(s) of mispronunciation, a mirror, and facial diagrams. Moving a sound to a different position in a word, and interpolation (combining features from different sounds to produce another, for example the fronting of /e/ and the height of /a/ to produce /æ/ are two other useful procedures.

2.45 Different types of perception exercises contrasting different sounds (ie. same/different drills, and identifying sounds by number drills) and production exercises (repetition drills, short dialogue, picture identification drills, answering questions, etc.) can be used to teach the sound. After the "teaching" of the different sounds, there must be follow up lessons, and constant attention must be given to "phonology" throughout the course.

2.5 Rhythm. English has a stress timed, rather than a syllable timed, sentence rhythm. This is of particular importance when teaching certain language groups (ie. Chinese, Spanish). In the Intonation of American English, Pike describes rhythm, and its importance in normal English pronunciation. Rhythm involves stress, time and junctures. A rhythm unit is "A sentence or part of a sentence spoken with a single rush of syllables uninterrupted by a pause." (Pike: 34)

The length of time between the prominent syllables of the rhythm units tends to be equal, and produce a rhythmic effect. "Since the rhythm units have different numbers of syllables, but a similar time value, the syllables of the longer ones are crushed together, and pronounced very rapidly, in order to get them pronounced at all, within that time limitation." (Pike: 54) This abbreviatory "crushing" of syllables causes two characteristics of English pronunciation, to which many language groups have difficulty adjusting: the omission of entire syllables and the obscuring or neutralizing of vowels. Difficulties in adjustment do not proceed solely from the student's having a different rhythm pattern in his native language, but may be as a result of too close an association with the written language.

2.51 In the section of pedagogical applications in Pike's book, there is a sample of an exercise designed to make automatic the production of small rhythmic groupings, and one to break down syllable timed rhythm by deliberately putting more and more syllables into the same time unit. Experimentation in the English Language Institute showed that "slowness and clarity were best achieved by using more pauses, and longer pauses, while maintaining the desired rhythmic effect and spread within the actual spoken phrases, than by destroying rhythm in the interests of having each word pronounced separately." (Pike: 110)

2.6 Intonation. Intonation is a system of sequences of pitch with which words are pronounced, extending over phrases and sentences. Intonation contours are the standardized significant sequences of pitch which, because they are used in similar ways under similar circumstances, have a certain meaning attached to them. After careful inspection, Pike concluded that in English grammatical definitions cannot be given to contours, but that they should be defined in terms of attitudes held by the speaker toward the sentence upon which the contour is imposed; questions were found with more than one possible contour, while both a statement and a question could have the same contour.

2.61 Some contours were found by Pike to have relatively "colorless" meaning (no indication of the speaker's attitude.) These are useful for language teaching.

"They serve a mechanical function--they provide a mold into which all sentences may be poured so that they achieve utterance. Nevertheless, these mechanical contours may be very important for learning a language, since failure to use them would immediately label a speaker as a foreigner with a bad accent and hamper his freedom of style." (Pike: 20)

2.62 Although colorless contours show little of the speaker's attitude, they do contrast with one another--make a meaningful difference when used with the same utterance--and therefore are useful as signals. Fries explains ". . . the few patterns that provide the basic molds for ordinary English utterances. . . are part of the signalling system of English structure, and at times they furnish the minimum distinctive contrast to separate different structural meanings." (Fries: 26) A non-native speaker must be able to differentiate these meanings, and produce the structural signals, if he wishes to communicate fully with a native speaker.

2.63 In "Status of Utterance" Engler and Haden propose the combination of signals of syntactic arrangement with those of intonation contours as a criterion for defining sentence types. This union of pattern with contour re-emphasizes the fact that utterances are spoken, and provides a "cookbook recipe" for the production of colorless signalling patterns that the non-native speaker needs. Status I covers a great many of the sentences in the drills being dealt with; a / 231↗ / contour is superimposed on a Subject + Predicator (verb phrase) pattern. There is no change for a difference in 'polarity' (affirmative or negative versions of the sentence.)

2.631 Status III covers 'yes/no' questions: the intonation contour / 233↗ / superimposed upon the syntactic arrangement of Predicator + Subject. Again, there is no change for a difference in 'polarity'. Status III is also the Status of the tag-questions that Twaddell defines as requesting information. However, another Status is needed for 'echo questions', which combine the contour of Status III with the syntactic pattern of Status I: hence, the contour / 233↗ / is superimposed upon the syntactic pattern Subject + Predicator. In all three Statuses the primary sentence stress and pitch level three all fall on the last

word-stressed syllable, unless that word is an adverb of time, or there is contrastive or emphatic stress to counteract the colorless intonation.

2.64 Trager and Smith's analysis of English structure defines an intonation pattern as a superfix composed of pitches and juncture. An English superfix always has one, and only one, primary stress, and may also have plus juncture and stresses other than the primary stress. Furthermore, their studies showed that on the phonemic level one has to deal with pitches only at certain points in the utterance--at the beginning of an utterance, when a change of pitch phoneme occurs, and at the end of an utterance. The two authors agree with Pike's posit of four relative pitches, not absolute, and enter four pitch phonemes in their phonemic inventory.

2.65 There exist different ways of symbolizing intonation for teaching purposes: the dot on a scale type, the dash type, the dot and dash type, the linear notations type, etc. The dot on a scale type, for example, represents pitch level, stress and terminal juncture by the size and position of dots on a pseudo-musical scale, and the juncture by a small tail on the dots. The linear notation, another popular method, indicates pitch by the height of the line, and juncture by the tail of the line. Stress marking may be added. Numbers may also be effective, or combinations of the above.

2.66 Teaching intonation follows much the same order that teaching pronunciation of segments of sound does: (cf. 2.34) perception--the student must perceive not only the relative pitch differences, but the pattern also; repeated examples of one utterance, then lexical change with the same intonation pattern should make the student aware of the recurring pattern. Lado then suggests perception drills which require the identification of a pattern, best done by comparing one pattern with another. The next stage is imitating the pattern or contour. Lado gives helpful techniques that may expedite the perception and production. These include: 1) slowing down the model without otherwise distorting it; 2) echoing the intonation and rhythm with the nonsense syllable la also helps; and 3) verbal hints: variation of the lexical content by substitution, expansion etc. would help reinforce the pattern.

Chapter 3

Lesson Plans: Series A--Sentences with 'Be'

3.1 Lesson A. 1. Third Person Singular Present and Past of 'Be'.

3.11 Drill 1. 'Is' with third person singular subjects.

Status I--colorless intonation for statements:

Sentence Pattern: S (subject) + V (verb) + C (complement)

Intonation: / 231 \checkmark /

²The man's a ³prof¹essor. \checkmark

'Equational' sentence: S + V + C (nominal)

The man's a professor.

S = C

The man = a professor.

Concord: Third person singular subject always takes 'is' form of the verb 'be' in the present.

Singular subject takes singular complement in an equational sentence pattern.

Pronunciation: Morphophonemic variation of 'is' because of sentence rhythm:

/-s/ after subject ending with sounds /p,t,k,f,e/
as in /stuwdənts/.

/-z/ after subject ending with sounds /b,d,g,v,d,
r,l,m,n,ŋ/ and all vowel sounds, as in /mænz/

/-ɪz/ after subjects ending with sounds /s,z,ʃ,ʒ,
ʧ,ʝ/ (sibilants and shibilants), as in /tʃɹɔːtɪz/

reduction of unstressed vowels--no spelling pronunciation!

pronunciation of the articles--alternate forms in complementary distribution:

/ən/ and /diy/ before vowel sounds /ə / and /də /
before consonants

Uses of the present tense (Haden, Haggard, Pilgrim):

- 1) To express perceptions, feelings, or states that occur or exist at the moment of speaking. These may extend somewhat beyond the moment of speaking, but the focal point is the immediate present.
ex. This food tastes terrible.
- 2) To express activities (states, conditions, feelings, etc. that extend for varying lengths of time beyond the moment of speaking.
ex. My brother plays the violin.
- 3) To express a habitual action, or one that occurs at intervals, before and probably after the moment of speaking.
ex. I play golf every Sunday
He goes home often.
- 4) To express activities that are relatively permanent, and general truths.
ex. Chicago is in Illinois.
Water freezes at 32° Fahrenheit.
- 5) To express activities that will take place in future time, shown by an adverb indicating future time.

Uses of the present forms of 'be' (Praninskas):

- 1) To express facts about the present.
ex. The man's a professor.
- 2) To express all time truths.
ex. The world is round.

Use of 'be' (Praninskas):

- 1) Profession, trade, occupation
- 2) Nationality
- 3) Size and shape

- 4) Age
- 5) Characteristics
- 6) Condition
- 7) Place
- 8) Color

Vocabulary explanation.

3.12 Drill 2. 'Was' with third person singular subjects.

Status I

The past of 'is' is 'was'. 'Was' substitutes for 'is' in the verb slot of Status I.

Uses of 'be' in the simple past (Haden, Pilgrim, Haggard):

- 1) To express activities that existed or occurred in the past.
- 2) To express activities that existed or occurred over a period of time in the past.

ex. I was in Manhattan during the summer.

- 3) To express activities that existed or occurred at intervals in past time.

ex. He went every day.

Pronunciation:

/wəz/ 'was'

Vocabulary.

3.13 Drill 3. Contrast 'is' with 'was'.

Status I

Slot filler differs, but contrastive stress should not be put on the two verbs. Rather, colorless sentence intonation should continue.

Pronunciation: /-s, -z, -ɪz/ vs. /wəz/.

3.14 Drill 4. Substitute 'is' for 'was' in the sentences.

In chorus and individually.

3.15 Drill 5. Substitute 'was' for 'is' in the sentences.

In chorus and individually.

3.2 Lesson A. 2. Third person singular pronouns.

3.21 Drill 1. 'He' for males. Repetition drill.

Status I: S + V + C (nominal). / 231 ↘ /.

Third person pronouns (singular and plural) substitute for nouns. English classifies 3rd. person singular into: he, she, it. Pronouns must not be omitted.

'He' substitutes for nouns referring to what English considers to be masculine.

Pronunciation:

/hiy/ 'he'

/hiyz/ 'he's'

Vocabulary.

3.22 Drill 2. Substitute 'he' for the subject.

Substitution drill. In chorus. Individually.

3.23 Drill 3. 'She' for females (and ships and so forth.)

Status I: S + V + C (nominal). / 231 ↘ /

'She' substitutes for nouns referring to what English considers to be feminine, and other assorted nouns arbitrarily classed as feminine.

Pronunciation:

/ʃiy/ 'she'

/ʃiyz/ 'she's'

Make sure that everyone is pronouncing the first segment correctly--/ʃ/.

Vocabulary.

3.25 Drill 5. 'It' for neuters.

Status I: S + V + C (nominal). / 231 ↘ /

'It' substitutes for nouns referring to what English considers neuter--non-living things, babies, animals, etc.

Vocabulary.

3.26 Drill 6. Substitute 'it' for the subject.

Substitution drill. In chorus. Individually.

3.3 Lesson A. 3. Complements.

3.31 Drill 1. Adjectival complements.

Status I: S + V + C (adjectival). / 231\ /.

Adjectivals: words that describe. (Haden, Pilgrim, Haggard)

Patterns of adjectives: ending in -y, -ious, -ent and -ly. Some adjectives do not fit into a pattern.

Adjective forms for nationalities: ending in -n, sibilant sound, and some do not fit a pattern.

Adjectivals do not agree with the subject in gender or in number.

Vocabulary.

3.32 Drill 2. Adverbial complements.

Status I: S + V + C (adverbial). / 231\ /.

Adverbials: words or phrases that describe manner, place, time, frequency etc.

Patterns of adverbials: words ending in -ly and other patterns. Phrases composed of: preposition + noun phrase.

Adverbials do not agree with the subject.

Vocabulary.

3.4 Lesson A. 4. Other Pronouns with Subject-Verb Concord.

3.41 Drill 1. 'I' with 'am'.

Status I: S + V + C (nominal, adjectival, adverbial). / 231\ /

Pronunciation:

/aɪ/ 'I'

/aɪm/ 'I'm'

Vocabulary

3.42 Drill 2. 'I' with 'was'.

Status I: S + V + C (nominal, adjectival, adverbial). / 231\ /

/wəz/ 'Was' is past of 'am'.

3.43 Drill 3. 'You' singular.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /.

'You' for second persons.

Nominal complements agree with subject in number.

'You' singular has singular complement when a nominal.

Pronunciation:

/yʊw/ 'you'

/yʊwɪr/ 'you're' in formal speech.

/yəɪr/ 'you're' in informal speech.

Vocabulary.

3.44 Drill 4. 'You' singular, past tense.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /.

/wɛr/ 'were' is past for 'are'.

Pronunciation:

/wɛr/ 'were'. Look and listen for lip rounding.

3.45 Drill 5. Contrast 'are' and 'were'.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /

Contrastive drill. Do not use contrastive stress.

3.46 Drill 6. Substitute 'were' for 'are'.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /.

Substitution drill. In chorus. Individually.

3.5 Lesson A. 5. Plurals.

3.51 Drill 1. Plurals of regular nouns.

Repetition drill.

Morphophonemic variation of the plural morpheme in informal conversation.

Pronunciation:

-s after voiceless sounds

-z after voiced sounds

-ɪz after sibilants and shibilants.

Vocabulary.

3.52 Drill 2. Irregular Plurals.

Repetition drill.

Irregular plurals must be learned.

Special forms--Old English, Latin, Greek.

Some words have two plurals in use--a regular plural, and an irregular plural.

There are patterns of irregular plural formation.

Vowel change.

Vowel change and consonant change.

Consonant change.

No change.

Greek and Latin and Old English endings.

Vocabulary

3.53 Drill 3. Plurals with 'are' and 'were'.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /

Plural nominal complement if the subject is plural.

3.54 Drill 4. 'They' with 'are' and 'were'.

'They' is the only third person plural pronoun to substitute for plural nouns.

Pronunciation:

/dey/ 'they'

/deyr/ 'they're' formally.

/der/ 'they're' informally. One syllable.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /

3.55 Drill 5. Substitute 'they' for the subject.

Status I: S + V + C (nom., adj., adv.). / 231 ↘ /.

Substitution drill.

3.6 Lesson A. 6. Proper Nouns, Mass Nouns, and Non Specific Plural Nouns.
See Index to Modern English.

3.61 Drill 1. Proper nouns: personal names.

Status I: S + V + C. / 231 \ /

Replaced by third person pronouns.

No article is used unless the proper noun is in the plural.

3.62 Drill 2. Proper nouns: place names and subject titles.

Statuses I and III.

The rule is that place names do not take articles. Exceptions:

- 1) A name with a plural form: the Netherlands, the Andes.
- 2) A name containing Union or United: the Soviet Union.
- 3) Official names: the Republic of China.
- 4) Names of peninsulas, oceans, seas, gulfs, rivers, canals:
the Florida peninsula, the Atlantic Ocean
- 5) Particular names with 'the' included in the title: The Hague.

3.63 Drill 3. Mass nouns.

Statuses I and III.

The drill actually includes non-count, mass and abstract nouns.

The indefinite article is never used with these nouns, except when "kind of" has been deleted.

If the definite article is used, it limits or restricts; then it may be limited by a clause or a phrase.

Most often, no article is used.

These words are replaced by 'it'.

3.64 Drill 4. Non-specific plural nouns.

Statuses I and III.

No article used. Persons or things thought of as a group or class.

Substituted by 'they'.

Vocabulary.

3.7 Lesson A. 7. Compound Subjects and Pronoun Replacement.

3.71 Drill 1. Third person compound subject replaced by 'they'.

Status I: S (compound) + V + C (adjl, adv., nom.). / 231 \ /

Any combination of third person subjects (singular or plural, or combination is replaced by 'they'.

Pronunciation:

/n/ 'and'. Syllabic /n/ is used for 'and'.

/ə'r/ 'are' with compound subjects.

/deɪr/ ~ /ðeɪr/ 'they're'

3.72 Drill 2. Second person compound subjects replaced by 'you'.

Status I: S (compound) + V + C (adj., adv., nom.). / 231 \ /

A second person subject (plural or singular) and a second or third person subject combining to form a compound subject are replaced by 'you'.

Order of pronouns--the second person pronoun usually precedes a third person subject.

Pronunciation:

Syllabic /n/ for 'and'.

/ə'r/ 'are' with compound subjects.

/juːwɪr/ ~ /jəwɪr/ 'you're'

3.73 Drill 3. First person compound subjects replaced by 'we'.

Status I: S (compound) + V + C (adj., adv., nom.)

A compound subject containing a third person subject (singular or plural), is replaced by 'we'.

Pronunciation:

/ə'r/ 'are' with plural, compound subjects.

/wiːr/ 'we're'

syllabic /n/ for 'and'.

3.74 Drill 4. Substitute the appropriate pronoun for the compound subject in each of the following.

Status I: S (compound subj. or compound pronoun) + V + C (adj., adv., nom.) / 231 \ /.

Substitution drill. In chorus and individually.

3.8 Lesson A. 8. Echo Questions, Yes/No Questions, and Affirmative Answers.

3.81 Drill 1. Echo questions.

Status VII: S + V + C. / 233[↑] /.

Intonation change signals question.

Subject may be changed to a pronoun. If the subject is a first person pronoun, the echo will have a second person pronoun, and visa versa.

The echo question shows disbelief or doubting or surprise at the statement made.

The echo may not be an entire sentence. / 233[↑] / intonation on the specific phrase or word that is doubted is also an echo question. ex. ²Raining? ^{3/} ^{3[↑]}

3.82 Drill 2. Yes/no questions.

Status III: V + S + C. / 233[↑] /.

Yes/no question requires a yes/no answer.

Subject may be changed to a pronoun.

Word order--

as a simple question pattern (Fries; Praninskas): V + S + C.

as a change in word order (Haden, Pilgrim, Haggard; Bowen, Stockwell, and Martin): the form of 'be' is moved to the beginning of the sentence.

Intonation--

no change in intonation (/ 231[↓] / according to Fries.)

intonation distinct from that in statements (Engler and Haden). Having both word order and intonation different assures and reinforces that the students will be able to comprehend and produce questions modeled after those in Manhattan, Kansas.

3.83 Drill 3. Short form answers (affirmative).

Status I: S + V. / 231[↓] /.

Pattern: Yes + pronoun + form of 'be'. Ex. Yes, he is.

Pronunciation: verb forms are not contracted. They receive stress.

3.84 Drill 4. Change each of the following to a yes/no question.

Status III: V + S + C. / 233[↑] /.

3.9 Lesson A. 9. Negatives.

3.91 Drill 1. First person singular present (+negative) (I am--- I'm + not)

Status I: S + V + (not) + C. / 231↓ /

Pattern: S (I) + Be + not + C. Ex. I am not a student.

Pronunciation:

/aɪm nat/ 'I'm not'. There is no reduced form for am + not.

Vocabulary.

3.92 Drill 2. Negatives with other persons and tenses of 'be'. (be contracted with not)

Status I: S + V + (not) + C. / 231↓ /.

Pattern: S + Be + n't + C Ex. You aren't nice.

Pronunciation: be is joined with a reduced form of 'not'.

/ɪzənt/ 'isn't'

/wəzənt/ 'wasn't'

/arnt/ 'aren't' One syllable.

/wəmt/ 'weren't' One syllable.

Vocabulary.

3.93 Drill 3. Give negative form of each of the following.

3.94 Drill 4. Negative short form answers.

Status I: S + V + (NOT) + C. / 231↓ /.

Pattern: No. S (pronoun) + V + not. Ex. No. I'm not.

No. He isn't.

Pronunciation:

/aɪm-nát/ There is no reduced form for 'am not'.

/hiy ɪzənt/ 'Not' is contracted with all other forms of 'be'.

3.95 Drill 5. Give short form answers to the following questions according to the cue word.

3.10 Lesson A. 10. Negative Questions.

3.101 Drill 1. Negative echo questions.

Status VII: S + V + not + C. / 233[↑]/.

Word order the same as the statement of which it is an echo.

Intonation rising.

The echo question shows disbelief or doubting or surprise at the statement made.

3.102 Drill 2. Negative yes/no questions.

Status III: V + (NOT) + S + (NOT) + C. / 233[↑]/.

Intonation and word order are different from that of statements.

Pattern:

Am + I + not + C. / 233[↑]/.

Be + not + S + C. / 233[↑]/.

Negative questions with a first person singular pronoun may be in two forms.

Formal: Am I not + C. / 233[↑]/

Informal: Aren't I + C. / 233[↑]/

A negative question doesn't express negation in the same way that a negative statement does. There are three general types of meaning (Haden, Pilgrim, Haggard):

- 1) A negative question may suggest an emotional tone or bias on the part of the speaker.

Ex. Haven't you cleaned up your room yet?

- 2) A negative question may suggest that the speaker expects a certain response, usually agreement.

Ex. Isn't she nice?

- 3) At times, negative and affirmative questions may express practically the same meaning, although the negative form seems to suggest greater interest or concern on the part of the speaker.

Ex. Won't you come in?

The answer to a negative question will be according to the fact, not the expectation of the speaker.

3.103 and 3.104 Drills 3 and 4. Give short form answers according to the cue words.

3.11 Lesson A. 11. Tag-Questions.

3.111 Drill 1. Negative tags.

Statuses I and III: S + V + C. / 231_↓ / + V + S + NOT. / 233_↑ /

Pattern: Statement + Question (negative).

S + V + C + V + not + S (pronoun). Ex. He's nice, isn't he?

S + V + C + am I not. Ex. I'm a good teacher, am I not?

Identity of the subject and pronoun is the same.

The statement shows the answer expected. (Yes)

Answer must be appropriate to the situation.

If the statement and the tag both have the same sign (ie. positive or negative), hostility is shown.

3.112 Drill 2. Positive tags.

Statuses I and III: S + V + NOT + C. / 231_↓ / + V + S / 233_↑ /.

Pattern: Statement (negative) + Question.

S + V + NOT + C + S + V. Ex. He isn't here, is he?

Identity of the subject and the pronoun in the question is the same.

The statement shows the answer expected. (No.)

The answer is in accordance with the facts, rather than the expectations.

3.113 Drill 3. Answer the given tag-questions according to the cue word.

4.0 Conclusion.

4.1 This report has presented the rationale for Speech 070 and for the development of the materials used in that course. It has provided grammatical reference pertinent to the lessons, and included sample lesson plans for Series A of the drills for use by the teacher.

4.2 The lesson plan sketches are intended as an aid in preparing to teach very compact lessons, but much remains to be done before classroom presentation. The teacher must make sure that he understands the material he is presenting. If one language group seems to have a problem with a particular construction, a detailed contrastive analysis must be done to locate the source of the problem. He must, in addition, provide the "sugar coating" for the lesson to make it palatable to the student, and to make class atmosphere conducive to learning. This can come in the form of guided conversation using the constructions studied, cultural orientation for the newly arrived international student, the explanation of campus life and slang, and numerous other tactics that are educational as well as entertaining.

4.3 The reference materials and lesson plans were meant specifically for the introductory Series A drills. However, the format of the lesson plans may be used as a model for plans for the remaining drills. Further, much of the information contained within the section of reference materials is applicable to English grammar as a whole. The reason for this is twofold: 1) as Series A are the first drills to be covered, it was necessary to amplify the section with supplementary introductory information (for example, the section on pronunciation) that is pertinent to all the materials, and which should be reemphasized. 2) There are many elements that are common to both the verb 'be' and other verbs, and to English grammar in general.

4.4 This report, then, is intended as an aid not only during the initial stages of preparation, but throughout the course.

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GRAMMATICAL BACKGROUND AND REFERENCE
FOR PATTERN PRACTICE DRILLS IN ENGLISH

by

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AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S REPORT

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ABSTRACT

1.1 As an M.A. Candidate in Linguistics/TESOL at Kansas State University in 1969-70, the author was awarded a Graduate Teaching Assistantship and assigned to teach the course Speech 070 Spoken English for International Students in the Program in English for International Students. As a new teacher, unfamiliar with the course materials, unaware of some of the subtleties of English grammar and its application to teaching, the author was, at times, unsure of how to proceed with the materials provided. Because of this experience, it was deemed expedient and helpful to develop a set of background and reference materials for use in preparing to teach each lesson in the required materials. It is hoped that the background material resulting from the author's experience will also be of help to subsequent new teachers in the program, preparing to face a linguistically heterogeneous class of foreign students.

2. The report is divided into three sections. The first consists of an introduction, including a statement of the problem, a brief review of the literature, an explanation of the procedure followed, and the summary and conclusions. Section Two presents grammatical reference and background material necessary for the teaching of Series A of the materials used in the course Speech 070, covering the copula BE, negation, questions, answers, and pronunciation. Section Three provides sample lesson plans for Series A drills, to guide the new teacher. These plans include at each topical point comparative references to various authorities' differing ways of presenting the topic. These descriptions are included to illustrate the adaptation necessary in the pedagogical application of theoretical description, and because of the comprehensiveness and conciseness of the presentations.

3. A selected bibliography is provided.