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Theme: Grammar as a tool for Meaningful Communication

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ABSTRACT

Language consists of three main components: phonemes, grammatical structure, and vocabulary. Phonetics is a branch of linguistics which discusses the problem how meaningless phonemes join and form meaningful words. Grammar investigates how to join words and create information. Vocabulary contains the words created in the languages or borrowed from other languages. Grammar is the most important branch. Because it joins separately coined words and creates communication. Communication between people is possible due to grammar. Grammar is a tool for the meaningful conversation between people. Without grammar people couldn't communicate.

CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

A great step forward was made in Uzbekistan in the last years. The decree PD – 18-75 was issued on December 10, 2012¹. Conditions of reforming of all education system the question of the world assistance to improvement of quality of scientific-theoretical aspect of educational process is especially actually put. As President I.A. Karimov has declared in the programme speech “Harmoniously development of generation a basis progress of Uzbekistan”: “... all of us realize, that achievement of the great purposes put today before us, noble aspirations it is necessary for updating a society”. The effect and destiny of our reforms carried out in the name of progress and the future, results of our intentions are connected with highly skilled, conscious staff, the experts who are meeting the requirements of time².

English grammatical theory has a long tradition going back to the earliest Latin grammars of the 17th century when "grammar" meant only the study of Latin. Until the end of the 16th century there were no grammars of English. One of the earliest Latin grammars written in English was W. Lily's work published in the first half of the 16th century. It is to be noted that using Latin categories the writers of that time did not altogether ignore distinctions that the English language made. Thus, for instance, in Lily's grammar translation of Latin inflectional forms is given with the important points of reservation that some of their English equivalents are analytical forms, which include auxiliary words as "signs". Attempts to break with Latin grammatical tradition characterise the treatment of the structure of English in Bullokar's and Ch. Butler's grammars but in many cases they still follow the Latin pattern. The early prenormative grammars of English reproduced the Latin classification of the word-classes which included eight parts

¹ И.А.Каримов "Чет тилларни ўрганиш тизимини янада такомиллаштириш чора тadbирлари тўғрисида" Ҳалқ сўзи, 2012, 11 декабр, 1-бет

² Islom Karimov. Adabiyotga e'tibor – ma'naviyatga e'tibor. – Tashkent, Uzbekistan, 2009, p.14 Anstey, M. 2003. Literate futures part two: Planning, pedagogy and multiliteracies. *Education Views*, 12 (11),14-15.

of speech. Substantives and adjectives were grouped together as two kinds of nouns, the participle was considered as a separate part of speech³.

In the earliest English grammars the parts of speech were divided dichotomically into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech or words with number and words without number, or words with number and case and words without number and case. Declinable words, with number and case, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the indeclinables — adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. The logical definition of the sentence existed in old times, but grammarians understood the subject matter of syntax only as a study of word arrangement. The second half of the 18th century is generally referred to as the age of the so-called prenormative grammar⁴. The most influential grammar of the period was R. Lowth's *Short Introduction to English Grammar*, first published in 1762. Lowth's approach to the study of grammar was upheld by his followers. The first to be mentioned here is Lindley Murray's *English Grammar Adapted to the Different Classes of Learners*. First published in 1795, it was then widely used in its original form and in an abridged version for many years to come. Murray's grammar was considered so superior to any then in use that soon after its appearance it became the text-book in almost every school. The principal design of a grammar of any language, according to Lowth, is to teach us to express ourselves with propriety, to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not. The plain way of doing this is to lay down rules and to illustrate them by examples. But besides showing what is right, the matter may be further explained what is wrong. In the words of Lowth, grammar in general, or Universal grammar explains the principles which are common to all languages. The Grammar of any particular language, as the English grammar, applies those common principles to that particular language⁵.

O. Jespersen showed good judgement in observing at this point that in many cases what gives itself out as logic, is not logic at all, but Latin grammar disguised.

³ Бодуэн де Куртенэ И.А. Избранные труды по общему языкознанию. - М.: Изд-во АН СССР, 1963. т. 2.-391 с

⁴ Арутюнова Н.Д. Дискурс. В кн.: Лингвистическая энциклопедия.- М., 1990.-с. 136-137

⁵ Itenyeva N.F., Barsova O.M., Blokh M. Y., Shapkin A.P. Theoretical English Grammar. Moscow, 1969, 220 p

The early prescriptive grammars exerted an enormous influence and moulded the approach of many generations to English grammar. Applying the principles of Universal grammar, Lowth subjected to criticism many expressions established by long use in English, such as, for instance, the use of adverbs without the suffix *-ly*, the expressions *it is me, these kind of*, or, say, such patterns as *had rather, had better*. Lowth and other grammarians of that time condemned as wrong many constructions and forms which occurred in the works of the best authors. They used passages from the works of classical writers as exercises for pupils to correct bad English or "false" English.

1.1 Significance of the study

The **significance** of the investigation is expressed by the profound interest in learning the grammar as a tool for meaningful communication in Present Day TFL. Theoretical value is that it can serve as a basis for studying the grammar as a tool for meaningful communication. It will allow understanding deeply importance of teaching grammar as a tool for meaningful communication because this kind of the verbs are most of widely formed with the help of the contextual properties. Practical value of this work is that the theoretical statement of this paper can be used in delivering lectures and seminars on theoretical grammar, general linguistics, typology, and methodology of Teaching English.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The qualification paper is dedicated to the study of the grammar as a tool for meaningful communication which presents a certain interest both for theoretical investigation and for practical usage. We have the full basis to approve that many linguists have brought the invaluable contribution to studying various properties of the grammar as a tool for meaningful communication (more in detail see L.S. Barkhudarov, M.Y. Blokh, G.G. Pocheptsov, A.I. Smirnitsky, Ch. Fillmore, W. Chafe, A. Khudyakov, B.V. Reznik, E.S. Kubrjakov, Ch. Hockett' works and etc.), that has created necessary theoretical preconditions for describing the semantics of grammar as a tool for meaningful communication. Also I looked through the works

written by the scholars of our university like M. Iriskulov, A. Sadikov, T. Ikramov, M. Rasulova, A. Kuldashev, B. Juraev, I. Ibrogimhodjaev and T. Madrahimov.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The **purpose** of this research is based on detailed study of the grammar as a tool for meaningful communication.

- To review the linguistic literature on the problems of the development of grammatical theory and the essential features of the early prescriptive grammar.
- To analyse the problem of classical scientific grammar as a combination of descriptive and explanatory grammar.
- To reveal linguistic status of the structural and transformational approaches to the English Grammar.

1.4 Research questions

According to this general purpose of the study the following particular **research questions** are put forward:

1. What simple methods of teaching basic grammar do we usually use?
2. What methods of teaching the plural and possessive forms of nouns are usually used both in the elementary and secondary schools?
3. Can grammar be a tool for meaningful communication?
4. What is the role of speech in a cultural context and in the process of communication?

CHAPTER II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section will examine existing literature and will discuss the necessity for teaching grammar as a tool for meaningful communication, as well as explain the problems and complications associated with the teaching of grammar as a tool for meaningful communication.

2.1 Classical scientific grammar as a combination of descriptive and explanatory grammar

The end of the 19th century brought a grammar of a higher type, a descriptive grammar intended to give scientific explanation to the grammatical phenomena. This leads to a scientific understanding of the rules followed instinctively by speakers and writers, giving in many cases the reasons why this usage is such and such. The difference between scientific and prescriptive grammar is explained by H. Sweet as follows: "As my exposition claims to be scientific, we confine ourselves to the statement and explanation of facts, without attempting to settle the relative correctness of divergent usages. If an 'ungrammatical' expression such as *it is me* is in general use among educated people, we accept it as such, simply adding that it is avoided in the literary language⁶.

"... Whatever is in general use in language is for that reason grammatically correct". In the words of Sweet, his work is intended to supply the want of a scientific English grammar, founded on an independent critical survey of the latest results of linguistic investigation as far as they bear, directly or indirectly, on the English language. Scientific grammar was thus understood to be a combination of both descriptive and explanatory grammar. Sweet defines the methods of grammatical analysis as follows: *"The first business of grammar, as of every other science, is to observe the facts and phenomena with which it has to deal, and to*

⁶ Ирискулов М.Т. Лекции по теоретической грамматике английского языка. Т., 2004, 240 с

classify and state them methodically. A grammar, which confines itself to this is called a descriptive grammar. ...When we have a clear statement of such grammatical phenomena, we naturally wish to know the reason of them and how they arose. In this way descriptive grammar lays the foundations of explanatory grammar." Sweet describes the three main features characterising the parts of speech: meaning, form and function, and this has logical foundations but the results of his classification are, however, not always consistent. It is to be noted, in passing, that H. Sweet's ideas seem to anticipate some views characteristic of modern linguistics. Here are a few lines from H. Sweet's work which bear relevantly upon F. de Saussure's ideas about synchronic and diachronic linguistics: *"...before history must come a knowledge of what now exists. We must learn to observe things as they are without regard to their origin, just as a zoologist must learn to describe accurately a horse The idea that language is primarily what is said and only secondarily what is written, i. e. the priority of oral is in accord with Sweet's statement that "the first requisite is a knowledge of phonetics or the form of language. We must learn to regard language solely as consisting of groups of sounds, independently of the written symbols ..."*. The same viewpoints were advocated by other linguists of the first half of the present century, such as C. Onions, E. Kruisinga, H. Poutsma, G. Curme, O. Jespersen, H. Stokoe, M. Bryant, R. Zandvoort and others.

According to O. Jespersen, for instance, of greater value than prescriptive grammar is a purely descriptive grammar, which, instead of serving as a guide to what should be said or written, aims at finding out what is actually said and written by the speakers of the language investigated, and thus may lead to a scientific understanding of the rules followed instinctively by speakers and writers. Such a grammar should also be explanatory, giving, as far as this is possible, the reasons why the usage is such and such. These reasons may, according to circumstances, be phonetic or psychological, or in some cases both combined. Not infrequently the explanation will be found in an earlier stage of the same language: what one period was a regular phenomenon may later become isolated and appear as an

irregularity, an exception to what has now become the prevailing rule. Grammar must therefore be historical to a certain extent. Finally, grammar may be appreciative, examining whether the rules obtained from the language in question are in every way clear (unambiguous, logical), expressive and easy, or whether in any one of these respects other forms or rules would have been preferable.

Morphology was treated as it had been in the first half of the 19th century, syntax, as in the second half of that century⁷. Of the various classifications of the parts of the sentence current in the grammars of the second half of the 19th century the author chose a system, according to which the sentence has four distinct parts: (1) the **Subject**; (2) **Adjuncts to the Subject** (*Attributive Adjuncts, sometimes called the Enlargement of the Subject*); (3) the **Predicate**; and (4) **Adjuncts of the Predicate** (*Adverbial Adjuncts*); **the object and the complement** (i. e. the *predicative*) with their qualifying words, however, are not treated as distinct parts of the sentence. They are classed together with the finite verb as part of the predicate. Although grammars as a rule do not consider the object to be the third principal part of the sentence, indirectly this point of view persists since the middle of the 19th century and underlies many methods of analysis⁸. In Nesfield's scheme, though the object is not given the status of a part of the sentence, it is considered to be of equal importance with the finite verb. In diagramming sentences, grammarians place the subject, predicate, objects and complements *on* the same syntactic level, on a horizontal line in the diagram, while modifiers of all sorts are placed below the line.

In *Essentials of English Grammar* O. Jespersen aims at giving a descriptive, to some extent, explanatory and appreciative account of the grammatical system of Modern English, historical explanations being only given where this can be done without presupposing any detailed knowledge of Old English or any cognate language. One of the most important contributions to linguistic study in the first half of the 20th century was O. Jespersen's *The Philosophy of Grammar* first

⁷ Арупонова н.д. Дискурс. В кн.: Лингвистическая энциклопедия.- М., 1990.-с. 136-137

⁸ Богданов В.В. Речевое общение: прагматические и семантические аспекты. - Ленинград: Иш-воЛГУ, 1990. -89 с

published in 1924 where he presented his theory of three ranks intended to provide a basis for understanding the hierarchy of syntactic relations hidden behind linear representation of elements in language structures. In its originality, its erudition and its breadth this was the best book on grammar. The book is an attempt at a connected presentation of his views of the general principles of grammar. The starting point of the theory of three ranks is the following:

"In any composite denomination of a thing or person we always find that there is one word of supreme importance to which the others are joined as subordinates. This chief word is defined (qualified, modified) by another word, which in its turn may be defined (qualified, modified) by a third word, etc."

Distinction is thus made between different "ranks" of words according to their mutual relations as defined or defining. In the combination *extremely hot weather* the last word *weather*, which is evidently the chief idea, may be called primary; *hot*, which defines *weather*, secondary, and *extremely*, which defines *hot*, tertiary. Though a tertiary word may be further defined by a (quaternary) word, and this again by a (quinary) word, and so forth, it is needless to distinguish more than three ranks, as there are no formal or other traits that distinguish words of these lower orders from tertiary words. Thus, in the phrase *a certainly not very cleverly worded remark*, no one of the words *certainly*, *not*, and *very*, though defining the following word, is in any way grammatically different from what it would be as a tertiary word, as it is in *a certainly clever remark*, *not a clever remark*, *a very clever remark*⁹.

If now we compare the combination *a furiously barking dog* (*a dog barking furiously*), in which *dog* is primary, *barking* secondary, and *furiously* tertiary, with the *dog barks furiously*, it is evident that the same subordination obtains in the latter as in the former combination. Yet there is a fundamental difference between them, which calls for separate terms for the two kinds of combination: we shall call the former kind junction, and the latter nexus. It should be noted¹⁰ that *the dog* is a

⁹ Ван Дейк Т. А. Язык. Познание. Коммуникация. -М.:Прогресс.1989.-312 с

¹⁰ Карабан В.И. Сложные речевые единицы. Прагматика английских асиндетичных полипредикативных образований. Киев: Вища школа, 1989. -131с

primary not only when it is the subject, as in *the dog barks*, but also when it is the object of a verb, as in *we see the dog*, or of a preposition, as in *he runs after the dog*. As regards terminology, the words primary, secondary, and tertiary are applicable to nexus as well as to junction, but it will be useful to have special names *adjunct* for a secondary word in a junction, and *adnex* for a secondary word in a nexus. For tertiary we may use the term *subjunct*, and quarternary words, in the rare cases in which a special ' name is needed, may be termed *sub-subjuncts*. As will have been seen already by these examples, the group, whether primary, secondary, or tertiary, may itself contain elements standing to one another in the relation of subordination indicated by the three ranks. The rank of the group is one thing, the rank within the group another. In this way more or less complicated relations may come into existence, which, however, are always easy to analyse from the point of view given above. *He lives on this side the river*: here the whole group consisting of the last five words is tertiary to *lives*; *on this side*, which consists of the particle (preposition) *on* with its object *this* (adjunct) *side* (primary), forms itself a group preposition, which here takes as an object the group *the*(adjunct) *river* (primary). But in the sentence *the buildings on this side the river are ancient*, the same five-word group is an adjunct to *buildings*. In this way we may arrive at a natural and consistent analysis even of the most complicated combinations found in actual language. There is certainly some degree of correspondence between the three parts of speech and the three ranks here established. But this correspondence is far from complete as will be evident from the following survey: the two things, word-classes and ranks, really move in two different spheres. This will be seen from the following survey given by O. Jespersen.

I. **Nouns** as primaries are fairly common. Examples are hardly needed. Nouns as adjuncts, e. g.: *Shelley's poem, the butcher's shop*, etc. The use of nouns as adjuncts may be well illustrated by premodification of nouns by nouns. Examples are numerous: *stone wall, iron bridge, silver spoon, space flight*,

morning star, etc. The use of nouns as subjuncts (subnexes) is rare, e. g.: *the sea went mountains high*.

II. **Adjectives** as primaries, e. g.: *the rich, the poor, the natives*, etc. Adjectives as adjuncts: no examples are here necessary. Adjectives as subjuncts, e. g.: *a fast moving engine, a clean shaven face*, etc.

III. **Pronouns** as primaries: *we am well. This is mine. What happened. Nobody knows*. Pronouns as adjuncts: *this book, my sister, our joy*, etc. Pronouns as subjuncts: *we am that sleepy, we won't stay any longer, somewhat better than usual*.

IV. **Finite forms of verbs** can only stand as secondary words (adnexes), never either as primaries or as tertiaries. But participles, like adjectives, can stand as primaries and as adjuncts. Infinitives in different contexts of their use may belong to each of the three ranks.

a. Infinitives as primaries: *to see is to believe (cf. seeing is believing); to understand is to forgive; she wants to rest*.

b. Infinitives as adjuncts: *generations to come; times to come; the correct thing to do; the never to be forgotten look*.

c. Infinitives as subjuncts: *to see her you would think she is an actress; we shudder to think of it; he came here to see you*.

V. **Adverbs** as primaries. This use is rare. O. Jespersen gives such examples as: *he did not stay for long; he's only just back from abroad*. With pronominal adverbs it is more frequent: *from here, till now*, etc. Adverbs as adjuncts are not a frequent occurrence either: *the off side; in after years; the then methods; the few nearby trees*. Adverbs as subjuncts — the ordinary use of this word-class. Examples are hardly needed. When a substantive, O. Jespersen goes on to say, is formed from an adjective or verb, a defining word is, as it were, lifted up to a higher plane, becoming secondary instead of tertiary, and wherever possible, this is shown by the use of an adjective instead of an adverb form:

absolutely novel

absolute novelty

utterly dark

utter darkness

perfectly strange

perfect stranger

describes accurately

accurate description

I firmly believe

my firm belief, a firm believer

judges severely

severe judges

reads carefully

careful reader

VI. **Word groups** consisting of two or more words, the mutual relation of which may be of the most different character, in many instances occupy the same rank as a single word. A word group may be either a primary or an adjunct or a subjunct. Word groups of various kinds as **primaries**: *Sunday afternoon was fine. we spent Sunday afternoon at home.* Word groups as **adjuncts**: *a Sunday afternoon concert; the party in power; a Saturday to Monday excursion; the time between two and four; his after dinner pipe.* Word groups as **subjuncts**: *he slept all Sunday afternoon; he smokes after dinner; he went to all the principal cities of Europe; he lives next door to Captain Strong; the canal ran north and south; he used to laugh a good deal, five feet high; he wants things his own way; he ran upstairs three steps at a time.*

In his final remarks on nexus O. Jespersen gives a tabulated survey of the principal instances of nexus, using characteristic examples instead of descriptive class-names. In the first column he includes instances in which a verb (finite or infinitive) or a verbal noun is found, in the second instances without such a form:

1	<i>The dog barks</i>	<i>Happy the man, whose ...</i>
2	<i>when the dog barks</i>	<i>however great the loss</i>
3	<i>Arthur, whom they say is kill'd</i>	
4	<i>I hear the dog bark</i>	<i>he makes her happy</i>
5	<i>count on him to come</i>	<i>with the window open</i>
6	<i>for you to call</i>	
7	<i>he is believed to be guilty</i>	<i>she was made happy</i>
8	<i>the winner to spend</i>	<i>everything considered</i>
9	<i>the doctor's arrival</i>	<i>the doctor's cleverness</i>

10	<i>I dance!</i>	<i>He a gentleman!</i>
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In 1 and 10 the nexus forms a complete sentence, in all the other instances it forms only part of a sentence, either the subject, the object or a subjunct. O. Jespersen's theory of three ranks provides logical foundations for identifying the hierarchy of syntactic relations between elements joined together in a grammatical unit. The "part of speech" classification and the "rank classification" represent, in fact, different angles from which the same word or form may be viewed, first as it is in itself and then as it is in combination with other words. No one would dispute the value of O. Jespersen's analysis and deep inquiry into the structure of language. In the theory of three ranks he offered much that was new in content and had most notable merits.

The concepts on which this theory is based is the concept of determination. The primary is an absolutely independent word, the secondary is the word which determines or is subordinated to the primary, the tertiary modifies the secondary and so on. This seems perfectly reasonable as fully justified by the relations between the words arranged in a string, according to the principle of successive subordination. With all this, O. Jespersen's analysis contains some disputable points and inconsistency. The very definition of the notion of rank is not accurate which in some cases leads to inadequacy of analysis. Applying his principle of linguistic analysis to sentence structures, such as *the dog barks furiously* he ignores the difference between junction and nexus and does not distinguish attributive and predicative relations and thus seems to return to the principle of three principal parts of the sentence. In his *Analytic Syntax*, published in 1937, O. Jespersen gives a symbolic representation of the structure of English. Grammatical constructions are transcribed in formulas, in which the parts of the sentence and the parts of speech are represented by capital and small letters — **S** for subject, **V** — for verb, **v** — for auxiliary verb, **O** —for object, **we** — for infinitive, etc. and the ranks by numerals 1, 2, 3. As far as the technique of linguistic description is concerned

this book may be regarded as a forerunner of structural grammar which makes use of such notations¹¹.

O. Jespersen's morphological system differs essentially from the traditional concepts. He recognises only the following word-classes grammatically distinct enough to recognise them as separate "parts of speech", viz.:

1. Substantive (including proper names).
2. Adjectives. In some respects (1) and (2) may be classed together as "Nouns".
3. Pronouns (including numerals and pronominal adverbs).
4. Verbs (with doubts as to the inclusion of "Verbids").
5. Particles (comprising what are generally called adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions — coordinating and subordinating and interjections). This fifth class may be negatively characterised as made up of all those words that cannot find any place in any of the first four classes.

Methods of scientific research used in linguistic studies have always been connected with the general trends in the science of language. The first decade of the 20th century is known to have brought new theoretical approaches to language and the study of its nature. Thus, for instance, the principles of comparative linguistics have been of paramount importance in the development of scientific approach to historical word study. In the beginning of the present century linguistic studies were still concentrated on historical problems. The historical and comparative study of the Indo-European languages became the principal line of European linguistics for many years to come. The most widely acclaimed views of language during the past thirty years have been directed toward the development of methodologies for dealing with the structure of a language in a non-historical sense¹².

Modern linguistics is oriented towards perfecting the analytical and descriptive technique in historical studies. And this brings new scientific data

¹¹ Плоткин В.Я. Грамматические системы современного английского языка. Кишинев, 1975, 240 p

¹² Bybee, Joan, Revere Perkins and William Pagliuca. 1994. *The Evolution of Grammar*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

widening the scope of comparative linguistics and contributing greatly to its progressive development. The first treatments of language as a system whose parts are mutually interconnected and interdependent were made by Beaudouin de Courtenay (1845—1929) and F. F. Fortunatov (1848—1914) in Russia and Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss linguist (1857—1913). F. de Saussure detached himself from the tradition of the historical comparative method and recognised two primary dichotomies: between "language" (*langue*) and "speech" (*parole*), and between synchronic and diachronic linguistics. "Language is a system whose parts can and must all be considered in their synchronic solidarity". De Saussure's main ideas taken in our science of language with some points of reservation and explanatory remarks are:

a) Language as a system of signals may be compared to other systems of signals, such as writing, alphabets for the deaf-and-dumb, military signals, symbolic rites, forms of courtesy, etc. Thus, language may be considered as being the object of a more general science — semasiology — a science of the future which would study different systems of signals used in human society.

b) The system of language is a body of linguistic units sounds, affixes, words, grammar rules and rules of lexical series. The system of language enables us to speak and to be understood since it is known to all the members of a speech community. Speech is the total of our utterances and texts. It is based on the system of language, and it gives the linguist the possibility of studying the system. Speech is the linear (syntagmatic) aspect of languages, the system of language is its paradigmatic ("associative") aspect.

c) A language-state is a system of "signs": a sign being a two-sided entity whose components are "signifier" (sound-image) and the "signified" (concept), the relationship between these two components being essentially correlative.

We understand the meaning of the linguistic sign as reflecting the elements (objects, events, situations) of the outside world. F. de Saussure attributed to each linguistic sign a "value": "Language is a system of interdependent terms in which the value of each term results solely from the simultaneous presence of the others".

The linguistic sign is "absolutely arbitrary" and "relatively motivated". This is to say that if we take a word "absolutely" disregarding its connections to other words in the system, we shall find nothing obligatory in the relation of its phonological form to the object it denotes (according to the nature of the object). This fact becomes evident when we compare the names of the same objects in different languages, e. g.:

English *horse hand spring*

Russian *лошадь рука весна*

The relative motivation means that the linguistic sign taken in the system of language reveals connections with other linguistic signs of the system both in form and meaning. These connections are different in different languages and show the difference of "the segmentation of the picture of the world" — the difference in the division of one and the same objective reality into parts reflected in the minds of different peoples, e. g.:

English *arrow — shoot — apple — apple-tree*

Russian *стрела — стрелять — яблоко — яблоня*

Language is to be studied as a system in the "synchronic plane", i. e. at a given moment of its existence, in the plane of simultaneous coexistence of elements. The system of language is to be studied on the basis of the oppositions of its concrete units. The linguistic elements (units) can be found by means of segments, e. g. in *the strength of the wind* and in *to collect one's strength* we recognise one and the same unit *strength* in accord with its meaning and form; but in *on the strength of this decision* the meaning is not the same, and we recognise a different linguistic unit.

G. Curme's *Grammar of the English Language* (1931) presents a systematic and rather full outline of English syntax based upon actual usage. The attention is directed to the grammatical categories — the case forms (the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative), the prepositional phrase, the indicative, the subjunctive, the active, the passive, the word-order, the clause formations, clauses with finite verb, and the newer, terser participial, gerundial, and infinitival

clauses, etc. Serious efforts have been made everywhere throughout this book to penetrate into the original concrete meaning of these categories. The peculiar views on accident, e. g. the four-case system in G. Curme's grammar, are reflected in syntax. Curme discusses accusative objects, dative objects, etc.

Among the authors of classical scientific English grammars of the modern period mention must be made about C. T. Onion's *Advanced English Syntax* (London, 1904). The main facts of current English syntax are presented here in a systematic form in accordance with the principles of parallel grammar series. English syntax is arranged in two parts. Part I contains a treatment of syntactical phenomena based on the analysis of sentences. Part II classifies the uses of forms. While dealing mainly with the language of the modern period, C. T. Onion endeavoured to make the book of use to the student of early modern English by giving an account of some notable archaic and obsolete constructions. Historical matter in some parts of his book adds interest to the treatment of particular constructions and important points in syntax development. To this period belong also L. G. Kimball's *Structure of the English Sentence* (New York, 1900) and H. R. Stokoe's *Understanding of Syntax* which appeared in 1937. All these scholars differ from prescriptive grammarians in their non-legislative approach to the description of English structure trying to gain a deeper insight into its nature. A wealth of linguistic material describing the structure of English is presented in such scientific grammars of the modern period as H. Poutsma's *Grammar of Late Modern English* (1926), E. Kruisinga's *Handbook of Present-day* (1931) and R. W. Zandvoort's *Handbook of English Grammar* (1948).

2.2 Structural and transformational approaches to the English Grammar

Structural grammarians have abandoned many of the commonly held views of grammar. With regard to the methodology employed their linguistic approach differs from former treatments in language learning. Structural grammatical studies deal primarily with the "grammar of structure", and offer an approach to the problems of "sentence analysis" that differs in point of view and in emphasis from

the usual treatment of syntax¹³. Treating the problems of the structure of English with criticism of traditional conventional grammars, Ch. Fries considers, for instance, that prescriptive and scholarly grammars belong to a "prescientific era".

According to Ch. Fries, the new approach — the application of two of the methods of structural linguistics, distributional analysis and substitution makes it possible to dispense with the usual eight parts of speech. He classifies words into four "form-classes", designated by numbers, and fifteen groups of "function words", designated by letters. The four major parts of speech (Noun, Verb, Adjective, Adverb) set up by the process of substitution in Ch. Fries recorded material are thus given no names except numbers: class 1, class 2, class 3, class 4. The four classes correspond roughly to what most grammarians call nouns and pronouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, though Ch. Fries especially warns the reader against the attempt to translate the statements which the latter finds in the book into the old grammatical terms. The group of function words contains not only prepositions and conjunctions, but also certain specific words that more traditional grammarians would class as a particular kind of pronouns, adverbs and verbs. Assumptions have been made by Ch. Fries that all words which can occupy the same set of positions in the patterns of English single free utterances must belong to the same part of speech. These four classes make up the "bulk" of functioning units in structural patterns of English. Then come fifteen groups of so-called function-words which have certain characteristics in common. In the mere matter of number of items the fifteen groups differ sharply from the four classes. In the four large classes the lexical meanings of the words depend on the arrangement in which these words appear. In function-words it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meaning which these words signal. Ch. Fries very rightly points out that one cannot produce a book dealing with language without being indebted to many who have earlier studied the problems and made great advances. He acknowledged the immeasurable stimulation and insight received from L. Bloomfield. The influence

¹³ Iofik L.L., Chakhoyan L.P. Readings in the Theory of English Grammar. Leningrad, 1972, 440 p

of classical scientific and prescriptive grammars on some of his views of language is also quite evident.

According to Ch. Fries, this material covers the basic matters of English structure. Ch. Fries gives examples of the various kinds of "function-words" that operate in "positions" other than those of four classes given above, giving identifying letters to each of the different groups included here. The first test frame (Group A) includes all the words for the position in which the word *the* occurs.

Group A (The)	Group A (The)	Class 1	Class 1 <i>concert</i>	Class 2 <i>was</i> Class 2 <i>is/was</i> <i>are/were</i>	Class 3	Class 3 <i>good</i> Class 4
		<i>the</i>	<i>a/an</i>	<i>every</i>		
		<i>no</i>	<i>my</i>	<i>our</i>		
		<i>your</i>	<i>her</i>	<i>his</i>		
		<i>their</i>	<i>each</i>	<i>all</i>		
		<i>both</i>	<i>some</i>	<i>any</i>		
		<i>few</i>	<i>more</i>	<i>most</i>		
		<i>much</i>	<i>many</i>	<i>its</i>		
		<i>John's</i>	<i>this/these</i>	<i>that/those</i>		
		<i>One</i>	<i>two</i>	<i>three, etc.</i>		

Some of these "words" (*one, all, both, two, three, four, that, those, some, John's, etc.*) may also appear in the positions of Class 1 words; *all* and *both* may occur before *the*. Group A consists of all words that can occupy the position of *the* in this particular test frame. The words in this position all occur with Class 1 words. Structurally, when they appear in this "position", they serve as markers of Class 1 words. Sometimes they are called "determiners". The second test frame includes, according to traditional terminology, modal verbs:

Group A	Class 1	Group B	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4
<i>The concert</i>	<i>(may) (be)</i>	<i>(good)</i>	<i>— might</i>	<i>can could</i>	<i>will would</i>
		<i>should must</i>			
		<i>has (been)</i>			
		<i>has to (be)</i>			

Words of group B all go with Class 2 words and only with Class 2 words. Structurally, when they appear in this position, they serve as markers of Class 2 words and also, in special formulas, they signal some meanings which, according to Ch. Fries, should be included as structural. For group C Fries has but one word *not*. (This *not* differs from the *not* included in group E).

Group	Class	Group	Group	Class	Class	A	1
	B	C	2	3			
<i>The</i>	<i>concert</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>good</i>		

Group D includes words that can occur in the position of *very* immediately before a class 3 word in the following test frame:

Group	Class	Group	Group	Class	Group	Class	Class
A 1		B C 2			D		3 4
<i>The</i>	<i>concert</i>	<i>may</i>	<i>not</i>	<i>be</i>	<i>very good then</i>		
					<i>quite, awfully</i>		
					<i>really, awful</i>		
					<i>real, any pretty</i>		
					<i>too fairly, more</i>		
					<i>rather, most</i>		

Although each of the fifteen groups set up here differs quite markedly from every other group, they all have certain characteristics in common — characteristics which make them different from the four classes of words identified previously.

1. In the mere matter of number of items the fifteen groups differ sharply from the four classes. The four classes together contain thousands of separate items. Ch. Fries found no difficulty whatever in selecting from his long lists a hundred of different items of each of the four classes as examples. On the other hand, the total number of the separate items from his materials making up the fifteen groups amounted to only 154.

2. In the four large classes, the lexical meanings of the separate words are rather clearly separable from the structural meanings of the arrangements in which

these words appear. According to Fries, in the words of these fifteen groups it is usually difficult if not impossible to indicate a lexical meaning apart from the structural meaning which these words signal.

The frames used to test the "words" were taken from the minimum free utterances extracted from the "situation" utterance units (not the "response" utterance units) of the recorded materials. It is important to observe, Ch. Fries points out, that the four parts of speech indicated above account for practically all the positions in these minimum free utterances. In the sentence frames used for testing, only the one position occupied by the word *the* has not been explored; and, as shown in the modified frame structure, this position is optional rather than essential in the "minimum" free utterances. All the other kinds of words belong then in "expanded" free utterances.

Structural linguistics is known to have its varieties and schools. The Prague School headed by N. Trubetzkoy and R. Jakobson has contributed to the development of modern structural linguistics on a word-wide scale. Neutralisation as a linguistic concept by which we mean suspension of otherwise functioning oppositions was first introduced into modern linguistics by N. Trubetzkoy who presented an important survey of the problem of phonology in his "*Grundzüge der Phonologie*" edited in Prague in 1939. This has been widely influential in many European linguistic circles, and many of the basic ideas of the school have diffused very widely, far beyond the group that originally came together around N. Trubetzkoy.

Trubetzkoy's idea of neutralisation in phonology may be briefly summarised as follows:

a. If in a language two sounds occur in the same position and can be substituted for each other without changing the meaning of the word, such sounds are optional variants of one and the same phoneme.

b. If two sounds occur in the same position and cannot be substituted for each other without changing the meaning of the word or distorting it beyond recognition, these two sounds are phonetic realisations of two different phonemes.

If two similar sounds never occur in the same position, they are positional variants of the same phoneme.

c. An opposition existing between two phonemes may under certain conditions become irrelevant. This seems to be a universal feature in language development. Examples of neutralisation of oppositions on the phonemic level may be found in numbers. By way of illustration: the sounds [т] and [д] are different phonemes distinguishing such Russian words, for instance, as ток and док, том and дом. But the difference between the two phonemes will be neutralised if they are at the end of the word, e. g.: рот (*mouth*) and род (*genus*); [т] and [д] in these words sound alike because a voiced [д] does not occur at the end of a word in Russian.

In terms of N. Trubetzkoy's theory, opposition is defined as a functionally relevant relationship of partial difference between two partially similar elements of language. The common features of the members of the opposition make up its basis, the features that serve to differentiate them are distinctive features.

Intensive development of American linguistics is generally called Bloomfieldian linguistics, though not all of its principles can be traced directly to L. Bloomfield's concepts. L. Bloomfield's book *Language* is a complete methodology of language study. The ideas laid down in this book were later developed by Z. S. Harris, Ch. Fries, E. A. Nida and other scholars. The main concepts of L. Bloomfield's book may be briefly summarised as follows:

1. Language is a workable system of signals, that is linguistic forms by means of which people communicate... "every language consists of a number of signals, linguistic forms".

2. "Every utterance contains some significant features that are not accounted for by the lexicon".

3. "No matter how simple a form we utter and how we utter it... the utterance conveys a grammatical meaning in addition *to* the lexical content".

A sentence has a grammatical meaning which does not (entirely) depend on the choice (selection) of the items of lexicon.

L. Bloomfield's statement that the meaning of a sentence is part of the morpheme arrangement, and does not entirely depend on the words used in the sentence has later been developed by Ch. Fries and N. Chomsky.

5. Grammar is a meaningful arrangement of linguistic forms from morphemes to sentences. The meaningful arrangement of forms in a language constitutes its grammar, and in general, there seem to be four ways of arranging linguistic forms: (1) order, (2) modulation: "*John!*" (call), "*John?*" (question), "*John*" (statement); (3) phonetic modification (*do* — *don't*); (4) selection of forms which contributes the factor of meaning.

In the words of L. Bloomfield, the most favourite type of sentence is the "*actor —action*" construction having two positions. These positions are not interchangeable. All the forms that can fill in a given position thereby constitute a form-class. In this manner the two main form-classes are detected: the class of nominal expressions and the class of finite verb expressions. L. Bloomfield has shown a new approach to the breaking up of the word-stock into classes of words. "The syntactic constructions of a language mark off large classes of free forms, such as, in English, the nominative expression or the finite verb expression. The great form-classes of a language are most easily described in terms of word-classes (such as the traditional parts of speech), because the form-class of a phrase is usually determined by one or more of the words which appear in it". These long form-classes are subdivided into smaller ones.

In modern linguistic¹⁴ works the nominal phrase of a sentence is marked as the symbol NP, and the finite verb-phrase — as VP. The symbols N and V stand for the traditional parts of speech, nouns and verbs, although the NP may include not only nouns but their equivalents and the noun determiners (e. g.: *the man, my hand, this house, I, they, something, some, others, etc.*); and the VP with a transitive verb may have a NP in (*took a book, sent a letter, etc.*). The long form-class of N is now subdivided into: animate and inanimate, material and abstract, class nouns and proper nouns. The long form-class of V is subdivided into

¹⁴ Бодуэн де Куртенэ И.А. Избранные труды по общему языкознанию. - М.: Изд-во АН СССР, 1963. т. 2.-391 с

intransitive verbs (Vi), transitive verbs (Vt) and the latter are again divided into the V of the *take-type*, the *give-type*, the *put-type* and the *have-type*, etc. The selection of the subclasses of N and V leads to different sentence-structures¹⁵.

The grammatical schools of traditional scholarly grammar have then passed to the grammatical theories of "descriptive", "post-Bloomfieldian linguistics", to the school of grammar known as the "transformational generative grammar". In W. N. Francis' classification there are four parts of speech: Noun, Verb, Adjective and Adverb. Pronouns are treated as two subclasses of nouns, called pronouns and function nouns. The group of pronouns comprises eight words whose importance far outweighs their number. These are: *I, we, you, he, she, it, they* and *who*. The main groups of function-nouns are eight in number (including some stereotyped phrases) plus some unclassified ones (not all the following lists are complete):

a) Noun-determiners: *the, a/an, my, your, her, their, our, this/ these, that/those, its, one, two ... ninety-nine, many(a), more, several, both, all, some, no, every, (a) few, other.*

b) Auxiliaries: *can/could, may/might, will/would, shall/should, must, dare, need, do, had better, be, get, have, keep (on), used, be going.*

c) Qualifiers: *very, quite, rather, pretty, mighty, somewhat, too, a bit, a little, so more, most, less, least, indeed, enough (real, awful, that, some, right, plenty), no, still, much, lots, a (whole) lot, a (good, great) deal, even.*

d) Prepositions:

1) Simple: *after, among, around, before, concerning, etc.*

2) Compound: *along with, away from, back of, due to, together with, etc.*

3) Phrasal: *by means of, in front of, on account of, etc.*

e) Coordinators: *and, not, but, nor, rather, than, either ... or, etc.*

f) Interrogators:

1) Simple: *when, where, how, why (whence, whither), whenever, etc.*

2) Interrogative pronouns: *who, which, what, whoever, whichever, whatever.*

(g) Includers:

¹⁵ Ляховицкий А.В. Лингвистические основы обучения иностранным языкам. Москва, ВШ, 1983, 150 p

1) Simple: *after, although, how, lest, since, etc.*

2) Relative pronouns: *who, which, that, when, where, whoever, etc.*

(h) Sentence-linkers:

1) Simple: *consequently, furthermore, hence, however, moreover, nevertheless, therefore.*

2) Phrasal: *at least, in addition, in fact, etc.*

Phrase structure rules form a counterpart in the theory of generative grammar to two techniques of linguistic analysis (one old and one rather new). In the words of E. Bach, the old practice is the schoolroom drill of parsing, that is, of assigning grammatical labels to parts of a sentence. In a schoolroom drill the following analysis might occur:

<i>The man</i>	<i>gave</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>book</i>
article noun	verb	pronoun	article	noun
whole subject		indirect object		direct object
		whole	predicate	

The structural procedures of modern descriptive theory are used by Russian linguists to identify the nature of some linguistic facts. It must, however, be emphatically stressed that in some questions our standpoint is essentially different. Some American linguists are known to advocate rigorous separation of levels and a study of language as an autonomous system. Such abstraction seems altogether erroneous and brings little scientific order to language learning; dogmatic assumptions of this kind are always responsible for the distortion of linguistic facts. This approach seems to have already been abandoned by most structuralists (Z. Harris, N. Chomsky).

The prescriptive normative grammar has the longest tradition and is still prevalent in class-room instruction. Its most important contribution to grammatical theory was the syntactic system developed in 19th century¹⁶. Though much has been done, the three types of scientific English grammars have not yet succeeded

¹⁶ Bybee, Joan, Revere Perkins and William Pagliuca. 1994. *The Evolution of Grammar*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press

in creating any quite independent and new grammatical systems. R. W. Zandvoort's *Handbook of English Grammar* is a descriptive grammar of contemporary English. It deals with accidence and syntax, leaving aside what belongs rather to idiom and is not amenable to general statement. It likewise eschews historical digressions; synchronic and diachronic grammars are, in the author's opinion, best treated separately. In this, as in other respects, R. Zandvoort confesses himself a pupil of Kruisinga, whose *Handbook of Present-day English*, despite certain extravagances in its fifth and final edition, he considers to be the most original and stimulating treatment of English syntax.

CHAPTER III. RESEARCH PLAN

3.1 Participants

A grammar teaching practice opportunity was set up which involved about fifteen ESL students of the group 111A, mostly women between the ages of 20 and 25, the actual teaching took place at the UzSWLU class that met for an hour each on two consecutive days. There were eleven participants at the time of the survey. Most of the students were at the pre-/intermediate level of language proficiency. Of the eleven students, 10 were female and a male.

The list of students of the group 111A

- 1 Barchinoy
- 2 Guzal
- 3 Muyassar
- 4 Mohina
- 5 Shalo
- 6 Komola
- 7 Adham
- 8 Nodira
- 9 Shoiria
- 10 Gulruh
- 11 Madina

3.2 Research instruments

Field notes were taken during both classes. At the end of the second class, a survey was used to elicit reports on students' knowledge of grammar, and understanding new grammar rules that are difficult to learn. Then they also were asked to evaluate the helpfulness of the grammar teaching unit.

3.3 Data collection

In my classes of Practical grammar for the 1st year students I started teaching the rules using simple methods of teaching. Basically I taught spelling and pronunciation to the intermediate and pre-intermediate levels. Perhaps teachers in both the elementary and secondary schools are spending too much time on the

commonly misspelled words and not enough on the plural and possessive forms of nouns. Plurals first. Teach the young people that the usual way to change a singular noun to a plural is to spell the singular and then add *s*-*book-books, pencil-pencils, light-lights*. But singular words ending in *x* or *s* require *es*-*fox-foxes, box-boxes, Jones-Jortses*. Observe that the addition of an */s/* sound to one of these words causes you to pronounce it with an added syllable-*box, boxes*. Then there are the words ending in *y* and *ey*. The *e-y* words add only the usually the *y* words usually character *Jie y* to *i* and add *es*. *We built a house only one story high. The Martins built theirs two stories high*. (Both *story* and *stories* are accepted spellings for the architectural term.) *Monkey-monkeys*. But *lady-ladies, city-cities, beauty-beauties, etc.*¹⁷

Individual Spelling Lists: Many successful teachers have had each pupil keep books on his own spelling. Each one may have a pocket-size blank book for his spelling, or he may have a general notebook in which he sets aside a page or two for spelling. The teacher may pronounce all the words in this demon list to all the pupils in her grade or class. These are spelled in writing on scratch paper. Now the teacher gives the correct spelling. Repeat the process after two or three days. It may be assumed that a word missed twice by a pupil is one of his habitual misspellings. Let each pupil enter in his spelling book all the words he has missed twice. Teachers should from that time on check misspelled words in the writing the pupil does in all his classes, and the pupil should add these to the list he has already begun. Make it a game to conquer these spellings. Pupils may study their own lists and from time to time pronounce to each other these individual lists. As soon as a pupil discovers that he has conquered one of his demons, he may cross it out of his list¹⁸. The teacher may take a hand in the game once in a while. If a pupil discover it the beginning of a school year that he misspells sixty-eight of the demons, he realizes that it would not be difficult to learn to spell that number of common words and that he can surprise himself in two or three months by

¹⁷ Арзикулов х. Речевая система и её модели (на материале французского языка). Автореф. дисс. докт. филол. наук. - СПб. СПб. у-т, 1994. - 35 с

¹⁸ Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press

promoting himself from the class of poor spellers to that of the pretty good. Keep in mind always that it is the misspelling of a relatively small number of common words that marks a pupil as a poor speller.

Some Unusual Cases: We learn most of our spelling unconsciously by seeing a word over and over in print. Our eyes photograph words for us to such an extent that when we see one with an extra letter in it or with the right letters in some unusual order we are conscious of something wrong about the word. But there are pupils who are not visual-minded, and others who have defective vision, and so get and retain no clear picture of the words they see in print. These are special cases requiring special attention. Some of them may need to see a good oculist. Then there are readers who mispronounce common words or who do not sharply enunciate their words. A good deal of oral reading with emphasis on pronunciation and enunciation will do much toward remedying poor spelling in such cases.

Formal Spelling Lessons: Most of the newer spelling books used in schools where special time is given to spelling set forth helpful plans for both testing and study. That described in the Horn Ashbaugh Spelling book was among the first, and with some modifications is pretty generally followed in other spellers.

Spelling Orally: Having pupils stand and spell aloud as the teacher pronounces the words is still a fairly common practice in some schools. The practice is a heritage from the old-fashioned spelling contests. It has some limited value, but it is not now considered economical or very effective. One needs to see the spelled word, not to hear it. And the pupil needs to give his spelling time to the comparatively few words he misspells rather than to the thousands of words he sees in print or in other people's handwriting but does not himself use in writing.

Some writers and teachers have thought that the spelling words should be pronounced in sentences, rather than as single words from a column. Recent studies have shown that children learn as well when the words are pronounced to them from a list. Much time is saved for the teacher by this method, time both in preparing the word list and in checking the pupil's written spellings. The purpose

of the spelling lesson is to fix in the pupil's mind a visual image of the written or printed word, not to enable him to spell words aloud.

With some pupils both seeing and hearing the words correctly spelled seem to add to the effectiveness and permanence of the teaching. Spelling matches in which the pupils make a contest are not objectionable as entertainment and for variety, but no good case can be made for such competitions in which a whole spelling book is ransacked for unusual and difficult words the children may never have occasion to write.

Spelling drills should be made only upon the common words the pupils are likely to need in writing. They can use the dictionary for unusual or new words as occasion calls for them. That is the way adults manage their unusual words. For emphasis let us say once more that out of a list of two or three hundred words pupils often misspell in their writing each pupil should be drilled on only the few that he commonly misspells. This brings us to the method of selecting the words for the spelling drills and studying the word list by the pupil.

The Spelling Lesson: In many junior high schools, and in a few senior, a spelling book is used, and daily lessons, or lessons two or three times a week, are assigned. In other schools the teacher takes one or another of the spelling demon lists and breaks it up into a series of lessons. Others keep a record of words misspelled in the written work of their pupils and pupils in other classes than their own, and from this compilation make up the study lists used day by day in the spelling period. This is the most logical procedure and probably the most effective for group teaching.

Now consider a method of study for the pupil, and testing by the teacher. Let us say that the spelling period for a Tuesday is going to cover a list of twenty words. On Monday pronounce those words to the whole class. Permit each pupil to check his own errors when you give the correct spellings, or have the pupils exchange papers, each checking a paper not his own. A girl who misses six words out of the twenty will study only those six in preparation for the test lesson on Wednesday; a boy who misses thirteen will study those words; one who spells all

the words correctly in this Pretest will not study any in preparation for Wednesday. How to Study Words for Spelling: The Hom Method.- These directions are for the pupil.

a. Look at the printed or written word. Pronounce it aloud, saying each syllable very distinctly, and looking closely at , each syllable as you say it.

b. With closed, eyes try to see the word, syllable by syllable, as you say it in a whisper. After saying the word, keep trying to recall how it looked in print or in writing, and at the same time say the letters either silently or aloud. Spell by syllables.

c. Open your eyes and look at the word to see whether you had it right.

d. Look at the word again, saying the syllables very distinctly. If you did not have the word right on your first trial, any the letters again, as you look sharply at the syllables.

e. Try again with closed eyes to see the word as you spell the syllables in a whisper.

f. Look again at your list to see if you had the word right. Keep trying until you can spell each syllable correctly with closed eyes.

g. Then write it without looking at the book.

h. Now write it three times, covering each trial with the hand till the new attempt is written. If you make a single mistake, begin the whole process with that word over again.

Reviewing: See to it that a word once learned by this process comes up in a lesson about a week later, and again after about a month. Such reviews serve to fix the words permanently in the memory.

Spelling Rules: The unabridged dictionaries cite many rule for spelling. These cover such a wide range of cases and each has so many exceptions that it seems best to disregard the rules and learn to spell the words by memory.

1. There are, however, four rules that are found by many to be helpful. These are: j. The final silent e. When a word ends in a silent e, drop the e before adding such syllables using, *able, tion, ous, and ary: denier, admiring, admirable,*

admiration cf, loving, lovable, moving, movable explores, exploring, exploration, fame, famous desire, desirous. Words ending in a silent e usually keep the e when/w /, or ment is added: *care, careful, move, movement.*

2. **if** or **ei**: *hate, hateful, arrange, arrangement.* In words containing if or ei carrying the sound of e as in scene or a in mate the i comes first, *piece, grief, chief, grief, relieve, freight, weight,* etc. If the letters if or ei follow c, the e comes first, *receive, receipt, ceiling.* There are six exceptions to the two parts of this rule. They are: *either, neither, leisure, seize, weird, and financier.*

3. Doubling the final consonant before adding a syllable like ing or ed. If a word of one syllable ends in a consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the final consonant before adding a syllable beginning with a vowel: *drop, dropping, dropped; but droop, drooped, drooping.* The same rule applies to words of two or more syllables if the last syllable is accented and ends in a consonant preceded by a single vowel: *propel, propelled, propelling; submit, submitting, submitted; occur, occurring, occurred.*

1. Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant nearly always make their plurals by changing the y to i and adding es: *city, cities, fly, fliss, lady, ladies.* The same rule applies to spelling the third person, singular number form of verbs ending in y: *copy, copies, marry-marries.*

There are a few other rules for spelling plurals, knife-knives for example; but it is probably more economical to learn to spell the words when one comes to them, rather than to memorize the rules.

Possessives. Instruct your pupils to spell the singular noun form correctly and then add the 's-*boy-boy's, girl-girl's, box-box's, horsehorse's, Jones-Jones's* (not Jone's). To form the possessive plural of nouns presents more of a problem. Adding another s sound to a plural already ending in s produces too many sibilants (hissing sounds) to be pleasing. To avoid that we usually add only the apostrophe to the plural noun, the books' covers, the writers' reasons, the hunters' guns, the four Smiths' farms, all the Joneses' houses, but Harry Jones's house (singular). One Jones's and six Joneses' sound alike, but are spelled differently, as you see.

Words forming plurals by a change of form, like man-men, woman-women, and child-children simply add the's to the plural form as they do in the singular: men's, women's, children's. Pupils should be cautioned here against a too free use of possessive forms with names of inanimate objects. In a way, possessive forms go with nouns that can own things, a mans. House, but not a tree's bark, or a question's answer. These are not always avoided in good writing, but many careful writers prefer the bark of the tree, the answer to the question, etc. A simple plan for spelling possessive plurals is to write the plural first and then and the's, but if the plural ends in s add only the apostrophe: babies' toys, dog'- ' biscuits, but children's playthings, men's interests.

The *Question of Testing*: Good teaching will help boys and girls to master words commonly misspelled, and good teaching includes intelligent testing. Standardized tests may be used for survey purposes for comparisons of abilities in spelling if such are felt necessary in the school. Diagnostic tests will help to point out the special spelling difficulties that each pupil has. Tests made up of the actual words studied by the pupils are especially valuable in that they will show what needs to be rethought, and so will act as a basis.

Some writers propose dropping the apostrophe entirely, since the context nearly always shows whether the noun or pronoun is a possessive. Since most writers and publishers still use it, the schools will do well to follow customary usage. Upon which the pupil may make his own progress chart.

The use of standardized tests and scales must be supple-mented by the use of the knowledge of the individual pupil's difficulties, by homemade tests and reviews, by actual study of words, and by practice in using them. The teacher may find if she uses the test-teach method that her pupils may accidentally spell a word correctly today and incorrectly some time later. If she uses the teach-test method, she may find that some pupils will waste their time studying -,words they already know. The answer lies in giving each pupil a method of study, in insisting upon the mastery of a few words at a time, in presenting frequent reviews, and in developing a strong testing program not so much for the purpose of grading as for a basis for

reteaching. In this reteaching process some of the words will have to be taught to the whole class; others will be for individuals only. Here the teacher may utilize the aid of her pupils, who will be very much complemented if she will allow them to test and to help each other make their progress graphs. A principal who skeptically watched a junior high school teacher use this mutual-aid method for several weeks finally said to her: "Your pupils are as noisy as bumble bees, and as busy as ants, but they are learning how to spell. I haven't been able to catch them on a single word!" It was not the noise that brought about the apparent miracle but the pride that the boys and girls felt in doing a good job, the system that the teacher used in constant review, and the practical testing program based upon her own school-made test? Pupils must, of course, be taught how to spell. The poor speller must have much more practice than the one who can spell. All pupils should be eager to compete with their own previous records, for with this may come the realization that correct spelling brings about the respect of the group and that future opportunities in social and in business life may be bettered. In summarizing, one may say that successful results in the spelling program depend upon the pride of the boys and girls, few words to master at one time, clear meaning, syllable division, visualization of the words to be learned, hard study economical drill, frequent review, and practical testing.

Capitalization: Many of our customs in writing are merely conventional. There is no inherent right or wrong about them. The use of capital letters is one of these. In German writing and print the custom is to capitalize all nouns. In English we capitalize only those nouns that are individual names of persons or things. We begin Pittsburgh with a capital letter, but do not begin city with a capital. City is a noun that can be applied to a thousand large population groups. Pittsburgh is used to designate a certain one.

The common custom is to capitalize Ohio and also River in naming Ohio River. Some writers and printers capitalize only Ohio. The prevailing custom is in favor of Ohio River, Rocky Mountains, the Norris Dam, etc.

By common agreement we capitalize God and all nouns and pronouns that refer to Him, including the name Jesus and the Christ. We use a capital/always for the personal pronoun. England is a proper noun. It begins with a capital letter. So does English, which is an adjective derived from a proper noun. We capitalize the names of the months and days of the week, but not the seasons spring, summer, autumn, fall and winter. This practice is not logical, but it is a custom, and we follow custom in language. We begin each line of poetry with a capital letter, but some of the new poets, to be different, disregard that practice. We still begin every sentence with a capital letter. If I say, "Customs in the North and West differ from those of the East and South," I am using those words as proper names for sections of the country. But if I say, "After travelling six miles west I turned south," I am using west and south as common nouns and do not capitalize them. We capitalize all the words in the title of a book, story, or essay except the articles a, an, the, and the prepositions. The Story of the Indians in Arizona is properly written here as a title for a book or a chapter. The abbreviated titles Mrs., Dr., Hon., etc. are always begun with capital letters and are followed by periods. Since these are customs without inherent reasons, students must school themselves to conform to common practice to avoid being different and conspicuous.

Again it is customary to begin a direct quotation with a capital letter, but not an indirect quotation. For example, one might say: Mrs. Clements was so much opposed to the plan that she declared positively, "I have no sympathy with your proposal and will do what I can to see that it is not carried out." Another might report the substance of what Mrs. Clements said thus: Mrs. Clements declared that she had no sympathy with the plan and would do all she could to defeat it. In the first form, a direct quotation, her actual words are enclosed in quotes, beginning with a capital letter. In the second form we have the substance of what she said. It begins with the word that and does not give her exact words. This is an indirect quotation, beginning with a small letter, and is not enclosed in quotes.

The teacher should make it clear to the students that there are only ten or a dozen common situations in which we capitalize a word, but that these are so

generally observed that neglect or oversight or error makes one as conspicuous as do errors in spelling or grammar. The teacher must point out individual errors for the pupils. Pupils should help each other in this matter. It is difficult for any person to see his own errors. If a pupil writes The French crossed the English Channel near where dover now is and met king Harold at hasting, the sentence may look perfect to him because that is the way he always writes. He needs to have some one who knows the customs to tell him which words to capitalize and why.

Capital letters are like traffic signals for writers, just as punctuation marks are. They are a writer's green and red lights and the signs for Curve, Right Turn, Left Turn, etc. Writing without capital letters and punctuation is just as confusing and dangerous as trying to drive through a city without observing the customary signs. The teacher can point out this similarity and can make the, point that by common agreement the signs all over the country are the same. If a driver driving in Georgia is driving across the country, he will find the road signs in Nebraska and Utah the same as those he is accustomed to observe at home. The Stop sign in Georgia is green. In Utah it is green also, not purple.

By common agreement the traffic signs in writing and print are the same throughout the country These are not used because one sign is "right" and another "wrong," but merely because one is customary and the other not. If writers and printers all over the country should agree to use this sign instead of the usual period, or this as a question mark, those signs would be right and these wrong.

The same applies to the use of capital letters. By common agreement we could stop using capital letters at the beginning of direct quotations and all abbreviations. We are not likely to do this any more than to stop handshaking or wearing useless buttons on men's coat sleeves, it is almost impossible to change quickly the customs of five hundred millions of people no matter how useless or silly the customs may be We are going to continue to write 71/Vr., Dr., D.C., Columbus, Italy, Spanish, and Florida instead of Mrs .. , dr., d.c., columbns, Italy, Spanish, and Florida. And we are going to begin sentences, direct quotations, and

lines of poetry with capitals for a long time to come in spite of the rebellion of a few "moderns" who want to be "different."

Increasing One's Vocabulary: Formal ways to increase the number of words a pupil can use intelligently are not likely to be very successful. In fact teachers are inclined to pay no attention to vocabulary building. They will spend much time upon spelling, punctuation, and grammar but little to the expansion of the pupils' stock of words. Word poverty is probably the most significant of the language ills of both school pupils and adults. Even so we are probably wise in not attempting to increase a pupil's stock of usable words by any mechanical or formal program. So far as we know there has not been any reliable study made of the number of words the adult of average intelligence uses in speech or in writing. Nor do we know what the nouns are for a fifteen-year-old boy or girl.

More attention, how Cover, has been given to the word range of young people in school than to adults. One thing is apparent. An individual who uses a thousand different words in daily speech will use more words in deliberate writing, perhaps two or three thousand. And such a person would understand maybe five thousand as he is reading. These are not statistics. They are only our guess.

Basic English is built upon the assumption that if one knows the right words, eight hundred and fifty are enough to get along with pretty comfortably in speaking and writing the language, and well enough in reading if he has a dictionary at hand. Even so, the man or woman who has a rich word-hoard to choose from gives the listeners or readers a distinct impression of culture. As you listen to such a person talk you are aware of that feeling, even though you may not realize that it comes from the use of a wide variety of words.

If a girl thinks everything she sees or hears, or everybody she knows, is cute or swell or just lovely or grand or sweet that means that her range of adjectives goes no further. To her everybody else is either horrid, a washout, a dim bulb, or whatever the current slang word may be at the moment. We all take pleasure in hearing people who use exact and appropriate words, but we may doubt the

wisdom of setting up a formal program of vocabulary building with class exercises two or three times a week.

How do people build up their stocks of words? One way is to determine to add a word a day or two words a day. Today as I read I come upon the words myopic, pyromaniac, and snorkel. I can work out pyromaniac without the dictionary both as to pronunciation and meaning. Since I am adding only two words a day to my stock, I pass up snorkel. That leaves me myopic. I learn to spell and pronounce both my new words and contrive to write and speak them three or four times during the day.

What a satisfaction! Adding two words a day increases my working vocabulary by 60 words a month, 730 in a year 14,600 in twenty years. Add to that the 5,400 words I had when I started this program at age sixteen and I shall have 20,000 at thirty-six-4,000 more than Shakespeare had when he died.

No, this will not do. Human beings do not work that way. Even if we had the persistence to keep up the struggle for twenty years, we should have acquired many words we need, but in addition a vast heap of useless lumber. Most of us acquire new words by hearing them spoken or seeing them in print. We ask about them or use the dictionary to find the meaning, the spelling, the pronunciation, and possibly one or more synonyms. Later when we are speaking or writing we use one of these new words. We repeat this from time to time until the word comes to the surface of memory automatically. Then it is ours.

Does this mean that the teacher should comfortably leave vocabulary to chance? Not at all. Nor does it suggest that a teacher with a composition class should assign ten words a day to be looked up in a dictionary. It suggests a more nearly normal way. As she hears a student reading aloud and stumbling over the word subtil (subtle) she asks him to consult the dictionary and get its pronunciation and i.e. 01 two synonyms. Or hearing another explaining a paragraph he has just read she realizes that he does not understand it because it has two key words in it that are unfamiliar. She can tell him directly what those words mean and then ask him to go on with his explanation. If a boy refers to a girl as a peach or a prune, he

might be encouraged to add two or three nouns and as many adjectives to his vocabulary. Make a game of finding ways of saying yes without falling back upon okay.

As pupils are reading a piece of literature have them watch for color words, that apply to the sense of taste and smell, words having to do with size and weight, words ex-pressing speed and distance. There are a dozen common devices that one may use one at a time to keep students conscious of the need to build a vocabulary that shows variety, breadth, and discrimination.

Good Taste in Expression: Everyone agrees that good taste and effectiveness of conversation are reflected in one's written and spoken expression. *Too* often the conversation of boys and girls is meager and barren. Sometimes it seems that fine, grand, cute, and okay are the limits of the available words.

3.4 Data analysis

Data analysis of the survey revealed some interesting findings. However, the small size of the population surveyed (11 students) is an important factor that must be kept in mind when looking at any results. Until about twenty years ago, the textbooks in the field of speech concentrated on the speaker's activities in preparing and presenting a speech, The fundamentals often considered included:

Thought Language Voice Action

When they discussed "thought," the writers spoke of "purpose" in speech: to inform, to persuade, or to entertain. They asked the speaker to consider his audience in selecting materials to fulfil his purpose. Specialists began to work on the speech act¹⁹. While their colleagues studied the history of rhetoric in the light of the classical canons:

Inventio	Disposition	Elocutio	Memoria	Pronuntiatio
(Ideas and materials)	(Arrangement)	(Style)	(Memory)	(Delivery)

The Scientists were saying that the act of transferring an idea from the mind of a speaker to the mind of a listener took place in five phases:

Psychological	Physiological	Physical	Physiological	Psychological
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¹⁹ Блакар Р.М. Язык как инструмент социальной власти. В КН.: Язык и моделирование социального взаимодействия. М.: Прогресс, 1987. -с. 88-125

(Mind of speaker)	(Vocal mechanism)	(Air waves)	(hearing mechanism)	(Mind of auditor)
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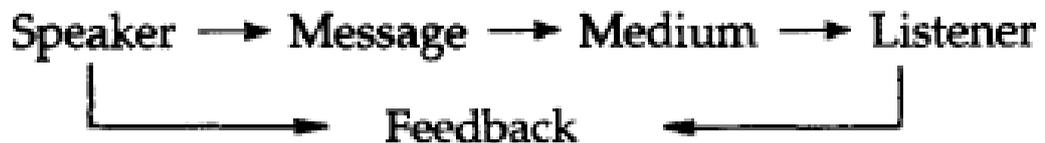
Each phase of the act came under scrutiny. The more they speculated, examined, tested, and pondered, the more important the auditor became in the formula. They selected a name for the behaviour which included his - communication. They labelled the area for study the "process of communication." Models were conceived, arranged, and described to depict the act. A simple early model offered:

Speaker *Message* *Listener*

The speaker and the message are part of the same person. To reach the hearer, it was necessary to include:

Speaker *Message* *Medium* *Listener*

Now the scientists concentrated on the process from its beginning to its end, and they realized that it has no end. It is a continuous, on-going thing. If you said it began with the speaker, you had to say it ended with him, because he received responses from his listeners, which in turn influenced the next thing he would say, and so on around and around. Thus the element of "feedback" came into focus:



New terms were needed to identify what was being done. The first edition of this book, listed the four fundamental processes as:

Adjustment to the Speaking Situation

Symbolic Formulation and Expression

Phonation

Articulation

The word "encode" was selected around that time to identify the behaviour of using symbols, as a companion word for "decode," which described the behaviour of receiving sound symbols. Many disciplines made their contribution to

the study: psychology, linguistics, semantics, physics, pathology, and other. Various models began to appear. They included such features as:

Source *Message* *Channel* *Receiver*

At each point along the way, we were told, there can be a breakdown in the process. The start can be blocked if the source of the communication is unfamiliar with the culture in which the encounter with his receivers takes place, if he does not understand the social system, if his knowledge of what he wants to say is limited, if he does not know the symbols used by his hearers, or if he does not have the skills of communication necessary to send out his message on the air waves (for example if his speech mechanism will not function properly-if the quality, pitch, volume or frequency of his utterance is grotesque or if he is unable to articulate, enunciate, or pronounce understandably). What is more, if his attitude betrays the meaning he intends or hopes to convey, a speaker's communication may be blocked at the start of the process. His message may be garbled if that is the world. The symbolic code maybe foreign the structure and syntax of his language usage distracting, the content may be inadequate for his purpose, or the elements of his discourse may be incomprehensible. In the channel there may be too much "noise," as the scientists called it. Too many distractions through seeing, hearing, touching, smelling, and tasting other things can keep the message outside the ken of the receiver. It may be that the speaker-how he looks or how he sounds-is his own worst distracter. Or it may be that the distance between speaker and receiver is too great. Or there maybe interfering sounds. On the other hand, the problem may lie with the listener. What if he comes from another culture or another social system, has no knowledge related to the message, or has attitudes which prevent him from decoding the message in an approximation of the one sent by the source? All of these topics come under scrutiny in the study of the process of communication²⁰.

²⁰ Богданов В.В. Речевое общение: прагматические и семантические аспекты. - Ленинград: Иш-воЛГУ, 1990. -89 с

Man preserves his time or alters his times, but always speaks in his time. Great problems bring forth great speakers. Great speakers lead people in decision making. The people elect to office those who speak effectively. They choose for leaders of their service clubs those who speak well. They call on their fellows who are effective speakers to speak on hundreds of various programs. There is man's speaking a cultural context, an environmental image, and a historical rhetoric. Man truly speaks in his times.

The Speaker, the message, the audience: these have long held a prominent place in our course work in speech. Our plans have been geared to helping the individual become a better communicator-to stand on a platform facing an audience, to present an uninterrupted speech, planned in its entirety and designed to meet the needs of the audience, and to anticipate the reactions and satisfaction of the audience. But man's speech communication is not always like that. More often he is likely to be in a situation in which his speech is interrupted, in which the conclusion of the presentation is different from what he had planned, and in which the responses of his audience are frequent, immediate, and equal to his own in continuing the presentation. We are referring to the interpersonal speech communication situation, whether one to one or one among several.

Interpersonal relationships lead to multiple barriers to communication. How frequently we misunderstand. How often we disagree. How many times we have different information, much of it faulty. The part of the group leader can be described in terms of his duties: he introduces topics, he summarizes progress, and he directs the course of the discussion. The participant in a discussion group has his own role to play. He should do his homework, offer his information at the appropriate moments, listen to the others, and cooperate in careful appraisal of the suggestions. The trouble is that the role he plays is more than just being another one in a group. He is an individual with a unique personality and he frequently represents a particular point of view. That is his role. He has status. The relationships among the members of the group are interpersonal ones. If the atmosphere is friendly, open, mutually trusting, and sincere in a search for a

satisfactory conclusion, then much can be accomplished. If it is not such a productive climate, the leader will need infinite skill to keep the discussion on course, to encourage reluctant members to cooperate, to suppress the obstreperous members, and to arrive at mutual agreement without breaking up in confusion. While you are in this course, you might try a job interview or two. Those in the same field of work might attempt a discussion aimed at solving a troublesome problem in the field. Do these things as an introduction to the activity of interpersonal communication. Perhaps you will understand its importance and want to learn much more.

To understand the functioning of the speech mechanism, it is especially important to note that, in addition to playing a vital part in the speech process, these parts of the mechanism have other, more important bodily functions to perform. They exist primarily to perform these other bodily functions should be recognized. Speech has sometimes been called an "overlaid" or "usurped" function²¹. The main functions of the breathing mechanism is get air into and out of the lungs to sustain life. The chief functions of the larynx (the voice box) are to regulate the supply of air entering the lungs and to prevent bits of food or other foreign particles from entering the trachea or windpipe. The tongue, teeth, lips, palates, and facial muscles function primarily in the taking in, chewing, and swallowing of food. The mouth, nasal, and throat cavities are passages through which air enters and leaves the body. Food also passes to the stomach through the mouth and throat cavities.

Many normal and abnormal but primary activities of these parts of the mechanism interfere with the speech act. These include: inhalation, chewing, swallowing, sneezing, coughing, hiccoughing, sobbing, laughing, sighing, and yawning. If you are speaking, for example, and suddenly need to sneeze, you will sneeze, you will sneeze rather than speak. The primary function of sneezing takes over the mechanism at that moment. Since the parts of the speech mechanism have these other primary bodily functions to perform, speech is a secondary bodily

²¹ Киселева Л.А. Вопросы теории речевого воздействия. Л.: Изд-во ЛГУ, 1983

function. The speech mechanism thus is subject to instability and must be kept under constant control by the speaker.

As a result of conditions at the moment, you have thoughts and feelings to which you desire your listener or listeners to react. As you speak, these thoughts and feelings become meaningful to the listener through your words, tones, inflection, movements, gestures, and facial expressions. As you continue to express your thoughts and feelings, the following occur almost simultaneously:

1. Breath in varying degrees of pressure is sent up through your larynx.
2. Your vocal folds in the larynx adjust and readjust appropriately, modifying the outgoing breath into a series of breath waves.
3. Your throat, mouth, and nasal cavities and their openings assume (a) coordinately, (b) momentarily, and (c) successively appropriate sizes and shapes to receive these breath waves and to amplify to build them up into the required vocal tones.
4. Next, these breath waves are further modified by your tongue, teeth, facial muscles, and lips to form the necessary speech sounds.
5. The breath waves, as now modified, are sent forth from your mouth and nose as sound waves and are transmitted through the air. (You have seen the ripples that occur when you drop a pebble into still water. The sound waves coming from your mouth and nose spread through the air in somewhat the same way.)
6. While your voice mechanism is sending forth sound waves to the ears of your audience, bodily movements, gestures, and facial expressions are causing variations in the light waves that reach the eyes of your audience.
7. As the sound waves strike the eardrums of your listener, they are changed, through the mechanism of his ear, into a specific pattern of nerve energy. As this pattern of nerve energy reaches his brain it becomes meaningful to him, subject, of course, to the limitations of the sound waves as received by him and his capacity to interpret their meaning.

8. The light waves received by the eyes of the listener are also changed to a specific pattern of nerve energy, which records an additional impression in his brain. The meaning of this impression is interpreted in relation to what he is hearing you say at the moment.

9. As a result of receiving these sound and light waves, the listener may exhibit behaviour or specific reactions which you may observe and to which you may react as you speak. Four Fundamental Behaviour-For purposes of study-training and retraining-the speech act is divided into four fundamental behaviour. These are: *Adjustment to the speaking situation*; *Formulation of thought*; *Phonation* and *Articulation*. These behaviour are the foundation of all forms of speaking activity-from conversation to formal oratory. They are treated in detail in the following pages.

Adequacy in formulation of thought, and articulation is dependent upon the degree to which the speaker is mentally and emotionally adjusted to the speaking situation. If you are well adjusted to the speaking situation you will possess a stable, well-integrated bodily mechanism, and will exhibit poise, balance, ease, naturalness, and purposiveness. You will be free from inhibitions, bodily tensions, and mannerisms. You will speak coherently, fluently, and emphatically. If you are not well adjusted to the speaking situation, you may possess an unstable, poorly integrated bodily mechanism; lack poise; be unbalanced, ill at ease, unnatural, tense, or inhibited. Your behaviour may be purposeless. Uncontrolled bodily mannerisms may become apparent. You may be nervous, excited, frightened, or uncertain, and thus be unable to speak coherently, fluently, and emphatically.

If you are not well adjusted to the speaking situation when you face it, if your bodily mechanism is unstable, the other fundamental processes will be affected. You will not, therefore, be able to speak well. The following suggestions may aid you in becoming well adjusted to the speaking situation.

Remember that the function of the speaker is communication, not display; that the audience wishes to hear and understand the speaker's ideas rather than to watch him speak and be impressed by his technique and extraordinary skill. The

latter are always less important than communication. Good speaking is neither mechanical nor artificial; it possesses a quality of naturalness. Avoid the attitude that there is nothing interesting or worthwhile for you to talk about. You need not always speak on serious or profound subjects; you need not always present them in serious and profound way. Choose subjects about which you already know a great deal. Your words need not be long or unusual, your gestures need not be elaborate or rehearsed. It is not necessary to use a certain type of posture of special hand and arm gestures or to move about the platform methodically. You are not required to have a richly melodious voice that sings its words in perfect ton and cadence.

Nor is it necessary for your pronunciation to be as fine as that of professional actors. You need not speak so fluently that there are no hesitations, repetitions, or uncertainties. Use that style of speaking which best accomplishes your purpose in the specific situation. There is no style of speaking suited to all occasions. As we said before, the speech mechanism is an unstable mechanism. You learn that, because of its very nature, it is subject to inconstancies. You also learned that the speech organs have more fundamental function than speaking and that these more fundamental functions take precedence over the "speech act" in sneezing coughing, or breathing, for example. Furthermore, the speech act is influenced by bodily and emotional states or disturbances. The functioning of the speech mechanism is affected by fear, excitement, anger, joy, sadness, surprise, fatigue, and so forth. Manifestations of emotional or bodily disturbances during the speech act include: breathing irregularities; stiff, unnatural posture and movements; uncontrolled muscle trembling, such as knees knocking or hand shaking; interruption caused by swallowing, laughing, sighing, yawning, or forgetting; frequent and prolonged hesitations; sudden and uncontrolled changes in pitch, loudness, rate of speech, and quality of tone; inaccuracy or indistinctness of the speech sounds. You must and can learn through experience to keep control over your reactions to these various mental, emotional, and bodily states. Realize, however, that a perfect functioning of the mechanism during the speech act is not

only rate but improbable. Even the best and most highly trained speakers experience some of the difficulties that you do.

You may make an improved adjustment to the speaking situation by adopting a realistic point of view toward yourself as speaker. Know yourself. Find out the facts about yourself as a speaker. Appraise your talents. Do not think you are better than you are, but do not minimize your abilities. After your instructor has made a diagnosis of your speech needs and abilities in terms of the fundamental processes and the basic essentials of effective speaking, study the diagnosis. Become familiar with your weaknesses of inadequacies as well as with your strong points.

Then face the facts about yourself as a speaker. Accept the description of your speech needs and abilities as evidence of your present level of ability and use it as a starting point for your training. Avoid worrying about speaking situations that you have not been called upon to face and forget past speaking experiences in which you have not been successful. Do not spend time daydreaming, wishing you were a better speaker than you really are, or pretending that you have acquired skills which in reality you have not. Instead, admit your inadequacies, but learn to emphasize your strong points and minimize your weaknesses. Succeed in spite of your handicaps. Accept criticism in a sincere, matter of fact way instead of feeling that you have been personally belittled. Remember that a recognition of your own needs is the first step toward improvement. Adopt the following point of view: "I may not be an excellent speaker. In the beginning, I may be a poor speaker with inadequacies, but I shall constantly strive to communicate my thoughts and feelings to my audience as naturally and directly as I possibly can, despite my limitations. With experience, I know that I shall improve."

Strive to develop yourself as a speaker in terms of goals that are not only possible but probable for you to attain. Individuality as a speaker should be your first goal. Your heredity and environment have made you an individual. Be yourself! Do not try to copy exactly that style someone else uses: his style is his individuality expressing itself. Let your individuality express itself! There is no

style of speaking that is suited to all persons; but, in developing your own style of speaking, do not ignore the principles of effective speaking about which you will learn in many assignments. Modify your own personal speaking style in accordance with them.

Seek opportunities to speak before audiences as often as possible. The best way to improve your adjustment to the speaking situation is through experience in speaking situation-all kinds of them. You may find at first that is not easy, but you will also find that with each successive experience it is easier and soon you will begin to enjoy it. Speak about topics with which you are thoroughly acquainted, that arise out of your own background and experience. Sometimes you will be able to plan what you are going to say over a considerable period of time. At other times you will speak with little preparation. Whatever the circumstances, when the opportunity comes, speak, make your contribution. Concentrate on your ideas and what they mean, not on how you say them. You will find that it will be easiest, in the beginning, to recount experiences that you have had-easier for you because they are part of you and because that audience will be immediately interested. And make these talks short! Do not expect to become well if your progress is slow and gradual. Set a series of goals for yourself that you reasonably attain, so that you need not be dissatisfied or unhappy with your progress.

Difficulty in adjusting to the speaking situation is most frequently caused by stage fright but stage fright is the natural, normal attitude and reaction of the inexperienced speaker. If you are not an experienced speaker, you may feel nervous and uncertain about yourself and how well you will do. But you must recognize that experienced speakers have, through their experience, become poised and confident that they can adjust to nearly any circumstance that may arise in speaking situations. You too can attain this poise and confidence through experience in speaking. It takes longer for some speakers to acquire it than for others, but you must speak often and in many kinds of speaking situations. Some of the following suggestions may help you:

1. Speak on topics about which you are well informed or on experiences that you yourself have had.

2. When you know that you have to make a speech, prepare well. Think about the topic, make notes, say it over to yourself. Have the notes with you and use them if necessary.

3. If the speech conditions permit, introduce some object in the speech and talk about it and demonstrate it. Or plan to use a blackboard diagram, which you draw while talking about it.

4. Think about what you are going to say. Before you are called upon, say the first sentence to yourself. Repeat it to yourself as you go to the platform. As you take your position on the platform, say it to yourself again. Then take a deep breath, say, possibly, "Ladies and Gentlemen," say the prepared sentence aloud, and your speech has begun.

5. If you are excited and seem to tremble before being called upon, relax and breathe deeply to counteract the bodily tension.

6. If you feel weak when you get to the platform, lean against something. If your hands or knees tremble, touch them against the desk or lectern to stop the trembling, which, when stopped, usually does not begin again.

7. Move about the platform. Be active. Make yourself use gestures of any kind. An active body will help destroy the evidence of your fears and actually cause you to be more at ease.

Formulation of thought refers to the act of creating, arranging, and expressing thought while speaking. As a speaker converses he creates ideas, chooses and arranges words in thought units and sentences for their conveyance, and utters them, all as part of one act. The speaker who is superior in formulation of thought states his thoughts coherently in a form that is adequate and essentially correct. He knows exactly what he is going to say and says it with economy of words and good taste. His thought is continuous, uninterrupted, hesitations, and uncertainties resulting from not knowing what to say or what words to choose in expressing the thought. It must be coherent, that is, details must be combined into a

related whole. It must be clearly and specifically stated and free from abstraction and ambiguity. It must be correctly stated and free from error in grammatical structure. And finally, for thought to be purposive in its formulation, the speaker should speak acceptably, that is, his pronunciation of the words in sequence must be adequate. In the formal speaking situation the speaker must exercise greater skill in the principles mentioned above than in the informal speaking situation. He must show that he has a knowledge of and experience in public speaking. Surely he must be sufficiently well adjusted to the speaking situation to allow for normal functioning of the bodily mechanism, thus facilitating the formulation and expression of his thought.

Phonation refers to the production and variation by the speaker of vocal tones-their pitch, intensity, duration, and quality. Pitch refers to highness or lowness of tone. Intensity is loudness. Duration is the length of time a sound lasts. Quality refers to the individuality of tone. A speaker is superior in phonation when his voice has a basic quality that is clear, full, rich, resonant, mellow, pleasing, and beautiful. It is more often medium or low in pitch. It is legato rather than staccato. It has a reserve of intensity. It is flexible, recording easily and without apparent effort the broadest and most subtle changes in thought and mood. In evaluating the speaker's phonation, the skilled observer looks for the following inadequacies.

Organic Inadequacies: Included may be:

1. Malformation of the nose, mouth, or throat cavities and the larynx.
2. Obstructions in the cavities, such as adenoids.
3. Chronic inflammations in these cavities and the larynx.

Pitch: Among possible inadequacies are:

1. Abnormally high or low pitch.
2. Lack of variation in pitch-vocal monotony.
3. Pitch patterns-rising or falling inflections regardless of meaning; identical inflections from phrase to phrase regardless of meaning.

Intensity: Inadequacies may include:

1. Abnormally loud or weak intensity.

2. Lack of variation in intensity; lack of emphasis.
3. Intensity patterns-the same variation in intensity regardless of meaning, for example, starting each sentence with more intensity than is used at its ending.

Duration: Among the possible inadequacies are:

1. Tones held for too short a time, resulting in a staccato effect.
2. Tones held for too long a time, resulting in an unpleasant drawl.
3. Lack of variability of rate of speech with all tones given about the same duration, resulting in vocal monotony and lack of emphasis.

Quality: Type of inadequacies are as follows:

1. Muffled-too much resonance from the throat cavity.
2. Metallic-too much resonance from the mouth cavity.
3. Nasal-too much resonance from the nasal cavities.
4. Denasal-little or no resonance from the nasal passages.
5. Harsh-raucous, unpleasant.
6. Hoarse-husky-tense muscles in the mechanism, especially the throat, and possible unhealthy conditions in the cavities.
7. Breathy-the speaker's breath is heard above his vocal tones.
8. Infantile-has the characteristics of a young child's voice.

Flexibility: Lack of vocal flexibility is evidenced in monotony of pitch, intensity, duration, and quality in the speaker's expression of his meanings. The speaker seems to lack the ability to control these vocal attributes as he speaks. His vocal mechanism is not necessarily inflexible. He simply does not make it function at its best, if at all.

If you are found to be inadequate in any of these items, you will want to attack your deficiency soon. Your instructor may help outline a program of retraining for you, which will include many of the following bases for the improvement of phonation. Bear your own voice-you must learn to hear your voice as others hear it. You should know its good characteristics and hear them. You should know its bad characteristics and hear them when they occur. Your ear should tell you when your voice is functioning at its normal, natural best. A strong

hearing sensitivity to the tones of your own voice is a first essential in voice improvement. Your ear should hear in your own voice:

1. Its habitual pitch level.
2. Its normal natural pitch range from the highest pitched sounds you make to your lowest.
3. Its pitch inflections upward and downward.
4. Its loud tones and its weak tones.
5. Its short, staccato, jerky tones, and its tones which drawl noticeable.
6. The various kinds of bad voice quality, such as nasal, muffled, and so on.

Relaxed Mechanism: Your entire speaking mechanism should be relaxed, so to speak, while you are speaking. It should be free from abnormal muscle tenseness or tightness. A relaxed mechanism is the result of:

1. Good health, both physical and mental.
2. A proper understanding of what is expected of you when you speak, as we noted in considering adjustment to the speaking situation.
3. Confidence, through familiarity with your general subject and through preparation of the speech to be given.
4. Absence of stage fright and uncertainty, through experience in meeting speaking situations. The result of experience is a comfortable poise and a natural control of the functioning of the bodily mechanism during speech.

Optimum Pitch and Pitch Range: As you speak, the pitch of your voice fluctuates over a range of different pitches from low to high and high to low. Somewhere between the highest and lowest pitch your voice is capable of producing, there is a pitch level that is most natural for you. The pitch fluctuations of your voice seem to go up and down from this basic pitch level. You use it normally when you are relaxed, at ease, and not emotionally disturbed. It is clear that the basic pitch level of men's voices is markedly lower than that of women. The average pitch level of male voices is approximately 128 vibrations per second, the pitch level of female voice is approximately 256 vibrations per second, or about Middle C on the musical scale. Some male voices are naturally lower or

higher in pitch than others. The same phenomenon is true of female voices. Since there is a basic pitch level best for each individual, you must discover and make a habit of using that basic pitch level which is natural and best for you. In addition, you should discover your natural pitch range from lowest to highest and make the use of it habitual.

Many speakers, particularly among women, tend to use higher pitch level than is natural for them. They tend also to use more high than low pitches in their pitch range, which usually is not natural for them either. The rule therefore is: speak at your natural pitch level and use your normal pitch range. Your basic pitch level should be medium or low for you. You should avoid too much use of the higher levels of your pitch range. Do not, however, try to lower your pitch level by refusing to use occasional high pitch variations. To force your pitch down and hold it here will result in a low mono pitch, which is also unattractive.

Reserve of Intensity: You should have a strong voice. It should have a reserve of intensity that is not easily exhausted. You should have no trouble in making your audience hear in the average auditorium. To have a strong voice, you must:

1. Have a strongly active breathing mechanism. The muscles of respiration must act, during speech, with energy and power.
2. Cause a series of strongly vibrating breath waves to come from your larynx. These produce the pitches you desire.
3. At the same time, adjust the cavities of your throat, mouth, and nose.
4. Hold the adjustment of the cavities constant and continue the strongly vibrating breath waves until the tone has been built up by the resonance cavities to its full intensity.

FINAL REFLECTIONS

These results present some important issues on grammar as a tool for Meaningful Communication. The problem of grammar as a tool for meaningful communication which is very actual and interesting in present day linguists, having looking through the words of leading scholars, having reviewed all existing literature, having analysed, the linguistic data, in the forms of example picked out of the novels, stories, newspapers, also having applied all possible modern methods of investigation we have come to the following theoretically and practically important conclusions.

English grammatical theory has a long tradition going back to the earliest Latin grammars of the 17th century when "grammar" meant only the study of Latin. The early prenormative grammars of English reproduced the Latin classification of the word-classes which included eight parts of speech. Substantives and adjectives were grouped together as two kinds of nouns, the participle was considered as a separate part of speech. In the earliest English grammars the parts of speech were divided dichotomically into declinable and indeclinable parts of speech or words with number and words without number (Ben Jonson), or words with number and case and words without number and case (Ch. Butler). Declinable words, with number and case, included nouns, pronouns, verbs and participles, the indeclinables — adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Ben Jonson increased the number of parts of speech. His classification includes the article as the ninth part of speech. In J. Brightland's grammar (the beginning of the 18th century) the number of parts of speech was reduced to four. These were: names (nouns), qualities (adjectives), affirmations (verbs) and particles. Brightland's system was accepted only by a few English grammarians of the period.

The principal design of a grammar of any language is to teach us to express ourselves with propriety, to enable us to judge of every phrase and form of construction, whether it be right or not. The plain way of doing this is to lay down rules and to illustrate them by examples. But besides showing what is right, the

matter may be further explained what is wrong. Grammar in general, or Universal grammar explains the principles which are common to all languages. The Grammar of any particular language, as the English grammar, applies those common principles to that particular language.

The end of the 19th century brought a grammar of a higher type, a descriptive grammar intended to give scientific explanation to the grammatical phenomena. This leads to a scientific understanding of the rules followed instinctively by speakers and writers, giving in many cases the reasons why this usage is such and such. Scientific grammar was thus understood to be a combination of both descriptive and explanatory grammar. Morphology was treated as it had been in the first half of the 19th century, syntax, as in the second half of that century. Of the various classifications of the parts of the sentence current in the grammars of the second half of the 19th century the author chose a system, according to which the sentence has four distinct parts: (1) the **Subject**; (2) **Adjuncts to the Subject** (*Attributive Adjuncts, sometimes called the Enlargement of the Subject*); (3) the **Predicate**; and (4) **Adjuncts of the Predicate** (*Adverbial Adjuncts*); **the object and the complement** (i. e. the *predicative*) with their qualifying words, however, are not treated as distinct parts of the sentence. They are classed together with the finite verb as part of the predicate.

Methods of scientific research used in linguistic studies have always been connected with the general trends in the science of language. The first decade of the 20th century is known to have brought new theoretical approaches to language and the study of its nature. Thus, for instance, the principles of comparative linguistics have been of paramount importance in the development of scientific approach to historical word study. In the beginning of the present century linguistic studies were still concentrated on historical problems. The historical and comparative study of the Indo-European languages became the principal line of European linguistics for many years to come. The most widely acclaimed views of language during the past thirty years have been directed toward the development of methodologies for dealing with the structure of a language in a non-historical

sense. Modern linguistics is oriented towards perfecting the analytical and descriptive technique in historical studies. And this brings new scientific data widening the scope of comparative linguistics and contributing greatly to its progressive development.

Until about twenty years ago, the textbooks in the field of speech concentrated on the speaker's activities in preparing and presenting a speech, the fundamentals often considered included: *Thought, Language, Voice and Action*. When they discussed "thought," the writers spoke of "purpose" in speech: to inform, to persuade, or to entertain. They asked the speaker to consider his audience in selecting materials to fulfil his purpose. Specialists began to work on the speech act. The speaker and the message are part of the same person. To reach the hearer, it was necessary to include: *Speaker, Message, Medium and Listener*.

A man speaks to the people of his times on the problems of his times. In this text we are much concerned with the audience. We analyse him, plan for his response, speak to him, and react to him. Such an attitude toward the listener has its roots in the history of man's communication. Speech instruction has paralleled the society in which man has lived; it has reflected his opportunity to speak to his fellow citizens. Interpersonal relationships lead to multiple barriers to communication. Listening directs our living. Perhaps because it has seemed so obvious, we have not spent much time on it in school. Listening has been identified as important in man's life. His use of language is dependent on it. As a baby he listens to and imitates what he hears. Thus is begun his comprehension of his human ability to formulate hears. Thus is begun his comprehension of his human ability to formulate and express oral symbols. In school the child listens for instructions and thereby learns to perform.

Since we are interested in the whole process of communication we call your attention to the circular form of the model-the speaker gets feedback from the listener, which influences the rest of his speech. It will influence the speaker in some way. In our class we want the speaker to know that we are for him, that we want to help him to improve and become a better speaker, that we want the morale

of the class to be high. Students learn as they go through school how to smile and nod in approval at what a lecturer says-without really being "present" at all.

The term speech refers to the behaviour or act of speaking. When normal, the act of speech is a total bodily response to a speaking situation of some kind. His thoughts are expressed in words arranged in thought units and sentences. Each word is composed of selected speech sounds. Each speech sound evolves from the speaker's tone of voice at the moment. Listeners hear and react to the tone of this voice according to its pitch, intensity, duration, and quality. Appropriate variations in the pitch, intensity, duration, and quality of his natural tone of voice lend interpretation to his thoughts.

In speaking, the entire bodily mechanism is used. Certain parts of the mechanism, however, are especially important. They are: the breathing mechanism; the larynx containing the vocal folds; the cavities of the throat, mouth, and nose; the hard and soft palates; the tongue, the teeth, the lips, and the muscles of the face. In a normal mechanism the teeth are properly occluded and free from spaces between them. To understand the functioning of the speech mechanism, it is especially important to note that, in addition to playing a vital part in the speech process, these parts of the mechanism have other, more important bodily functions to perform. They exist primarily to perform these other bodily functions should be recognized.

Adequacy in formulation of thought, and articulation is dependent upon the degree to which the speaker is mentally and emotionally adjusted to the speaking situation. If you are well adjusted to the speaking situation you will possess a stable, well-integrated bodily mechanism, and will exhibit poise, balance, ease, naturalness, and purposiveness. The function of the speaker is communication, not display; that the audience wishes to hear and understand the speaker's ideas rather than to watch him speak and be impressed by his technique and extraordinary skill.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Exercises

Students' notes

1. Underline all the uncountable nouns in the following text.

We welcome you as a guest at the Sherwood Holiday Village and hope that you enjoy your holiday with us.

The sports complex is open from 7 a.m. and facilities are available for tennis, squash, bowling, table tennis and snooker.

You can hire equipment at the complex for a nominal fee. If you require tuition, there is coaching available but you must book in advance. For those of you who enjoy competition, there will be tournaments taking place throughout the week. Please sign your name up on the notice board if you are interested. And if you need something to quench your thirst after an energetic game, you can purchase fruit juice, mineral water and herbal drinks as well as a variety of healthy snacks from the health-food bar. May we take this opportunity to inform you that appropriate footwear must be worn for all activities and heavy shoes are not allowed in the sports complex.

Next to the sports complex, you will find our brand-new swimming pool, complete with water slides and a wave machine. The lighting in the pool area gives the effect of sunlight even on the dullest days. And if you want to look your best in the pool, our par I hop nocks a wide range of designer swimwear.

After lots of exercise, you'll probably be ready for a good meal. Why not go to the Sherwood Restaurant? If you'd like to try the buffet, you can eat as much food as you like for just £8. If you'd prefer to eat in, you can purchase your food from the minimarket. Fresh fruit and vegetables are delivered to the minimarket daily and the bread is freshly baked by our own bakers.

If you require any advice or information, please come to the Reception Desk and we will be glad to assist.

Janice Hughes, Manager

2. Rewrite the following sentence in reported speech.

1. "I am very tired", she said. 2. "I will see them soon," he said. 3. "I like swimming, dancing and playing tennis," he said. 4. "I'll see you tomorrow," she said. 5. She said, "We went swimming today." 6. "I'm meeting them at four o'clock today," he said. 7. "What's your name?" he asked. (wanted to know) 8. "Who did you see at the meeting?" my mother asked. (wanted to know) 9. "How did you get to school?" she said. (asked) 10. "When does the train leave?" I asked. 11. "I'm going to the cinema," she said. 11. "I see the children quite often," he said. 12. "I must go home to make the dinner," he said. 13. "I don't like this film," she said. 14. "I met her about three months ago," he said. 15. "Why didn't the police report the crime?" the judge asked. (inquired) 16. "Why are you so late?" the teacher asked. (demanded to know)

3. Put in relative pronouns where necessary and commas where necessary.

THIS CHARMING PROPERTY

People ... tell the truth about the properties they are selling should be given prizes for honesty. A house ... is described as 'spacious' will be found to be too large. Words like 'enchanting', 'delightful', 'convenient', 'attractive' ... are commonly used all mean 'small'. The words 'small' and 'picturesque' ... are not so frequently used both mean 'too small'. A 'picturesque house' is one with a bedroom ... is too small to put a bed in and a kitchen ... is too small to boil an egg in. My prize for honesty goes to someone ... recently described a house ... he was selling in the following way: 'This house ... is situated in a very rough area of London is really in need of repair. The house ... has a terrible lounge and a tiny dining room also has three miserable bedrooms and a bathroom ... is fitted with a leaky shower. The central heating ... is expensive to run is unreliable. There is a handkerchief-sized garden ... is overgrown with weeds. The neighbours ... are generally unfriendly are not likely to welcome you. This property ... is definitely not recommended is ridiculously overpriced at £85,000.'

Teachers' notes

1. Underline all the uncountable nouns in the following text.

We welcome you as a guest at the Sherwood Holiday Village and hope that you enjoy your holiday with us.

The sports complex is open from 7 a.m. and facilities are available for tennis, squash, bowling, table tennis and snooker.

You can hire equipment at the complex for a nominal fee. If you require tuition, there is coaching available but you must book in advance. For those of you who enjoy competition, there will be tournaments taking place throughout the week. Please sign your name up on the notice board if you are interested. And if you need something to quench your thirst after an energetic game, you can purchase fruit juice, mineral water and herbal drinks as well as a variety of healthy snacks from the health-food bar. May we take this opportunity to inform you that appropriate footwear must be worn for all activities and heavy shoes are not allowed in the sports complex.

Next to the sports complex, you will find our brand-new swimming pool, complete with water slides and a wave machine. The lighting in the pool area gives the effect of sunlight even on the dullest days. And if you want to look your best in the pool, our par I hop nocks a wide range of designer swimwear.

After lots of exercise, you'll probably be ready for a good meal. Why not go to the Sherwood Restaurant? If you'd like to try the buffet, you can eat as much food as you like for just £8. If you'd prefer to eat in, you can purchase your food from the minimarket. Fresh fruit and vegetables are delivered to the minimarket daily and the bread is freshly baked by our own bakers.

If you require any advice or information, please come to the Reception Desk and we will be glad to assist.

Janice Hughes, Manager

2. Rewrite the following sentence in reported speech.

1. "I am very tired", she said. – *She said she was very tired.*
2. "I will see them soon," he said. – *He said he would see them soon.*

3. "I like swimming, dancing and playing tennis," he said. - *He said he liked swimming, dancing and playing tennis.*
4. "I'll see you tomorrow," she said. - *She said she would see them the next day.*
5. She said, "We went swimming today." - *He said he had seen her that day.*
6. "I'm meeting them at four o'clock today," he said. - *He said he was meeting them at four o'clock that day.*
7. "What's your name?" he asked. (wanted to know) - *He wanted to know what my name was.*
8. "Who did you see at the meeting?" my mother asked. (wanted to know) - *My mother wanted to know who I had seen at the meeting.*
9. "How did you get to school?" she said. (asked) - *She asked how I had got to school.*
10. "When does the train leave?" I asked. - *I asked when the train left.*
11. "I'm going to the cinema," she said. - *She said (that) she was going to the cinema.*
12. "I see the children quite often," he said. - *He said he saw the children quite often.*
13. "I must go home to make the dinner," he said. - *He said he had to go home to make the dinner.*
14. "I don't like this film," she said. - *She said (that) she didn't like the film.*
15. "I met her about three months ago," he said. - *He said he had met her about three months before/previously.*
16. "Why didn't the police report the crime?" the judge asked. (inquired) - *The judge inquired why the police hadn't reported the crime.*
17. "Why are you so late?" the teacher asked. (demanded to know) - *The teacher demanded to know why I was so late.*

3. Put in relative pronouns where necessary and commas where necessary.

THIS CHARMING PROPERTY

People *who* (*no commas*) tell the truth about the properties they are selling should be given prizes for honesty. A house *which/that* (*no commas*) is described

as 'spacious' will be found to be too large. Words like 'enchanted', 'delightful', 'convenient', 'attractive' **which** are commonly used, all mean 'small'. The words 'small' and 'picturesque' **which** are not so frequently used, both mean 'too small'. A 'picturesque house' is one with a bedroom **which/that (no commas)** is too small to put a bed in and a kitchen **which/that (no commas)** is too small to boil an egg in. My prize for honesty goes to someone **who (no commas)** recently described a house **(no relative pronoun necessary, no commas)** he was selling in the following way: 'This house, **which** is situated in a very rough area of London, is really in need of repair. The house, **which** has a terrible lounge and a tiny dining room, also has three miserable bedrooms and a bathroom **which/that (no commas)(or: ..., which is fitted with a leaky shower. (one comma))** is fitted with a leaky shower. The central heating, **which** is expensive to run, is unreliable. There is a handkerchief-sized garden **which/that (no commas)(or: ..., which is overgrown with weeds. (one comma))** is overgrown with weeds. The neighbours, **who** are generally unfriendly, are not likely to welcome you. This property, **which** is definitely not recommended, is ridiculously overpriced at £85,000.'

Appendix 2
LESSON PLAN

Teacher's name: Ergasheva Umida

Course type: Developing

Course name: Practical English Grammar

Room: 8/22

Group: 111A

Date: 10/12/2013

Length: 2 hours	Number of students: 12
Type of the lesson Practical	Topic of the lesson: Verbals
Procedure/ Lesson outline	1.org. moment 2.warm- up 3. main part 4 conclusion
Lesson aims: to provide information about the use and meanings of verbals in context	
Objectives: to give students(Ss) an opportunity - to practice the use of verbals in context - to practice speaking skills and enlarging vocabulary by discussing and doing a number of exercises based on the topic	Learning outcomes: By the end of the lesson the Ss will be able... <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to differentiate the finite and non-finite forms of the verbs • use the topic in real life context
Task types	Discussion, elicitation, filling in the gaps, paraphrasing
Interaction patterns	Individual, in pairs, in small groups, whole class
Materials used:	A Practical English Grammar. N.Slobodkina English Grammar in Use. R. Murphy, Keep in Touch, extra Handouts, cards
Equipment/ aids used:	Board, OHP
Types of assessment	Oral

Detailed procedure of the lesson

Steps and duration	Process	
	Teacher	Students
Part I (±15mins)	1 greeting checking the attendance 2 warm –up activity; T divides the class in to pairs. Pairs discuss about their likes and dislikes then report to the class about each others' likes and dislikes	1 Ss respond to the teacher 2 Ss discuss the likes and dislikes and report to the class

Part (±55mins)	II 3 T elicits information from Ss like what are verbals? What forms of verbals do you know? 4 T provides information about verbals , tells some rules through OHP or writes down on the board (enclosure 4) 5 Ss work in small groups. T asks Ss to fill in the gaps using verbals. Each group has different small texts. (enclosure 5) 6 T asks Ss to make up sentences individually using verbals 7 checking home work T asks Ss to show their home work and T checks them	3 Ss tell their opinions and answer the questions. 4 Ss take notes 5 Ss read the texts and fill in the gaps using verbals 6 Ss tell sentences using verbals; they work individually 7 Ss show their home work
Part (±10mins)	III 8 Assessment: T grades Ss according to their participation and their home work. 9 T tells Ss to do exercises (enclosure 9)	8 Ss will be aware of their grades 9 Ss do exercises

1. Enclosure 5. Read the stories and fill in the gaps with verbs from the box in the correct form

Chew give up go hop keep away know lie smoke feed

Story I

The doors were just about to close on my underground train when I saw a pigeon hop in. the tourists wanted 1 _____ it with crisps, but the bird wasn't interested. It appeared 2 _____ where it was going and as soon as the doors opened at the next station, it flew out.

Story II

If you want to give up 1 _____, you are recommended not 2 _____ electrical cables to help. An Australian builder chewed almost a meter of cable a day for ten years, and found it had a 'sweet and pleasant taste'. Unfortunately the cables he was eating contained lead and last year doctors found the lead levels in the man's blood were 3 times the safety limit. Fortunately, his blood is now back to normal but he has failed 3 _____ smoking.

Story II

On 29th January a worried resident of Tilehurst, Berkshire saw a cobra 1 _____ motionless by the side of the road. He rang the local animal hospital who told him not 2 _____ near it. As the man waited for help he warned other people 3 _____. When a man arrived from the animal hospital in full protective clothing and approached the snake, he realized it was an old car exhaust pipe.

2. Enclosure 9 1. Complete these sentences in any appropriate way using either the to-infinitive or the -ing form of the verb in brackets. If both forms are possible, give them both.

- 1 Passing the kitchen, he stopped **to drink** a. Large glass of water. (drink)
- 2 When the car broke down, she started... (push)
- 3 Here's the money I owe you. I meant... (give)
- 4 To lose weight, I'd advise you... (cut out)
- 5 I found that my back stopped... when... (ache)
- 6 To help me get to sleep, I tried... (think)
- 7 The orchestra was just beginning... (play)
- 8 Please don't hesitate... (call)
- 9 When he found that he couldn't walk, he began... (shout)
- 10 The handle came off when I tried... (lift)
- 11 You could see the doctor today but as you haven't got an appointment it would mean... (wait)