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Grammar Charts for Advanced ESL Levels: A Teacher's Reference

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Grammar Charts for Advanced ESL Levels:

A Teacher's Reference

Francis Mausley

January 1983

Submitted in partial fulfillment
of the
requirements for the Master of Arts in Teaching degree
at the
School for International Training,
Brattleboro, Vermont

This project by Francis Mausley is accepted in its present form.

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ABSTRACT: This project consists of twelve grammar charts presented in a concise box form. Each chart illustrates several generalizations about the usage of a part of speech. The charts contain such items as: types, categories, sequence tendencies, structure patterns, word and phrase examples, specific functions, transformation processes etc. etc.

The work is intended as an ESL teacher's reference and the format has been designed to present the content in an efficient manner. Each of the twelve charts deal with different subjects and are therefore divided into twelve separate units. All units contain the following four sections:

- A. Definition and Assumed Learning
- B. Grammar Chart
- C. Chart Commentary
- D. Suggested Activities

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Introduction

While reviewing English grammar materials at the Experiment in International Living, I often wished that there were more English grammar charts available for advanced levels. Although a variety of charts were to be found at the lower levels, I found too few available for advanced levels.

The purpose of this paper is to present grammar charts suitable for lesson planning at higher levels. Out of twenty charts originally designed, twelve have been selected for presentation because they contained appropriate content for advanced ESL students and offered the writer an educational experience as well.

The work is intended as a reference for ESL teachers. The chart form enables the teacher to quickly grasp certain generalizations about a part of speech or a grammatical process. However, the four sections of each unit also provides a working definition, assumed learning, a chart commentary and suggested activities.

The suggested activities are not highly detailed, but provide a margin of freedom in which the teacher can adapt the activity to their own style and in a manner suitable to the specific level, culture or mood of their students. The activities are based on a group dynamics method of teaching, which means that the students work in groups such as dyads (one-to-one), triads (three persons), small groups, large groups and a divided class (half and half,

etc.).

The names of people used in the various examples throughout the units are first names and nicknames that are common to the people of Thailand. The shorter nicknames often refer to some physical characteristic of an individual (e.g. "Lek" means "little") and can refer to a male or female. (Some examples are preceded by the letter "x" which implies that the following phrase or statement is unacceptable.)

At this time, the writer has had gratifying success using this material with two groups of advanced ESL students (refer to the Acknowledgments section). Rather than writing a conclusion to this paper, the writer would prefer to design more charts for future use. Indeed, it is felt that hundreds of advanced ESL grammar charts could be designed and be used as helpful and ready references for effective lesson planning.

If this paper can be used in any manner to assist an ESL teacher at any time or place, the writer will have achieved some degree of servitude for which he can only be grateful.

"Servitude is the highest station of man."

Baha'i Writings

Sincerely

Francis Mausley
Phanat Nikhom, Chonburi, Thailand
January 19, 1983

UNIT I ADJECTIVES: FUNCTIONS OF REFERENCE ADJECTIVES

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Reference adjectives are adjectives that are exclusively attributive and occur preceeding a noun. From this prenominal position, a direct reference is made to the noun.

It is assumed that students studying this grammar form have already studied other adjective types in the prenominal position, such as intensifiers, determiners and descriptive adjectives. A knowledge of noun adjuncts would also be helpful.

B. Grammar Chart

Reference Adjectives

<u>Specific Functions</u>	<u>Adjective</u>	<u>Phrase Examples</u>
1. shows noun is already determined	very, precise	the very man for the job
2. shows importance or rank of the noun	main, chief	the main reason
3. shows recognition by law or custom	true, legal	the true heir
4. identifies a specific reference	medical, reserve	the medical doctor
5. qualifies the time reference	present, future	the present owner
6. qualifies the geographical reference	urban, rural	the urban cowboy
7. intensifies or emphasizes	total, mere	a total stranger
8. shows uniqueness	sole,	the sole refuge

of the noun only

C. Chart Commentary

Most attributive adjectives are derived from a predicate source (e.g. the house is red = the red house). The distinctive feature of reference adjectives is that they are always attributive, never predicative (e.g. the main reason -X the reason is main). These adjectives can infer a special meaning that cannot be inferred in a predicative form (e.g. the mad scientist - the scientist was mad). Their exclusive character also provides a safeguard from usage that is not merely inferred, but has a distinctly different meaning (e.g. the true heir to the throne (i.e., legitimate) - the heir is true to the throne (i.e. loyal)).

It should also be noted that there are adjectives that are exclusively predicative (e.g. the door is ajar -X the ajar door) and thus cannot be used in a prenominal position. Nevertheless, there are more adjectives that are exclusively attributive than adjectives that are exclusively predicative. The preceding chart shows sub-categories of reference adjectives. These are categorized according to specific functions and show some commonly used reference adjectives in context.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Have the students form pairs or small groups. Let each group choose a different "specific function" (refer chart) from those already presented. Then, ask each person in the group to find a new reference adjective which accords with their chosen function. For example, "basic" and "prime" could be added to "main" and "chief." Assist the students as they write sentences. Then, let them say their sentences to the class. If you're game--let them make their sentences in reference to you!

2. Let your students guess or state the differences in meaning that can occur between attributive adjectives (e.g. the gold house) and predicative adjectives (e.g. the house is gold). You may wish to use some of the following pairs.

the holy man (monk) - the man is holy (good)

that particular person (exact) - that person's particular (exacting)

the responsible student (trustworthy) - the student (who) is responsible (blameworthy)

a regular guy (ordinary) - a guy (that) is regular (eliminates at fixed intervals)

UNIT II ADVERBIALS; TYPE AND SEQUENCE

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Adverbials are single words or a word group that modify the verb in such a way that a more complete description of an action or state is expressed.

Previous student learning should include a familiarity with the functions of adverbs of manner, place and time.

B. Grammar ChartAdverbials

<u>Type</u>	<u>Answers</u>	<u>Sequence Tendency</u>	<u>Clustered Tendency</u>
1. direction	Which way?	to lead all other adverbials	She danced <u>around the square</u> each morning because she was happy.
2. manner	How?	to lead or follow ones of	He ate <u>quickly</u> this morning. Suporn walked home <u>quietly</u> .
3. position	Where?	to follow ones of manner	He hummed softly <u>in the room</u> at midnight.
4. frequency	How often?	to precede times ones often and reason ones almost always	He ate early at four o'clock <u>every day</u> because he was hungry.
5. time	When?	to precede frequency ones often and reason ones almost always	He ate early <u>at four o'clock</u> every day because he

was hungry.

6.	reason (or purpose)	Why?	to be in the final position	He ate early at four o'clock every day <u>because he</u> <u>was hungry.</u>
----	---------------------------	------	--------------------------------	---

C. Chart Commentary

Phrase structure rules allow for an indefinite number of adverbials that may be clustered at the end of a sentence (refer to chart examples). A common sequence for ordering various types of adverbials in a cluster would be:

			(frequency)	(time)	
(direction)	(manner)	(position)			(reason)
			(time)	(frequency)	

(e.g. She walked down the street quietly in the dark at eight o'clock every evening because she enjoyed the coolness of the night air.) However, this sequence cannot be applied all the time because there are other significant considerations that influence the ordering of adverbials. For example, short adverbials tend to occur before longer ones, e.g. Ridvan arrived at six in good spirits (i.e., time before manner). Also, an adverbial that is the focus of a speaker's message tends to occur early, e.g. She visited him, because he was not feeling well, at eight o'clock (i.e., reason before time). And again, when two adverbials of the same type occur, the specific one tends to precede the general one, e.g. Geng was born on May 23rd, 1955 (i.e., month before year).

Note, however, that the chart progressively lists the type of adverbials in an order in which they commonly occur.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Make up one sentence that contains all six types of adverbials. Print the sentence twice with large letters on a piece of paper. Cut the sentences up into adverbial sections and give a section to each student. Ask the class to unscramble the two sentences. Then discuss the results. Were the two sentences arranged in the same sequence? Why or why not? What were the differences, if any? Are they both acceptable? Why or why not? Which is in a common order? The teacher may wish to conduct this activity before or after a presentation on adverbial sequencing.

2. Ask the students to write a sentence with all six types of adverbials in the sequence suggested in the Chart Commentary. When they are finished, tell them to reverse the sequence (i.e., write the sentence "backwards"). You may suggest that they begin their second sentence with the word "Because." Discuss the results. Are the sentences acceptable? Partially acceptable? What adverbials make this difficult to do?

UNIT III COMPOUND WORDS; MAJOR PATTERNS

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Compound words are words that have been formed from the joining together, in some manner, of two or more parts of speech. A particle may or may not be added. Prior to becoming a compound word, the parts of speech often have a history of occurring together in a set sequence.

Prerequisite learning for students should include a substantial vocabulary of common nouns and a familiarity with "ed" and "er" word endings.

B. Grammar Chart

<u>Compound Words</u>		
<u>Common Patterns</u>	<u>Examples</u>	<u>Final</u>
1. noun + noun	flashlight, lipstick	noun
2. adjective + noun	blackbird hothouse	noun
3. adjective-noun + ed	kind-hearted high-minded	adjective
4. noun, verb + er	girlwatcher can opener	noun
5. directional particle + verb	overestimate outdo	verb

C. Chart Commentary

The English language uses extensively the word formation process referred to as "compounding." Other languages, however, may not have this process (i.e., Romance language group). It is possible for a native speaker of English to form an original compound word in a speech act with no loss of effectiveness in communication. But, many ESL students may experience difficulty in understanding and using compound words. The difficulty is compounded (Har! Har!) when compound words must be expressed in a written form as one word (e.g. footstool) or as two words (e.g. beauty parlor) or yet as hyphenated (e.g. cliff-hanger). Also, rather than using an appropriate compound word, some students may paraphrase (e.g. light of the moon - moonlight). Some high frequency patterns of compound words are demonstrated by the chart.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Have a friendly competition game. Divide the class into small teams. Write the following words on the blackboard in a scattered fashion.

honey road glass merry round hour straw

news Shake cat life guard cross go hot

pole moon red milk stand berry

Inform the students that there are at least ten common words that can be compounded from those on the board. Then ask, "Which team can find them first?" You may warn them that two words have hyphens in them (i.e., red-hot, merry-go-round). The answers are: crossroad, strawberry, polecat, newstand, milkshake, lifeguard, red-hot, hourglass, merry-go-round and honeymoon. Take the winning team with you on your honeymoon.

2. Ask the students to write a dialog in pairs. The dialog can have any number of lines, but no more than twenty words. Also, the dialog should contain as many compound nouns as possible. You should encourage them to use dictionaries and you may wish to suggest that the dialog is between a store clerk and a customer. Have one student write the less familiar compound nouns on the board as they go through their dialogs in class.

UNIT IV FILLER "IT": USAGE OF NON-REFERENTIAL "IT"

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Non-referential "it" is a pronoun filler that provides an informal, short and less redundant substitute for subject pronouns. "It" is non-referential in that it does not refer to a specific or precise noun, but is more general.

Prior to exposure to the points in this chart, students should have an understanding of the referential functions of "it." Referential "it" is a pronoun substitute for some specific noun (e.g. Where is my watch? It is on the table.).

B. Grammar Chart

<u>Non-Referential "It"</u>			
<u>General Subject</u>	<u>Use of "It"</u>	<u>Subject Transformation</u>	<u>Structure</u>
1. weather (precipitation) i.e. snowing, raining	Snow is falling X is snowing It is snowing.	subject noun (snow) gets incorporated into verb (snowing)	it + verb to be + + noun + ing
2. weather (non-precipitation) i.e. sunny, windy	The sun is out. X is sunny It is sunny.	subject noun (sun) gets incorporated into the adjective (sunny)	it + verb to be + + noun + y
3. Unknown presence	Who is it? It's me.	contraction it's + object pronoun	
4. environmental features	It's not difficult here on Tuesday.	contraction it's + negative	
5. environmental	It gets humorous	it + 3rd person	

features	in class	singular
----------	----------	----------

6. et al

C. Chart Commentary

If you were to ask the question, "How is it outside?" you may receive a variety of answers: "It's lovely." (beauty of the day), "It's cold." (temperature), "It's raining." (precipitation) or "It's overcast." (cloudy). It would seem that "it" is referring to a noun such as "weather." As much as we may feel that this assumption is often true, we have to admit that we have no specific reference from the context of the question and thus "it" may be considered non-referential. Such a question to an ESL student may result in a futile search by the student for a reference in a previous conversation, especially if the student is from a culture where conversation about typical weather conditions is rare.

Besides a certain informality in questions, a major reason that non-referential "it" is used is because English sentences require a subject. Note the two "Xs" on the chart signifying unacceptable sentences. Not all languages have this requirement and ESL teachers may notice language interference in the expressions of their students.

The chart may be considered presumptuous in the sense that it (see first column) attempts to exemplify a general subject area when the subject area is essentially non-referential. However, "it" is often found in questions and simple statements dealing

with weather, distance, time and other environmental features. The second column provides sentence examples and in the first two examples demonstrates the process of "it insertion." The column designated "subject transformation" shows a process referred to as "incorporation," again in the first two examples. The last column is an analysis of the final structure.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Give your students a homework assignment. Ask them to find non-referential "it" in a novel or short story. It is suggested that they also copy the surrounding sentences in order to provide a deeper context. When they have done this, ask them to try and explain in class what their "it" may mean.

2. Give the class answers (verbal or written) containing non-referential "it." Let them come up with the questions. The following are some possible interchanges.

"It's going O.K." (How's it going?)

"It was Noy." ("Who was it?")

"She made it big in the movies." ("How's Sah?")

If there is a certain vagueness about the whole exercise, don't be concerned--they've got "it." And That's "it!"

UNIT V LOGICAL CONNECTORS; A GENERAL CLASSIFICATION

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Logical connectors are words or phrases that provide a logical relationship between two or more sentences. Their function is both cohesive and semantic.

ESL students should know the function and use of conjunctions and clause connectors prior to being exposed to this material.

B. Grammar Chart

Logical Connectors

<u>Category</u>	<u>Signals</u>	<u>Examples</u>
1. additive	addition, introduction, or similarity	and, also, moreover, in fact, in addition, furthermore, what is more, besides this, not only this but
2. adversive	conflict, contradiction or concession	but, even so, however, in contrast, when in fact, even though, despite this, on the other hand
3. cause	cause-effect or reason-result	as, so, so that, for this reason, since, because of this, thus, inasmuch as, to the end that, consequently, with this in mind
4. sequential	chronological or logical sequence	initially, second, to begin with, previously, afterwards, before this, eventually, by the way, to summarize

C. Chart Commentary

Logical connectors appear unique in that they can provide a prelude to the nature of the comments that will follow (e.g. On the other hand,...). It is felt that an accurate understanding of these four major categories of logical connectors (refer chart) would greatly enhance the ability and comprehension of ESL students in the four skill development areas. A challenge to the ESL teacher would be to convey a sense of register to the students as they increasingly demonstrate their grasp of the connectors (e.g. use of "so" in informal conversation rather than "thus" or "therefore").

The chart groups the connectors in four major categories. This does not mean that the connectors in each category are synonymous, but rather that they represent different aspects of the category. A teacher may find it valuable to refer to some reference that gives the many sub-categorizations by specific function.

Logical connectors can occur in sentence initial, medial and final positions. It is suggested that connectors be introduced to students in a meaningful context over a long period of time and in a position where they commonly occur in a sentence. Many connectors can occur in all three positions (e.g. For example, she can speak well. She can, for example, speak well. She can speak well, for example.) However, other connectors may be restricted to one or two positions.

D. Suggested Activities

1. To help your students recognize logical connectors, talk and joke about the positive personality traits of your students in a lighthearted manner. Each time you say a logical connector, have the class say "beep-beep." For example, "Preecha is really clever. On the other hand, ("beep-beep") he's not the greatest ping-pong player. Siriporn is quite beautiful. In addition to this, ("Beep-beep") she's quite intelligent.") A modified version of this is to let one student say a simple sentence and let another say a second sentence with a connector. You may wish to choose several appropriate topics for conversation.

2. Discuss, with your students, some possible native language equivalents for five common logical connectors in English.

3. If the students have English texts available from other classes (e.g. math, science, etc.), ask them to find one logical connector phrase and tell the category it belongs to. Then, ask them to write it in a sentence with a focus on specific meaning, register or positioning.

UNIT VI MEASURE WORDS: GRAMMATICAL TYPES FOR SMALL AMOUNTS

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Measure words, also called "unit" words, are words used to measure and designate a certain quantity, volume, size or weight in accord with some acceptable standard.

Before studying this material, an understanding of the distinction between mass and countable nouns would be necessary. A knowledge of negative and positive quantifiers (e.g. not a lot of, plenty of, etc.) would also be helpful.

B. Grammar ChartMeasure Words

<u>Type</u>	<u>Function</u>	<u>Set Form Examples</u>
1. general	to make mass nouns countable	a slice of---- a plate of---- a bottle of----
	to make mass nouns more exactly quantifiable	a portion of---- a piece of---- a bit of---
2. precise	to measure precise quantities	a quart of---- a liter of---- an ounce of----
3. specific	to quantify or count specific mass nouns	a head of (lettuce) an ear of (corn) a clove of (garlic)

C. Chart Commentary

Articles, mass nouns, countable nouns, quantifiers, collective nouns and and measure words are important parts of the determiner system in English. Measure words play a vital role in that they can provide for the designation of items that lie within an inter-relationship between mass and countable nouns. General measure words have two functions. First, they make mass nouns countable (e.g. a bowl of rice). And second, they make mass nouns more exactly quantifiable (e.g. a pinch of salt). Precise measure words deal with exactly measured items (e.g. a pound of cheese = 16 ounces of cheese). Specific measure words are mostly used to quantify specific mass nouns (e.g. a bunch of grapes). Certain vegetables are quantified in this way (e.g. a head of cabbage). The chart presents a straight forward presentation of types, functions and examples of these words.

D. Suggested Activities

1. When the class has formed small groups, ask them to write a recipe for their favorite or national dish. Request them to select one person who will write their completed recipe on the blackboard. Review, asking about certain kinds of food, and comment on the accuracy of the measure words used and introduce new ones.

2. Test your students' ability to recognize the different types of measure words, allowing them to guess the type.

a kilo of grapes a can of milk an ear of corn

a portion of cabbage a bunch of carrots a pat of butter

a dash of salt an ounce of pepper a piece of pie

a dash of salt two fingers of whiskey a yard of silk

UNIT VII MODEL AUXILIARIES: TRUE MODALS AND THEIR PERIPHRASTIC COUNTERPARTS

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Modals, commonly called "helping verbs" and "auxiliary verbs," are verbs that function in a subsidiary capacity. They precede and accompany a stated or understood main verb to express tense, degree, mood, probability or other conditions.

It would be helpful if ESL students have an intermediate familiarity with the usage of modals and other auxiliary verb forms before undertaking this material.

B. Grammar Chart

Modal Auxiliaries

<u>True Modals</u>	<u>Past Tense</u>	<u>Periphrastic Counterpart</u>
1. can	could	(be) able to
2. will	would	(be) going to, (be) about to
3. may	might	(be) allowed to
4. shall	should	ought to, (be) supposed to
5. must	had to	have to

C. Chart Commentary

There are several reasons why ESL students may experience difficulty with modal auxiliaries. One reason is that of native language interference. Not all languages have modals and some students may inflect the modals as if they were main verbs. Also, the requirement of English to end the third person singular verb in an "s" may be overgeneralized. Again, because English requires an infinitive to follow a verb in some two-verb sequences (e.g. She hopes to go), a student may erroneously extend the rule to modals (e.g. X She can to go). Another difficulty may arise out of error in usage of the past tenses of modals--which are often used in reported speech (e.g. "I can go" = Lek said that she could go). Although we have present and past tense forms of modals, they are not necessarily tense bound.

True modals have periphrastic counterparts. These phrases end in the word "to" and function semantically similar to the true modals (refer chart). Notice that the true modal "must" has no past tense and periphrastic "had to" may be used as a substitute.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Assign the students to write a five sentence paragraph about something they would like to do in the future. Each of the sentences should contain a true modal. After they are finished, tell them to substitute the periphrastic counterpart of the true modals. Let several students read both of their versions to the class.

2. Tell the students that the class is going to make up a new fairy tale and that each sentence will consecutively contain the past tense of the true modals could, would, might, should and had to.

You begin the story (e.g. "Once upon a time there was a frog that could jump very high."). Then, select the next person. Let the chain continue until all modals are used and the story is over. You may wish to write the story on the blackboard and have the class make it up collectively. If the exercise does not go well, turn into a toad and hop out of the room.

UNIT VIII MODAL AUXILIARIES: LOGICAL PROBABILITY FUNCTIONS

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Modals, commonly called "helping verbs" and "auxiliary verbs," are verbs that function in a subsidiary capacity. They precede and accompany a stated or understood main verb to express tense, degree, mood, probability or other conditions.

It would be helpful if ESL students have an intermediate familiarity with the usage of modals and other auxiliary verb forms before undertaking this material.

B. Grammar ChartLogical Probability Functions of True Modals

<u>Equivalent Functions</u>	<u>Example</u>	<u>Degree of Probability</u>	<u>Equivalent Adjective</u>	<u>Adverb</u>
inference	That (could) be Nit (might)	+	possible	possibly
	may	++	perhaps	quite possibly
	should	+++	probable	probably
	must	++++	very probable	quite probably
	will	+++++	certain	certainly
prediction	It (could) rain today (might)	+	possible	possibly
	may	++	perhaps	quite possibly
	should	+++	probable	probably

will

++++

certain certainly

C. Chart Commentary

The logical probability aspect of modals makes up one of the two major systems that provide us with the meaning of a modal in context. In addition to learning modals form by form (i.e., one at a time), students can also learn them in relative systems. The logical use of modals primarily concerns an inference or a prediction (refer to chart). It is conveyed by the degree of certainty or probability felt and expressed by the speaker. For example, if a telephone rings, a person may say, "That could be Nit." (i.e., a low degree of certainty), or "That should be Nit." (i.e., increased certainty), or yet, "That will be Nit." (i.e., a very high degree of certainty.)

It should be noted that adjectives and adverbs are often used to paraphrase the logical functions (refer chart). Here, "It could rain tomorrow" is equivalent to "It is possible that it will rain tomorrow."

D. Suggested Activities

1. Write the true modals in a column on the blackboard. Then, begin asking students what they think equivalent percentages (e.g. could=20%, will=100%, etc.) would be in relation to the logical probability function of modals. Keep adjusting the percentage figures until all students agree on one set of

equivalents.

2. For oral practice, ask students to verbalize a prediction about their future in accord with the degree of certainty that they feel. It would be helpful if a percentage chart (as in activity number one) was available for them to use as a reference. The teacher should start with one or more examples (e.g. "I might go to Nepal during the holidays.")

UNIT IX NEGATION: NEGATIVE SIGNALS

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Negation is the process of denying the truth of a word, phrase or statement by the placement of a negative particle, quantifier or prefix.

Other than a familiarity with the usage of "not" and the prefix "un," no relative background learning is required.

B. Grammar ChartNegation

<u>Signal</u>	<u>Grammar Type</u>	<u>Level of Application</u>
1. not	negative particle	to the entire sentence
2. no	negative quantifier	to the entire sentence, to a phrase
3. un	negative prefix	to a word

C. Chart Commentary

Negative in English can be applied at several levels (refer chart). Generally, when it applies to a complete sentence, the negative particle "not" is placed (e.g. Rachanee is not in class.). However, sentence level negation can also be expressed by using the negative quantifier "no" to modify a noun or indefinite pronoun (e.g. No students are in class -- Nobody is in class.). "Not" placement can also be used to signal negation in a phrase (e.g. Paew has decided to not take leave this year.). At

word levels, negation is signalled by negative prefixes (e.g. the unseen). However, it should be noted that the prefix "dis" can either mean "apart from" (e.g. disperse) as well as the negative particle "not."

Syntactic negation may cause difficulties for ESL students. The English sentence positioning of "not" is post auxiliary (e.g. Taew could not open the door), while other languages, if they have a "not" equivalent at all, may place it in a pre-verbal or post-verbal position. Also, other languages may allow multiple negation in a sentence which in English often produces a nonstandard sentence (e.g. "I didn't do nothing to nobody!"). Students may also have difficulties in comprehension and reading as "not" is often contracted in conversation and writing. Also, students may have a tendency to use "not" preceeding a word where a prefix would be more appropriate (e.g. not tied--untied).

D. Suggested Activities

1. Tell your students to write nine negative statements to describe an object or thing. The purpose of the game is to describe something so well that it would not be too difficult to guess what it is. After the students are finished writing, ask them to read their clues and have the other students guess what it is. This activity works well with several "A" pairs or groups trying to convey their clues to several "B" pairs or groups. The teacher should assist the students by supplying appropriate words and helping them to form sentences.

2. Help your students to understand and write sentences for some of the following high-frequency "un" words.

unauthorized	unnamed
unbreakable	unobserved
unclassified	unopposed
undamaged	unpaved
unembarrassed	unquestioned
unmentioned	unrealistic
unhampered	unsatisfactory
unimportant	unsaid
unjustified	untidy
unlabeled	unwed

3. For a homework assignment, tell your students to bring to class a word beginning with "dis" that they have never heard or read before. They should understand its usage and meaning well and be prepared to write two sentences containing the word on the blackboard. Later, when reviewing their written sentences, ask them to give the meaning of the word.

UNIT X PHRASAL VERBS: MAJOR TYPES

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

Phrasal verbs, commonly referred to as two word verbs, are verbs followed by a particle which is similar to but not the same as a preposition. Both verb and particle function as a single verb.

Prior to the study of this material, ESL students should be aware of two word verb forms often described traditionally as verb plus preposition or adverb.

B. Grammar ChartPhrasal Verbs

<u>Type</u>	<u>Description</u>	<u>Example</u>
1A. transitive	meaning transferred	He gave back the book
2A. intransitive	has no object	The car rolled over
3B. separable	has intervening words	We looked the word up.
4B. inseparable	immediately follows verb	I came across an old friend.
5C. literal	shows physical action	The light bulb burned out.
6C. figurative	shows states of being	Grammar burns me out (exhausts).

C. Chart Commentary

A phrasal verb appears to function as a single verb in a sentence and usually has a single verb counterpart (e.g. give back=return). A sound knowledge of phrasal verbs is vital to an understanding of conversational English, while their single verb counterparts will, more often than not, be more appropriate in formal writing (e.g. discard=throw away). To aid ESL students to develop a broad colloquial vocabulary of phrasal verbs and their more formal counterparts would be a reasonable goal of an ESL teacher. If phrasal verbs do not exist in native languages, which may very well be the case, the goal may be more difficult to attain. Furthermore, ESL students often experience difficulty understanding phrasal verbs because so many phrasal verbs are used idiomatically.

The chart demonstrates six types of phrasal verbs in three contrasting pairs. The first pair are transitive and intransitive types (refer to 1A and 2A on the chart). Phrasal verbs are considered "transitive" when they require an object to complete their meaning and "intransitive" when they do not (refer to chart examples). Intransitive phrasal verbs are often in a final position in a sentence. The second pair consists of separable and inseparable types. In the "separable" type, particles may be separated from the verb if the direct object is a noun. It must be separated from the verb if the direct object is a pronoun. The separated particle is often found at the end of a sentence in simple statements. (e.g. She turned the rock over.). The last pair on the chart consists of literal and figurative types, respectively the easiest and the most difficult for ESL students

to understand. "Literal" phrasal verbs retain their ordinary or usual meaning (e.g. sit down), while "figurative" phrasal verbs provide no systematic way of telling the meaning of the association between the verb and the particle (e.g. catch on=understand). Although the chart represents six types, a phrasal verb maybe considered to be of more than one type in a given sentence.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Write imperative commands, each containing a phrasal verb with its single verb counterpart, on slips of paper. A typical example might be "Hand out (distribute) blades of grass to your classmates." Give one slip to each student and give the class ten minutes to perform their command. If the commands are interesting or novel, a circus like atmosphere may prevail for awhile. (Doesn't everyone love a circus?) After ten minutes, ask each student to tell the class what they did as you write the phrasal verb and its counterpart on the blackboard.

2. See how many phrasal verbs your class can find by joining the following verbs and particles. Students should be free to use any verb tense.

Verbs - be, come, go, do, make, give

Particles - up, down, on, off, back

3. Conduct a creative writing activity using phrasal verbs that often require prepositions to function as a complete unit. You may wish to select examples of this type of phrasal verb from the following list.

go in for	check up on	get back to
stand up for	cut down on	get down to
put up with	pick up on	keep up with
get away with	close in on	end up with
get along with	drop in on	give in to

4. Tell your students to look up phrasal verb equivalents for some of the following single verbs. (An acceptable equivalent is in parenthesis.)

cancel (call off)	postpone (put off)
telephone (call up)	extinguish (put out)
discover (find out)	discuss (talk over)
submit (hand in)	test (try out)
maintain (keep up)	reject (turn down)
review (look over)	finish (use up)
compose (make up)	recover (get over)
choose (pick out)	investigate (look into)
appear (show up)	resemble (take after)

UNIT XI PREPOSITIONS: LEXICAL IDIOSYNCRACIES

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

A preposition is a word proceeding a noun or noun phrase that functions to locate an object in space or time, or indicate the state, source, direction, skill or degree of a particular activity or state of being. Together, with a noun phrase, it forms a prepositional phrase.

It is suggested that before proceeding with this material, ESL students should have a thorough knowledge of the use of prepositions of source, position, location and direction.

B. Grammar chartLexical Idiosyncracies of Prepositions

<u>Idiosyncracies</u>	<u>Process</u>	<u>Example</u>
1. incorporation	incorporated into verbs	He <u>went across</u> the rice field. He <u>crossed</u> the rice field
2. co-occurrence	co-occurs verbs	The candy <u>consisted</u> <u>of</u> rice and sugar
3. co-occurrence	co-occurs with adjectives	Floods are <u>common to</u> the northeast area.
4. co-occurrence	co-occurs with other prepositions	Boomkong changed <u>out</u> <u>of</u> his sarong and <u>into</u> his jeans.
5. compounding	compounded with verbs	The sturdy hut will <u>outlast</u> three generations.

C. Chart Commentary

Prepositions are challenging to ESL students because in English there are a greater number of prepositions with more specific functions than other languages. Also, some languages have postpositions (i.e., the "prepositions" follow the noun phrase) rather than prepositions. Furthermore, other languages may signal the information by an inflection on the noun or article rather than by using a preposition.

The chart demonstrates another challenging area for ESL students: understanding lexical idiosyncracies commonly found in the widespread use of prepositions. When prepositions are incorporated into verbs (refer chart), the result is a shorter sentence with a verb that provides more information. Many prepositions co-occur with only certain verbs and adjectives (refer to chart examples). In this case, the verb or adjective plus the preposition must be learned as a complete lexical unit. Prepositions may also co-occur with other prepositions. Three common sets where this type of co-occurrence takes place are "from...to" (e.g., Mao carried the plates from the kitchen to the dining room), "out of...into" (e.g. I fell out of the frying pan and into the fire), and "off (of)...on (to)" (e.g. Dum picked the coat off the chair and put it on a hanger). The last entry on the chart deals with prepositions that form verb compounds (e.g. overdo). Compounding often occurs with the prepositions "out," "over" and "under" and form frequent vocabulary items in English.

D. Suggested Activities

1. Divide the students into groups of three and give each group certain prepositions to demonstrate by body positions, hand gestures or mime. At the end of the activity you may wish to point out that the nine most frequently used prepositions are at, by, for, from, in, of, on, to and with.

2. Ask the students to write three sentences demonstrating the three sets of prepositions (refer Chart Commentary) that commonly co-occur in a sentence.

3. Make up a close exercise of separate sentences or a paragraph that will provide students an opportunity to select items from the following groups.

verb + preposition

to substitute for

to part with

to rely on

Adjective + preposition

to be composed of

to be interested in

to be common to

Out + verb

outgrow

outrun

outwear

Over + verb

overdo

overcome

overeas

under + verb

underline

underrate

underfed

UNIT XII STATIVE VERBS: A CATEGORIZATION WITH AN EMPHASIS ON NONOCCURENCE WITH THE PROGRESSIVE ASPECT

A. Definition and Assumed Learning

A stative verb is a verb of state that has no added expression of change over time. When used as the only verb in a sentence, it does not occur with the progressive aspect (i.e. ing) and normally does not occur in imperative sentences.

ESL students should have an intermediate knowledge of verb tense, particularly in the present progressive tense, before being subjected to this material.

B. Grammar Chart

Stative Verbs

<u>Category</u>	<u>Verb Example</u>	<u>Example of Nonoccurrence</u>
1. sensory perception	see	I see him over there. X I am seeing him over there.
2. mental perception	know	You know her. X You are knowing her.
3. emotion	want	Ubon wants to learn. X Ubon is wanting to learn.
4. measurement	weigh	The fruit weighs five kilos. X The fruit is weighing five kilos.
5. relationship	own	Lek owns a new motorcycle. X Lek is owning a new motorcycle.

C. Chart Commentary

"Tense" relates to the time an activity or state occurs while "aspect" comments upon some characteristic of the activity or state. The "ing" of the progressive is an aspectual marker in English and indicates that an activity is in process and is therefore incomplete.

The chart demonstrates five categories of stative verbs as well as acceptable (e.g. I know him.) and unacceptable (e.g. X I am knowing him.) examples. Verbs of internal sensation (i.e., ache, itch, feel, etc.) are not included as they appear to take or not take the progressive with very little difference in meaning (e.g. My tooth aches - My tooth is aching). It should be further noted that stative verbs do not normally occur in the imperative (e.g. X Own a car!) and often have non-stative counterparts (e.g. see = look at, hear = listen to).

D. Suggested Activities

1. Tell your students to unscramble and list the following stative verbs in the five appropriate categories shown on the chart.

hear	weigh	love	like	belong
doubt	believe	understand	smell	feel
have	contain	taste	measure	equal
desire	dislike	own	cost	remember

2. Assist your students to write two paragraphs using a certain number of the stative verbs mentioned in the first activity. Give them the choice of choosing one of the following titles: "A Trip to the Market" or "A Walk in the Forest."