



GENERAL ENGLISH

G.C.E. ADVANCED LEVEL CLASSES

Department of English
National Institute of Education
Maharagama
Sri Lanka
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General English

Teachers' Guide

Grades 12 & 13

Department of English
Faculty of Languages, Humanities and Social Sciences
National Institute of Education
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Message from the Director General

The first phase of the new competency based curriculum, with 8 years curriculum cycle was introduced to secondary education in Sri Lanka in 2007 replacing the existed content based education system with basic objective of developing the national level competencies recommended by the National Education Commission.

The second phase of the curriculum cycle to be introduced to grades 7 and 11 starts from 2016. For this purpose, National Institute of Education has introduced a rationalization process and developed rationalized syllabi for these grades using research based outcomes and various suggestions made by different stakeholders.

In the rationalization process, vertical integration has been used to systematically develop the competency levels in all subjects from fundamentals to advanced levels using the bottom up approach. Horizontal integration is used to minimize the overlapping in the subject content and to reduce the content over loading in the subjects to produce more students friendly and implementable curricular.

A new format has been introduced to the teachers' guide with the aim of providing the teachers with the required guidance in the areas of lesson planning, teaching, carrying out activities and measurement and evaluation. These guidelines will help the teachers to be more productive and effective in the classroom.

The new teachers' guides provide freedom to the teachers in selecting quality inputs and additional activities to develop the competencies of the students. The new teachers' guides are not loaded with subject content that is covered in the recommended textbooks. Therefore, it is essential for the teacher to use the new teachers' guides simultaneously with the relevant textbooks prepared by

Education Publication Department as reference guides to be more aware of the syllabi.

The basic objectives of the rationalized syllabi and the new format of teachers' guide and newly developed textbooks are to bring a shift from the teacher centered education system into a student centered and more activity based education system in order to develop the competencies and skills of the school leavers and to enable the system to produce suitable human resource to the world of work.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank the members of Academic Affairs Board and Council of National Institute of Education and all the resource persons who have immensely contributed in developing these new teacher guides.

Director General
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Message from Ven. Deputy Director General

Learning expands into a wider scope. It makes life enormous and extremely simple. The human being is naturally excellent in the skill of learning. A country when human development is considered the main focus uses learning as a tool to do away with malpractices identified with intellect and to create a better world through good practices.

It is essential to create valuable things for learning and learning methods and facilities within the adhere of education. That is how the curriculum, syllabi, teachers' guides and facilitations join the learning system.

Modern Sri Lanka has possessed a self – directed education system which is a blend of global trends as well as ancient heritage.

It is necessary to maintain the consistency of the objectives of the subject at the national level. However, facilitators are free to modify or adapt learning teaching strategies creatively to achieve the learning outcomes, competency and competency level via the subject content prescribed in the Syllabus. Therefore, this Teachers' Guide has been prepared to promote the teachers' role and to support the students as well as the parents.

Furthermore, at the end of a lesson, the facilitators of the learning- teaching process along with the students should come to a verification of the achievement level on par with ones expected exam by a national level examiner, who evaluates the achievement levels of subjects expected. I sincerely wish to create such a self-progressive, motivational culture in the learning- teaching process. Blended with that verification, this Teachers' Guide would definitely be a canoe or a raft in this endeavor.

Ven. Dr. MabulgodaSumanarathanaThero
Deputy Director General
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Instructions for Using the Teachers' Guide

The revised syllabus for General English to be implemented from the year 2017 emphasizes the ability levels students should reach in order to perform certain tasks with the language. It lists out the ability levels in quite specific terms, so that the learners themselves can evaluate their abilities.

This confidence will be reflected in learners being able to now assert these specific 'can-do statements' in relation to English Language skills that they have mastered. The 'can-do' statements that are asserted correlate to the competencies that were used in Grades 6 to 11, and this relationship has been emphasized by listing the corresponding competencies that relate to each of them.

Though the 'can-do' statements are a novel aspect introduced in the syllabus, they are related to the eight major competencies identified for the secondary level in 2007.

According to the Association of Language Testers in Europe, (ALTE) 'can-do' statements describe what a person 'can-do' using the language in a particular context. The four contexts are general, social, work and study. Learning that is guided by 'can-do' statements enables a student to become an autonomous and life-long learner who will develop the main subject related competencies. 'Can-do' statements permit the students, teachers and parents to assess the progress of the learning process in relation to all 4 skills namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

All four language skills are important for the mastery of a language. The receptive, seemingly passive listening skill will allow the learner to launch in to the active skill of speaking. The learner has to be guided to have definite purposes for listening. Correspondingly, in speaking, the speaker will wish to achieve definite results through what he says.

Reading has always been known to be hardly ever passive. Rather than aiming to test the student, the emphasis now is on his/her ability to use the examples of reading texts so that he/she can extract specific details or respond in other appropriate ways as per the purpose. Every effort has been made to present a wide, interesting, and realistic array of texts. When the student is expected to produce his own writing, the ability to convey what he intends being assessed at various levels in his/her writing.

In relation to teaching all 4 skills, the teacher must monitor performance standards in all areas so that School Based Assessments (SBA) becomes realistic and meaningful. Although there are no plans to evaluate listening and speaking skills at a summative examination, these skills are of vital importance to students who are about to enter the wider world, and it is very important that these skills become an integral part of SBA.

While every effort has been made to ensure that the material in the text book is both carefully graded and interesting, it is for the teacher to ensure that it is creatively used. This guide is not meant to be an answer book to allow teachers to mechanically trot out solutions. In the introduction of each skill to Advanced Level students, the relevance of 'can-do' statements must be kept in mind. The methodology advocated through this Teacher's Guide advocates teachers to make use of strategies and techniques that best suit the material that is being taught.

Students must receive help with the grammar of the language, but overt teaching of formal grammar may likely to inhibit some learners. What is necessary for the student is not memorization of the rules of grammar, but an understanding of how the language works. The teacher must have a clear understanding of all relevant aspects of grammar. To this end, this guide for the teacher has a section on all the grammar items involved with references to further material, so that the students can be facilitated when necessary. The 'Further Reading' section guides the teacher to further explore the thinking behind this scheme of work.

Keeping all this in view, it is the teacher's task to use the material presented in the pupil's text book to guide and inspire the student creatively and innovatively to use their language skills in the social, professional and academic situations that they find themselves in the world of work, academic affairs and social milieus.

Project Coordinator

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1. LISTENING

1.1 Introduction

Listening is the activity of paying attention to and trying to get meaning from something we hear. To listen successfully to spoken language, we need to be able to work out what speakers *mean* when they use a particular word, in a particular way on a particular occasion, and not simply to understand the words themselves in isolation. A speaker saying ‘You’re late,’ for example, may be wishing to convey any one of a range of meanings: simply stating the fact that you have arrived late, or complaining because he/she had to wait, or expressing surprise because he/she did not expect you to arrive late. What the speaker means lies only partly in the words spoken, and we, as the listeners, must recognize and interpret the other factors used to convey the message. Among many factors to consider are the speaker’s intention, the listener’s acquired knowledge of the content, the topic, the speaker’s accent and dialect.

1.2 Importance of Listening Skill for A/L Students

Listening skills are important at every stage of a student’s personal, professional and academic lives. The A/L students who will be leaving school for the world of work should be armed with the skills of listening to help them to perform well in their future careers.

Firstly, it is important for them to learn to understand the overall message and other important points in any personal or professional context. They should be taught using a variety of contexts in which they can listen and have ample practice, so that they can understand properly.

Secondly, they should be trained in the sub-skills of listening. For instance, note taking while listening to a lecture requires many sub-skills of listening such as listening for details, inferring etc.

Thirdly, it is very important to develop inter-personal relationships in both their personal and professional lives, so that they can interact with people effectively.

1.3 Performance Standards for Listening

There are eleven performance standards introduced under the ‘Listening Can-Do Statement’. Each performance standard is precise and easy for the teacher to understand in order to identify the objectives of the lesson. When writing objectives, teachers may have to narrow down the performance standards to make them more specific.

The 11 performance standards are given below.

i) Student understands and finds specific information in the announcements found in the listening texts used in day to day situations.

This standard focuses on short listening texts similar to situations found in the learner’s day-to-day life. They should be able to identify specific information such as dates, times, places, names, etc. Therefore, the teacher should think of suitable texts and techniques to use.

E.g.: announcements given in day-to-day situations both in school and outside will be effective because they retain their authenticity, and are linked with the learner’s day-to-day life.

ii) Student is able to find specific information in texts used in more complex situations

In this performance standard it is essential to identify the context in which learners are given aural input. This includes listening to a news item, to the radio, the TV, a speech, a story or a lecture where the listener cannot control the ‘text’ or change it.

Both the context and the task are equally important for the students in mastering some listening sub-skills. For example, listening for details while ignoring anything that is not relevant is a sub-skill a learner needs to master in achieving this performance standard.

iii) Student distinguishes between a question and a statement in a day-to-day conversation

The focus here is to identify the difference between a question and a statement through intonation and stress in oral communication.

When we speak, we show which words are important by giving them a lot of stress. So it is necessary to teach the learners to identify the differences in varying contexts. For

example, we pronounce a question and declarative statements differently with a falling intonation (tone) for *wh* questions and rising intonation (tone) for binary questions.

Falling intonation is usually indicated using a downward arrow (↘) and rising intonation is indicated using an upward arrow (↗)

Falling intonation (↘)

E.g.: What's your name? (↘)
And where were you born? (↘)

Rising intonation (↗)

E.g.: Are you a student? (↗)

Usually, in statements, commands, *wh* questions (directive questions), confirmatory questions, tags and exclamations, the falling intonation is used. Students' attention should be drawn to such differences in the listening texts.

iv) Student understands and follows instructions concerning a process

Learners should be taught to identify sign-posts. There are sign-posts in language that help us to follow what we are listening to. In a process, sequential marks act as sign-posts and learners should be given proper guidance in how to identify them. The task/activity should be suitable for this purpose.

E.g.: Instructions for sending a picture message on a phone. Sequential markers in such a process will help the learner to understand the order in which the process should be carried out. A pre-listening task can be used to prepare students for such an activity.

v) Student understands the general idea in an academic discourse

The focus is on finding the general idea. This involves developing one of the sub-skills of listening, i.e., listening for gist. Students should be able to look at the whole picture in an academic discourse and find the general idea within it. Students should be guided at the pre-listening stage by giving them a suitable task involving vocabulary guidance because there may be subject specific words and phrases in the discourse that hinder overall understanding.

vi) Student deduces the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases in a social context by using contextual clues

This performance standard helps the learner to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words using the hints given in and around the word as well as the situation in which the action takes place. Here the learners' knowledge about the subject and the world also play a part.

vii) Student deduces the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases in a social context by using structural clues

The focus here is on the learner's ability to listen and find structural information that allows one to assign meaning to a word. In other words, to find the grammatical function of the word, place in the sentence and the morphology.

viii) Student deduces the meaning of unfamiliar words and phrases in an academic discourse by using contextual clues

Student must recognize discourse markers and cohesive devices, which include linking words, pronouns, etc. The listening task and the text for this performance standard should be carefully designed to use these devices in both tasks and texts.

ix) Student interprets the speaker's point of view when stated directly

x) Student interprets the speaker's point of view when stated indirectly

xi) Student understands the plot and cultural implications found in oral narratives using structural clues and morphological clues

1.4 Teaching Listening

Teaching listening has become a challenging task for teachers for several reasons. First, teaching listening has not been given much emphasis in English language teaching curricula across the world and it is not assessed in national examinations. Also there is a general belief that listening is less important than the other language skills, However, there is sufficient research to show that listening is not a passive' receptive skill but one of many cognitive skills interacting to create meaning when we engage in listening activities.

According to Mary Underwood (1997), listening is always an active process and there are three distinct stages that the listener undergoes in order to process the message he/she hears.

At the first stage, the sounds go to a sensory store called the *echoic memory* and are organized into meaningful units. This happens according to the knowledge of the language the listener already has.

The second stage is the processing of information by the short-term memory. This is a very brief stage amounting to no more than a few seconds. At this point, words or groups of words are checked and compared with information already held in the long-term memory and meaning is extracted from them. Once the meaning has been grasped, the actual words are generally forgotten.

Once the listener has constructed a meaning from the utterance, he/she might transfer the information to the long-term memory for later use. Generally a listener records this message in a reduced form.

Listening strategies

There are strategies that learners should master in order to become good listeners. The teacher should always practice such strategies in order to help the learner. Some of the strategies that the teachers should practice with the students are given below.

i) Predicting content

Depending on the context – a news report, a university lecture, an exchange in a supermarket – teachers can get the learners to predict the kind of words and style of language the speaker will use. Knowledge of the world helps them anticipate the kind of information they are likely to hear. Moreover, when they predict the topic of a talk or a conversation, all the related vocabulary stored in their brains is 'activated' to help them better understand what they are listening to.

ii) Listening for gist

When listening, it is also possible to get the main idea. Information may come in a sequence. In the sequence of information, there are content words (the nouns, adjectives and verbs) that can help learners form the ‘whole picture’.

E.g.: The words 'food', 'friends', 'fun', 'park' and 'sunny day' have their own meanings when they are taken in isolation, but when you hear the words in a sequence, they help form the context of a picnic.

iii) Detecting signposts

There are sign-posts in language that help learners follow what they are listening to. These words link ideas and help learners to understand what the speaker is talking about and follow the progress of the talk. Sign-posts are particularly important in presentations and lectures.

iv) Listening for specific information

Sometimes listening to an entire speech may not be important. In such cases what is needed is to find out specific information, for example key words - perhaps a number, name or an object. The student can ignore anything that does not sound relevant.

v) Listening for detailed understanding

There may be instances where understanding the whole text is important, and one has to listen and comprehend all the information provided.

vi) Inferring meaning

This is the technique of inferring meaning using clues and prior knowledge about a situation to work out the meaning of what we hear. Similarly, we can infer the relationship between people from the words they use, without having to find out directly.

1.5 Stages of a Listening Lesson

In planning a listening lesson one should use a plan with three stages: pre-listening, while-listening and post-listening.

i) Pre-listening

The teacher prepares students to listen by making them a) think about what they are about to hear b) anticipate what the content will be. They should do ordering, predicting, or guessing type pre-listening tasks based on the main ideas that will come up in the listening exercise. The pre-listening tasks will be completed after the first listening activity and the same task is used again as the first while-listening activity to confirm that the main idea/s have been heard and understood properly.

Pre-listening activities

E.g.: Looking at pictures and talking about them, looking at a list of items/actions, etc., reading a text, labeling, completing part of a chart, predicting/speculating, previewing language and informal teacher talks and class discussions.

ii) While-listening

The students are given the opportunity to listen again and get more information during the while-listening stage. The main listening tasks are the while-listening tasks because these tasks make students focus on the details. The task becomes a listening guide that externalizes the listening process and makes it possible for the teacher to monitor how well students have understood.

While-listening activities

E.g.: Matching and labeling tasks, multiple-choice questions, true/false questions, note-taking, seeking specific pieces of information, mapping out (timelines of events, diagrams of connections between characters, routes taken on maps, processes, etc.), ranking, completing grids, comprehension questions, gap-filling activities, predicting, making models/arranging items in patterns, spotting mistakes, listening and drawing, etc. Completion of the while-listening tasks usually happens after the second listening.

iii) Post-listening

The post-listening stage is like the production stage – students are supposed to produce something of their own based on the previous stages in the lesson. The post-listening task is usually an extension activity involving integrated skills, information transfer, and personalization.

Post-listening activities

E.g.: Recall tasks, problem solving, role play/simulation, form/chart completion, summarizing, jigsaw listening, extending lists, matching with a text, discussions, etc.

1.6 Tips for the Teachers

1.6.1 Teacher's objectives in teaching / listening should include the following:

i) Expose students to a range of listening experiences

This can be done by using a lot of different listening activities (announcements, stories, conversations, descriptive talks,)

ii) Make listening purposeful for the students

This can best be achieved by providing tasks which are as realistic as possible, so that the students can relate them to real life situations.

iii) Help students understand what listening entails and how they might approach it

This means changing the attitudes of students, particularly if past attempts to learn listening have not been successful. It is worth spending a little time explaining the processes of listening to your students (in their own language, if necessary) and talking to them about how they listen in their native language.

iv) Build up students' confidence in their own listening ability

Teachers need to provide texts that are close to student experiences and activities that are not too challenging so that students can be / feel successful.

1.6.2 Teacher preparation (Before the lesson)

i) Choose the text for the listening activity

When teachers have flexibility in selecting texts, they should select ones with content that is close to student experiences and then gradually introduce contexts that are foreign. (Local to global). If a teacher is using a prescribed set of listening materials, s/he may wish to take some sections out of sequence to match the topics/functions in the textbook being used.

ii) Check that the activities are suitable

It is very important for the teacher to listen to the listening text, not just to read the transcript, to check whether the students will be able to complete the activities.

iii) Adjust the level of difficulty of the activities if you need to

A teacher may decide to adjust the difficulty level (depending on the teacher's knowledge of student abilities) by adding some answers to / giving some extended instructions for the activity/exercise students are going to use.

iv) Consider whether there is sufficient time for the listening task being planned

In a mixed ability class, teachers should plan tasks for both the fast learners and the slow learners. Fast learners may finish early if the tasks are too simple for them. On the contrary, slow learners will take longer to complete the tasks, if they are too challenging for them.

v) Use visual aids

Some visual support is helpful for students to find ideas and language they may know but have temporarily forgotten.

vi) Decide upon the procedures/strategies to adopt for the listening session.

vii) If a teacher is planning to present the listening text 'live', i.e., using teacher voice, s/he needs to practice reading it.

1.6.3 A good pattern for a listening session should include the following:

- i) The pre-listening stage: when the context of the listening activity is established, the tasks are explained and assistance is given as necessary.
- ii) The while-listening stage: when the students listen to the passage (in some instances one section at a time) and attempt the while-listening activities.
- iii) Time for students to discuss their responses in pairs/groups and help each other with the task.
- iv) A repeat listening, if necessary, for students to continue/complete the activity or to check/clarify information they may have missed or have answered incorrectly.
- v) Time set aside for further discussion, (optional) between students, or some assistance from the teacher, if necessary listening again to all or part/s of the text.
- vi) The post-listening stage: production of 'acceptable' answers, either by the teacher or the class in general.
- vii) Consideration of the areas in which students failed to understand or missed something. Also a discussion of why this happened, playing through the text again, in whole or in part, if necessary.
- viii) A post-listening extension activity (optional)

1.7 Assessment and Evaluation

Teachers can use the post-listening activities to check comprehension, evaluate listening skills and the use of listening strategies, as well as the extent of knowledge gained in other contexts. A post-listening activity may relate to a pre-listening activity, such as predicting, or it may expand on the topic and the language of the listening activity passage, or it may transfer what has been learned to other skills such as reading, speaking, or writing activities.

In order to provide an authentic assessment of students' listening proficiency, a post-listening activity must reflect the real-life uses to which students might put information they have gained through listening. To this end, a post-listening activity needs to;

- i) Have a purpose other than assessment,
- ii) Require students to demonstrate their level of listening comprehension by completing some task.

In order to develop authentic assessment activities, teachers should consider the type of response that listening to a particular selection would elicit in a non-classroom situation.

E.g.: After listening to a weather report one might decide what to wear the next day; after listening to a set of instructions, one might repeat them to someone else; after watching and listening to a play or video, one might discuss the story line with friends.

Listening should be assessed in both formative and summative situations. Further, it is advisable to assess listening as a part of school-based assessment using a variety of techniques so that the learner will be exposed to authentic assessment activities.

Reference:

Underwood M. (1997). *Teaching Listening*. Longman Handbooks for Language Teachers.

Hedge T. (2001). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. Oxford University Press.

<http://www.learning-english-online.net/listening-comprehension/listening-strategies/>

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2. READING

2.1. Introduction

Reading is the other receptive skill which a learner should master in order to be proficient in a language. “It is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning from a text. Further, it is a means of language acquisition, communication and of sharing information and ideas”. (Lehrl & Fischer, 1990) Reading, in this sense, is not merely translating written symbols into corresponding sounds. Several sub-skills and strategies are involved in reading.

Reading involves active cognitive engagement. Hedge (as cited in Carrel, Devine & Eskey, 1988) uses the term ‘interactive’ to describe the second language reading process. The term can be interpreted in two ways: first, it describes a dynamic and active relationship with a text. In order to make sense of a text, six types of knowledge are used. They are syntactic knowledge, morphological knowledge, general world knowledge, socio-cultural knowledge, topic knowledge and genre knowledge; the second interpretation of the term ‘interactive’ is the interplay among the various kinds of knowledge a reader employs in moving through a text. However, a fluent reader may not consciously control this process due to automaticity in their reading.

2.2 Importance of Reading in English for A/L Students

After the A/L examination students enter into the world of work or various academic pursuits as per their preference or performance at the national examination. Therefore, reading in English is an essential skill for students to develop in their secondary education, to use in their tertiary education or in the world of work. Their reading requirements may vary depending on the path they chose, yet, the ability to read in English, comprehend and respond independently is a skill that students are going to need throughout their lives.

2.3 ‘Can-do’ Statements and Performance Standards for Reading

The ‘can-do’ statement for reading according to the syllabus is that students “can read fluently and accurately in order to process written information for personal, professional and academic purposes.” Under this ‘can-do’ statement, there are eleven performance standards which

describe what the students should be able to carry out in relation to reading in English. (See page xvii.)

In order to reach these standards, students will engage in activities that involve reading a variety of texts with varying objectives: For instance, finding out the main idea and the supporting details of a text, inferring the meaning presented in complex structures, following different genres, narratives, informational and descriptive texts, etc. Teachers are required to apply different approaches and methods to make students competent readers to achieve the above goals.

2.4 Teaching Reading

It is important to note that reading skill, like the other three skills, should not be taught in isolation. However, like the other three skills, it is presented for explanatory purposes as a separate skill. Teaching reading leads students towards a successful reading experience when the teacher uses a wide variety of texts, tasks and strategies to teach them.

2.5 Types of Reading

2.5.1 Extensive reading-

Extensive reading can be interpreted as the reading of texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills. The nature of extensive reading may differ in degree with student motivation and institutional resources (Hedge, 2000).

The following are the characteristics of extensive reading.

- a) Reading large quantities of materials. E.g.: short stories, novels, newspapers, magazines or professional reading.
- b) Reading consistently on a frequent and regular basis.
- c) Reading longer texts (more than a few paragraphs in length) of the types listed in the first (a) point above.
- d) Reading for general meaning: for pleasure, curiosity or professional interest.
- e) Reading longer texts during class time / at home: mostly self- selected materials.

2.5.2 Intensive reading

Intensive reading can be interpreted as an activity where learners read in detail with specific learning aims and tasks.

E.g.: looking at the order of information, understanding what is implied, making inferences, etc.

The following are the characteristics of intensive reading:

- a) Usually classroom based, but once trained, students can read intensively and independently outside the classroom.
- b) Reader is intensely engaged with the text.
- c) Reader can identify key vocabulary and grammar.
- d) Linguistic and semantic information in a text are analyzed.
- e) Texts are read to identify implicit meaning as well as explicit meaning.

2.6 Strategies of Reading

2.6.1 Scanning

Scanning is reading a text rapidly in order to find specific information .When looking for specific information, the reader always has a series of questions and he/she reads the text to find the relevant answers.

E.g.: figures, names, places, dates

Steps for scanning

- a) State the specific information you are looking for (paragraph, line etc.).
- b) Try to anticipate how the answer will appear and what clues you might use to help to locate the answer. You have to have a clear idea of the graphic form you are looking for. If you are looking for the price of an item in an advertisement, your eyes should focus only on numbers and ignore everything else. If you are looking for the name of a person or place you should look for words beginning with capital letters.
- c) Use headings and any other aids that will help in identifying the section which contains the information that you are looking for.
- d) Selectively read and skip through sections of the passage.

2.6.2 Skimming

Skimming is a process of rapid reading in order to find the main ideas and the general overview of the text. It is more than simple previewing and it gives a more accurate picture of the text. Skimming requires knowledge of the text structure. It involves the knowledge that the first and the last parts of a text contain important information. Learner could make use of the title, sub headings, graphs etc. to find out what the text is about. He / She should be able to identify the topic sentence and know where to find them.

E.g.: a) Main idea at the beginning of the paragraph.

Read the following paragraph and study the questions and answers given.

A sudden increase in robberies has hit Matugama. The robbers, who are mostly drug addicts, steal anything that can be converted into cash. Housing schemes are their biggest targets. Residents of Matugama are aware of this problem and are searching for methods of protection.

Questions and Answers:

1. What is this paragraph about?

It is about robberies.

2. Which sentence best expresses the main idea of the paragraph?

A sudden increase in robberies has hit Matugama.

3. Why is it called the main idea?

Because it is broad enough to summarize the essential parts of the paragraph and specific enough to exclude detailed information.

E.g.: b) Main idea expressed in the middle of the paragraph.

*How accurate are lie detectors? Can these machines detect when a person is lying? **A big debate has been going on recently about the accuracy of these machines.** Some researchers think that lie detector tests are unscientific and inaccurate. Others think that the tests are very reliable. Because up to a million persons take lie detector tests during job interviews, in police stations and in other places each year, the question of the accuracy of the lie detectors is very important.*

E.g.: c) Main idea expressed at the end of the paragraph

*He was called many things – a braggart, an outrageous buffoon, a genius, a fake and a born liar. He made and lost several fortunes in his lifetime. He was elected mayor of a large city and was a friend of Mark Twain, Abraham Lincoln and Queen Victoria of England. **He was Phineas Taylor Barnum, and many say he was the greatest showman ever lived.***

Steps for skimming

- i) Read the title.
- ii) Read the introduction or the first paragraph.
- iii) Read the first sentence of every paragraph.
- iv) Read any headings or sub headings.
- v) Notice any pictures, charts or graphs.
- vi) Notice any italicized or boldface words or phrases.
- vii) Read the summary or last paragraph.

2.6.3 Global / General meaning

Quick and efficient reading or scanning and skimming leads the reader towards the global / general meaning of the text.

2.6.4 Identifying the topic of a text

The subject of the text is called the topic. The topic is what the text is about. Usually the topic is stated in one word or in very few words.

E.g.: A knife should be selected to fulfill specific needs. The person who goes camping wants a small, keen blade for whittling; a slim, pointed blade for cleaning fish; a knife that can drill a hole to take his belt up a notch. Hunters want a blade large enough to dress and skin game while holding a keen edge.

In the above paragraph, the word knife and its synonym blade appears five times. However, this paragraph is not about knives in general. It is about selecting a knife. Therefore, the topic of this text is ‘Selecting a knife’.

2.6.5 Inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words (understanding the implied meaning)

Inferring is a reading skill in which we read between the lines and use our own knowledge of the world and our experiences to understand what is stated indirectly in a text. In case of making inferences, the following may help.

a) Making use of contextual clues

E.g.: *The East Japan Railway Company has banned the use of cellular phones on its commuter (i) **cloops**. Passengers have (ii) **drogged** about cellular phone users shouting loudly into their (iii) **soofs**, making the train rides noisy and unpleasant. The use of cellular phones has caused many other problems. For example, in the first six months of the year, there were 1140 (iv) **brocks** due to drivers using cellular phones. As a result of these, 9 people died and 1627 were (v) **srtugged**.*

b) Use of definitions

Difficult words are sometimes defined for the reader within punctuation marks like **dashes, commas** and **brackets**. Words like **or, refers to, is called**, and **meaning** are followed by the definition of the difficult word mentioned.

E.g.: A spreadsheet *refers to* a computer application which is developed for mathematical and financial calculations.

E.g.: *Nihal is affable, or easy to get on with.*

Sajith had the arduous – extremely difficult – task of completing the project with minimum resources.

Sushila was specializing in geriatrics (the study of diseases of the old).

Achini, I think you should stop wearing gaudy clothes to office; for example that dark blue and red blouse you wore yesterday and the dark pink skirt you wore last week.

(From the example given we can deduce that gaudy means bright and colourful.)

c) Own experience/ logical reasoning

The meaning of unfamiliar words can also be worked out sometimes by your own experience or by logical reasoning.

E.g.: *The use of air-conditioning alleviates the discomfort of a stifling, hot day.*

Your own experience tells you that you feel more comfortable in an air-conditioned room on a hot day. Therefore, alleviates means 'lessens'.

d) Understanding cause and effect

A cause makes something happen. An effect is what happens. Many ideas and events are connected in a cause and effect relationship.

E.g.: *Because we lingered too long at the restaurant we missed the beginning of the movie.*

The door was ajar, so the dog got out of the house.

Since the prices of essential items have skyrocketed many people have been deprived of a square meal.

e) Opposites /contrast

E.g.: *Even though I studied hard, I flunked the exam.*

My previous apartment was really small, but my present one is quite spacious.

My brother is very generous in spending money but my sister is quite tight-fisted.

The following example activity may help you to understand how inferring is done by using some of the aforesaid descriptions.

E.g.: Read the dialogue given below and answer the questions that follow. Give reasons for your answers.

Mother: *What's this in your school bag, Vipul?*

Vipul: *Er... what, Amma? Oh that. That's erm ... erm ... my report card.*

Mother: *Why didn't you tell me you've got your report card?*

Vipul: *I forgot, Amma.*

Mother: *So, Vipul, how did you do this time?*

Vipul: *Er.... Amma, I'm hungry. Can you give me something to eat?*

Mother: *Let's have a look at this interesting document, first.*

Vipul: *Okay. I'll just go and have a shower in the meantime.* (Runs out of the room.)

1. What were Vipul's marks like?
2. What kind of results did Vipul's mother expect?
3. Was Vipul really hungry?
4. What kind of person do you think Vipul's mother is?

You will find that none of your answers were based on facts explicitly stated in the text. You inferred the true situation involving Vipul and his report card by:

- looking at the available evidence and facts,
- using your own experience and knowledge,
- making intelligent guesses.

2.6.6 Distinguishing fact from opinion

A fact can be proven to be true objectively. It contains information about things that have happened in the past or are happening in the present.

E.g.: Sri Lanka is an island in the Indian Ocean.

An opinion expresses a personal belief or attitude.

E.g.: Sri Lanka is the most beautiful island in the world.

People will be holidaying on other planets in twenty years.

2.6.7 Understanding comparisons and contrast

When you compare two things, you show how they are alike.

E.g.: Both gorillas and chimpanzees live in the forests of tropical Africa.

In contrast,

E.g.: Nuwan is tall and lean but his brother is short and fat.

2.7 Tips for the Teachers

Any reading text is read for a specific purpose and the reading strategy depends on that particular purpose. However, it is necessary to encourage the students, especially in advanced level classes, to undertake extensive reading beyond the classroom texts.

The following table may help teachers to select the appropriate strategy to teach reading for the purpose at hand.

Table: Performance standards and corresponding appropriate strategies to teach reading.

	Performance standards	Strategies to be applied in teaching
1	Identifies specific information in simple texts used for day to day communication.	Scanning, inferring meaning in the vocabulary
2	Identifies specific information in comparatively complex and cognitively more demanding texts used for academic and professional purposes.	Scanning, inferring vocabulary
3	Understands the reference and referent in simple literary and non literary texts.	Inferring, discourse markers, cause and effect
4	Understands the reference and referent in comparatively advanced and cognitively more demanding literary and non literary texts.	Inferring vocabulary, inferring meaning in contexts, discourse markers, cause and effect
5	Finds the general idea in simple, literary and non-literary extracts.	Skimming, identifying the topic of the text, inferring, discourse markers, cause and effect, distinguishing fact from opinion, and how to compare and contrast
6	Finds the general idea in comparatively complex and cognitively more demanding literary and non-literary texts.	Skimming, identifying the topic of the text, inferring, discourse markers, cause and effect, identifying fact from opinion, how to compare and contrast
7	Understands the main points and supportive details in simple texts.	Skimming, identifying the topic of the text, inferring, discourse markers, cause and effect, distinguishing fact from opinion, and how to compare and contrast
8	Understands the main points and the supportive details of the comparatively complex and cognitively more demanding texts used in professional and academic purposes.	Skimming, identifying the topic of the text, inferring, discourse markers, cause and effect, distinguishing fact from opinion, and how to compare and contrast
9	Understands graphically stated information in charts and graphs.	Scanning, inferring
10	Understands minutes of a meeting.	Scanning and skimming
11	Understands and responds to a cover letter and a resume.	Scanning, skimming, discourse markers, cause and effect, distinguishing fact from opinion,

2.8 Assessment and Evaluation for Reading

Assessing the reading performance of the students depends on the text type used and the sub-skills the students use to exploit the text. Therefore, specific criteria cannot be introduced for assessing reading like other language skills. Anyhow, a variety of test types can be implemented to assess the reading proficiency of students. The following ideas will be helpful in preparing reading activities in order to assess the students' reading abilities.

- i) **Do-it- yourself questions** – Learners compose and answer their own questions.
- ii) **Provide a title** – Learners suggest a title if none was given originally; or an alternative, if there was.
- iii) **Summarize** – Learners select the best summary of the content out of three summaries given. This may also be done in the mother tongue.
- iv) **Continue** – The text is a story; learners suggest what might happen next.
- v) **Preface** – The text is a story; learners suggest what might have happened before.
- vi) **Gapped text** – Towards the end of the text, four or five gaps are left. They can only be filled in if the text has been understood. Note that this is different from the conventional cloze test (a text with regular gaps throughout) which tests grammatical and lexical accuracy and actually discourages purposeful, fluent reading.
- vii) **Mistakes in the text (editing)** – The text has, towards the end, occasional mistakes (wrong words; or intrusive ones; or omissions). Learners are told in advance how many mistakes to look for.
- viii) **Comparison** – There are two texts on a similar topic; learners note points of similarity or differences in content.
- ix) **Responding** – The text is a letter or a provocative article; learners discuss how they would respond or write an answer.
- x) **Re-presentation of content** – The text gives information or tells a story; learners re-present its content through a different graphic medium.

E.g.:

- a) a drawing that illustrates a text
- b) colouring
- c) marking a map

- d) lists of events or items described in the text
- e) diagram (such as a grid or flow chart) indicating relationships between items, characters or events.

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3. WRITING

3.1 Introduction

Writing is a productive skill which must be mastered by a learner in order to be proficient in a language. According to Palmer (1994), writing is a process that is recursive. It goes back and forth; the writer plans a little, puts words on paper, stops to plan what he wants to say next, goes back and changes a sentence, or changes his mind altogether. Therefore, writing is an active productive process which requires continuous conscious thinking and organizing. Teachers have a role to play at each step of this process from brainstorming to planning, outlining, drafting, writing and editing.

Effective writing needs attention to ensure a high degree of organization in the development of ideas and information, a high degree of accuracy so that there is no ambiguity of meaning, the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis, and a careful choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures in order to create a style which is appropriate to the subject matter and to the eventual audience (Hedge, 1998:5). In addition, writing requires meaningful punctuation, use of correct layout, (in writing letters etc.), correct spelling and the linking of ideas in sentences to develop them into meaningful texts. Writing consolidates the overall language proficiency of a learner.

3.2 Importance of Writing for A/L Students

The students in A/L classes need to be proficient in writing for three major reasons: first, the A/L students are required to be proficient in a number of sub-skills in writing in order to excel in their higher education. In a global setting, as students are more disposed to follow their higher studies in English both locally and internationally, learning to write well in English becomes a vital skill for them.

Secondly, when students enter the world of work, they are expected to engage in formal writing such as writing memos, notices, CVs, letters, minutes, reports, etc. in various official situations. Hence, preparing students to write accurately will enable them to perform well at work.

Finally, the ability to write well in English will help students to manifest their creativity in the written form. If they are good in writing, they can express their feelings and emotions

spontaneously through poems, short stories, other forms of creative expression and through personal correspondence as well.

3.3 ‘Can-do’ Statement and Performance Standards for Writing

The ‘can-do’ statement and the performance standards related to writing are self-assessment checklists that can be used by language learners in order to assess what they “can do” with different forms of writing.

Grade 12 & 13 students are expected to achieve certain skills in writing which they require to address their personal and academic needs and mastery of these skills will enable them to perform successfully in their future lives. Keeping this objective in mind, 10 performance standards have been identified based on the ‘can-do’ statement related to writing. At the end of the course it is expected that students will be able to engage in a variety of writing activities to meet personal, official and academic requirements. The process of mastering the performance standards has a direct link to the subject-related competencies of English and to our national goals.

3.3 Teaching Writing

Written communication, in particular, being able to write creatively and innovatively using a second language, is a skill that a learner masters over time through constant practice and supervision. Therefore, it is important to help students improve their writing as a continuous process. The teacher should act as a facilitator, guiding the students throughout the process and not just correcting the end product. Such a process will help students to develop an independent style of writing.

Meyers (2005), identifies six steps to make a good piece of writing. Teachers can make use of them to guide the students in the process of writing.

Steps for writing

i) Exploring ideas

Writing first involves discovering ideas. Before writing, one has to let the mind explore freely and then record these thoughts. As in speaking, you must have something to say, a reason for saying it, and someone to say it to. Keeping these in mind you can explore everything that comes into your mind.

ii) Pre-writing

The pre-writing stage can have different steps.

- a) *Brainstorming*: One way to capture our thoughts is by brainstorming, or listing thoughts as they come to us. We might brainstorm a second or third time to generate more ideas.
- b) *Clustering*: In clustering, write the subject in the middle of the page and then circle it. Then write related ideas around the circle as they occur to you. Circle the ideas and connect them to the subject circle. These related ideas are like branches.
- c) *Free Writing*: Another way to get started is free writing. Simply write about the subject without worrying about sentence structure, spelling, logic and grammar - writing as you would speak so that you can get ideas down fast.

iii) Organizing

After we have put ideas into words, we can begin to organize them. This process involves selecting, subtracting, and adding to the work. Think again about purpose and audience. Think about the goals we want to accomplish – to inform, persuade, or entertain and the points we want to make. Consider what we should tell the readers so that we can accomplish those goals.

Then we return to our pre-writing and do the following:

- a) Underline or highlight the best ideas in the brainstorming list, putting related ideas together. Add more ideas that occur and remove or ignore the parts that are not related to the original choice.

- b) Choose the part of the clustering diagram that has the best ideas. Do a second clustering diagram that explores those ideas in greater detail. Ignore the parts of the original diagram that are not related to our original choice.
- c) Circle or highlight the best parts of your free writing. Do a second or even a third free writing exercise while ignoring the parts of each free writing that are not related to the original choice. Focus specifically on the subject and add more details.
- d) After selecting, subtracting and adding, the writer can make an informal outline.

iv) Writing the first draft

After doing some pre-writing, selecting the best ideas, expanding on them, and arranging them in some reasonable order, one can begin the first draft of the paragraph. Don't worry about being perfect, and write fast as if you were speaking to your readers.

v) Revising the draft

Revising is one among the most important steps in writing, especially for students who write in a second language. Revising means improving what has already been written. When revising, examine how well the first draft makes its point and achieves its purpose for regarding the audience. Revising may require rearranging ideas, developing ideas further, removing ideas that do not support one's point, and changing the wording of the sentences.

vi) Producing the final copy

There are two steps in producing the final copy.

- a) *Editing*: After revising the paragraph, edit the work. Check it carefully. Focus on grammar, word choice, verb forms, punctuation, and spelling. Read the paper more than once. Copy it over or print it again with all the corrections.
- b) *Proof reading*: This is the final stage in the revision process. Read the draft carefully more than once to check that revisions and editorial changes were made correctly.

Teachers can make use of the above steps to guide the students in producing a good piece of writing.

Collaborative writing will also help the students to improve their writing. This is a process that produces a document by more than one writer. In collaborative writing, a single writer can write a document and get it reviewed by many peers before the final product is finished, or the writing and reviewing can be done by groups. In collaborative writing, the teacher also becomes a part of the writing process.

3.4 Tips for the Teachers

The following section discusses the different aspects of student performance in relation to writing. Teachers should pay attention to them when teaching to achieve each performance standard in the classroom.

- i) Student writes a description using ten simple sentences.**
- ii) Student writes a paragraph describing people, places, and events using compound sentences.**
- iii) Student writes paragraphs describing people, places and things using simple, compound and complex sentences.**

Writing descriptions requires paying close attention to details and describing a person, place or a thing in order to create a mental picture for the reader. Therefore, descriptive writing should contain the following characteristics:

- i) Good descriptive writing includes many vivid sensory details that paint a picture and appeals to the reader's senses of sight, hearing, touch, smell and taste when appropriate. Descriptive writing may also paint pictures of feelings invoked in the writer by the person, place or thing described.
- ii) Good descriptive writing uses precise language. Use specific adjectives and nouns and strong action verbs to give life to the picture being painted in the reader's mind.
- iii) Good descriptive writing is organized. Some ways to organize descriptive writing include: chronological (time), spatial (location), and order of importance. When describing a person, you might begin with a physical description, followed by how that person thinks, feels and acts.

- iv) In paragraph writing, ideas should be put together to form complete paragraphs. They should be organized and arranged in such a way that the paragraph is coherent. Appropriate linking words such as: however, in addition, moreover etc. should be used.
- v) To achieve unity in paragraphs, they should have a topic sentence, that is, a sentence which expresses the main idea of each paragraph, particularly in expository writing. The topic sentence usually comes at the beginning of the paragraph as a clear introductory statement of the new aspect of the subject about to be discussed.
- vi) The topic sentence is the most general sentence of the paragraph and it contains the main idea. It should be broad enough to summarize all the important parts of the paragraph and specific enough to exclude detailed information.
- vii) The topic sentence does not always come at the beginning of the paragraph. It sometimes comes in the middle or end of the paragraph. In descriptive and narrative paragraphs, the topic sentence is often implied rather than clearly stated. For example, a writer may include a number of details about wind, cold, bare trees etc. to give an impression of bleakness without explicitly stating: “It was a bleak day.”
- viii) The sentences in a paragraph, in addition to being relevant to a single topic sentence or idea, must be clearly related to each other. The clear connection between sentences comes first from arranging the sentences in a logical sequence. This is particularly important in narrative writing. A second way of achieving coherence is using effective and appropriate transitions. In addition to arranging ideas in a paragraph in a logical sequence, it is important to make the connections between statements clear to the reader. The most common ways of establishing connections between sentences in a paragraph are:
- Using discourse markers such as therefore, in addition, on the other hand etc.
 - Using a clear pronoun reference to a word or idea in the preceding sentence.
 - Using coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

ix) Paragraphs, like the sentences which compose them, should also be arranged in a logical sequence. Common ways of achieving connection between paragraphs are:

- Concluding a paragraph with a sentence which introduces the next phase of action: E.g. Finally the police arrived on the scene.
- Using in the first sentence of the paragraph a connective such as furthermore, as a result, in addition, on the contrary.
- Beginning a paragraph which refers clearly to a statement at the end of the previous paragraph: E.g.:
 - The second problem in our schools is overcrowded classrooms. (The first problem has been discussed in the previous paragraph.)
 - Pedestrians as well as motorists would benefit by this change in traffic plan. (The change has been stated in the previous paragraph.)
- Good transitions between paragraphs are an essential part of a good composition. They keep the organization of the essay clear, giving the reader a sense of continuity and progress from the beginning to the end of the composition.
- The primary purpose of the first paragraph in a composition is to introduce the subject and to interest the reader in it.
- Good beginning paragraphs are direct, to the point and interesting. An emphatic statement of an opinion, a clear definition of the topic to be discussed, an apt quotation etc. make effective beginnings because they rouse curiosity or interest.
- A common type of conclusion of a composition is a summary briefly reviewing the main points covered in the essay. Conclusion also can be a call for action/prediction/ question or quotation that illustrates the writer's point.

iv) Student writes short texts using simple sentences related to day-to-day events.

The focus is on helping students master the ability to write notes, postcards, e-mails and short letters that can be exchanged among peers or with teachers and parents if necessary. As these texts are not very lengthy, the message should be written directly to the point and should start with the reason for writing. In other words, 'why' you are writing the particular text should be clearly explained to the recipient. 'What action is required' by the recipient is also to be stated before ending the text.

Usually students are not expected to write long sentences in short texts. Therefore, the students can use the simple and compound sentences that they have already learnt.

v) Student writes for personal purposes using appropriate register and style.

A personal letter or an e-mail is a piece of writing exchanged between two individuals who are known to each other.

It differs from formal writing as the writer is free to express personal feelings and experiences and the use of language is not formal and concise. Usually informal writing is characterized by a personal tone. The writer is free to use first person pronouns and can address the recipient using second person pronouns.

In addition, in personal writing, no rigid formats are followed in structuring the letter or e-mail. Words are likely to be simplified using contractions (E.g.: I'm, doesn't, couldn't, it's) and abbreviations (E.g.: TV, photos) whenever possible.

vi) Student writes for official purposes and responds to written official communication maintaining appropriate register, style and age-appropriate vocabulary.

The major difference between informal and formal writing is the audience, or the person or persons, who will be reading the particular piece of writing.

The following features can be identified in formal writing in comparison to personal writing:

- a) Complex: Longer sentences are likely to be more prevalent in formal writing. You need to be as thorough as possible with your approach to each topic when you are

using a formal style. Each main point needs to be introduced, elaborated and concluded.

- b) *Objective*: State main points confidently and offer full supportive arguments. A formal writing style shows a limited range of emotions and avoids emotive punctuation such as exclamation points, ellipsis, etc., unless they are being cited from another source.
- c) *Full words*: No contractions should be used to simplify words (in other words use "It is" rather than "It's"). Abbreviations must be spelt out in full when first used, the only exceptions being when the acronym is better known than the full name (BBC, ITV or NATO for example).
- d) *Third Person*: Formal writing is not personal writing. The formal writer is disconnected from the topic and does not use the first person point of view (I or we) or the second person (you).

Apart from business letters, e-mails are widely used for business communication today. Emails, like traditional business letters, need to be clear and concise. It is necessary to keep the sentences short and to the point. The body of the email should be direct and informative, and it should contain all important information.

vii) Student writes for academic purposes maintaining accuracy in grammar and using age appropriate academic vocabulary.

Academic writing tends to be precise, guarded, and lengthy. It is a style of writing which most students come across in their higher studies. Academic writers attempt to ensure that their analysis does not contain inaccurate information or omissions - essential points are usually clearly justified. This is a way of ensuring that the writer is saying exactly what he/she means - even if this means creating a lengthy piece in the process. It helps to ensure that the essential points of the text are interpreted correctly. Such texts are usually written in a clear and logical way.

Academic texts will contain references and quotes from others' work and a reference list or bibliography. This shows that the author is writing on sound foundations and has taken into account, or at least read, what others have also explored and discussed. For instance, consider writing reports:

Writing reports: A report is a systematic, well organized document which defines and analyses a subject or problem. It may include:

- the record of a sequence of events
- interpretation of the significance of these events or facts
- evaluation of the facts or results of research presented
- discussion of the outcomes of a decision or course of action
- conclusions
- recommendations

Reports must always be accurate, concise, clear and well structured

viii) Student writes about graphically stated information using grade appropriate vocabulary.

In many subject areas you may need to refer to numbers, statistics and other data during the course of your studies. Data is generally presented in the form of tables, charts and graphs, which makes it easier for readers to understand. However, it is often necessary to reproduce and refer to this type of information in words, as part of a report or written assignment. If a graph, chart or table is included in the writing, it must be explained very clearly what the data in it means, and why it is relevant to the report or assignment.

ix) Student produces short pieces of creative writing while maintaining accuracy in grammar and age appropriate vocabulary.

Creative writing is a means of expressing thoughts, feelings and emotions rather than simply conveying information. Students are expected to write simple poems using common literary devices such as similes, repetitions and rhyming words.

In addition to that, they are expected to create short stories with interesting plot developments. Plot is known as the foundation of a novel or story which the characters and settings are built around. It is meant to organize information and events in a logical manner.

There are five main elements in a plot. The first is the exposition or the introduction. This is known as the beginning of the story where characters and setting are established. The conflict or main problem is introduced as well.

The second element of a plot is known as the rising action which occurs when a series of events build up to the conflict. The main characters are established by the time the rising action of a plot occurs and at the same time, events begin to get complicated. It is during this part of a story that excitement, tension or crisis is encountered.

The third element of a plot is known as the climax or the main point of the plot. This is the turning point of the story and is meant to be the moment of highest interest and emotion. The reader wonders what is going to happen next.

The fourth element of a plot is known as falling action or the winding up of the story. Events and complications begin to resolve and the result of actions of the main characters are put forward.

The last element of a plot is the resolution or the conclusion. It is the end of the story and ends with either a happy or a tragic ending.

x) Student summarizes short texts on familiar subjects while maintaining accuracy in grammar and using the required number of words.

A good summary indicates understanding of a particular text. Writing summaries can be quite confusing because the student is faced with the selection of the right number of words to express what is said in a lengthy text.

The following are some easy steps that will help learners in mastering summary writing.

a) *Divide*: First, skim the text to be summarized and divide it into sections. Focus on any headings and subheadings.

b) Read: Now that you have prepared, read the selection. Read straight through. At this point, you don't need to stop to look up anything that gives you trouble. Try to get a feel for the author's tone, style, and main idea.

c) Re-read: Re-reading should be active reading. Underline topic sentences and key facts. Label areas that you want to refer to as you write your summary. Also, label areas that should be avoided because the details - though they may be interesting - are too specific. Identify areas that you do not understand and try to clarify those points.

d) One sentence at a time: You should now have a firm grasp on the text you will be summarizing. In steps 1–3, the piece was divided into sections and the author's main ideas and points were located. Now write down the main idea of each section in one well-developed sentence. Make sure that key points, not minor details, are included in the sentence.

e) Write a thesis statement: This is the key to any well-written summary. Review the sentences in step d. From them, create a thesis statement that clearly communicates what the entire text was trying to achieve. If you find that you are not able to do this step, then you should go back and make sure the sentences actually addressed key points.

f) Ready to write: At this point, the first draft is virtually done. Use the thesis statement as the introductory sentence of the summary, and the other sentences can make up the body. Make sure that they are in order. Add some transition words (then, however, also, moreover) that help with the overall structure and flow of the summary. And once you are actually putting pen to paper (or fingers to keys!), remember these tips:

- Write in the present tense.
- Be concise: a summary should not be equal in length to the original text.
- Do not put your own opinions, ideas, or interpretations into the summary. The purpose of writing a summary is to accurately represent what the author wanted to say, not to provide a critique.

g) *Check for accuracy*: Reread the summary and make certain that it accurately represents the author's ideas and key points. Make sure that anything directly quoted from the text is correctly cited. Also, check to make sure that the text does not contain your own commentary on the piece.

h) *Revise*: Once you are certain that the summary is accurate, it should (as with any piece of writing) be revised for style, grammar, and punctuation. If you have time, give the summary to someone else to read. This person should be able to understand the main text based on the summary alone. If he or she cannot understand, the summary may have focused too much on one area of the piece and not enough on the author's main idea.

In the teaching and learning process of writing, the teacher has an important role. John (1997) states,

the teacher's role is to help students develop viable strategies for getting started (finding topics, generating ideas and information, focusing and planning, structure and procedure), for drafting, (encouraging multiple drafts of reading), for revising (adding, deleting, modifying and rearranging ideas), and for editing (attending to vocabulary, sentence, structure, grammar, and mechanics) (1997:12).

3.5 Assessment and Evaluation of Writing

Since writing is one of the major components tested at national examinations, it is strongly recommended that the teacher maintains a good balance between formative and summative assessment procedures.

Just as the teacher's first responsibility is to provide opportunities for writing and encouragement for students who attempt to write, a teacher should also promote students' success in writing after carefully assessing their written work. The teacher can do this by carefully monitoring students' writing to assess strengths and weaknesses, teaching specific skills and strategies for writing in response to student needs, and giving careful feedback that will reinforce newly learned skills and correct recurring problems.

3.5.1. Assessing the *process* of writing

In order to determine the reasons for writing problems (diagnostic purposes), it is good to assess the process of writing, i.e., the steps students go through and strategies they use as they work at writing. Here, the teacher can consider the following;

- i) How much planning does the student do before he/she writes?
- ii) Does he/she have a strategy for organizing ideas?
- iii) What seem to be the obstacles to getting their thoughts down on paper?
- iv) How does the student attempt to spell words he/she does not know?
- v) Does the student re-read what he/she has written?
- vi) What kind of changes does the student make to his/her first draft?

Having students themselves assess their own writing process is also important as self-assessment allows students an opportunity to observe and reflect on their own approach. It will also help to draw attention to important steps that they might have overlooked.

3.5.2 Assessing the writing *product*

A balanced assessment usually looks at many aspects of a student's final writing as product. They are discussed below.

i) Fluency

The first writing skill a teacher might assess with a writer is fluency: being able to translate one's thoughts into written words, (E.g.: Chenoweth & Hayes, Hatasa & Soeda, 2000) measuring writing fluency in terms of the composing rate, i.e. the number of words written per minute obtained through dividing the text quantity by the time spent writing. When fluency is the focus, misspellings, poor word choice, and faulty punctuation may not be considered.

ii) Content

Content is the second factor to consider in the written product. Content features include the composition's organization, cohesion, accuracy (in expository writing), and originality (in creative writing).

a) General questions the teacher can ask regarding a composition's organization include:

- Is there a good beginning sentence?
- Is there a clear ending?
- Is there a logical sequence of sub-topics or events?

b) Cohesion questions include:

- Does the writer stick to the topic?
- Is it clear what words like 'it', 'that', and 'they' refer to?
- Does the writer use key words that cue the reader to the direction of the discourse (E.g.: First, Then, Therefore, On the other hand, etc.)?

c) Originality is assessed through questions like:

- Did the writer present a unique point of view?
- Did the writer attempt humour?

iii) Conventions

In order to fulfill the communicative function of writing, the product must follow the standard conventions of written English: correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and grammar and legible handwriting.

iv) Syntax

This can be judged by the student's ability to produce,

- a) variations in the use of sentence patterns,
- b) use of compound sentences
- c) use of complex sentences.

v) Vocabulary

The writing product can be evaluated based on the range of vocabulary used in the composition to express one's ideas.

It is important that teachers assess all the aforesaid aspects in students' writing.

3.5.3 Criteria for marking written composition:

- i) Relevance of content to topic
- ii) Originality of ideas
- iii) Accuracy in grammar
- iv) Variety and complexity of sentences
- v) Range of vocabulary – appropriateness
- vi) Organization – cohesion & coherence
- vii) Spelling, punctuation, handwriting, layout, length

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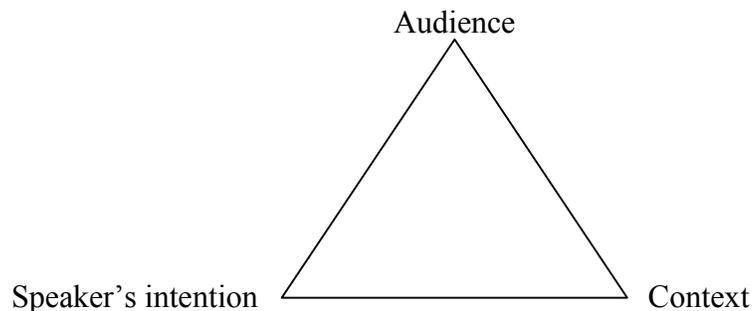
4. SPEAKING

4.1 Introduction

Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997) and it involves a speaker and audience of one or more.

Another important feature of speaking is the purpose. Halliday (1970) condenses purpose to seven basic functions: i) the instrumental function ii) the regulatory function iii) the interactional function, iv) the personal function, v) the heuristic function, vi) the imaginative function and vii) the representative function that are common to any language. Thorne (1997) also speaks about purposes of speaking in terms of a) referential purpose, in lecturing for instance, and b) phatic purpose where speakers get involved in informal conversations and c) expressive purpose where speakers intent to reveal his /her taste, attitude, interests, etc.

The nature of speaking as a skill can be graphically presented as follows:



These three elements determine the speaker's linguistic choice (the nature of language that the speaker uses in communication) and the prosodic choice (the use of stress, intonation, etc.).

Throne (1977) suggests four questions that one can use to analyze any spoken discourse into the interpersonal and presentation modes of communicative activities put forth in the 'can-do' statements protocol.

- 1) Who are the participants and what are their roles?

- 2) Do they have equal status?
- 3) What is the purpose of the exchange?
- 4) How is the discourse affected by the context?

4.2 Importance of Speaking for G.C.E. (A/L) Students

The students at the G.C.E. (A/L) have passed the G.C.E (O/L) examination and are generally focused on their future endeavours. They are aware that based upon their performance at the G.C.E. (A/L), some will get in to universities while others will likely follow avenues in the local and /or foreign professions. Therefore, it is most likely that students in the G.C.E. (A/L) class will feel the need to know English more than those who were at the G.C.E. (O/L). Thus, one would expect the students at the G.C.E. (A/L) to be more motivated to learn English. However, in reality this is often not the case. Due to the highly competitive nature of the G.C.E. (A/L) examination, students tend to focus only, or mostly, on the main subjects. Therefore, teaching English at the G.C.E. (A/L) becomes very challenging. The English language curriculum at this level needs to aim at equipping the learners with the skills required both for their present and future.

Despite having learned English from grade 3 onwards, an ordinary student in the G.C.E. (A/L) class, like a student in a lower grade, may not be proficient in speaking English. This is mainly due to the non-existence of testing for the speaking skill. Therefore, the ability to speak English, among G.C.E. (A/L) students may vary across the country. The range of proficiency may vary from those who are fluent in English to those are unable to speak a single word in English. Unfortunately, the latter are the majority and it is for them that the ‘can-do statements’ are most appropriate.

Therefore, the G.C.E. (A/L) English course is designed to achieve the following in relation to speech:

- 1) It is expected that the students who are unable to speak a word in English will be able to introduce themselves by name at the least. The course material will help students to develop this basic speaking skill by adding information related to their age, place of residence and details about their families. Teaching speech needs to commence with such basics. Therefore, it is important that the teacher develop a healthy rapport between

himself/herself and the students so that students will feel comfortable in using English in the spoken form even with mistakes and errors.

- 2) The teaching of speech has to build on the aforementioned basics and develop the communicative skills required for future academic and employment purposes. At the same time, it is important to incorporate skills /tasks that teach students the social and cultural rules appropriate in each communicative function.
- 3) Teaching the speaking skill involves teaching correct pronunciation. Even though it is hard to define a “standard pronunciation” as such, teachers need to emphasize correctness in pronunciation, especially with regard to certain sounds that are absent in students’ mother tongues. Also features such as the absence of the /s/ sound at the beginning of a word; the difference between /s/ and /z/; /p/ and /f/ difference, etc. should be made very clear when teaching speech. If students are already making major mistakes in pronouncing the aforesaid sounds, due to fossilization as a result of wrong input at the initial English language learning stages, teachers need to make a special effort to correct them.

E.g.: School - /s/ some tend to pronounce as /is/

Father - /f/ wrongly pronounced with /p/ sound

In order to develop speaking ability, teachers are expected to make use of the listening skill. The active, productive skill of speaking is developed on the basis of the passive, receptive listening skill. Therefore, it is important to include more listening tasks with a variety of speakers in different situations with different accents (both local and foreign). Recorded material will be required for such tasks.

- 4) Speaking is communication. Therefore, to teach speaking in English, approaches and methods such as Communicative Approach and Collaborative/Cooperative Language Learning are best suited. Therefore, teachers should be ready with activities that are related to real life situations so that the aforesaid methods and approaches can be used as the teaching methodologies to teach speaking.

Teachers are expected to create a classroom setting / environment that supports communicative tasks so that activities that involve speaking in groups, pairs, etc. can be made use of.

- 5) Making use of technology whenever possible will be an asset in teaching speech. Herein, designing / planning tasks where students can record their own speech and listen to it will make them excited about learning to speak in English. Teachers need to make use of such facilities if available.

Communication with a fluent speaker of English is very important in learning to speak. The only potential speaker (of English) students come across may be the teacher herself / himself in some cases. Therefore, teachers are expected to constantly work on improving their English speaking skills and are expected to use English as the classroom language without using students' mother tongues.

At the same time, it is the teacher's responsibility to create awareness among students of the importance of self-learning, commitment and personal effort if they want to become fluent speakers of English.

To know a language in its primary sense means to be able to speak it. The ability to speak in English can directly contribute to students' academic achievements and future career goals. Therefore, it is essential that teachers of English language are aware of the importance of teaching speaking skills. It is the responsibility of the teacher to understand the points that have been elaborated above and implement them in teaching speaking skills.

4.3 Can-do Statements and Performance Standards for Speaking

Performance standards are bench marks for the desired proficiency levels that students are expected to reach. Student's personal, professional and academic needs are the basis for deciding the performance standards at G.C. E. (A/L) for speaking in English. 'Can-do statement' checklists to be used by language learners to assess what they "can do" with the English language in their a) interpersonal, b) interpretive, and c) presentational modes of communication have been considered in designing the curriculum for teaching speaking skills. 'Can-do statements' are explained in terms of specific levels ranging from *novice low* to *distinguished*.

Each level is further described with specific standards. (See NCSSL-ACTFL ‘Can-do statements’.)

These benchmarks, though primarily meant for self-assessment purposes, can be exploited in teaching speech. Thus, the *Can-do Statements* serve two purposes, to: a) help learners identify what they need to do to function at a specific level of proficiency (as performance indicators); b) help educators plan curriculum, units of instruction, and daily lessons to help learners improve their performance and reach a targeted level of proficiency (NCSSFL-ACTFL ‘Can-do Statements’).

Teachers, therefore, can make use of ‘Can-do Statements’ in all aspects of the learning / teaching process in teaching speaking skills: lesson planning, designing and implementing tasks and assessing the learner in formative and summative assessments. At the same time, teachers can help students understand how to use ‘Can-do Statements’ to self-assess their own performance in regard to speaking skills.

4.4 Teaching Speaking

The ultimate goal of teaching speech is to develop the learner’s communicative competence. To this end, the following should be considered.

- i) Speaking activities should create a need / purpose to communicate. Then the students will have sufficient motivation to communicate. Therefore, activities should be based on the principle of an information gap.
 - A: has information
 - B: does not have the information
 - A: has to fill the gap
- ii) Students should be made aware of the communicative value of what they are learning as speech.
- iii) Elicit the pragmatic value of utterances and extended chunks of speech. This is because speech does not start or stop at the sentence level. Teachers should be aware of speaking as a communication mode in which language operates at discourse level.

- iv) Language used for communication is interaction based. Therefore, the speech activities should be interaction based.
- v) Language should be used for communication and not to practice structures.
- vi) Students should be made aware that language works in a context; who the speakers are, their relationship, what they are trying to do, where they are, and what has been already said must be taken into account.

Meaning of a sentence / utterance changes according to the context in which it is said.

4.5 The Importance of Teaching Speaking Skills in English

- i) The primary mode of communication in any language is through speech.
- ii) People are judged by their speech in society and this is even more prevalent in Sri Lanka in relation to English.
- iii) Speech is the foundation for other skills.
- iv) Speech is the vehicle through which people achieve social ranking, status, professional advancement, etc. in the Sri Lankan society.
- v) The ability to speak well in English helps a person to obtain employment.
- vi) Teaching speech in English means preparing students for the world of work.

4.6 Sub-Skills Needed for Speaking English

- i) **Pronunciation:** Use of acceptable Sri Lankan pronunciation with appropriate intonation
- ii) **Appropriateness:** Use of language that is appropriate to the context (physical setting, role and status of participants, linguistic context, etc.)
- iii) **Features of spontaneous speech:** Use of fillers, hesitation markers, contracted forms, etc.
- iv) **Fluency:** Express oneself intelligibly and without undue hesitation
- v) **Intelligibility:** Express oneself clearly and coherently
- vi) **Follow rules for conversation:** initiate a discussion / dialogue, ending, turn-taking, interrupting politely, etc.
- vii) Cope with unpredictable data:

4.7 General Guidelines for a Speech Lesson

Stage 1: Preparatory stage

Objectives:

- i) To involve the students in the lesson by creating a need to communicate,
- ii) To provide background to the activity and help students relate it to their own experience,
- iii) To help students realize the relevance and the usefulness of the new language item/s they are going to learn and why they need to learn,

Features:

- i) Enrich the learners with input necessary to express himself / herself and respond to others.
- ii) No output is possible or required at this stage.
- iii) Tasks and activities should be organized in order for the students to have input for speaking (for the task ahead).

Stage 2: Presentation stage

Objectives:

- i) To establish the meaning of the language item/s (to be taught) in context,
- ii) To demonstrate to students how to use the new language item/s appropriately.

Features:

- i) Teachers can have students listen to dialogues, conversations and debates and have follow-up discussions based on them.
- ii) Teachers can highlight the features of a speech activity. For instance, expressions, new words and sentence patterns recurrently used in speeches can be highlighted.
- iii) Teachers can organize reading sessions and listening sessions prior to the speaking activity as supporting tasks for the activity.
- iv) Repetition of the dialogues, speeches, etc. (that are presented) may be required at this stage so that students will understand how the speaker narrates, describes, explains or illustrate his/her points.

Stage 3: Practice stage

Objectives:

- i) To give opportunities for students to use the newly-presented language in controlled situations,
- ii) To give confidence to students to use the newly-learned language item/s.

Features:

- i) This is the stage where a teacher engages students actively in tasks.
- ii) Each task should carry clear and specific instructions.
- iii) Each participant in an interactive activity should be assigned a role to play.
- iv) Teacher should monitor the students and give corrective feedback where necessary.

Stage 4: Production stage

Objectives:

- i) To provide students with more opportunities to use the new language item/s confidently and accurately,
- ii) To evaluate the degree of student learning of language item/s (This is not a formal assessment).

Features:

- i) Students are given an opportunity to apply input (linguistic and prosodic features) gained at the practice stage to identical or similar situations.
- ii) Teachers should suggest / recommend situations for students to apply the practiced language item/s, functions, etc.
- iii) Feedback and corrective suggestions can be given generally and without pointing to individual students.

4.8 Assessing Speech – General Guidelines

In assessing oral skills, it is advisable to follow a descriptive scale since there is a lot of subjectivity involved. What follows in this section is a general guideline to assess the speaking skill. At the end of this section, a number of speech assessment rubrics are given for teachers to follow depending on the speech tested.

Generally, teachers should look at the category to which the students fall into with regard to the following. The teacher can assess student performance on the listed aspects (below) using a general guide: (*Guide: Excellent, Good, Fair, Weak*)

i) Fluency and coherence

- a) The ability to speak without pausing or hesitating
- b) The ability to express ideas using connective devices

ii) Vocabulary

- a) The ability to use a good range of appropriate words / phrases on different topics in a variety of situations

iii) Accuracy

- a) The ability to use grammar appropriately and accurately

iv) Pronunciation

- a) The ability to speak with correct pronunciation (as stated elsewhere, especially on particular sounds that are absent in students' mother tongues) using some variety of accepted Sri Lankan English

4.9 Tips for the Teachers

4.9.1 Teachers should make students aware of:

- i) their purpose for speaking. These purposes fulfill the different functions that Halliday (1970) explains under his seven language functions (See Introduction to speaking.)
- ii) the nature of audience with whom they going to interact. The relationship of the speaker with audience and their relative status; the educational, social or economic status of the participants.
- iii) the context in which the interaction takes place. This signals the speaker how to decide on the time and length of speech in the case of presentational mode.
- iv) the manner of speaking. In other words, it is important to know the tone that should be maintained – whether the tone should be formal or informal. This depends on the people involved in the conversation.

The awareness of the aforementioned aspects is helpful for a teacher to set tasks for the learner to engage in speaking and to decide on the linguistic features to be used (language functions, sentence patterns and vocabulary) and prosodic features required (stress and intonation patterns).

4.9.2 Teachers should remember;

- i) that speaking cannot be taught in isolation. Therefore, it is important to integrate it with other language skills,
- ii) to study well the language functions that are incorporated into the lessons and the activities suggested in the learners' textbooks before they teach them to the students,
- iii) to study and be aware of other situations where the suggested language functions can be incorporated,
- iv) to be well aware of the proficiency levels of the students in relation to speaking skills,
- v) to anticipate challenges that students may face in performing the task/tasks set,
- vi) to design activities facilitating input for the student in performing the tasks that they are going to do,
- vii) to have an information gap, choice and feedback in all speaking activities,
- viii) to know all of the grammar points incorporated in to the speaking activity,
- ix) to adapt the activities suggested in the textbook to suit the students' age, interests, environment, and proficiency level,
- x) to design activities close to students' real life experiences, if given the chance to design them,
- xi) to do tactful corrections without inhibiting students,
- xii) not to be overambitious in expectations regarding student performance.

4.9.3 Guiding students in speech

- i) Teacher should give clear instructions.
- ii) It is important to develop confidence in students to speak by creating a stress-free environment in the classroom.
- iii) Students should be given opportunities to work in pairs and groups rather than individually

4.9.4 Useful activities to develop speaking skills

- i) Simulation
- ii) Role play
- iii) Decision making activities
- iv) Discussion
- v) Impromptu speech
- vi) Split dialogues
- vii) Topic talks
- viii) Guided dialogues

Some more example activities in context:

To teach the presentational mode of speech, activities such as following are useful.

Narrating an event; describing people, things and events; giving instructions; making demonstrations; making presentations; information transfer activities; reasoning gap activities.

To teach the interpersonal mode of speech, the following will be useful:

Role play activities, simulation activities, improvisations, scenarios, information gap activities, jig-saw puzzle activities, task completion activities, information gathering activities, opinion sharing activities.

4.9.5 An example assessment rubric for a presentational mode speaking task:

Criteria that can be used in assessing a presentational speaking activity:

- | | |
|-------------------------|--|
| Accuracy: | Is pronunciation intelligible to the listener?
Are grammatical errors evident and if so to what extent?
Are lexical errors evident and if so to what extent? |
| Appropriateness: | Is the language used appropriate to the function and to the context?
Is the intention of the speaker clear? |
| Fluency: | Is message communicated accurately?
Is the message well communicated?
Are there long pauses, hesitant markers or gaps evident and to what extent? |
| Content: | Does the delivery include sufficient facts and to what degree? |

Are the facts presented correct, correctly cited and up-to-date?

Organization: Is there a logical progression in the speech?

4.9.6 An example assessment rubric for an interpersonal mode speaking task:

Usually, interpersonal communication activities involve more than one speaker.

E.g.: A role play is an interpersonal activity where both the participants speak and respond to each other while taking turns to do so.

Given below is a guide to assess an interpersonal speaking task.

Task Description:					
Criteria	weight	Exceptional	Admirable	Acceptable	Attempted
Understanding of Topic	40%	<input type="checkbox"/> Factual information is accurate <input type="checkbox"/> Indicates a clear understanding of topic	<input type="checkbox"/> Factual information is mostly accurate <input type="checkbox"/> Good understanding of topic	<input type="checkbox"/> Factual information is somewhat accurate <input type="checkbox"/> Fair understanding of topic	<input type="checkbox"/> Information is inaccurate <input type="checkbox"/> Presentation is off topic
Cooperation	30%	<input type="checkbox"/> Accepts ideas of others; able to compromise <input type="checkbox"/> All members contribute	<input type="checkbox"/> Accepts most ideas without negative comments; able to compromise <input type="checkbox"/> Some members contribute	<input type="checkbox"/> Unwilling to compromise <input type="checkbox"/> Few members contribute	<input type="checkbox"/> Group does not work together <input type="checkbox"/> One person does all the work
Presentation	30%	<input type="checkbox"/> Shows confidence <input type="checkbox"/> Informative <input type="checkbox"/> Entertaining; engages audience <input type="checkbox"/> Speaks loudly and clearly <input type="checkbox"/> Appropriate use of body language	<input type="checkbox"/> Shows some confidence <input type="checkbox"/> Presents some information <input type="checkbox"/> Engages audience <input type="checkbox"/> Can be heard <input type="checkbox"/> Some use of body language	<input type="checkbox"/> Unsure of responsibility <input type="checkbox"/> Somewhat informative <input type="checkbox"/> Engages audience intermittently <input type="checkbox"/> Hard to hear <input type="checkbox"/> Some movement	<input type="checkbox"/> Portrayal stalls <input type="checkbox"/> Lacks information <input type="checkbox"/> Audience bored <input type="checkbox"/> Mumbles <input type="checkbox"/> Body language is lacking; inappropriate

(Sources Texas Education Agency-2006)

4.9.7 The nine point band scale given by Carroll (1980) can be used as a guideline to establish uniformity in assessing oral skills.

Band

9	Expert user. Communicates with authority, accuracy, and style. Completely at home in idiomatic and specialist English
8	Very good user. Presentation of subject clear and logical with fair style and appreciation of attitudinal markers. Often approaching bilingual competence.
7	Good user. Would cope in most situations in English
6	Competent user. Although coping well with most situations he is likely to meet, is somewhat deficient in fluency and accuracy and will have occasional misunderstandings or significant errors.
5	Modest user. Although he manages in general to communicate, often uses inaccurate or inappropriate language.
4	Marginal user. Lacking in style, fluency and accuracy, is not easy to communicate with, accent and usage cause misunderstandings. Generally can get by without serious breakdowns.
3	Extremely limited user. Does not have a working knowledge of the language for day to day purposes, but better than an absolute beginner. Neither productive nor receptive skills allow continuous communication.
2	Intermittent user. Performance will be below the level of a working day to day knowledge of the language. Communication occurs only sporadically.
1/0	Non – user. May not even recognize with certainty which language is being used.

4.9.8 Another descriptive interview assessment scale

Band

9	Expert speaker. Speaks with authority on a variety of topics. Can initiate, expand and develop- a theme.
8	Very good non-native speaker. Maintains effectively his own part of a discussion. Initiates, maintains and elaborates as necessary. Reveals humour where needed and respond to attitudinal tones.
7	Good speaker. Presents case clearly and logically and can develop the dialogue coherently and constructively. Rather less flexible and fluent than Band 8 performer but can respond to main changes of tone or topic. Some hesitation and repetition due to a measure of language restriction but interacts effectively.
6	Competent speaker. Is able to maintain theme of dialogue, to follow topic switchers and to use and appreciate main attitude markers. Stumbles and hesitates at times but is reasonably fluent otherwise. Some errors and inappropriate language, but these will not impede exchange of views. Shows some independence with ability to initiate.
5	Modest speaker. Although gist of dialogue is relevant and can be basically understood, there are noticeable deficiencies in mastery of language patterns and style. Needs to ask for repetition or clarification and similarly to be asked for them. Lacks flexibility and initiative. The interviewer often has to speak rather deliberately. Copes but not with great style or interest.
4	Marginal speaker. Can maintain dialogue, but in a rather passive manner, rarely taking initiative or guiding the discussion. Has difficulty in following English at normal speed; lacks fluency and probably accuracy in speaking. The dialogue is therefore neither easy nor flowing. Nevertheless, gives the impression that he is in touch with the gist of the dialogue even if not wholly master of it. Marked L1 accent.
3	Extremely limited speaker. Dialogue is a drawn- out affair punctuated with hesitations and misunderstandings. Only catches part of normal speech and unable to produce continuous and accurate discourse. Basic merit is just hanging on to discussion gist, without making major contribution to it.
2	Intermittent speaker. No working facility; occasional, sporadic communication.
1/0	Non – speaker. Not able to understand and/ or speak.

Teachers are expected to use these guidelines as appropriate to the speech to assess and train students to engage in communication.

Further, the schools can start assessing oral skills at the term end examinations based on the guidelines issued by the Ministry of Education from 2015 onwards.

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Grammar

A reference section for the teachers

adjectives.

E.g.: *able* - *comfortable*
ful - *playful*
ish - *boyish*
ous - *dangerous*
al - *seasonal*
fic - *scientific*
less - *careless*

Many common adjectives, however, have no such identifying form.

E.g.: *good, hot, little, young, fat etc.*

1) Characteristics

Four features are commonly considered to be characteristics of adjectives.

- 1) They can freely occur in **attributive** function. (They pre-modify nouns.)

They are used before a noun, appearing between the determiner and the noun. (Head of the Noun Phrase)

E.g.: The *main* argument

A *beautiful* garden

A *pretty* child

- 2) They can freely occur in **predicative** function. (They can function as subject complement or object complement.)

E.g.: Your friend is *pretty*. [Subject complement]

The farmers in our village are *happy*. [Subject complement]

The teacher made the children *happy*. [Object complement]

- 3) They can be pre-modified by the intensifier 'very'.

E.g.: The film was **very** *nice*.

Your friend is **very** helpful.

- 4) They can take **comparative and superlative** forms.

E.g.: The film was *nicer* than we thought.
 The paper will be *easier* than the previous one.
 The students are *more intelligent* than I thought.
 They are the *cleverest* of all.

2) Central and Peripheral Adjectives

All words traditionally regarded as adjectives do not possess all these features. Some adjectives can be used only in the predicative position.

E.g.: afloat, afraid, alight, alike, alive, alone, asleep, awake, ill, well

People are *afraid*. NOT *afraid* people.

Utter nonsense. NOT nonsense is *utter*.

		Attributive	Predicative	Pre-modification (very)	comparison
1	Imal is hungry .	+	+	+	+
2	The universe is limitless .	+	+	-	-
3	Ravi is an old friend.	+	-	+	+
4	The prisoners were afraid .	?	+	+	+
5	Lal is an utter fool .	+	-	-	-
6	The patient was asleep .	-	+	-	-
7	The meeting is soon .	-	-	+	+
8	Ruwan is abroad .	-	-	-	-

It is considered that the ability to function both attributively and predicatively to be a central feature of adjectives. *Hungry* (in 1) and *limitless* (in 2) above are **central** adjectives.

‘old’ in this context does not have predicative function.

E.g.: ‘Ravi is an old friend’ and ‘The friend is old.’ are not the same.

‘afraid’ does not function attributively.

‘utter’ has only attributive function.

‘asleep’ has only predicative function.

Those satisfy at least one are called **peripheral** adjectives. Pre-modification by ‘**very**’ and the ability to take comparison are not valuable criteria for distinguishing adjectives from adverbs.

3) Adjectives and Nouns

Nouns are commonly used attributively and are, therefore, superficially similar to peripheral adjectives in satisfying the criterion of attributive function.

The *bus* station *foot* ruler business partner pest repellent

Nouns, however, do not satisfy any of the other criteria for adjective status.

Furthermore, nouns have other features that distinguish them from adjectives.

- 1) They take a determiner. E.g.: The school, some children
- 2) They can be inflected for number. E.g.: One box, two boxes
- 3) They can have genitive case. E.g.: Girls’ school, people’s bank
- 4) They can be pre-modified by adjectives. E.g.: Cold weather, interesting story

Some items can be both adjective and noun. E.g.: Criminal.

This can be used both attributively and predicatively.

E.g.: It’s a *criminal* case. The case is *criminal*.

On the other hand it can be used as a noun.

E.g.: The *criminal* pleaded guilty.

More examples:

Adjective

An *annual* event

A *black* student

A *classic* book

Intellectual interests

A *noble* family

A *natural* dancer

A *six-year-old* boy

Noun

She is helping to publish an *annual* for children.

There was only one *black* in our class.

You want find many *classics* in our library.

She considers herself an *intellectual*.

The king greeted his *nobles*.

He is a *natural* for the job.

Our *six-year-old* is at school.

Like adjectives, nouns can function as 'subject complement' after copular verbs, particularly, after 'be'.

The man is a fool.

The noise you heard was thunder.

She became a nurse.

4) Adjectives and Participles

There are many adjectives that have the same suffixes as participles in **-ing** or **-ed**. These are called participle adjectives.

Predicative use

His views are very surprising.

The man seemed very offended.

Attributive use

his surprising views

the offended man

They include forms in **-ed** that have no corresponding verbs.

The results were unexpected.

All his friends are talented.

The downhearted child

His diseased lung

the unexpected results

his talented friends.

The child is downhearted.

His lung is diseased.

When there are no corresponding verbs [*to unexpect/*to talent] the forms are obviously not participles.

When there is a corresponding verb, attributively used '-ed' forms usually have passive meaning.

Lost property

The property that has been lost

If the corresponding verb is used only intransitively, the ‘-ed’ participle cannot be interpreted as passive.

The escaped prisoner [the prisoner who has escaped]

The departed guests [the guests have departed]

Predicative use occurs only with some participial adjectives.

The curtains are faded. Her father is retired.

Her son is *grown*. [dubious in BrE, but *full-grown* or *grown-up* is fully acceptable]

Sometimes there is a corresponding verb, but it has a different meaning. We can therefore have ambiguous sentences where the ambiguity depends on whether the word is a participle or a participial adjective:

Adjective-: She is (very) calculating (but her husband is frank).

Participle: She is calculating (Our salaries). [‘... so don't disturb her while she's doing it]

Adjective: They were (very) relieved (to find her at home).

Participle: They were relieved (by the next group of sentries).

Often the difference between the adjective and the participle is not clear cut. The verbal force of the participle is explicit for the -ing form when a direct object is present. Hence, the following -ing forms are participles that constitute a verb phrase with the preceding auxiliary:

Her views were alarming her audience.

You are frightening the children.

They are insulting us.

Similarly, the verbal force is explicit for the ‘-ed’ form when a by-agent phrase with a personal agent is present, indicating the correspondence to the active form of the sentence:

The man was offended by the policeman.

She is appreciated by his students.

She was misunderstood by her parents.

For both participle forms, premodification by the intensifier ‘very’ is an explicit indication that the forms have achieved adjective status:

Her views were very alarming.

You are very frightening.

The man was very offended

We might therefore expect that the presence of ‘very’ together with an explicit indicator of verbal force would produce an unacceptable sentence. This is certainly so for the *-ing* participle form:

*His views were very *alarming* his audience.

However, with the-ed participle, there appears to be divided usage, with increasing acceptance of the co-occurrence of ‘very’ with a by-agent phrase containing a personal agent:

The man was very *offended by* the policeman.

In the absence of any explicit indicator, the status of the participle form is indeterminate

The man was *offended*

Generally, ‘-ed’ participle forms accepting very can retain ‘very’ when they co-occur with a ‘by-phrase’ containing a non-personal noun phrase that expresses the notion of cause or reason.

I’m very disturbed by your attitude.

We were very pleased by his behavior.

The participle sometimes reaches full adjective status when it is compounded with another element.

It is breaking my heart. It is (very) heart-breaking.

Participle adjectives, ‘-ing’ and ‘-ed’ can be attributive.

Her crying children a married couple

A winning team his published work

Boiling water the captured prisoner

Some verbs have different participle forms for verbal and adjective use.

You have drunk too much. Drunk(en) driver

Have you shaved? Clean-shaven young man

The shirt has shrunk. A shrunken shirt

5) Syntactic Functions of Adjectives

i) Attributive and predicative

The adjective functions as the **Head** of an adjective phrase, with or without modification.

Adjectives are attributive when they pre-modify the **head** of a noun phrase.

a *small* garden *popular* ballads

Adjectives are predicative when they function as **subject complement** or **object complement**. There is a copular relationship between subject and subject complement.

The children are *happy*. He seems *careless*.

Adjectives are subject complements not only to noun phrases, but also to clauses which may be finite clauses or nonfinite clauses.

That you need a car is *obvious*. Whether he will resign is *uncertain*.

To drive a car in this weather is *dangerous*. Playing cards with friends is *enjoyable*.

Adjectives can also be object complement to clauses.

I consider what he did *foolish*. I consider playing so hard *foolish*.

There is a copular relationship between direct object and object complement.

I found him *careless*. He made the children *happy*.

The adjective functioning as object complement often expresses the result of the process denoted by the verb. The result can be stated by using the verb 'be' (S V C)

He pulled his belt *tight*. The belt is *tight*.

He pushed the window open. The window is *open*.

He writes his letters *large*. His letters are *large*.

ii) Postpositive

Adjectives can sometimes be post positive. That is, they can immediately follow the noun or pronoun they modify.

something *useful*.

A postpositive adjective can be regarded as a reduced relative clause. Something that is useful.

Compound indefinite pronouns and adverbs ending in **body, one, thing, where** can be modified only postpositively.

Anyone *intelligent* can do it. We are not going anywhere very *exciting*.

Postposition is obligatory for ‘proper’ meaning ‘as strictly defined’

the course *proper*

In several institutionalized expressions (mostly in official designations) the objective is postpositive.

the president *elect*, from time *immemorial*, heir *apparent* attorney *general* director
general

iii) Adjectives as head of noun phrase

Adjectives can function as heads of noun phrases which can be subject, object, complement and prepositional complement.

Adjectives as heads of noun phrases do not inflect for number or for the genitive case and they usually require a definite determiner (article). These NPs have generic reference and take plural concord.

Adjectives are typically used as heads of noun phrases to refer to certain fairly well-established classes of persons.

the brave the weak the elderly the unknown the rich

Some adjectives denoting nationalities can be NP heads.

the British the Spanish the Dutch the French The Chinese the Japanese,
the Swiss

6) Semantic Sub-classification of Adjectives

Some of these have syntactic correlates. Three semantic scales are applicable to adjectives.

i) Stative /Dynamic

Adjectives are characteristically stative. Many adjectives can be seen as dynamic.

A stative adjective cannot be used with the progressive aspect or with the imperative.

*He is being tall.

*Be tall.

It is possible with dynamic adjectives.

He is being careful.

Be careful.

Dynamic adjectives denote qualities that are thought to be subject to control by the possessor and hence can be restricted temporally.

E.g.	ambitious	adorable	careful	careless	cheerful	clever	cruel
	disagreeable	dull	enthusiastic	faithful	foolish	friendly	
	funny	generous	good	helpful	talkative		

ii) Gradable/Non-gradable

Most adjectives are gradable. Gradable is manifested through comparison.

short shorter shortest

beautiful more beautiful most beautiful

Gradability is also manifested through modification by intensifiers.

very *tall* so *beautiful* extremely *useful*

Gradability applies to adverbs as well as adjectives.

All dynamic and most stative adjectives are gradable; some stative adjectives are not, principally denominal adjectives like *atomic scientist*, *hydrochloric acid*, *criminal court*, *medical school* and adjectives denoting provenance. E.g. British, Dutch.

iii) Inherent/Non-inherent

Adjectives that characterize the referent of the noun directly (that *old* man, My friend is *old*) are inherent, those that do not (an *old* friend of mine) are termed non-inherent. Most adjectives are inherent, that is to say, they characterize the referent of the noun directly. For example, the inherent adjective in a wooden cross applies to the referent of the object directly: a wooden cross is also a wooden object. On the other hand a wooden actor is not a wooden man.

Inherent

a firm handshake

a perfect alibi

a true report

Non-inherent

a firm friend

a perfect stranger

a true scholar

Modification of a noun by means of a noninherent adjective can be seen as an extension of the basic sense of the noun. Thus *a firm friend* is ‘a friend whose friendship is firm’, and *a perfect stranger* is ‘a stranger who is perfectly strange.’

If the adjective is inherent, it is often possible to derive a noun from it. With a noninherent adjective, however, no such deviation is possible.

a firm handshake

a firm friend

a true report

a true scholar

the firmness of the handshake

* the firmness of the friend

the truth of the report

* the truth of the scholar

7) The Order of Adjectives

We can use more than one adjective before a noun. There is usually one correct order. We cannot say sunny beautiful weather or a black big dog.

We order adjectives according to their meaning. This is the normal order:

Group

Examples

1. Opinion (how good?)

wonderful, nice, great, awful, terrible

2. Size (how big?)	large, small, long, short, tall, big
3. Most other qualities	quiet, famous, important, soft, wet, difficult, fast, angry, warm
4. Age (how old?)	new, old
5. Colour	red, blue, green, black
6. Origin. (where from?)	American, British, French
7. Material (made of?)	stone, plastic, steel, paper (Some of these are nouns)
8. Type. (what kind?)	an <i>electric</i> kettle, <i>political</i> matters, <i>road</i> transport
9. Purpose (what for?)	a <i>bread</i> knife, a <i>face</i> towel

Here are some examples:

A small green insect (size, colour); Japanese industrial designers (origin, type)

A wonderful new face cream (opinion, age, purpose); Awful plastic souvenirs (opinion, material)

A long boring train journey (size, quality, type); Some wonderful fast passenger trains (opinion, quality, purpose)

A beautiful wooden picture frame (opinion, material, purpose)

* We sometimes put commas between adjectives in groups 1 – 3.
a horrible, ugly building; a busy, lively, exciting city

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ADVERBS

1) What is an Adverb?

An **adverb** is a word that provides us more information about a *verb*. It "qualifies" or "modifies" a *verb*

In the following examples, the adverb is in **bold** and the verb that it modifies is in *italics*.

The man *ran* **quickly**. (How did the man run?)

My sister *speaks* **loudly**. (How does my sister speak?)

Afterwards she *collected* the document. (When did she collect the document?)

Our former principal *lives* **abroad**. (Where does our former principal live?)

An **adverb** can modify a verb, an adjective, another adverb, a phrase, or a clause. An adverb indicates manner, time, place, cause, or degree and answers questions such as "how," "when," "where," "how much".

2) Characteristics of Adverbs

The adverb functions as the head of an adverb phrase, with or without modification. The function of the adverb discussed here are similar to the functions of the adverb phrase.

Morphologically we can distinguish three types of adverbs of which two are closed classes (simple and compound) and one is an open class (derivational).

- i) Simple adverbs e.g. *just, only, well*. Many simple adverbs denote position and direction,

E.g.: *back, down, out, under, up*

- ii) Compound adverbs, e.g. *somehow, somewhere, therefore*, and (the very formal) *whereupon, hereby, herewith, whereto*

- iii) Derivational adverbs. The majority of derivational adverbs have the suffix 'ly', by means of which new adverbs are created from adjectives (and participle adjectives)

odd *oddly*

interesting *interestingly*

Other less common derivational suffixes are:

wise	<i>clockwise</i>	ways	<i>sideways</i>
ward(s)	<i>northward(s)</i>	style	<i>cowboy-style</i>
fashion	<i>schoolboy-fashion</i>		

3) Syntactic functions of adverbs

There are two types of syntactic functions.

1. as adverbial (clause element) He always drives *carefully*.

2. as modifier of

a. adjective

b. adverbs.

c. a number of other constructions

My friend is **really** *beautiful*, or even other *adverbs* (It works **very***well*). Look at these examples:

He is **really** *handsome*. (How handsome is he?)

That was **extremely** *kind* of you.

i. The adverb as a modifier of adjective. (the adverb in general precedes the adjective)

He is an *extremely* careful driver.

He is *rather* tall for a ten-year old.

Dedicated work is *absolutely necessary*.

It's *extremely* good of you to do this for me.

My friend is *really beautiful*.

One adverb '**enough**' is placed after the adjective. This is not good *enough*.

The adverbs '**too**' and '**how**' (i.e. 'how' in interrogative and exclamatory sentences) are exceptional. When they modify an adjective in a noun phrase, the indefinite article is placed after the adjective.

He is **too** *good* an actor to forget his lines.

How *tall* a man is he?

How *strange* a feeling it was!

But with mass and plural nouns, where no indefinite article is present, these adverbs cannot modify the adjective. Instead 'how' (in exclamation) is replaced by '**what**'.

What strange ideas you have!

ii. The adverb as a modifier of an adverb. An adverb may premodify another adverb.
He played **surprisingly** *well*.

He drives **extremely** *carefully*

She drives **incredibly** *slowly*.

The spy followed the man **very** *quietly*.

As with adjectives, the only post modifying adverb is '**enough**'.

Oddly **enough**, nothing valuable was stole

iii. The adverb modifies a prepositional phrase
The nail went **right** through the wall

His parents are **dead** against his marriage.

We completed the syllabus **well** within the time.

He came **immediately** after the bell.

iv. The adverb modifies a determiner, pronoun or numeral
We have **hardly** any time to waste. (any= determiner)

Nearly everybody came to the party. (everybody = pronoun)

Over two hundred people lost their houses. (two hundred = numeral)

Virtually all the students participated in the seminar. (all = determiner)

v. The indefinite article can be pre modified when 'a' = one.
My parents will stay for **about** a week. (about here is not a preposition but an intensifier)

vi. The adverb modifies a noun phrase
A few intensifiers may pre modify noun phrases and precede the determiner in doing so.

The place was **rather** a mess.

He told **quite** a funny story.

vii. Some adverbs denoting place or time post modify nouns.

his journey **home**.

the sentence **below**

the meeting **yesterday**

the years **ahead**

viii. In some phrases the adverb can also be used as a pre modifier.

the **above** statement **inside** information

the **then** president **upstairs** room

ix. Some place and time adverbs act as complements of prepositions.

I do not know anybody around **here**.

I haven't eaten since **yesterday**.

x. Adverbs can modify a whole sentence.

Obviously, I can't agree with your opinion.

4) Position of adverbs in a sentence

Different kinds of adverbs can be used in different places in a clause. We do not put adverbs between a verb and an object.

There are 3 normal positions for adverbs.

i) Initial or front position

Initial position is that preceding any other clause element. In effect, this generally means the position immediately before subject.

Suddenly, the driver started the engine.

Seriously, do you believe in ghosts?

Connecting adverbs go in front position. However, nevertheless

ii) Medial or mid position

Medial position can be preliminarily described as that between Subject and Verb. Adverbs of frequency (always, often etc) and adverbs of certainty usually go in mid-position.

The driver **suddenly** started the engine

Children **often** go to the library.

I have **definitely** decided to be independent.

iii) End

End position is the position in the clause following all obligatory elements. It is also the position of the obligatory adverbial when this follows the other obligatory elements. Adverbs of manner (how) place (where) and time (when) most often go in the end position.

The driver started the engine **suddenly**.

The light was fading **rapidly**.

He entered the room **silently**.

She started her speech **slowly**.

The children are playing **upstairs**.

[time adverbs can also be used in front position.]

5) Form

Compare the following sentences

Keerthi was hungry.

The children looked happy.

My friend was angry.
angrily.

Piyal ate hungrily.

The children played happily.

The man looked at the children

i) Some adverbs can be identified by their characteristic "ly" suffix. The ending **ly** is the normal adverb ending. But a few adjectives also end in **ly**.

Anoma was very *friendly*.

It was a *lively* party.

We had a *lovely* time.

Some more examples are: *elderly, likely, lonely, silly, ugly,*

The words are adjectives, not adverbs. And we cannot add 'ly'. There is no such word as friendlyly. But we can say *in a friendly way/manner*. She spoke to us *in a friendly way*.

If we need to use an adverb, we often choose another word of similar meaning.

The party was *lovely*. (adj) Everything went *beautifully*. (adv)

ii) Same form as adjective and adverb.

Hard, fast, etc

Compare these sentences.

ADJECTIVE

We did some *hard* work.

I came on the *fast* train.

ADVERB

We worked *hard*.

The train went quite *fast*.

We can use the following words both as adjectives and as adverbs:

deep, early, fast, hard, high, late, long, low, near, right, straight, wrong

In informal English, the adjectives *cheap, loud, quick* and *slow* can be adverbs.

ADJECTIVE

They sell *cheap* clothes in the market.

Back already! That was *quick*.

ADVERB

They sell things *cheap/cheaply* there.

Come as *quick/quickly* as you can.

iii) Hard, hardly, near, nearly, etc

There are some pairs of adverbs like **hard** and **hardly** which have different meanings. Here are some examples.

a. Players tried *hard*, but I couldn't win. I've got *hardly* any money left. (hardly any = very little, almost none)

b. Luckily I found a phone box quite *near*. I *nearly* fell asleep in the meeting. (nearly = almost)

c. Malith arrived *late*, as usual. I've been very busy *lately*. (lately = in the last few days/weeks)

d. The plane flew *high* above the clouds. The book is *highly* recommended. (highly = very)

e. We got into the concert *free*. (free = without paying) The animals are allowed to wander *freely*. (freely = uncontrolled)

iv) Good and well

- Good is an adjective, and well is its adverb. The opposites are bad and badly.

ADJECTIVE

ADVERB

Natasha is a *good* violinist.

She plays the violin very *well*.

Our test results were *good*.

We all did *well* in the test.

I had a *bad* night.

I slept *badly* last night.

Well can also be an adjective meaning 'in good health; the opposite of ill.

My mother was very ill; but she's quite **well** again now.

How are you? -- Very well, thank you.

Adverbs of Frequency

I *always* come to work on time.

They are *seldom* home when we call.

He's *usually* eating breakfast at this time.

She's *never* been to Maine.

A: Do you come here *often*?

B: Yes. I'm here *occasionally*.

A: What do you *usually* do here?

The most common frequency adverbs in English are:

Always	100% of the time
Frequently	about 90% of the time
Usually	about 80% of the time
Often	about 70% of the time

Sometimes	about 50% of the time
Occasionally	about 40% of the time
Seldom	about 20% of the time
Rarely	about 10% of the time
Never	about 00% of the time

Frequency adverbs can be placed at various points in the sentence, but are most commonly used before the main verb and after the auxiliary verb.

Sometimes I just sit and think about my school days.

I have **always** thought grammar is important.

I can **never** understand their attitude.

Note: The adverbs *seldom*, *rarely*, *never* and *hardly ever* are considered negative.

A: Do you always day dream?

B: (Yes,) I usually do.

No, I usually don't.

No, I rarely do.

No, I hardly ever do.

Other frequency adverbs and expressions are:

Every day/week/month

Every other day/week

Once a week/month/year

Twice a year/day, etc.

(Every) once in a while

Every so often

These expressions are used at the beginning and end of sentences, not before the main verb.

Every month I visit my grandparents.

I visit my grandparents every month.

I every month visit my grandparents. (Incorrect)

Regularly	(according to schedule)
Normally	(commonly nowadays)
Traditionally	(commonly in the past)

These words can come at various points in the sentence.

I **regularly** walk in the morning.

I walk in the morning **regularly**.

Traditionally, that was considered child's play.

I **normally** get up around 6 o'clock.

Normally, I get up around 6 o'clock.

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SENTENCE

1) Simple Sentences

A simple sentence has only one finite verb. It is necessary to explain two terms here: *one* and *finite*. In English a verb may consist of one word or more than one depending on the tense, aspect and voice.

1. Diploma students study hard.
2. Diploma students studied hard.
3. Diploma students are studying hard.
4. Diploma students have been studying hard.
5. Diploma students may have been studying hard.

You may have noticed in the above sentences that sentences 1 and 2 have only one word as the verb, where as 3, 4, and 5 have two or more words as the verb. All are simple sentences because each has only one finite verb.

What is a finite verb? Finite verbs mainly have:

1. Tense distinction, present or past

I write essays. I am writing essays.

I wrote essays. I was writing essays.

2. Number concord (agreement)

My friend writes essays.

My friends write essays.

Although a simple sentence has only one finite verb, it does not mean that before (subject) and after (other elements) the verb you have only one word. In principle it is possible to have any number of words.

2) Compound Sentences

A compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. The common coordinating conjunctions are: *and*, *but*, *or*. Except for very short sentences, coordinators are always preceded by a comma.

I will continue with my studies, and my friend will look after me.

Aravinda can stay at home or he can join his friends this evening.

My sister went shopping, but my mother helped us.

The above three sentences are compound sentences. Each sentence contains two independent clauses, and they are joined by a coordinator with a comma preceding it.

And, *but* and *or* are used only at the beginning of the second clause.

Common features

And & **or** are central coordinators, **but** differs from them in certain respects.

- i) **and**, **or** and **but** are restricted to initial position in the second clause, and they cannot be used first without producing unacceptable sentences. i.e. the second clause cannot be used first.
- ii) Coordinators are not preceded by a conjunction.
- iii) Coordinators can link constituents smaller than a clause. i.e. phrases and words.
- iv) Coordinators can link not only independent clauses but also subordinate clauses.

He asked to be transferred *because he was unhappy* **and** *because he saw no prospect*.

f. coordinators **and**, **or** can link more than two clauses.

And: joins two similar/related ideas together

He lives in Kadawatha, and he studies at University of Kelaniya.

But: joins two contrasting ideas. Navin is Sinhala, but Sally is English.

Or: joins two alternative ideas I could cook dinner, or we could order a pizza.

i) Using coordinating conjunctions

The uses of AND:

- a. The event in the second clause is chronologically sequent to that in the first:

I washed the dishes and (then) I dried them.

- b. The event in the second clause is the result of the event in the first:
Upali heard the news, and promptly left Madolduwa.
- c. The second clause introduces a contrast:
My brother is an introvert and my sister is an extrovert.
- d. The first clause has concessive force:
She tried hard and (yet) she failed.
- e. The first clause presents a condition for the first. (usually the first clause is an imperative):
Use your credit cards unnecessarily and you'll soon find yourself deep in debt.
- f. The second clause makes a point similar to the first:
A trade agreement should be no problem, and (similarly) a cultural exchange could be easily arranged.
- g. The second clause is a 'pure' addition to the first:
He has long hair and (also) he often wears jeans.
- h. To suggest a kind of "comment" on or an explanation of the first clause:
Sugath became the sports captain, and that did not surprise the people who knew his ability.

ii) The use of BUT

- a. Expresses a contrast to the first clause:
My uncle is poor but he is happy. To give the meaning 'on the contrary'
The bank never invested foolishly, but has hired two new accountants.
- b. To suggest that one idea is in contrast to another (frequently replaced by *and* in this usage):
My brother is outspoken but (and) my sister has a pleasant personality.
- c. To suggest an element of surprise (sometimes replaced by *yet* in this usage):
Sri Lanka is a peaceful country and suffers from many foreign interference.

OR

a. To suggest an alternative:

You can stay at home or you can join us.

We can organize a party, *or* we can just forget about it.

b. 'or' may imply a negative conditional clause.

Don't take long, or we will be late for the film. (If you take a long time ...)

Sometimes we can use *nor*, *yet*, *for* and *so* as coordinators, but they are not as common as *and*, *but* and *or*.

NOR

It is not used nearly as often as the other conjunctions. Its most common use is in the correlative pair, *neither-nor*.

Bernada is neither loving nor lenient.

We are neither here nor there.

It can be used with other negative expressions:

I cannot excuse negligence, nor can I tolerate it.

iii) The use of YET

It functions sometimes as an adverb and has several meanings:

a. in addition - yet another cause of trouble"

b. or - a simple yet noble woman

c. even - yet more expensive

d. still - he is yet a novice

e. and until now - He's not here yet.

It also functions as a coordinating conjunction meaning something like *nevertheless* or *but*.

Lahiru plays basketball well, yet his favorite sport is badminton.

Friends told her to be careful, yet she refused to agree.

Yet is sometimes combined with other conjunctions, *but* OR *and*. It would not be unusual to see and yet in sentences like the ones above. This usage is acceptable.

The children complained about lack of time, and yet they continued watching TV.

iv) The use of FOR

It is most often used as a preposition. But it is sometimes used as a coordinating conjunction.

When used this way, it has the meaning of because.

Edward knew he could marry Elinor, for he knew she loved him.

Most upper class English women in the late 18th century and early 19th century had to depend on the wealth of their husbands, for women earning a living was beyond social acceptance.

For an instant he thought he had succeeded, for his parents seemed to believe him.

v) The use of SO.

‘So’ is used when the same speaker connects two ideas.

It began to rain hard, so we had to abandon our outing.

It is not easy to take a bus on Friday, so I want to travel on Thursday.

2) Complex Sentences

A complex sentence has one independent (main) clause and one or more dependent (subordinate) clauses. A complex sentence always has a subordinating conjunction such as *because, since, that* or *zero* or a relative pronoun such as *who, that, which* or *whose*. It has one or more subordinate clauses functioning as a clause element of the sentence.

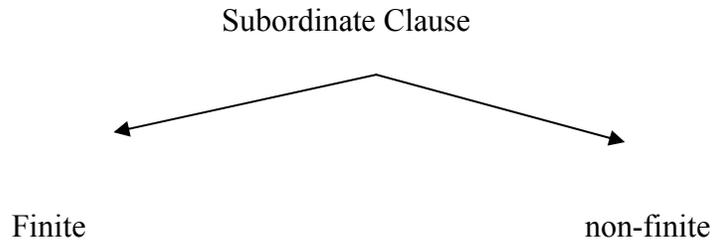
- When* my aunt got a promotion, she was transferred to the head office. 1
- The teacher returned the answer scripts *after* she had corrected them. 2
- The students are studying *because* they have a test next month. 3
- While Sumal practicing in the gym, he injured himself. 4

When a complex sentence begins with a subordinating conjunction such as sentences 1 and 4, a comma is required at the end of the dependent clause. When the independent clause begins the sentence with subordinating conjunctions in the middle as in sentences 2 and 3, no comma is required. If a comma is placed before the subordinators in sentences 2 and 3, it is wrong.

Given below are the subordinating conjunctions

TIME	CAUSE + EFFECT	OPPOSITION	CONDITION
After	Because	Although	If
Before	Since	Though	Unless
When	As	Where as	Whether or not
While	In order that	while	Even if
Since	so		
Until			

Different types of subordinate clauses



i) Finite subordinate clauses

i. Noun clauses. (NCI)

The noun clause can be replaced with a noun or a pronoun.

I told my little brother *that the earth is round. (a story)*

'that' noun clause. The subordinate clause begins with the subordinate conjunction 'that'.

Many people believe that ghosts exist.

I know that you are a busy person.

That my friend is influential is common knowledge.

'zero that' clause

It is possible to leave out the subordinate conjunction 'that', and the clause is known as 'zero that' clause.

I know (that) *you like me*.

Do you know (that) I like grammar?

We cannot begin a sentence with a 'zero that' clause.

'wh' noun clause. The subordinate clause begins with a 'wh' word.

I don't know why he can't come.

Tell me what you want for your birthday.

How he suffered in his childhood is vividly described in his book.

ii. Adverbial clause

They answer questions like *why, where, when, how*, etc.

I will come *when I want*.

I like reading *because it is very interesting*

I missed the bus *although I got up very early*.

However I tried I couldn't do the sum.

Wherever he goes he is very popular.

iii. Relative Clauses

They tell us more about (modify) the noun. Relative pronouns are *who, which, that, whom, whose*. '*whom*' is very often replaced by '*who*'

Do you know the person *who sent me this present*?

My sister is the girl *who won the first place in the singing competition*.

My friend *whose mother is in hospital* left the office early.

The tree *that is very useful to us* is the coconut tree.

This the story *which highlights his life style*.

iv. Comparative Clauses

In this country we eat more food *than we can grow*.

He is less noisy *than her sister was at that age*.

She ran as quickly *as she could*.

That man is not so stupid *as some people think*.

v. Prepositional Clauses

They begin with a preposition. (preposition + Wh Noun clause)

My friends were astonished *at what I achieved*.

We have no evidence *of who made the allegation against the manager*.

I am thinking *of what I will do during the vacation.*

I don't like to talk *about what you said.*

ii) Non-finite subordinate clauses.

Infinitive Clauses (Cli) -ING Clauses (Cling)

-EN Clause (Clen)

Non-finite noun clauses

i. INFINITIVE NOUN CLAUSES (Ncli): Noun clause begins with an infinitive verb.

I wanted *to meet the director.* [I wanted 'what?' – to meet the director]

My sister likes *to teach small children.*

ii. ING NOUN CLAUSE (Ncling): Noun clause begins with 'ing' form of the verb.

I like *spending time with books.*

Finding the money for the function is not easy.

Non-finite adverbial clauses

i. INFINITIVE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (ACli):

Teachers conduct extra classes *to help their students.*

I came here *to give you some information.*

ii. ING ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (ACling):

While talking to the witness, the police gathered a lot of information.

I made some changes *after listening to my friends.*

Leaving the offenders in the cell, the officer went into his office.

Having inspected all the evidence, the judge released the defendant.

iii. EN ADVERBIAL CLAUSE (AClen):

Hauled from his hiding place, the terrorist seemed completely beaten.

The children, *elated with their results,* ran to thank their teachers.

Non-finite relative clauses

i. INFINITIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE (RCi):

The best person *to ask for help* is your mother.

The important question *to consider* is how to find money.

ii. ING RELATIVE CLAUSE (RCling)

We talked to the men *working in the rice fields*.

The dog *barking at you* is not ours.

iii. EN RELATIVE CLAUSE (RClen):

The information *given us* at the post office cannot be believed.

The lady *deceived by a man* was Miss. Havisham

Non-finite comparative clauses These are less common:

i. INFINITIVE COMPARATIVE CLAUSE (Ccli)

She is more likely to act *than to think*.

I am happier to stay at home *than to attend parties*.

ii. ING COMPARATIVE CLAUSE (Ccling)

Most people are better at sleeping *than doing a job*.

I am better at minding my own business than interfering with other's affairs.

Non-finite prepositional clauses

The *-ing* clause (PCling) occurs in this category:

The burglars escaped *by climbing through a window*.

I want to apologize *for coming late*.

Relative Clauses

Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns.

A Relative Clause tells us which person or thing (or what kind of person or thing) the speaker means. In other words a Relative clause post- modifies the Head of Noun Phrase.

Sometimes we can use an adjective or a phrase to identify someone or something.

Adjective: the tall girl, the new student, the red car

Phrase: the lady **in white**, the shop **on the corner**, the woman **with red hair**

But when we need a longer explanation, we can use a relative clause.

 the woman **who gets up early**, the car **that broke down**

Relative clauses with ‘who’, ‘which’ and ‘that’

B. Who, which and that

The relative pronouns **who**, **which** and **that** go after the noun and at the beginning of the relative clause.

Who refers to people.

Our MP is the **man who** owns that brand new car.

I don't like **people who** criticize others.

The little **child who** sat next to me on the coach slept the whole way.

Saraswathie is very annoyed with the **person who** cheated her.

We can also use **that** with people, but it is less usual.

Hasitha is the **man that** plays the lead guitar.

The **woman that** lived here before us is a famous actress.

That and **which** refer to animals and things. That is more usual than which, especially in conversation.

looks majestic.

terrorized the villagers.

The **elephant that carries the golden casket**

People have captured the crocodile that

on electricity.

The children saw **the car that runs only**

Which can be a little formal.

There are several places **which** provide take away food.

Norochcholai is the power plant which was opened very recently.

We do not use another pronoun like **he** or **it** with the relative pronoun.

NOT *the man who he owns that brand new car.*

NOT *the woman who she lived here*

In all these sentences **who**, **which** and **that** are the subject of the relative clause.

The relative pronoun as object

That is the house which our great grandfather sold to a foreigner.

These are the people who we hired to clean the garden

In the above sentences the relative pronoun refers to the object. When the relative pronoun refers to the object, it is possible to leave out the relative pronoun.

That is the house our great grandfather sold to a foreigner.

These are the people we hired to clean the garden

D. Leaving out the relative pronoun

When we leave out the relative pronoun, we call it **Zero Relative Clause**. We do this especially in spoken English.

WITH OBJECT PRONOUN

*The man **who** my brother met ...*

The house **that our grandfather built** ...

WITHOUT OBJECT PRONOUN

*The man **my brother met**...*

The house **our grandfather built**

Do you know the person the police are looking for?

The cakes my mother bakes are delicious.

The frock you are wearing looks very expensive.

Remember that we cannot leave out a pronoun when it is the subject of a relative clause.

E. Who and whom

In formal English, whom is sometimes used when the object of the relative clause is a person.

*The person **who/whom** the police were looking for has been found.*

But in conversation **whom** is not very common.

F. Prepositions in relative clauses

A relative pronoun (e.g. that) can be the object of a preposition (e.g. for).

This is the bus **that** I've been waiting **for**. I've been waiting for **the bus**.
The restaurant **that** we normally go **to** is closed today. We normally go to **the restaurant**.

[In informal spoken English we normally put the preposition at the end of the relative clause. Compare the word order.]

STATEMENT

RELATIVE CLAUSE

I've been waiting for the bus.

the bus that I've been waiting for

We go to the restaurant.

the restaurant that we go to

We do not use another pronoun like **it** or **her** after the preposition.

NOT *the restaurant that we go to it*

NOT *someone who I work with her*

G. Leaving out the pronoun

We often leave out the relative pronoun when it is the object of a preposition.

WITH OBJECT PRONOUN

WITHOUT OBJECT PRONOUN

The bus that I'm waiting for is late.

The bus I'm waiting for is late.

Is this the article which you were interested in? Is this the article you were interested in?

That's the man who I was talking about.

That's the man I was talking about.

H. A preposition at the beginning

These examples are typical of formal English.

Was that the restaurant to which you normally go?

Electronics is a subject about which I know very little.

The Sales Manager is the person from whom I obtained the figures.

Here the preposition comes at the beginning of the relative clause, before **which** or **whom**.

We cannot put a preposition before that or who.

a subject (that) I know little about NOT a subject about that I know little

the person (who) I got the figures from NOT the person from who I got the figures

I. Whose

I wanted to meet a man whose sister has some link with the MP.

I know the woman whose car you want to buy.

Here **whose sister** means his sister (the sister of the man I wanted to meet), and **whose car** means her car (the car belonging to the woman). Here are some more examples.

Someone **whose** bicycle had been stolen was reporting it to the police.
Ajantha Mendis is the man **whose bowling** won the match for Sri Lanka.

We use **whose** mainly with people, e.g. **someone, the man**. But sometimes it goes with other nouns.

Which is the European **country whose** economy is growing the fastest?

Round the corner was a **building whose** windows were all broken.
Melanie was looking after a **dog whose** leg had been broken in an accident.

MODAL VERBS

Modal Auxiliary verbs

will, would, shall, should, can, could, may, might, must, ought to, used to

Characteristics

a. construction with bare infinitive. Modal auxiliaries are normally followed by the bare infinitive (base form).

You *will* **answer** all the questions.

Children *must* **obey** their parents.

b. They function only as the first auxiliary in a finite verb phrase.

All the participants **may** have come.

School children should get up early.

c. No number distinction. Same form for both singular and plural subjects.

My brother **can** dance well.

His friends **can** dance well too.

Uses

Will:

will is commonly used to indicate **futurity**. Reference to future time is clearly shown by the use of future time adverbials.

I *will be* happy when this workshop is over.

We *will meet* them next week.

Will can be used to express **intention**: (especially in the first person):

I *will* do my exercises later on.

I *will* meet you at the station.

We *will* invite everyone to the party.

I *will* write as soon as possible.

Will can be used to express **Prediction**:

Tomorrow's weather *will* be fine.

The director *will* recommend you for a scholarship.

He *will* have an accident if he drives like this.

Will can be used to express **willingness**:

Who *will* help me to lay the table? I will.

I *will* help you to clean the garden.

We're going to have a get together. *Will* you join us?

I *will* sweep the room if you arrange it.

Will in its future sense can sometimes be used with a force of a future **command**.

You *will* do exactly as I say.

It expresses an **impatient commands**

Will you be quiet?

Will you after a negative command can tone down a command.

Don't be late, *will* you.

Will you after a positive command has rising intonation, and usually expresses impatience.

Keep quiet, *will* you.

Will is used in making **requests**

Will you send me the bill, please?

A negative question expects a positive answer and is more persuasive.

- Won't you come and sit down?

Will is used to express **typical behaviour**

My sister *will* sit looking at herself in the mirror for hours.

Sulphuric acid *will* dissolve most metals.

In probable (first) conditional *will* is used in the main clause.

- If he rides like this, he *will* have an accident.

would

- *Would* is not merely the past tense of will. It is used as the past of will in the reported speech.

My partner said, "I will invite all the friends."

My partner said (that) he would invite all the friends.

- *Would* is used instead of *will* in requests.

Would you come back a little later?

Would you mind opening the window?

- *Would* is used in making offers. *Would you like* is a polite way of making offers. '*Would you like*' means 'Do you want?'

Would you like some tea? Yes, please.

Would you like to have some rest? No, thanks.

What *would you like* to have, tea or soft drinks?

- To invite someone we use *would you like to...*

Would you like to have lunch with me?

Would you like to go to cinema?

Would you like to spend a few days with us next month?

- *Would* is used to politely say "I want"

I would (I'd) like a drink. I'm thirsty.

I would like some information about this workshop.

- *Would* is used to show characteristic activity in the past replacing 'used to'.

Every morning my father *would meditate* for 20minutes.

At home *he would smoke* five cigarettes a day.

Whenever we came late to the class in the morning, the teacher would say 'good afternoon'.

[**would** is typical of narrative style, but **used to** is common in spoken form.]

- *Would* is used in conditional sentences. [Hypothetical meaning]

If you asked politely, I *would* do it. [hypothetical]

If you had asked politely, I *would have* done it. [past]

- *would* is used to talk about a characteristic activity:

- customary:

After work, he would spend a few minutes checking all the doors and windows.

- typical (casual):

She would cause the whole family to be late, every time.

-

Would can express a sense of probability:

I hear a musical horn. That *would* be the mobile bread van.

Shall

- *Shall* is used with I/we to make suggestions, asking for instructions and to offer services. Here ‘shall’ has future reference.

Shall I come tomorrow?

Shall we have something to eat?

Shall I switch on the fan? It’s very warm here.

Shall I carry your bag?

- *shall* is used in polite questions to make suggestions (with an element of permission) in the first-person: Shall we go now?

Shall I call a cab for you?

Shall is often used in formal situations (legal or legalistic documents, minutes to meetings, etc.) to express obligation, even with third-person and second-person constructions:

The principal shall be responsible for smooth running of the school.

The prefects shall report any misbehavior of students to the head prefect.

Should

- *Should* is used

to indicate “the right thing to do”. [tactful way of giving commands or instructions]

You get up late. You should get up early.

When you bat you should always watch the ball.

- to talk about obligation, duty and similar ideas. It is less strong than **must**

The driver should wear the seat belt.

You should speak to your parents with respect.

Applications should be sent before December 30th.

- to express an obligation which may not be fulfilled.

All students should submit their assignment by a given date. [but some don't]

You should come here by 9.00 in the morning.

- to represent something as a neutral idea rather than a fact.

People believe that public transport should be improved.

Some people are suggesting that politicians should be more open minded.

Can- The most familiar use of **can** expresses ability to perform an action.

- *Can* shows ability. [strength, knowledge, skill]

I can drive heavy vehicles.

That athlete can lift 100 kg.

I can play many musical instruments.

Can you speak Hindi?

- Permission

You can stop work early today.

You can leave early today.

Can we park the car here?

- Possibility (theoretical)

Railways can be improved.

Learning English can be made easy.

- Request

Can you give me a lift, please?

Can you wait for me?

- Willingness

I can do it for you.

could

- *Could* is used

- sometimes as the past tense of can to express an ability in the past.

Yesterday I could complete only three chapters.

I was not well last night and couldn't sleep.

I could always beat you at table tennis when we were kids.

- to politely ask for permission.

Could I meet the chairman?

Hello, could I speak to Sirimal please?

Could I leave early today?

- to express present possibility:

We could always spend the afternoon just sitting around talking.

- to make requests

Could you lend me your book for a week?

Could you iron my clothes, please?

- to make suggestions

You could clean the office while I am away.

You could meet the clients for me.

may

- *May* is used to indicate possibility. [chance]

Take an umbrella. It may rain in the afternoon.

What you say may be true.

- *May* is used to ask for permission.

May I go out for a minute?

May I ask a question?

May I come in?

Use of 'may' for permission is rather formal these days, and is replaced by 'can'.

might

- *Might* is not often used as a past form of *may*: both *may* and *might* are used to talk about present or future. I may go to Maharagama tomorrow. (perhaps a 50% chance)

I might go to Maharagama tomorrow. (perhaps 30% chance)

I might meet you this evening.

Don't go out tonight. The General Manager might call.

- suggestion

You might have a look at this document.

Must can be used

- to express that the speaker thinks what he says is necessarily true.

You must give up smoking.

There must be something wrong with the computer.

- to express that the speaker has drawn a conclusion from things already known or observed.

[I'm in love.] You must be very happy.

Upeka must have a problem. [She is crying.]

- Obligation or compulsion [be obliged to, have to – present tense]

You must be back by 11.30.

You must prepare for your lessons.

- *Must* is used when we think it is necessary to do something. (only in the present and future)

The room is full of cobwebs. I must clean it.

Teaching is a noble profession. You must respect it.

- *Must* has no past form. 'have to' and 'had to' are used instead.

We didn't have water last few months, we *had to* go about 3 miles to fetch water.

- future is made with the future forms of have to rather than must:

One day I will *have to* decide for myself.

If you do not water the vegetable beds now, you will *have to* do it in the evening.

- We can use *must have* and the *past participle* to express certainty about past.

We went to Yala las week. It must have been a nice trip.

Someone called when you were out. It must have been our director.

Negative of must

- *Must not* is used to forbid something. To express an absence of obligation.

You must not encourage racism.

The negative is formed with *need not* or the negative forms of *have to*.

- Negatives a. need not (needn't) You need not come back.

 b. don't have to You don't have to come.

Ought to

We can use **ought to** to advise people (including ourselves) to do things: to tell people that they have a duty to do things. The meaning is very similar to that of should.

- obligation

I *ought to* visit my parents.

My sister *ought to* get a medal for living with her mother-in-law.

- Deduction

He *ought to* be here soon.

The weather *ought to* improve after the weekend.

- To express what is desirable

This room is stuffy. I really *ought to* go outside and get some fresh air.

You *ought to* save more money for an emergency.

- To express what is likely

The journey *ought to* take about three hours at this time of the day.

If you visit the book fair, you *ought to* be able to find the book you are looking for.

Past form

Ought to has no past form. The perfect construction ought to have + -ed participle is used to refer to desirable affairs in the past:

We *ought to have discussed* the problem before it went out of hand.

Used to

- Used to is always this to talk about past habits and states which are now finished. 'Used to' has only one form, and cannot refer to the present or future:

Sometimes he *used to* come to my place for a little chat.

I *used to* smoke heavily.

I *used to* walk 3 kilometres before work every morning.

- When questions and negatives are formed, they often have *did* *used* instead of *did* ...*use*.

What *did* people *used to* do in the evenings before TV came?

I *didn't used to* like world history, but now I do.

be used to

'Used to' and 'be used to' are different.

'Be used to' refers to how familiar something is for someone. It can be present past or future. Be used to is followed by a noun phrase or 'ing' form of the verb or a clause.

We are still not used to the new system. [We are not familiar with the new system.]

I'm not used to driving hybrid cars.

I was used to ironing all my clothes every Sunday.

I'm not used to how family relations are maintained in western countries.

VOICE

Active Voice

In sentences written in active voice, the subject performs the action expressed in the verb; the subject acts.

- The dog bit the boy.
- Pooja will present her research at the conference.
- Scientists have conducted experiments to test the hypothesis.
- The manager gave the staff a party.

In each example above, the subject of the sentence performs the action expressed in the verb.

Passive Voice

The passive voice is less usual than the active voice. The active voice is the "normal" voice. But sometimes we need the passive voice. In this lesson we look at how to construct the passive voice, when to use it and how to conjugate it.

In sentences written in passive voice, the subject receives the action expressed in the verb; the subject is acted upon. The agent performing the action may appear in a "by Phrase" or may be omitted.

- The boy was bitten by a dog.
- Her research will be presented by Pooja at the conference.
- Experiments have been conducted to test the hypothesis.
- The staff was given a party by the manager.

Form of passive voice

Subject + a form of *to be* + Past Participle

- A letter was written.

Here are the passive verb forms:

Infinitive		to be washed
simple	present	It is washed.
	past	It was washed.
	future	It will be washed.
	conditional	It would be washed.
continuous	present	It is being washed.
	past	It was being washed.
	future	It will be being washed.
	conditional	It would be being washed.
perfect simple	present	It has been washed.
	past	It had been washed.
	future	It will have been washed.
	conditional	It would have been washed.
perfect continuous	present	It has been being washed.
	past	It had been being washed.
	future	It will have been being washed.
	conditional	It would have been being washed.

When rewriting active sentences in passive voice, note the following:

- the object of the active sentence becomes the subject of the passive sentence
- the finite form of the verb is changed (*to be* + past participle)
- the subject of the active sentence becomes the agent of the passive sentence (or is dropped)

Passive sentences with two objects

Rewriting an active sentence with two objects in passive voice means that one of the two objects becomes the subject, the other one remains an object. Which object to transform into a subject depends on what you want to put the focus on.

- My sister wrote a letter to me.

A letter was written to me by my sister. I was written a letter by my sister.

Use of passive voice

Passive voice is used when the focus is on the action. It is not important or not known; however, who or what is performing the action.

- My bike was stolen.

In the example above, the focus is on the fact that my bike was stolen. I do not know, however, who did it.

Sometimes a statement in passive is more polite than active voice, as the following example shows:

- A mistake was made.

In this case, I focus on the fact that a mistake was made, but I do not blame anyone (e.g. You have made a mistake.).

1. When the person who does the action (actor) is not important.
2. When the actor is unknown.
3. When the actor is understood.

Restrictions

The passive transformation is blocked when there is co-reference between the subject and the object.

1. When there are reflexive pronouns as the object.

My baby sister can wash herself.

Manoj could see himself in the mirror.

They commended themselves.

2. When the object has a possessive determiner.

My mother washed her hands.

My students painted their faces for the drama.

3. When there is a reciprocal pronoun as object.

We could hardly see each other.

Children congratulated one another.

4. Meaning restrictions

Every teacher knows at least one action song.

At least one action song is known by every teacher.

(Do these two sentences have the same meaning?)

Jinna cannot do it. (can = ability)

It cannot be done by Jinna. (can = possibility)

5. A small group of transitive verbs normally do not allow a passive transformation.

They have a nice house.

This colour suits you.

My friend lacks confidence.

Nayani resembles her mother.

The coat does not fit you.

This hall holds 500 people.

PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions of Time

on	- days of the week	- on Monday
in	- months / seasons	- in August / in winter
	- time of day	- in the morning
	- year	- in 2006
	- after a certain period of time (<i>when?</i>)	- in an hour
at	- for <i>night</i>	- at night
	- for <i>weekend</i>	- at the weekend
	- a certain point of time (<i>when?</i>)	- at half past nine
since	- from a certain point of time (past till now)	- since 1980
for	- over a certain period of time (past till now)	- for 2 years
before	- earlier than a certain point of time	- before 2004
to	- telling the time	- ten to six (5:50)
past	- telling the time	- ten past six (6:10)
to / till / until	- marking the beginning and end of a period of time	- from Monday to/till Friday
till / until	- in the sense of <i>how long something is going to last</i>	- He is on holiday until Friday.
by	- in the sense of <i>at the latest</i>	- I will be back by 6 o'clock.
	- up to a certain time	- By 11 o'clock, I had read five pages.

Place (Position and Direction)

in	- room, building, street, town, country	- in the kitchen, in Colombo
	- book, paper etc.	- in the book
	- car, taxi	- in the car, in a taxi
	- picture, world	- in the picture, in the world
at	- meaning <i>next to, by an object</i>	- at the door, at the station
	- for <i>table</i>	- at the table
	- for events	- at a concert, at the party

	- place where you are to do something typical (watch a film, study, work)	- at the cinema, at school, at work
on	- attached - for a place with a river - being on a surface - for a certain side (left, right) - for a floor in a house - for public transport - for television, radio	- the picture is on the wall - London lies on the Thames. - on the table - on the left - on the first floor - on the bus, on a plane - on TV, on the radio
by, next to	- left or right of somebody or something	- Jane is standing by / next to /
under	- on the ground, lower than (or covered by) something else	- the bag is under the table
below	- lower than something else but above ground	- the fish are below the surface
over	- covered by something else - meaning <i>more than</i> - getting to the other side (also <i>across</i>) - overcoming an obstacle	- put a jacket over your shirt - over 16 years of age - walk over the bridge - climb over the wall
above	- higher than something else, but not directly over it	- a path above the lake
across	- getting to the other side (also <i>over</i>) - getting to the other side	- walk across the road - swim across the lake
through	- something with limits on top, bottom and the sides	- drive through the tunnel
to	- movement to person or building - movement to a place or country - for <i>bed</i>	- go to the cinema - go to Jaffna / Japan - go to bed
into	- enter a room / a building	- go into the kitchen / the house
towards	- movement in the direction of something (but not directly to it)	- go 50 metres towards the station
onto	- movement to the top of something	- jump onto the table
from	- in the sense of <i>where from</i>	- a flower from the garden

from - who gave it - a present from my wife
-

Other prepositions

of	- who/what does it belong to	- a page of the book
	- what does it show	- the picture of a palace
by	- who made it	- a book by W.A.Silva
on	- walking or riding on horseback	- on foot, on horseback
	- entering a public transport vehicle	- get on the bus
In	- entering a car / Taxi	- get in the car
off	- leaving a public transport vehicle	- get off the train
out of	- leaving a car / Taxi	- get out of the taxi
By	- rise or fall of something	- prices went up by 10 percent
	- travelling (other than walking or horseriding)	- by car, by bus
At	- for <i>age</i>	- she learned Russian at 45
about	- for topics, meaning <i>what about</i>	- we were talking about you
with	- by means of	- He treated him <i>with</i> a smile.
	- possessing, having	- a girl with long hair
without	- not having	- Don't go out without permission

1. *accuse* somebody *of* something (NOT *for*) She *accused* me *of* poisoning her dog.
2. *apologise to* somebody *for* something I think we should *apologise to* the public.
I must *apologise for* disturbing you.
3. *arrive at* or *in* (NOT *to*) What time do we *arrive at* Ampara?
When did you *arrive in* England?
4. *ask* somebody *for* something Don't *ask* me *for* money.
5. *believe in* If you *believe in* me I can do anything.
6. *Congratulate on* I must *congratulate* you *on* your exam results.
7. *Congratulate on/for* He *congratulated* the team *on/for* winning their games.

8. *crash into* (NOT USUALLY against) I wasn't concentrating, and I *crashed into* the car in front.
9. *die of* or *from* More people *died of* flu than were killed in the tsunami.
A week after the accident he *died from* his injuries.
10. *divide into* (Nor in) The book is *divided into* three parts.
11. dream of (= think of, imagine) I often *dreamed of* being famous when I was younger.
12. *dream about/of* (while asleep) What does it mean if you *dream about/of mountains*?
13. *drive into* (Not against) Granny *drove into* a tree again yesterday.
14. *enter into* an agreement, a discussion etc. We've just *entered into* an agreement with India.
15. enter a place (no preposition) When I *entered* the room everybody stopped talking.
16. *explain* something *to* somebody (NOT explain-somebody something)
Could you *explain* this rule to me?
17. *fight, struggle* etc. *with* I've spent the last two weeks *fighting with* the tax office
18. *get in(to)* and *out of* a car, small boat etc. When I *got into* my car, I found the radio had been stolen.
19. *get on(to)* and *off* a train, plane, bus, ship, (motor)bike or horse
We'll be *getting off* the train in ten minutes.
20. insist on (Not *to*) My friend *insisted on* paying the bill.
21. *laugh at* I hate being *laughed at*.
22. *laugh about* We'll *laugh about* this one day.
23. *leave* somewhere (talking about the action of leaving)
I left Colombo early, before the traffic got too heavy
24. *leave from* somewhere (talking about the place Does the plane *leave from* Katunayaka or Ratmalana?
25. *listen to* If you don't *listen to* people, they won't *listen to* you.
26. *look at* (= point one's eyes at) Stop *looking at* me like that.
27. *look after* (take care of) Thanks for *looking after* me when I was ill.
28. *look for* (= try to find) Can you help me *look for* my keys?
29. *make of* All our furniture is *made of* wood.
30. *operate on* a patient They *operated on* her yesterday evening.
31. *pay for* something that is bought (NOT pay something) Excuse me, sir. You haven't *paid for* your drink.
32. *prevent ... from ...ing* (NOT *to*) The noise from downstairs *prevented me from* sleeping.
33. *remind of* She *reminds me of* a girl I was at school with.

34. search for (= look for) The customs were *searching for* drugs at the airport.
35. search (without preposition) (= look through; look everywhere in/on) They *searched* the man in front of me from head to foot.
36. *shout at* (aggressive) If you don't stop *shouting at* me I'll come and hit you.
37. *shout to* (= call to) My friend *shouted to* us to come in and swim.
38. *smile at* If you *smile at* me like that I'll give you anything you want.

Reference

Swan M Practical English Usage OUP 2008 Edition

REPORTED (INDIRECT) SPEECH

Changes that occur in forming reported speech.

	Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
	I	he / she
	We	they
	You	I / We
	My	his /her
	Our	their
	Your	my
Place	here	there
Time	now	then
	Today	that day, on Monday, etc
	Yesterday	the day before, the previous day
	Tomorrow	the next/ following day, on Sunday etc
	This week	that week
	Last week	the week before, the previous week
	An hour ago	an hour before / earlier

We use **tell** if we want to mention the hearer
hearer

We use **say** when we do not mention the

Simple Present > Simple Past

*Rosa said, "I **am** happy."*

*Rosa said that she **was** happy.*

Present Continuous > Past Continuous

*Sheila said, "Thusitha **is studying**."*

*Sheila said that Thusitha **was studying**.*

Present Perfect > Past Perfect

*Wimal said, "Harith **has left** already."*

*Wimal said that Harith **had left** already.*

Simple Future (Will) > Past Future (Would)

*Khema said, "I **will be** here tomorrow."
tomorrow.*

*Khema said that she **would be** here*

Future Continuous (Will) > Past Future Continuous (Would)

*Eva said, "I **will be visiting** my family in Matara." Eva said that she **would be visiting** her family in Matara.*

*Sunil said, "I **will have lived** in Hikkaduwa for ten years by the year 2010."*

*Sunil said that she **would have lived** in Hikkaduwa for ten years by the year 2010.*

Future Perfect Continuous > Past Future Perfect Continuous

*Patricia said, "I **will have been living** in Badulla for five years by the year 2008."*

*Patricia said, she **would have been living** in Badulla for five years by the year 2008."*

Future (Be Going To) > Past Future

*Pala said, "I **am going to go** to the store later."*

*Pala said he was **going to go** to the store later."*

Simple Past > Past Perfect

*Carmal said, "The students **saw** a movie."*

*Carmal said that the students **had seen** a movie.*

Past Continuous > Past Perfect Continuous

*Bimal said, "I **was watching** television."*

*Bimal said that she **had been watching** television.*

Past Perfect > Past Perfect (No Change)

*Navini said, "I **had already eaten**." Navini said that she **had already eaten**.*

Past Perfect Continuous > Past Perfect Continuous (No Change)

*Sonia said, "I **had been cooking**." Sonia said that she **had been cooking**.*

Present/Future ability or possibility (Can) > Past ability or possibility (Could)

*Rose said, "I **can work** on Saturday." Rose said (that) **could work** on Saturday*

Present/Future Possibility (May) > Past Possibility (Might)

*Sita said, "I **may buy** a new car." Sita said (that) she **might buy** a new car*

Present/Future Possibility (Might) >Past Possibility (Might, no change)

*Dennis said, "I **might reach** home around 7." Dennis said that he **might reach** home around 7.*

Present/Future Necessity (Must, Have to, Have got to)>Past Necessity (had to)

*Teresa said, "You **must do** your homework." Teresa told us that we **had to do** our homework.*

*David said, "You **have to be ready** for class." David told us that we **had to be ready** for class.*

Present/Future Advisability (Should,) >Past Advisability (Should,)

*Cindy said, "You **should go** see this movie." Cindy said that we **should go** see this movie.*

Imperative (Command / request etc)> to infinitive

*His father said, "**Go to your room.**" His father **told him to go** to his room.*

Team manager told the players, "Play without fear." Team manager told the players to play without fear. Mother told the children, "Don't come home late." Mother told the children not to come home late.

Yes/No Questions > If/ whether [question becomes a statement]

*Harold asked, "**Would you like** to take a break." Harold asked **if we would like** to take a break.*

*Sanath asked, "**Are you Comfortable**" Snath asked **whether we were** comfortable.*

Information Questions (Where, When, Why, Who, What, How, etc.) Questions become statements.

*Lorna asked Tamara, "How long **have you lived** in the Western Province?"*

*Lorna asked Tamara how long **she had lived** in the Western Province .*

*Iresha asked Kumari, "Where **do you live**?" Iresha asked Kumari **where she lived**.*

Reported Speech - The verb forms remain the same the following cases.

1. If the reporting verb is in the present tense.

Anoma: "I am enjoying my holiday." - Anoma says she is enjoying her holiday.

Dasun: "I will never go to work." - Dasun says he will never go to work.

2. When we report something that is still true.

Daneshi: "Asia is the largest continent." - Daneshi said Asia is the largest continent.

Sujeeva: "People in Africa are starving." - Sujeeva said people in Africa are starving.

3. When a sentence is made and reported at the same time and the fact is still true.

Suba: "I am thirsty." - Suba said he is thirsty.

Sajee: "My friend is angry." Sajee said her friend is angry.

4. With modal verbs *would, might, could, should, ought to, used to*.

Yoga: "I would try it." - Yoga said he would try it.

Hasi: "I might come." - Hai said she might come.

Sriya: "I could invite you." - Sriya said she could invite you.

Nish: "He should/ought to stay in bed." - Nish said he should/ought to stay in bed.

Udaya: "I used to have a car." - Udaya said he used to have a car.

5. After *wish, would rather, had better, it is time*.

Kanthi: "I wish they were here." - Kanthi said she wished they were here.

Niroshi: "I would rather fly." - Niroshi said he would rather fly.

Isuri: "They had better go." - Isuri said they had better go.

Asoka: "It is time I got up." - Asoka said it was time she got up.

6. In *if-clauses*.

Mangala: "If I tidied my room, my dad would be happy."

Martha said that if she tidied her room, her dad would be happy.

7. In *time-clauses*.

Bala: "When I was staying in India I met my best friend."

Bala said that when he was staying in India he met his best friend.

8. We do not change the past tense in spoken English if it is clear from the situation when the action happened.

"She did it on Sunday," I said. - I said she did it on Sunday.

We must change it, however, in the following sentence, otherwise it will not be clear whether we are talking about the present or past feelings.

"I hated her," he said. - He said he had hated her.

9. We do not usually change the modal verbs *must* and *needn't*. But *must* can become *had to* or *would have to* and *needn't* can become *didn't have to* or *wouldn't have to* if we want to express an obligation.

Would/wouldn't have to are used to talk about future obligations.

"I must wash up." - He said he must wash up/he had to wash up.

"I needn't be at school today." - He said he needn't be/didn't have to be at school that day.

"We must do it in June." - He said they would have to do it in June.

If the modal verb must does not express obligation, we do not change it.

"We must relax for a while." (suggestion) - He said they must relax for a while.

"You must be tired after such a trip." (certainty) - He said we must be tired after such a trip.

TENSE AND ASPECT

Simple Present

Form

In the Simple Present we always use one word verbs.

I want some more time.

Our mother helps us in our studies.

Uses.

We use the present simple to talk about things in general. When we use simple Present, we are not thinking only about now. We use it to say that something happens all the time or repeatedly, or that something is true in general. Whether the action is happening at the time of speaking is not important.

Unrestrictive use – It includes past present and future time.

Verbs we can use here:

be, live, belong, last, like, stand, know, have, contain

My brother lives in the country.

My friends are very helpful.

Our teacher knows many languages.

Proverbs-

Honesty is the best policy.

Barking dogs seldom bite.

Rolling stone gathers no moss.

Scientific statements -

Hydrogen is the lightest element.

Water boils at 100 degrees centigrade.

Mathematical statements-

Two and two make four.

An equilateral triangle has three equal sides.

Geographical statements-

The Mahaweli flows to the sea at Trincomalee.

India shares a border with Pakistan.

Sri Lanka is in the Indian Ocean.

Timeless statements - Expressions of eternal truths.

The sun gives us warmth.

Planets revolve round the sun.

To talk about things that are true about your life.

My sister lives in America.

My friend works in a private firm.

I like love stories.

Habitual Present (Iterative use) - Confined to event verbs. To speak about something that happens again and again [something that happens regularly] How often we do things.

My friends walk to work.

My sister makes her own dresses.

Srilankans enjoy drinking tea.

A frequency adverbial can be added to specify the frequency of the repetition.

My friends walk to work every other day.

Buddhists go to temple every poya day.

Sena drinks heavily every night.

Instantaneous use – occurs only in certain definable contexts. It signifies an event simultaneous with the present moment, and has a beginning and an end.

Sports commentaries.

Mathews throws the ball to Malinga. Malinga walks to his bowling mark, he runs in and bowls ...

Demonstrations - Occur only in certain easily definable contexts.)

e.g

To refer to future [when the event is unalterably fixed in advance]

The plane leaves for Male at eight tonight.

My parents leave for India next week.

We have a test next month.

Historic present- Used in storytelling. Past happenings are portrayed or imagined as if they were going on at the present time.

e.g

To refer to writers and books

The Mahawansa says

Shakespeare says

Today's Daily news says

In exclamations

Here comes the train!

There goes the future leader of our country!

Off you go!

With performative verbs

I promise you to be careful.

I beg your pardon.

I deny your charge.

In travelogue itinerary

To reach Thiriyaya, you make your way to Trincomalee. Then move north for about thirty kilometers and you arrive at Thiriyaya pagoda.

In instruction booklets

Holding the battery pack with terminals facing as shown, press the battery lock in the direction of the arrow and insert the battery pack until the lock clicks shut.

Simple Past

Like the simple present, the simple past also has only one word as the verb.

There is no number distinction (singular plural distinction), except with the 'be' verb

Uses

i. Completed action in the past

Use the Simple Past to express the idea that an action started and finished at a specific time in the past. The happening took place before the present moment. The speaker has a definite time in mind.

Last year, I visited Thiriyaya.
I didn't watch news last night.
Did you have dinner yesterday?

ii. Past events happening simultaneously.

We enjoyed and admired the children's work.

The clerk addressed and sealed the envelop.

We use the Simple Past to list a series of completed actions in the past. These actions happen 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th and so on.

I finished work, walked to the station, and waited for the train.

My sister arrived home at 6.00, went into the kitchen, and had a chat with my wife.

If the order of the verbs is reversed, the meaning changes.

iii. Duration in the past

The simple past can be used with a duration which starts and stops in the past. A duration is a longer period often indicated by expressions such as for two years, for five minutes, all day, all year etc.

I worked in Polonnaruwa for four years.

My son studied Hindi for five years.

My cousins did not stay at the party the entire time.

iv. Habits in the past

The Simple Past can also be used to describe a habit which stopped in the past. It can have the same meaning as "used to." To make it clear that we are talking about a habit, we often add expressions such as: always, often, usually, never, when I was a child, when I was younger, etc.

I **studied** French when I was a child.

He **played** the violin when he was at school.

You }
We } **are playing.** OR You're }
We're } **playing.**

They }
They're }

NEGATIVE

QUESTION

I'm **not** playing.

Am I playing?

He }
She } **is not / isn't** playing.

Is he }
Is she } playing?

It

Is it

You }
We } **are not / aren't** playing.

Are you }
Are they } playing?

They

Are you

C Use

i. We use the present continuous to say that we are in the middle of an action.

I'm waiting for the train. (I'm at the station now.)

My sister is getting the lunch ready, (She is in the kitchen now.)

'I'm waiting' means that I am in the middle of a period of waiting. The wait is not yet over.

ii. We can also use the present continuous when we are in the middle of something but not actually doing it at the moment of speaking.

I must get back to the office. **We're working** on a new project.

I'm quite busy these days. **I'm following** a course at the Technical College.

iii. We can use the present continuous when things are changing over a long period.

The life span of humans is **decreasing**.

The earth is slowly **getting** warmer.

iv. The present continuous to express future

Surendra: Are you doing anything next week?

Pradeep: Yes, **I'm going** to see the third cricket match. I bought a ticket yesterday.

We use the present continuous for what someone has arranged to do in the future. Here

Pradeep has arranged to go to the match. (He has bought a ticket.)

Here are some more examples.

Mahela **is coming** to meet me later on.

We're having a party tomorrow.

Sarath **is going** to Paris next week.

v. We use Present Continuous with “ALWAYS” to show irritation for a repeated action.

[Remember to use the word ‘always’ between “be” and “verb +ing”.]

She is **always** coming to class late.

You are **always** complaining about food.

Private bus union is **always** complaining.

Some people are **always** demanding a higher pay.

vi. When you are talking about two actions in the present tense, you use the present continuous for an

action that continues to happen before and after another action that interrupts it. We use the present simple for the other action.

The phone always rings when I'm having my dinner.

Friends always talk to me when I'm trying to study.

vii. We use continuous tenses to describe a state or situation that is temporary. There is no number distinction except in the use of 'be' verb.

I'm living in Colombo at the moment.

She's spending the holidays with her aunt.

Past continuous (Progressive)

FORM [was/were + verb ing]

You **were studying** when she called.

Were you studying when she called?

You **were not studying** when she called.

USES

i. The Past Continuous means that at a time in the past we were in the middle of an action. It is necessary to mention the time in the past. Time can be expressed by a phrase or a clause.

Last evening at 8 PM, I **was having** dinner.

At midnight, we **were still driving** towards Kataragama.

ii. We often use the Past Continuous and simple together when one (shorter) action comes in the middle of another (longer) one.

I **was watching** TV when she called.

When the phone rang, she **was writing** a letter.

What **were you doing** when the tsunami came?

You **were not listening** to me when I told you to turn the oven off.

Sammy **was waiting** for us when we got off the plane.

When one (shorter) action comes in the middle of another (longer) one, we use **while** with the longer action.

While we **were having** the picnic, it started to rain.

While Nalin **was sleeping** last night, someone stole his car.

While I **was writing** the email, the computer suddenly went off.

iii. In the Simple Past, a specific time is used to show when an action began or finished. In the Past Continuous, a specific time only shows the action was going on.]

Last night at 6 PM, I **watched TV**. (I started watching TV at 6.00)

At 6 PM yesterday, I **was watching TV**. (I started earlier. At 6.00 I was in the process of watching TV)

iv. Parallel Actions

When you use the Past Continuous with two actions in the same sentence, it expresses the idea that both actions were happening at the same time. The actions are parallel.

I **was studying** while he **was making** dinner.

While my brother **was reading**, my sister **was watching** television.

Were you listening while the teacher **was talking**?

What **were you doing** while you **were waiting**?

While vs. When

Clauses are groups of words which have meaning, but are often not complete sentences. Some clauses begin with the word "when" such as "when she called" or "when it bit me." Other clauses begin with "while" such as "while she was sleeping" and "while he was walking." When you talk about things in the past, "when" is most often followed by the Simple Past verb, whereas "while" is usually followed by Past Continuous. "While" expresses the idea of "during that time."

I was studying **when she called**.

While I was studying, she called.

Non-Continuous Verbs / Mixed Verbs

It is important to remember that Non-Continuous Verbs cannot be used in any continuous tense. Also, certain non-continuous meanings for Mixed Verbs cannot be used in continuous tenses. Instead of using Past Continuous with these verbs, you must use Simple Past.

v. Neela **was believing** me. . *Not Correct*

vi. Neela **believed** me. *Correct*

Common non- continuous (progressive) verbs

Mental and emotional states

believe	doubt	feel (have an opinion)	hate	imagine
know	(dis)like	love	prefer	realize
recognize	remember	see (understand)	suppose	think (have an opinion)
understand	want	wish		

Use of the senses – verbs of inert perception

feel	see	sound	hear	smell	taste
------	-----	-------	------	-------	-------

Communicating and causing reactions

agree	appear	astonish	deny	disagree	impress	look (seem)
mean	please	promise	satisfy	seem	surprise	

Other

be	belong	consist	contain	depend	deserve
fit					
include	involve	lack	matter	measure (have length etc)	
need					
owe	own	possess	weigh (have a weight)		

Event verbs

Momentary verbs – These verbs refer to happenings so brief that it is difficult to think of them as having duration.

hiccough, hit, jump, kick, knock, nod, tap, wink etc.

When we attribute duration, the progressive form means that we talk of a series of events rather than of a single event.

He nodded. (single movement) He was nodding. (a repeated movement)

He jumped up and down. He was jumping up and down.

Someone fired tear gas at the crowd. Someone was firing tear gas at the crowd.

Transitional event verbs.

Event verbs denoting transition into a state are used with the progressive to indicate an approach to the transition, rather than the transition itself.

arrive, die, fall, land, leave, lose, stop etc.

The train was arriving

The helicopter was landing.

The old man was dying.

We can even argue that a different meaning of the verb comes into play in the switch from Simple Past to Past Progressive.

He was dying. (indicates a process which ends in death.)

He died. (points to the actual moment of transition, the completion of the process.)

Activity Verbs

drink, eat, play, rain, read, work, write etc.

Although these verbs can be used with the Simple tenses in an ‘event’ sense, they more usually occur with the Progressive, as they refer to a continuing, though bounded activity.

What are you doing? I am writing a letter.

They are still eating their dinner.

The important point is that the verbs tell us that something is going on.

Process Verbs

change, grow, mature, slowdown, widen, deteriorate etc.

As a process normally has duration, but not indefinite duration, these verbs also tend to go with the Progressive Aspect.

The weather is changing for the better.

They are widening the road.

Most difficulties over the use of the Progressive Aspect arise with classes of verbs which are normally incompatible with the Progressive. The most important of these verbs is the verb ‘to be’.

He is ill. (Unrestrictive present), but not

He is being ill.

Future Continuous (Progressive)

Form : will/shall + be + ing

It talks about events in progress in the future.

We use Future Progressive to say that something will be in progress at a certain time in the future.

I'll call me around eight p.m. I will be expecting your call.

Don't visit them tomorrow morning, they will be travelling to their hometown.

Future continuous can be used to state that something will happen in the normal course of events.

I will be going through your report in the next few days.

I will be preparing another project proposal in the course of next week.

Future Continuous is useful when we want to show that we are not taking unnecessary trouble to do something.

I can give you a lift because I'll be going that way.

Perfectives

Present perfect

There is a special problem of past time reference in English: the question of how to choose between the use of past tense and the use of the perfect aspect.

The past is used when the past happening is related to a definite time in the past. In contrast the perfect is used for a past happening that is seen in relation to a later event or time.

Kumar was in Paris for ten years.

Kumar has been in Paris for ten years.

Both sentences indicate a state of affairs before the present moment, but the simple past indicates that the period of residence has come to a close, whereas the present perfect indicates that the residence has continued up to present time. (and may even continue to the future.) This kind of reference is often summarized in the statement that the present perfect signifies past time 'with current reference'.

Uses

i. Present Perfect is used with 'state verbs' such as **be, know, like, impress, love,**

Have you known the Pereras for long?

That house has been empty for ages.

He has always been a good teacher.

[Continued up to present and may continue in future]

- ii. Present perfect is used with action verbs to refer to some indefinite happening in the past.

[Linked to the present with knowledge, experience or result]

Have you been to America?

Have you ever traveled in a ship?

[Often the indefinite meaning is reinforced adverbially, especially by **ever, never, before.**]

By indefiniteness here are meant two things.

1. The number of events is unspecified-it may be one or more than one.
2. The time is also left unspecified. (At least once before now)

iii. Past event with results in the present time

The taxi has arrived. (It's now here.)

Her car has been stolen. (It's still not found.)

Sanath's doctor has told him not to eat oily food. (He is still acting on his doctor's advice.)

Past perfect

The Past Perfect indicates past in the past: that is, a time further in the past as seen 'from a definite point of time in the past.

The house had been empty for several months when I bought it

The goalkeeper had injured his leg and couldn't play.

Before the teacher entered the classroom the children had decorated the classroom.

When we arrived at the stadium the match had already started.

Uses

- i. The past perfect naturally replaces the Past tense and the Present perfect in reported speech after a reporting verb in the past tense.

She told me that she had already completed the project.

Bathiya told me that he had visited Japan two years before. (I visited Japan two years ago.)

- ii. When describing one event following another in the past, we can show their relation by using the past perfect for the earlier event.

After the teacher had left the room the children started talking.

When the teacher had left the room the children started talking.

- iii. The Past Perfect is used with such verbs as **hope, expect, think, intend suppose** and **want** to indicate that a past **hope; expectation, intention, desire** etc was not realized.

We had hoped that you would be able to visit us.

They had wanted to help but couldn't get here in time.

We had intended to go to Jaffna last vacation.

Future perfect

To indicate activities that will or are considered **to extend to and include** a point or period of time in the future the Future perfect may be used. The future points to the time of an activity; the Future Perfect puts more emphasis on the completion of the activity and on the consequence of this.

By this time next year I will have completed my degree.

In the year 2020 my sister will have worked for twenty years.

Perfect Continuous (progressive)

Form

Verb 'have' + been + ing

Present Perfect Continuous

Present Perfect Continuous is normally used to talk about situations or actions that started in the past and are still going on and continue in to the future.

I have been reading this book for three days.

They have been waiting for the train since 8 a.m.

We can use present perfect continuous to talk about how people use their time up to present.

I have been trying to finish this book before noon.

My friends have been watching the match since morning.

We can also use the present perfect continuous to talk about situations or actions that have just stopped.

You look tired. I have been mending the fence.

Why are you late? I have been waiting for you for two hours.

We can further use present perfect continuous to talk about repeated actions.

My friends have been calling me all day on the first of January.

I have been trying to contact the director for days.

Past perfect continuous

Form: had + been + ing

Past perfect continuous is used to talk about actions and situations that had continued up to a certain point of time in the past we mention.

When I met my sister, I knew that she had been crying.

We had been discussing the programme when you came in.

[A temporary event leading up to some point in the past.]

We use past perfect continuous to say how long something had been happening up to a particular past moment.

I got a backache because I had been standing for a long time.

I had been closely watching how my parents worked as teachers, and I wanted to be a teacher.

Future perfect continuous

Form: will / shall/ + have + ing

Future Perfect Continuous shows that an action will be in progress at a particular time in the future. To show the time or duration adverbials are used.

By six o' clock they will have been meeting for almost six hours.

Next January my friend will have been representing the country for ten years.

I will have been teaching for twenty years next March.

Will:

will is commonly used to indicate **futurity**. Reference to future time is clearly shown by the use of future time adverbials.

I *will be* happy when this workshop is over.

We *will meet* them next week.

Will can be used to express **intention**: (especially in the first person):

I *will* do my exercises later on.

I *will* meet you at the station.
We *will* invite everyone to the party.
I *will* write as soon as possible.

Will can be used to express **Prediction**:

Tomorrow's weather *will* be fine.

The director *will* recommend you for a scholarship.

He *will* have an accident if he drives like this.

Prediction can be of three types.

- specific: The meeting will be over soon.
- timeless: Oil will float on water.
- habitual: The river will overflow its banks every time it rains.

Will can be used to express **willingness**:

Who *will* help me to lay the table? I will.

I *will* help you to clean the garden.

We're going to have a get together. *Will* you join us?

I *will* sweep the room if you arrange it.

Will in its future sense can sometimes be used with a force of a future **command**.

You *will* do exactly as I say.

It expresses an **impatient commands**

Will you be quiet?

Will you after a negative command can tone down a command.

Don't be late, *will* you.

Will you after a positive command has rising intonation, and usually expresses impatience.

Keep quiet, *will* you.

Will is used in making **requests**

Will you send me the bill, please?

A negative question expects a positive answer and is more persuasive.

- Won't you come and sit down?

Will is used to express **typical behaviour**

My sister *will* sit looking at herself in the mirror for hours.

Sulphuric acid *will* dissolve most metals.

In probable (first) conditional *will* is used in the main clause.

- If he rides like this, he *will* have an accident.

We often use 'will' with the following expressions.

Probably; I'll probably be home this week end.

I expect: I haven't heard from my brother for two days. I expect he'll call this evening.

(I'm) sure: don't worry about the exam. I'm sure you'll get through.

(I) think: Do you think you will be able to speak in English?

(I) don't think: We don't think the exam will be difficult.

I wonder: I wonder what will be there in the budget.

would

- *Would* is not merely the past tense of will. It is used as the past of will in the reported speech.

My partner said, "I will invite all the friends."

My partner said (that) he would invite all the friends.

- *Would* is used instead of *will* in requests.

Would you come back a little later?

Would you mind opening the window?

- *Would* is used in making offers. *Would you like* is a polite way of making offers. '*Would you like*' means 'Do you want?'

Would you like some tea? Yes, please.

Would you like to have some rest? No, thanks.

What *would you like* to have, tea or soft drinks?

- To invite someone we use *would you like to...*

Would you like to have lunch with me?

Would you like to go to cinema?

Would you like to spend a few days with us next month?

- *Would* is used to politely say "I want"

I would (I'd) like a drink. I'm thirsty.

I would like some information about this workshop.

- *Would* is used to show characteristic activity in the past replacing 'used to'.

Every morning my father *would meditate* for 20minutes.

At home *he would smoke* five cigarettes a day.

Whenever we came late to the class in the morning, the teacher would say 'good afternoon'.

[**would** is typical of narrative style, but **used to** is common in spoken form.]

- *Would* is used in conditional sentences. [Hypothetical meaning]

If you asked politely, I *would* do it. [hypothetical]

If you had asked politely, I *would have* done it. [past]

- *would* is used to talk about a characteristic activity:

- customary:
After work, he would spend a few minutes checking all the doors and windows.
- typical (casual):
She would cause the whole family to be late, every time.

Would can express a sense of probability:

I hear a musical horn. That *would* be the mobile bread van.

Can-

The most familiar use of **can** expresses ability to perform an action.

- *Can* shows ability. [strength, knowledge, skill]

I can drive heavy vehicles.

That athlete can lift 100 kg.

I can play many musical instruments.

Can you speak Hindi?

- Permission

You can stop work early today.

You can leave early today.

Can we park the car here?

- Possibility (theoretical)

Railways can be improved.

Learning English can be made easy.

- Request

Can you give me a lift, please?

Can you wait for me?

- Willingness

I can do it for you.

could

- *Could* is used

- sometimes as the past tense of can to express an ability in the past.

Yesterday I could complete only three chapters.

I was not well last night and couldn't sleep.

I could always beat you at table tennis when we were kids.

- to politely ask for permission.

Could I meet the chairman?

Hello, could I speak to Sirimal please?

Could I leave early today?

- to express present possibility:

We could always spend the afternoon just sitting around talking.

- to make requests

Could you lend me your book for a week?

Could you iron my clothes, please?

- to make suggestions

You could clean the office while I am away.

You could meet the clients for me.

