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THIS GUIDE FOR GRADES 7, 8, AND 9 BEGINS WITH A COLLECTION OF PAPERS EXPLAINING THE LINGUISTIC APPROACH TO THE TEACHING OF LANGUAGE--(1) "THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND LINGUISTIC ECLECTICISM" BY A. HOOD ROBERTS, (2) "SOME NOTES ON LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH" BY JOSEPH H. FRIEND, (3) "A UNIT ON DIALECTS" BY JAMES F. MCCAMPBELL, AND (4) "TEACHING SYNTAX" BY GEORGE HILLOCKS. UNITS WHICH FOLLOW ARE-- (1) DIALECTS, (2) SYNTAX, (3) CHANGE IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE (FOR THE GRADE 9 AVERAGE CURRICULUM), (4) FORM CLASSES (MORPHOLOGY), (5) DEFINITION AND ETYMOLOGY (FOR THE GRADE 7, AVERAGE CURRICULUM), AND (6) THREE UNITS ON SEMANTICS FOR GRADES 7, 8, AND 9. LESSONS IN UNITS CONTAIN OBJECTIVES, SUGGESTED TEACHING PROCEDURES, BIBLIOGRAPHIES FOR TEACHERS, EXERCISES, AND STUDY GUIDES. COPIES OF THE EIGHT UNITS ARE ALSO AVAILABLE (LIMITED SUPPLY) FROM CHARLES C. ROGERS, PROJECT UPGRADE, SCHOOL DISTRICT OF AIKEN COUNTY, P.O. BOX 771, AIKEN, SOUTH CAROLINA 29801, \$0.50 PER UNIT. (DL)

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THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE:
The Linguistic Approach

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THE CLASSROOM TEACHER AND LINGUISTIC ECLECTICISM
by A. Hood Roberts, Ph. D.

Most of you have by this time, no doubt, begun to weary of the subject of linguistics. It seems that every time there happens to be an assemblage of English teachers, someone has to bring up the topic and begin talking about linguistics and structuralism and phonemes and all the rest of the terms current in the jargon. By now you are probably seeking someone to blame for this sorry state of affairs, and I think that it might be therapeutic to tell you who the culprits are.

The American Indians are the ones who are responsible for the beginnings of structural linguistics. If only they had had the courtesy to speak an Indo-European language (one derived from Latin would have been best), it is possible that you would not have to be learning about phonemes and immediate constituents today. But, alas, the poor Indian, he spoke a non-Indo-European tongue, and thereby caused the investigators of his language to search for new methods by which they might describe his language.

According to Harry Hoijer, it was the anthropologist Franz Boas, the editor of the Handbook of American Indian Languages, who established around 1911 "the basic principle that each language is to be described, not in terms of some preconceived standard (as, e. g., Graeco-Latin grammar) but solely in terms of its own patterns of sounds, forms, and meanings, as these patterns are derived inductively from native texts."¹ The great linguist Edward Sapir studied under Boas and carried forward the Boas tradition in anthropological linguistics. C. C. Fries states that "in 1925 Sapir's paper on Sound Patterns in Language in America (and de Saussure's lectures in Switzerland) introduced the beginnings of structural linguistics."²

In 1933 was published Leonard Bloomfield's Language, a book with which we are all familiar whether at first hand or not, and what Fries has called the third period of Modern Linguistic Science was well under way. One can see that structural linguistics has been around for quite a while, but it has been only within the past few years that much information concerning this field of study has filtered down from the universities to the schools. As teachers of English we are primarily interested in the practical rather than the theoretical, and I hope in this paper to discuss some of the applications of the findings of linguistic research to the teaching of English.

For many years now linguists have held the concept or doctrine of usage. An understanding of this concept and certain findings of the dialectologists will help us perform our teaching tasks more effectively. According to the doctrine of usage, there is no universal, immutable authority or standard for what is "good" or "bad," "correct" or "incorrect" in language behavior, be it pronunciation or syntax, but rather that there are many standards. That is, the speech of the educated and cultivated speakers in a given speech community constitutes the standard for persons within that community. Thus there are as many standards as there are speech communities (although some would have you believe that the linguists admit no standards and advocate the

¹ Harry Hoijer, "Anthropological Linguistics," Trends in European and American Linguistics 1930-1960, p. 100.

² Charles C. Fries, "Advances in Linguistics," College English, XXIII, No. 1 (October 1961), p. 31.

"anything goes" approach).

The work of the dialectologists gives us the material necessary to perceive what the standard within a speech community really is. One of the major contributions of the dialectologists has been the recognition of the difference between regional and social dialects, and that we are all speakers of some type of social dialect and some type of regional dialect.

We live in a mobile society, and your students are very likely not going to be all from the same locality, and indeed, the teachers in any given school are not all going to be from the same place. What does the teacher do when the textbook says that words beginning with the letters wh- must be pronounced as /hw-/? or that hoarse must not be homophonous with horse? or that cot must not be homophonous with caught? Obviously the intelligent teacher is going to do what intelligent teachers have always done: ignore it! The intelligent and informed teacher will go a step further and explain that the author of the text has unfortunately confused regional with social dialectal features. This teacher will resist the temptation (nay, the command of the authors of the textbooks) to impose certain dialectal features of his own speech or that of the author of the text upon the students who happen to be speakers of different regional dialects.

Permit me to give a horrible example of linguistic know-nothingism in action. Until recently I taught English at a university in the South, and as a few of us are aware, Southerners do not normally speak the same as people from up-state New York. From New York came a man who was to be the speech therapist at this Southern university. The freshmen filed into his office, read a few well-chosen sentences or so, and then filed out. Imagine the consternation on campus when he reported that between one-half and two-thirds of the freshman class had serious speech defects which would need immediate attention. These students he found were pronouncing pen and pin alike; they "dropped their final g's," and they did all the other things (many of which were done by Shakespeare, Pope, Washington, Jefferson, etc.) that people just don't do nowadays in Syracuse, New York.

The same principles that apply to pronunciation apply also to matters of vocabulary, morphology, and syntax. However, if the student is using language in a way that is typical of the uneducated speaker in his speech community, it would be the teacher's duty to point this out to him, and tell him that this type of linguistic behavior, while not sinful or wicked, will probably put him at a disadvantage in many social situations and that it might be prudent for him to attempt to eliminate these characteristics of a lower social dialect from his speech and writing. The linking r of the late President Kennedy (as in "The very idear of it!") and his lack of postvocalic and preconsontal r ("with great vigah") caused comment among Midwesterners, but it did not lower him in their esteem. Such would not have been the case had he consistently or even occasionally used ain't or double negatives, for these are characteristics of a lower social dialect.

This, it seems to me, is what is important about knowing something of the doctrine of usage and dialectology. It can enable the teacher to avoid fruitless and frustrating effort spent in trying to change regional dialectal peculiarities and thereby will enable him to have more time to spend on more important matters, such as the social dialectal features of his students.

Work by the structural linguists on the suprasegmentals of American English is of some value in the teaching of punctuation. Unfortunately there is no one-to-one correspondence between the marks of punctuation and the suprasegmental junctures and intonation contours. If there were, then the

teaching of punctuation would be a relatively simple matter. Even though the fit is not perfect, some assistance is offered by a knowledge of the relationship of the suprasegmentals and the marks of punctuation. The different intonation contours (and punctuation) of the following restrictive and non-restrictive elements are obvious:

(1) My mother, who is an artist, likes to paint.

(2) My brother who is an artist likes to paint.

Having the students read their work aloud nearly always discloses the presence of sentence fragments if any are lurking in their writing. The difference in the intonational contours of (1) and (2) below is apparent:

(1) While my injury was not serious

(2) While my injury was not serious, it was painful.

W. Nelson Francis summarizes this matter succinctly in The Structure of American English, pp. 563-64:

Some simple training in identifying sentence-final intonation contours, for instance, can help the student to place his end marks properly, and avoid the punctuation errors of sentence-fragment and "run-on" sentence. Recognition of the contrasting intonation patterns of restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers and of the intonational signal marking structures such as internal sentence-modifiers and coordinate modifiers not joined by a coordinator can help considerably in the placing of commas. The teacher who has made some study of intonation can teach students to punctuate "by ear" so far as this is possible. Beyond that, the conventions of punctuation must be taught in relation to grammar.

A short but excellent treatment of the relationship between intonation patterns and punctuation is to be found in David Conlin's A Grammar of Written English.

Structural analysis can help the teacher who is attempting to teach the parts of speech. Although the system which I am about to describe is not perfect, and has been attacked by the transformationists, it is still the best we have to work with at the present time. Despite its shortcomings, my experience has been that it works rather well, and its outstanding advantage is that it captures the interest of most students--something that traditional grammar has seldom been able to do.

Emphasis on form rather than lexical meaning is perhaps the most outstanding characteristic of the structural linguist; and the work done by linguists following this principle has constituted the most serious threat yet made to traditional grammar. Perhaps the most damaging assault made by the linguists was on the practice of defining grammatical classes semantically (a noun is the name of a person, place, or thing). In place of semantic definitions of grammatical classes, the linguists made statements describing the form and distribution of members of various classes. The traditional eight parts of speech, for example, were reduced to four or five; and formal and distributional criteria replaced the older (and shorter) semantic definitions. These criteria were based on the various signals of syntactic structure, such as word order, prosody, function words, inflections, and derivational contrast. Just as an example of the linguistic type of grammatical classification let us look at Francis's criteria of that form class called noun: "Nouns are marked by noun determiners such as the, his,

one; they have two inflections, the plural {-es} and the possessive {-'s}; many of them have derivational suffixes like {-ance}, {-ness}, and {-ship}. Subclasses of nouns are pronouns and function nouns. Nouns can be classified in eleven substitute groups." (Structure of American English, p. 424.)

In order to see how this system works, let us look at the sentence "My arguments are sound." In this case there are four noun-indicators of the word arguments: (1) my, which is a noun-determiner, (2) the plural inflection {-es}, (3) the derivational suffix {-ment}, and (4) the position immediately before the verb are in addition to the agreement of noun and verb. This one example has perhaps illustrated the methodology involved in the linguistic classification of parts of speech and pointed up the difference between this system of classification and the traditional method of semantic definition.

This is a too brief treatment of the methodology by which a structural classification of the parts of speech can be made. As I have pointed out in a preceding paragraph, this is not the only structural system of classification, but perhaps from this truncated presentation one could see how it might be of some interest to the student (no mean achievement to be sure).

Immediate Constituent Analysis: Immediate constituent analysis is a method devised by linguists for arriving at a syntactical analysis of a language. Basically, the idea is quite simple. It says that every syntactical structure may be divided into two parts (its immediate constituents) which may be further divided by this same type of binary cutting until one arrives at the level of the word (or the ultimate constituent). Although what will follow will necessarily be an oversimplification, it might demonstrate the principle involved. Let us take, for example, the sentence

The fat young girl fell through the floor.

Our first cut would be made between the subject and the predicate, i. e. between girl and fell, and the parts on either side would form the immediate constituents (IC's) at this level of dichotomy. Our next cuts would give as IC's

The|fat young girl and fell|through the floor
 Subsequent cuts would yield as IC's
 fat|young girl and through|the floor
 young|girl and the|floor

Notice that what we have done is to reduce the sentence with all its modifiers to a form which is simply that of Subject and Verb, something along the lines of Susie fell. Let us reverse the process in order to see how this comes about:

Susie|fell
 The|girl|fell|down
 The|fat|girl|fell|down|hard
 The|fat|young|girl|fell|through|the|floor

What we have done here is to replace the two-element structures with a single element of similar grammatical structure. According to Professor Robert P. Stockwell, "IC analysis of the conventional variety long used in linguistics analysis consists in assigning layers of bracketing to the elements in sequence, assigning a label to each such cluster or group, and ultimately tying all the clusters together into a single symbol, S (Sentence). This kind of analysis is really, therefore, only a kind of diagramming,

somewhat more sophisticated than what conventionally goes under that name."³

Harold B. Allen's comments on IC analysis are worthy of consideration: "Pragmatically the application of this theory to the analysis of sentence structure does provide the student with clearer and better insights than he can derive from traditional diagramming."⁴

Transformational Grammar: Transformational grammar offers two major concepts that may be of some usefulness to the English teacher: (1) kernel sentences and (2) transformations. Kernel sentences are those simple, active, declarative sentences from which by means of various transformational rules all other sentences in the language may be derived.

Owing to the limitations of space, I will not attempt to give an example of the operation of transformational rules on kernel sentences, but will instead refer you to a recent article and an even more recent book. The article, which is readily available, is by Owen Thomas, "Generative Grammar: Towards Unification and Simplification," The English Journal, (February 1962). This article is also to be found in Harold B. Allen, ed., Readings in Applied English Linguistics, second edition. The book, just published this year, is Emmon Bach, An Introduction to Transformational Grammars (New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964).

Owen Thomas and Paul Roberts feel that transformational grammar has a contribution to make in the teaching of sentence structure. Some schools are using Paul Roberts' English Sentences, but I have no knowledge as to how well this is working out in teaching sentence structure to high school students.

I am impressed by the power of transformational grammar, but I am somewhat dubious of its pedagogical adaptability. Professor A. G. Oettinger of the Harvard Computation Laboratory, recently mentioned that at the last count their grammar contained 2,500 grammatical rules. This is why I'm dubious.

Professor Harold B. Allen of the University of Minnesota has conveniently classified grammars into types A-D. His classification is a sound and instructive one, and I shall mention it here for purpose of discussion later on.

Allen's grammar A is the eighteenth century Latinate grammar with which we are all too familiar. Grammar B consists of the grammatical analyses of the grammarians such as Jespersen, Sweet, Curme, Poutsma, and Kruisinga. Grammar C is that development of descriptive linguistics called structural linguistics, and Grammar D is the transformational grammar of Noam Chomsky (both of which have been mentioned above).

Grammar A is too well known (it should be because it's been around since the eighteenth century) to need much comment. It is prescriptive and judges English with respect to how closely the language sticks to the rules of a Universal Grammar (which was, apparently, much like that of Latin). Bishop Lowth and Lindley Murray were the grammatical oracles of their (and to a certain extent our) time, and their lineal descendants are to be found in every bookstore and classroom. Bishop Lowth, as you may remember, was

³ Robert P. Stockwell, "The Transformational Model of Generative or Predictive Grammar," Natural Language and the Computer, Paul Garvin, ed., p. 29.

⁴ Harold B. Allen, "A Reply on Pluralism," College English (October 1961), p. 21.

fond of finding grammatical blunders which had been made by such writers as Shakespeare and Milton. Grammar A has little to recommend it. Its primary fault is that it is out of touch with reality; it ignores current usage. However, there are two good reasons for knowing something about this type of grammar; (1) it is part of our cultural baggage and (2) you may be (at some time) required to teach it.

Grammar B, unlike Grammar A, is far from being contemptible, and is deserving of close study. In many respects the works of Jespersen and the Dutch grammarians have never been equalled and still contain an enormous amount of useful information. Concerning these grammars, which he terms "traditional notional grammars," Professor Robert P. Stocksell has recently said: "There is a sense in which modern grammars--whether definitional, finite-state formalistic, constituent-structure, transformational, or any combination of these--remain embryonic and programmatic until they have produced a work which in fact enumerates the characteristics of English sentences as fully as the best of the traditional notional grammars. There is another sense, however, in which such grammars may be said to characterize only those sentences which they cite as examples, simply by virtue of citing them as examples. That is, they fail to provide explicit rules which predict the structure of sentences beyond the cited examples, which are of themselves merely an organized collection of data with a more or less revealing commentary. The reason such grammars are useful is that the intelligent reader has the ability to extract from the examples the generalized rules of sentence formation which, in turn, are what a fully explicit grammar endeavors to formalize." 5

Each of the Grammars B, C, and D has its strong points. A total commitment to one type exclusively would, it seems to me, be a grave mistake. The well-informed teacher must have knowledge of many grammars and of those concepts and findings in linguistics which can help him do his job more effectively.

As Allen has said, "...we must not be dogmatic in accepting only one grammar and...in college we must teach awareness of and familiarity with several grammars. For the schools I look forward to the fairly immediate development of a language sequence through junior and senior high school, a sequence based upon structural analysis but with supplementary interpretation drawn from both Grammar B and Grammar D., and with the application to composition drawn chiefly from Grammar D." 6

I am sorry that I have not been able to say that I have a panacea, but I hope that I have aroused your curiosity about what linguistics can offer, and have tempted you to be eclectic and to look in linguistic works for materials and methods that you may use in the classroom. If I have done this, then I have accomplished what I set out to do.

5 Robert P. Stockwell, "The Transformational Model of Generative or Predictive Grammar," Natural Language and the Computer, Paul Garvin, ed., p. 24.

6 Harold B. Allen, "A Reply on Pluralism," College English (October 1961), p. 21.

SOME NOTES ON LINGUISTICS AND THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH
by Joseph H. Friend, Ph. D.

For several years we have been hearing much about linguistics in our journals and at our meetings. There have been claims and counter-claims. A few overenthusiastic popularizers would give us the erroneous impression that a miracle cure has been discovered for everything that ails Johnny and Joan as readers, speakers, and writers of English. At the other extreme are skeptical conservatives unwilling to allow any value to classroom application of the methods and findings of the discipline. The average secondary school English teacher, trained in traditional textbook doctrines of usage and grammar, aware of the views of principals and supervisors about "good English," even more poignantly aware of the anemic debility of the English in those masses of student papers that must somehow be struggled through, maintains an attitude in which interest, hope, anxiety, and doubt are understandably mingled with confusion about the rights and wrongs of the controversy over the usefulness of linguistics in classroom work. The fact that there are different schools of thought with different approaches to the problems of describing the grammar of English doesn't lessen the confusion. If in this situation there is an impulse to retreat into what seems the cozy security of familiar ideas, however unfounded, and accustomed teaching routines, however ineffective, it is hard to blame the teacher who responds to it.

Yet even the retreator knows that such behavior won't do. The profession has been aroused: witness the activity of Project English, the Commission on English, the National Council of Teachers of English, the Modern Language Association; witness the proliferation of English curriculum studies, demonstration projects, institutes for teacher retraining, demands for higher certification requirements. Colleges and universities awake to their responsibility have revised their curricula for teacher training, set up summer programs, improved old courses and established new ones designed to acquaint prospective teachers with the aims, methods, and findings of linguistics as it relates to their work. In some states--Ohio is an example, thanks to the efforts of Dr. Donald Tuttle and others--certification requirements have been raised to include at least one course in the development and structure of the English language as well as a course in advanced composition. Young teachers now entering the profession are more likely than they were some years ago to be at least minimally informed about the facts ascertained by scientific investigation of the language. Both self-respect and the urge toward self-preservation, as well as the obvious national need to improve unsatisfactory instruction, impel all of us, including those tempted to retreat from the struggle, to cope with the challenge offered by linguistics.

Ideally, the teacher unacquainted with the field should take college courses that would introduce him adequately to its various subdivisions and aspects. Many teachers are doing so. But for some this approach is unfeasible. What they must do is educate themselves by means of reading and such occasional lectures and in-service training facilities as are available. Many good paperbacks on general and English linguistics are now in print (see the bibliography appended to this article), both scholarly books and popularizations. Audio- and videotapes, records, filmstrips, and other audio-visual materials are available from several sources. Back files of The English Journal, College English, and several other periodicals contain many articles

dealing with practical classroom applications as well as theoretical considerations of the new grammars, American dialectology, and related subjects.¹ A number of issues of the G. and C. Merriam Company's Word Study have been devoted to linguistic topics, especially those concerned with the recent lively discussion aroused by the Third New International Dictionary--Webster III, as it is often referred to in the journals. The introductory matter of that book, like the essay by Professor Whitehall on "The English Language" included in the front matter of Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, is well worth the reading time to teachers interested in the relation between linguistic theory and its practical application in lexicography. The recently published revision of Mencken's American Language prepared by Professor Raven I. McDavid of the University of Chicago is a particularly rich source of up-to-date, stimulating materials and bibliographical suggestions for the English teacher.

Linguists think of their science as divided among synchronic, diachronic, and comparative studies. Synchronic investigations are concerned with a language at a given time in its history; for example, a synchronic description of Early Modern English in London c. 1600 would deal with the pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary of the language at that time in that place without regard to earlier or later developments, or to what sort of English was in use at the same time in other parts of the English-speaking community. Diachronic is virtually synonymous with historical: diachronic studies deal with the changes evident in the sounds, word-forms, vocabulary, and syntactic patterns of a language through a period of time. Comparative linguistics, as the name implies, has to do with the relations between languages: it investigates shared features, vocabulary borrowings, and other influences of one language on another. To understand a given language thoroughly, one must study it diachronically, synchronically, and comparatively. The ideal state of affairs would be to have a series of exhaustive synchronic studies of all the historical stages of development of the language(s) being investigated so that a completely reliable diachronic and comparative survey could then be made. In practice, this happy situation is not realized, for a number of reasons.

One who is beginning a course of reading in the subject should understand that the recent discussion within the profession has been over the merits of particular kinds of synchronic studies of Modern English--more specifically, in this country, of Present-Day American English (PDAE). As Professor Roberts' article in these pages makes clear, among the many linguists now concerned with analysing and describing our language there is general agreement about basic aims, methods, and data, but there is disagreement about the best way to approach the problem of grammar--which to the linguist means, not linguistic etiquette or decisions about proper usage, but the fundamental principles

¹ Many of these articles have been collected in convenient anthologies such as that edited by Professor Harold B. Allen, Readings in Applied English Linguistics, second edition, (New York, Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1964).

² Linguistic etiquette and decisions about proper usage of course have their place; no one, least of all the English teacher, can afford to neglect such matters. Nor does any linguist I know neglect them in his capacity as writer and speaker. He prefers to use the term grammar as I have said, reserving terms such as usage to cover such relative niceties as the choice of competing forms (e. g., dived-dove, different from-different than). See W. Nelson Francis, "Revolution in Grammar," Quarterly Journal of Speech, XI (October 1954), 299-312, and John S. Kenyon, "Cultural Levels and Functional Varieties of English," College English, X (October 1948), 31-36. Both of these articles are reprinted in Allen, Readings in Applied English Linguistics.

governing the construction of English sentences. There is also disagreement about some items of terminology and other relatively minor matters. All this is perfectly natural in a field that has been so lively with activity and discovery as American English linguistics in the past two decades. But it imposes something of a burden on the English teacher, who now must become aware that far from being the settled, staid quantity it had fondly been considered, the grammar of our language is a matter of dispute among experts; that there are variant analyses and descriptions of Modern English grammar. These include traditional textbook descriptions based largely on eighteenth-century Latin-influenced views; classical descriptions by late nineteenth-century and early twentieth-century scholars such as Sweet, Jespersen, Poutsma, Kruijsing and Curme, and recent descriptions by a number of scholars, some of whom (e. g., Professors Fries, Trager and Smith) are in the American structural tradition of the late Leonard Bloomfield while others (notable Professor Chomsky and his followers), though well versed in structuralism, prefer to follow a course suggested by symbolic logic and engineering techniques. The student trying to thread an intelligent way among these competing grammars has his homework to do, it is clear. The present situation is exciting in its vitality, but it is fluid. Hence, judicious caution and eclecticism seem good guiding principles for the classroom teacher of English in the task of determining useful classroom applications of recent synchronic analyses.

Fortunately, when we turn to diachronic and comparative studies of English we find that things are relatively stable. Not every question about past developments in the evolution of the language has been settled, but because historical and comparative investigation has been going on for a much longer time than the kind of synchronic study described above, there is available a large accumulation of well-known data from which secure inferences can be made. Nineteenth-century scholarship supplied the foundations of scientific knowledge in this area, beginning with the work of such men as Rasmus Rask, the Danish philologist, and Jakob Grimm, the German, who c. 1820 published the results of their pioneering inquiries into the relations among certain of the languages of Europe, particularly the Germanic (comprising Gothic, the Scandinavian languages, German, Dutch, Frisian, English, etc.). In the late eighteenth century Sir William Jones, an English scholar who had lived in India, had observed in the grammar and vocabulary of ancient Sanskrit, classical Greek, Latin, and some other languages resemblances so striking as to suggest a common origin. Rask, Grimm, and a succession of later nineteenth-century scholars--Verner, Leskien, Paul, Grassman, and others--continued to study these resemblances. They were able to show conclusively that most of the languages of Europe (Hungarian, Finnish, Estonian, and Basque are notable exceptions) are genealogically related in a group, or family, that also includes a number of languages spoken in India and Persia. This is the language family now called the Indo-European--one of dozens of such groupings into which linguists have classified the almost three thousand languages of the earth. The Indo-European languages are regarded, on the basis of a mass of evidence, as descended from a parent language of some four thousand years ago to which the name Proto-Indo-European has been given; it in turn must have descended from a parent language in similar fashion; and so on, for hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions, of years. Human language appears to be virtually as old as human society. Its origin seems to be unreachable by any techniques known to science--a fact which has not prevented much ingenious, sometimes wild speculation by both the informed and the uninformed.

At the same time that nineteenth-century scholars in Germany and elsewhere were brilliantly establishing the Indo-European hypothesis by patient linguistic detective work, they were determining the basic principles, methods, and nomenclature of their science. Many investigators were pursuing studies of the development of individual languages, chiefly within the Indo-European group, though non-Indo-European languages were also studied by some. A consequence of such studies was the start of work on great historical dictionaries of two Germanic languages--for English, The Oxford English Dictionary (entitled in the first edition, 1858-1928, A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles); for German, Grimm's Wörterbuch (begun in 1837 and not completed until recently). The history of English was studied by a number of British, European, and American scholars in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries--Sweet, Ellis, Murray, Wyld, Craigie, Daniel Jones, Jespersen, Prutsma, Kruisinga, Whitney, Emerson, Krapp, and many others. In consequence, by the end of what Professor Fries has called "the second period of Modern Linguistic Science" (1875-1925),³ a great deal was known about the development of our language from its fifth-century beginnings in the mingled dialects of the invading Angles, Saxons, and Jutes who settled in what was to be called England. And to this knowledge has been added much more in the period 1925-1964, by hundreds of scholars in many countries who have written thousands of books, monographs, and papers on many aspects of the three periods of the language: Old English (formerly called Anglo-Saxon), c. 450-c. 1100; Middle English, c. 1100-c. 1500; and Modern English, since c. 1500. Such diachronic studies of English continue to proliferate. And we are now getting more and more synchronic studies of various stages in the development of the language, in which the sophisticated techniques of contemporary linguistics are being applied as they could not have been earlier.

The result is that scholarship today can be reasonably sure about the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, and orthography of English as it developed over some fifteen hundred years from the speech of a few thousand Anglo-Saxons to that of several hundred millions of people throughout the world. What we see as we survey this history is a panorama of constant change. The language with which we begin chronologically--early Old English--is a thoroughly Germanic tongue. It shows a few traces of Celtic vocabulary borrowings, vestiges of words taken by the Germanic invaders from the earlier Indo-European inhabitants of England, the ancestors of Irish, Scots, and Welsh. It shows a number of Latin loanwords in consequence of prior Continental commerce between Romans and Anglo-Saxons, and of the earlier four-hundred-year-old Roman occupation of the British Isles, brought to an end by the new invaders. But with these exceptions the Old English vocabulary as we know it from surviving manuscripts and inscriptions is Germanic; and the grammar is that of a highly inflected Germanic language, a language that uses as one of its chief grammatical signaling devices changes of word-form such as are found in classical Greek and Latin, in Modern German, and many other Indo-European tongues. Old English nouns, pronouns, and adjectives regularly show change of suffix for four cases (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative), and there are traces of a fifth case, the instrumental. There are two sets of adjective case-endings, positionally determined, as in Modern German. The verb system shows the same characteristic Germanic division between

³ Charles C. Fries, "Advances in Linguistics," College English, XXV (October 1961), 30-37; reprinted in Allen's Readings, pp. 36-45.

"strong" and "weak" sets, the former marked by the very old Indo-European pattern of internal vowel change as in Modern English sing-sang-sung, the latter by the d or t ending for the past tense that we still have (e. g., walked, slept). The verbs of Old English, like those of Modern English, have only two inflected tenses, a present-future and a past; other time-relations are shown by the use of auxiliaries, a device that has grown in importance over the centuries. Inflections for singular and plural, person (first, second, and third), mood (indicative, subjunctive, and imperative), and some other distinctions are found, including gender.

The sound-system of the language shows some striking differences from that of our own time, chiefly in the vowel-sounds, many of which underwent great change during the period 1450-1830 especially--that is, between late Middle and late Modern English, in what is known as the Great Vowel Shift. The consonant-sounds have remained remarkably stable: we pronounce these much as Old English speakers did though we no longer trill our r's or make such sounds as we still find in Modern German ich and Nacht. (The "silent gh" in night, through, etc., continues to testify to the sound once made by Old English speakers, who spelled it usually with h. The combination gh was substituted by the French scribes of the Middle English period, following the Norman conquest in the eleventh century.)

There are considerable differences in syntax, spelling, and vocabulary between Old English and Modern English, in addition to differences of inflection and sound, so that the student of our day must learn it as a foreign language--one that is "dead," no longer in use by members of a speech-community. Middle English, whose most familiar literary form is that of Chaucer's writings, seems closer to us, as of course it is. It shows the gradual obliteration of distinctive inflectional endings and the increasing importance of word-order and function-words (e. g., conjunctions and prepositions) as grammatical signaling devices. There are great changes in vocabulary following the influx of Norman and Parisian French in the eleventh, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries. Other changes accumulate, in the pronouns, the verb system, pronunciation, spelling.

By the time we reach Late Modern English (from c. 1750 on) it is plain that the language of the Angles and the Saxons has become something radically different from what it was. Only a handful of inflectional endings survive: the noun plural and genitive, the verb present-tense third-person -s, the -ing of the present participle, the -(e)d of the past tense and past participle, the -er and -est of adjectives, and a few others. The "strong" verbs have diminished in number from over two hundred to some five dozen, and their forms have grown much simpler and more regular. The force of analogy has reduced many other forms. The sound-system has undergone drastic change, as described above. Spelling changes introduced into Middle English have become standardized. Enormous accretions to the vocabulary have been made, from French, Latin, Greek, and many other sources; borrowing words from other languages is one of the salient characteristics of English. It would be possible to go on at some length summarizing the many changes that occurred to produce the language of the British Isles in the modern period--and of all those parts of the earth to which that language has made its way by colonization, trade, and other means.

If we attempt to put in capsule form the fifteen centuries of change so briefly treated here, we may say that English was metamorphosed from a synthetic to an analytic language--that is, inflection was replaced by

word-order and function-words as basic signaling devices. We should add that the vocabulary, while retaining a Germanic foundation, became heavily Latinized and cosmopolitan, and that there developed a sound-system strikingly different from that of related Continental languages. These developments are the essence of the transformation.

The relevance of all this to the English teacher and the classroom needs no underscoring. But an exemplary illustration may be appropriate. Consider "It's me." In Old English the equivalent was "Hit eom ic," that is, "It am I." In Old English there is agreement between the subject, ic, and the verb, eom, but the subject comes after the verb and the complement comes before it. Now, as the language develops, word-order becomes more and more important. The normal sentence-pattern becomes SVC--subject, verb, complement (complement being understood as object, predicate nominative, etc.) The word in subject-position, the first possible word before the verb, is felt as the grammatical subject of the sentence. With this word the verb must agree. Hence it (replacing OE hit) is regarded as subject, not as complement, and for am (replacing OE eom) is substituted is. But in complement-position one expects the inflected objective case form of the pronoun, for there are more transitive verbs in English, taking a direct object, than there are linking verbs: moreover, in the analogous French construction C'est moi the form moi (never nominative je) is used, and French has influenced English in many ways. The result is the substitution of me for I (replacing OE ic), so that we have the normal Modern English locution "It's me," with contracted verb as in usual in speech. The same kind of reasoning can be applied to many other features of Modern English so as to explain their historical development: the prohibition on multiple negatives and doubled superlatives, the origin of phrases like "the more the merrier," the apparently singular plural, etc.

The teacher who can thus explain the origin of Modern English constructions, words, sounds, and spellings, and who knows the history of the language well enough to show the evolution of its forms and its regional and social dialects is a teacher equipped for the job. Such a teacher can make the study of grammar, pronunciation, etymology, semantics--indeed, everything subsumed under the lead of "English language"--a continually interesting, even fascinating affair. Blind, dogmatic prescriptivism is not likely to be the classroom stock of such a teacher, for he knows that language is constantly changing, that yesterday's "correct" expression may be today's "error"--and the other way round; that "correct" means standard and appropriate, and that only by observation of actual usage in the speech community can one decide what is both fitting and in accord with educated usage.

Linguistics: Some Additional Bibliographical Suggestions

I. Introductory books on language and linguistics in general, for nonspecialists

- Carroll, John B. The Study of Language (Cambridge, Mass., 1953). A sober survey by a leading American scholar.
- Hall, Robert A., Jr. Leave Your Language Alone! (1950); reissued as Linguistics and Your Language (New York, Doubleday, Anchor Books, 1960). A popularized, lively work, by a practicing linguist.
- Hughes, John. The Science of Languages (New York, 1962). A useful general introduction to linguistics, both historical and descriptive, by a Columbia linguist.
- Laird, Charlton G. The Miracle of Language (Cleveland, World, 1953). A popularized account for the general reader, by a professor of English interested in linguistics.
- Sapir, Edward. Language (1921); reissued in 1960 by Harvest Books. A great American linguist's classical introductory work, somewhat out of date but highly readable.
- Schlauch, Margaret. The Gift of Tongues (1942); reissued as The Gift of Language (New York, Dover, 1955). A very well written, high-grade popularized account by an eminent American scholar, now at the University of Warsaw; does not take cognizance of the most recent developments.
- Sturtevant, Edgar H. An Introduction to Linguistic Science (New Haven, 1947). An excellent, if somewhat dated, and compact volume by a famous American linguist; somewhat less popularized than others listed here.

II. Recent works on Modern English mainly from a linguistic point of view

- Allen, H. B., Ed. Readings in Applied English Linguistics, second edition, (New York, 1964). Probably the best available collection of such readings, consisting of articles by various American linguists and teachers of English, on various aspects of language-study, including usage, grammatical analysis, structure, and the relation of linguistics to the teaching of composition and literature. Highly recommended despite a good many typographical errors in early printings.
- Bryant, Margaret M. Current American Usage (New York, 1962). A thoroughly documented survey of almost 250 items of usage, including many frequently disputed in and out of the classroom. Basing her summaries on the most recent comprehensive and scientific studies of actual cultivated usage in the United States, Professor Bryant provides a handy compendium of the latest available information (as distinguished from prejudice, obiter dicta, fiat, etc.) By a well-known professor of English and member of the National Council of Teachers of English committee on usage. Highly recommended.
- Dean, Leonard F., and Kenneth G. Wilson, eds. Essays on Language and Usage (New York, 1959). Another collection of useful and interesting pieces.

Linguistics: Bibliographical Suggestions (cont'd.)

- Evans, Bergen, and Cornelia Evans. A Dictionary of Contemporary American Usage (New York, 1957). Less heavily documented than Bryant's study, but lively, opinionated, and readable. By a well-known teacher and TV "personality" who is well informed; done in collaboration with his sister.
- Francis, W. Nelson. The Structure of American English (New York, 1958). A college textbook based on structural-linguistic doctrines, by a professor of English now at Brown University. Fairly hard going for those without some background. Contains an excellent summary (Chapter 9) of American English dialects by a leading expert, Professor Raven I. McDavid, Jr., of the University of Chicago.
- Fries, Charles C. The Structure of English (New York, 1952). A seminal study by a pioneer of American English studies, Professor of English at the University of Michigan. Important for the influence it has had on later writers and scholars.
- Lloyd, Donald J., and Harry R. Warfel. American English in Its Cultural Setting (New York, 1956). A readable popularized textbook based on structural doctrines; somewhat overenthusiastic in its approach. By two professors of English.
- Marckwardt, Albert H. American English (New York, 1958). A slim book by a celebrated veteran teacher, long at the University of Michigan, not doctrinaire; sober, readable, middle-of-the-road.
- Myers, L. M. American English: A Twentieth Century Grammar (New Jersey, 1952). An excellent, readable college textbook, liberal but not doctrinaire; by a professor of English at the University of Arizona. The recently revised third edition is now advertised as available.
- Pyles, Thomas. Words and Ways of American English (New York, 1952). Another readable, interesting account, nonstructural in orientation, requiring no special equipment for comprehension. By another professor of English, at the University of Florida.
- Roberts, Paul. Understanding English (New York, 1958). One of several textbooks by a leading popularizer, an early convert to structural analysis. Professor Roberts, formerly of San Jose College, is now Professor of Linguistics at Cornell and is currently directing English teaching in Italy as the head of a relatively large operation for that purpose. A structural text, especially useful for its clear, simplified exposition of Trager-Smith phonemics and for its presentation of sound-spelling relations.
- Understanding Grammar (New York, 1954). Roberts' earlier work.
- English Sentences (New York, 1962). Roberts' most recent and probably his best popularization, intended as a secondary school text. Certainly the easiest and clearest introduction to the fundamentals of generative-transformational grammar, as well as to the fundamentals of phonemics, immediate-constituent analysis, and some other aspects of linguistic analysis. Highly recommended.

Linguistics: Bibliographical Suggestions (cont'd.)

- Sledd, James H. A Short Introduction to English Grammar (Chicago, 1959). A college text taking a structuralist approach, somewhat novel to traditionalists in its two-level analysis of English grammar but conservative (to contemporary structural linguists) in its terminology and doctrine. By a well-known professor of English at Northwestern.
- Whitehall, Harold. Structural Essentials of English (New York, 1956). Yet another of the several recent attempts at a new grammatical analysis of our language, by a professor of English at Indiana University.
- Zandvoort, R. W. A Handbook of English Grammar, fifth edition (London, 1957). A traditionalist text by a famous European grammarian; an interesting counterbalance to recent innovative studies by American grammarians.

A UNIT ON DIALECTS

by James F. McCampbell

Dr. Roberts discusses grammars A, B, C, and D in his article on linguistic eclecticism. But if you were to corner him privately, you might get him to mention some other grammars. Charles Hockett of Cornell University calls his work constructional grammar; Sydney Lamb of Berkeley is working with stratificational grammar; David Hays of the Rand Corporation is developing dependency grammar. Rather frightening, isn't it?

This state of ferment in linguistic study faces us squarely with the problem of modern education which Dr. Squire so succinctly illuminated in his talk at the Demonstration Center conference on "A Curriculum for Average Students."

Buffeted by the changes wrought by technology and by the increasing complexity of our times, our educational system now faces what Margaret Mead has called a need for teaching students "how to formulate unknown solutions for unknown problems." Our culture is changing so rapidly that it is not remotely possible to educate individuals with all of the specific skills and specific techniques which they will need to cope with tomorrow's problems...If in effect then we are now educating in our classrooms the leaders of 20 or 25 years hence--the scientists, and statesmen and the artists of the year 2000--how must they best be prepared?

At the recent NCTE conference on linguistics at Indianapolis, one of the demonstration classes ended with a criticism of the textbook definition of a pronoun. It was disturbing to find that some of the teachers in the audience were worried for fear that the students would lose faith in textbooks. As teachers we clutch at our straws of knowledge because we fear the ocean of inadequacies which threatens to drown us. We do not understand how our language works; Noam Chomsky, C. C. Fries, and W. Nelson Francis do not understand how our language works (and would probably be the first to admit the fact). How are our students going to understand how our language works? What can we teach them to better equip them for the challenges of a world we do not know?

Perhaps attitudes are the most important results we can expect from introducing students to language study. The attitude that language is the humanistic study--the major force that gives man the powers that he has. The attitude that language both characterizes the individual using it and gives him the power to change his role. The attitude that language study is fascinating. The attitude that language can be judged only by its appropriateness to the situation in which it is used. If we can approach language study honestly and inquiringly perhaps our students will learn to follow suit.

The study of dialects seems to be an appropriate tool for the honest analysis of linguistic reality. Play for your students Andy Griffith's record "What it was, it was football" and ask them why the record is funny. You will find that they have a great store of intuitive knowledge about language differences. With very little direction from the teacher they will be able to distinguish the three major aspects of language variation--

vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax. After such a discussion, the class may be asked to record specific instances of dialect differences as they listen to the record again. Their notes will provide a basis for further analysis and discussion.

For example, the difficulties of describing his pronunciation of words like town /tæun/ or /taun/ lead to the problems of phonetic inadequacies of our written language and the beginnings of a scientific inquiry into the functions of our vocal organs in speech. His unfamiliarity with the terms of football lead to an investigation of jargon and the analysis of language usage on the basis of social and educational background. His distinctive use of vocabulary and syntax lead to an investigation of the geographic distribution of dialects.

Throughout these introductory investigations there will be opportunity to deal with student attitudes about language. At some point words such as "accent," "incorrect," "hillbilly," and "wrong" will arise in student attempts to explain Griffith's language patterns. They can be led to substitute the word "different" and a careful explanation of the difference for these pejorative judgments.

The degree of sophistication to which these investigations are carried depends primarily upon the response of the class. Should the entire group find a particular field of investigation stimulating and exciting, they should continue their investigation. A small group of students can be allowed to pursue any particular problem in which they are interested. The following paragraphs suggest a possible pattern for developing each of these major introductory concepts about language.

PHONETIC ANALYSIS: When students are asked to record pronunciation differences from the Griffith record, they may immediately respond, "But how can we do that?" If the response is not immediate, it will follow their first attempts at recording his pronunciation. Such a question leads easily into phonetic (perhaps phonemic would be more accurate) analysis. "Don't the letters of our language stand for certain sounds?" If the answer is not a resounding "No," a series such as plough, rough, cough, through, thorough, or can, church, cancel, should effectively make the point. "We usually divide our language into two kinds of letters. What are they? What is the difference between a vowel and a consonant? How many different sounds can you put in this blank without making two syllables? (b _ t) Are there any others that you can put in this blank? (p _ n) What do you do to make the sound difference between bet and bat? Between zip and sip?" Such questions are the beginning of an analysis of the phonemic system of English. (C. C. Fries, Linguistics and Reading gives many illustrations of this kind of analysis.) The analysis might end with the simple distinctions of front-back, high-low, and central vowel sounds, and some of the easier distinctions among the consonant sounds such as voiced, unvoiced, etc. (The vocabulary is of course not nearly as important as the ideas.) The students should recognize that the written language does not directly represent the sounds of spoken English. Interested students might wish to attempt the development of an alphabet in which each letter would represent one and only one sound.

DIALLECT GEOGRAPHY: "Where is Andy Griffith from? How do you know? How exactly do you suppose we can pinpoint a person's origin by the language he speaks?" Such questions introduce the brief segment of the movie The Alphabet Conspiracy which shows word detectives trying to determine the geographic origin of a speaker. The students can be asked to note the items

which the investigators use to analyze the character's language. H. L. Smith's movie on dialect will furnish the students with additional devices to use in analyzing a person's language geographically. With this brief background, they can prepare a questionnaire to use in isolating the geographic origin of some of the more unique speakers in the school or from the surrounding community. The presentation of a map from Kurath's A Word Geography of the Eastern United States and a testing of their own speech patterns in relation to some of the major distinctions between dialect areas could conclude this introduction to dialect geography. Again, interested students could pursue the topic further, by studying isoglosses or analyzing more speakers.

SOCIAL DIALECTS: "What words does one have to know to talk intelligently about football? What other fields have special vocabularies? Do different age groups also have different languages? What are some slang expressions which you use that aren't common to your parents? Can you adapt your language to fit different situations in which you find yourself? Do people write the way they talk?" Such questions should lead the students to distinguish jargon, slang, and levels of usage. They should become aware that we react to language usage just as they react to the clothes and manners that people exhibit. Role playing will reinforce these understandings, and analysis of differences between written and spoken language will make them aware of the special dialect we use in writing.

The next major step in the unit is to relate this body of knowledge to the students' experience. How do we talk? What language differences do we display? Such an investigation demands the development of research techniques and the formulation of specific test instruments to illuminate the language differences of the class. Fortunately, most regions of the country have some such instruments available. (The Cleveland area has been analyzed by James A. Drake in the February 1961 issue of American Speech.) Such instruments can serve as a beginning, but they should be implemented by student developed instruments to investigate the dialect of their school, their neighborhood, and their family. This kind of investigation can lead to a class publication of the dialect patterns they discover. These investigations involve activities ranging from sophisticated writing to map drawing, providing for a wide range of abilities within the class.

Another major step in the unit is the analysis of current American English as it is represented by modern mass media. The dialect pattern of news reporters on TV is an interesting one to pursue. But most obvious for analysis is the tremendous number of vocabulary items which have been introduced into our language in the past decade. The strong influence of outer space (a capsule is no longer what it used to be) and the tremendous influence of Russian (sputnik, beatnik) is easily investigated in modern mass media, as is the use of initial letters to form words (UNESCO, SNAFU, SAC, etc.)

Next the unit deals with the use of dialects in literature. In fact the unit might just as easily have started from this point, since it is a field of great fascination for the students. The classic example is G. B. Shaw's Pygmalion, which shows the use of language instruction to change the social standing of an individual. The bibliography at the end of this article is taken from Dialects USA by Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley, available from the NCTE for \$1.00. It is an excellent source for basic concepts and student activities. Any of the works in the bibliography may be used for analysis or oral presentation to extend the students' understanding of and feeling for dialect differences in language.

Finally, the unit attempts to synthesize the learning that has taken place, and suggest problems for further study. As previously suggested, the class may publish the best works in a pamphlet. With the better students performing the editorial function under the teacher's direction, such a booklet should provide integrated, orderly presentation of the major discoveries of the unit, and should provide the class with a sense of completion. The final class activity could develop as a final section of the class publication a list of problems and questions which have not been fully studied. Such an activity provides a model for the students to use as each writes a paper summarizing the unit. Thus the final paper will present not only distinctions made and conclusions drawn, but also problems which the writer feels have not yet been adequately investigated.

The teacher may judge the success of the unit by the final compositions of the students. These compositions should reflect student knowledge and student attitudes. They should represent a knowledge of the wide varieties of pronunciation, vocabulary, and syntax that are used by educated speakers of English, and a willingness to accept these differences for what they are--not right or wrong, just different.

LITERARY SELECTIONS ILLUSTRATING AMERICAN DIALECTS

POEMS

- Benet, Stephen Vincent. "The Mountain Whippoorwill" (Georgia)
 Dinbar, Paul L. "The Turning of the Babies in the Bed"
 "A Coquette Conquered" (Uneducated Southern Negro)
 Field, Eugene. "Seein' Things"
 and others (Midwest)
 Frost, Robert, "Death of the Hired Man"
 and other dialogues and monologues (New England)
 Furman, Lucy. "Ballad of Kents and Fallons" (Kentucky Mountains)
 Helton, Roy. "Old Christmas Morning"
 "Lonesome Water" (Kentucky Mountains)
 Lanier, Sidney. "That's More in the Man Than Thar Is in the Land"
 and others (Middle Georgia)
 Lowell, James Russell. Biglow Papers (Boston Yankee)
 Riley, James Whitcomb. "When the Frost Is on the Punkin'"
 "Wortermelon Time"
 "The Little Town of Tailholt"
 "The Ole Swimmin' Hole" (Indiana)

SHORT STORIES

- Benet, Stephen Vincent. Thirteen O'clock (Georgia)
 Cable, George Washington. Old Creole Days (New Orleans)
 Cather, Willa. Obscure Destinies (Nebraska)
 Dunne, Finley Peter. Mr. Dooley in Peace and War
 Mr. Dooley's Philosophy
 Mr. Dooley Says
 Mr. Dooley on Making a Will
 and others (Chicago Irish)
 Freeman, Mary Wilkins. A Humble Romance and Other Stories
 A New England Nun and Other Stories
 People of Our Neighborhood (New England)
 Graland, Hamlin. "Under the Lion's Paw" (Midwest)
 Harris, George Washington. Sut Lovingood Yarns (Tennessee)
 Harris, Joel Chandler. Uncle Remus: His Songs and His Sayings
 Nights with Uncle Remus
 Mingo and Other Sketches in Black and White
 Free Joe and Other Georgian Sketches (Middle Georgia)
 Jewett, Sarah Orne. Country of the Pointed Firs and Other Stories
 (New England)
 Kober, Arthur. Oooh, What You Said!
 Pardon Me For Pointing
 My Dear Bella
 That Man Is Here Again
 Bella, Bella Kissed a Fella (New York City Kiddish)
 Murfree, Mary Noailles ("Charles Egbert Craddock").
 In the Tennessee Mountains (East Tennessee)
 Page, Thomas Nelson. In Ole Virginia (Negro of the Virginia Plantation)
 Runyon, Damon. More Guys and Dolls (New York City)
 Singmaster, Elsie. "The Belsnickel" (Pennsylvania Dutch)

SHORT STORIES (cont'd.)

- Stuart, Jesse. "Uncle Jeff," Head o' W-Hollow
"Another April," Tales from the Plum Grove Hills
(Kentucky)
- Townsend, Edward. "Chimmie Fadden," Major Max, and Other Stories
Chimmie Fadden Explains, Major Max Expounds
(New York City)
- Twain, Mark. "The Celebrated Jumping Frog of Calaveras County"
"Baker's Blue-Jay Yarn" (Far West)
- West, Jessamyn. "The Battle of Finney's Ford" (Quakers)

NOVELS

- Cable, George Washington. The Grandissimes
Madame Delphine (New Orleans)
- Cather, Willa. O Pioneers!
My Antonia (Nebraska)
- Eggleston, Edward. The Circuit Rider (Southern Indiana)
- Haun, Mildred. That Hawk's Done Gone (East Tennessee)
- Murfree, Mary Noailles ("Charles Egbert Craddock").
The Prophet of the Great Smoky Mountains
(East Tennessee)
- Page, Thomas Nelson. Red Rock (Negro of the Virginia Plantation)
- Perry, George Sessions. Hold Autumn in Your Hand (Texas)
- Rawlings, Marjorie Kinnan. The Yearling (Northern Florida)
- Simms, William Gilmore. Guv Rivers
Richard Hurdis
The Border Beagles (Old Southwest Frontier)
The Partisan
Mellichamp
Katherine Walton
Woodcraft
The Forayers (South Carolina)
- Smith, Seba. My Thirty Years Out of the Senate
Life and Writings of Jack Downing (Maine)
- Twain, Mark. Roughing It (Far West)
Huckleberry Finn (Mississippi River)

PLAYS

- Bradford, Roark. John Henry (Louisiana, Mississippi)
- Greene, Patterson. Paen Is All (Pennsylvania Dutch Region)
- Kober, Arthur. Having Wonderful Time (New York City Yiddish)
- Van Druten, John. I Remember Mama (San Francisco Norwegian)

If we are to teach syntax for its own sake, because it is of value as a humanistic study, then our most important objective is to teach the understanding of how words work together. The scope of this article will not allow us to examine the theoretical shortcomings of traditional school grammar. Those interested might examine C. C. Fries' The Structure of English. From a pedagogical point of view the fact that the same grammatical concepts need to be taught year after year from the fifth grade (or earlier) through the twelfth grade certainly reveals some sort of shortcoming. Structural and transformational grammar provide a more thorough theoretical basis for language analysis and a means by which a student can objectify what he already knows and uses of syntax. Ruth Strickland's study The Language of Elementary School Children proves that when children enter school they know and use all the major syntactic patterns of oral English. Why not call upon this ability to use the language to help the student objectify ideas about how the language works? Let the student be his own linguist. Let him collect samples of language and make his own generalizations about language. Let him set up hypotheses about how his language works, and ask him to test and revise the hypotheses. Perhaps such an exploratory approach is the most valuable aspect of language study. The student will learn "the scientific method" in approaching problems. The burden of proof will be on him and not upon the teacher. He can be highly motivated to draw conclusions and set up rules. And he will, perhaps, feel free to explore and experiment with his language--to use it as effectively and efficiently as he can because he realizes that he is the master of it, and not it of him.

Such an inductive study can begin and proceed in a number of ways. The teacher can present the students with a specially prepared passage of nonsense language about which the students can make certain generalizations. Or he can ask the students to supply language samples of their own for analysis. Or the teacher can supply a number of statements with words omitted. Or he can begin by scrambling sentences. Or he can use any combination of these. Although any of these can be used to begin exploring syntax, they will be discussed in a sequence which has been found particularly effective: 1) scrambled sentences, 2) student sentences, 3) omitted words, 4) nonsense passage.

1) Scrambled sentences such as the following are presented to students to demonstrate that while words have meanings individually, they must appear in particular orders if they are to have meaning collectively.

- a. girl the frog over then jumped high
- b. all the helped fathers boys day the long
- c. small built the winter for a trappers the cabin

When the students have unscrambled the sentences, they should discover that by changing two words in both a and b they can change the collective meaning of each sentence entirely. The frog can jump over the girl, or the girl can jump over the frog. The fathers can help the boys or the boys can help the fathers. They should note that in sentence a we can speak of a high frog or a high girl and that we can say high jumped or jumped high. They should try to determine the most probable placement of the word high. In sentence b the phrase all day long or all the day long can be shifted to different positions without greatly changing the meaning of the whole sentence. While the students should note these possible variations, the main idea for them to discover in the exercise is that word order is of very great importance in English.

2) In the next step of the sequence the teacher asks the students to compose the shortest statements they can. As the students write, the teacher can walk around the room and select the sentences which will best suit the purposes of the lesson. He can then ask students who have written sentences conforming to basic patterns to write them on the board. (At this point the teacher can feel free to use the word sentence even though the students do not have a clear idea of what it means and may write phrases in response to it.) Sentences such as the following serve well for the exercise:

The boy runs.

He threw the ball.

The girl gave him a book.

The students now have sentences of three basic patterns with which they can work. The next step is to omit one word at a time and make lists of words which will fit into the blank spaces.

3) Omitting words and supplying other words to fill the blanks should indicate that only certain kinds of words can fill particular blank spaces (slots). Students can make lists of words which will fit into the blanks in patterns such as the following:

1. The _____ stands still.

2. The man _____ quietly.

3. The _____ man stands on the corner.

After collecting lists of words which fit the blanks in the various patterns, the students can determine whether or not any of the words will fit in the blanks of the other patterns. Undoubtedly some of them will. At this point the students can begin to make generalizations about the words which fit into the various blanks and what happens to them when they change from one position to another. If the students have already had some work in morphology, such generalizations will come very easily. If not, the students can examine the characteristics of the words in their lists at this time. The students can make several generalizations about their lists of words for pattern three: The _____ man stands on the corner. They will find that most of the words in the list will also fit in patterns such as the following: a) The man is _____. b) The man is very _____. They will note also that some words like garbage will fill the slot between the and man. (The garbage man stands on the corner.) But they should note that the same word will not fill the other patterns: The man is garbage; The man is very garbage. They should find, however, that garbage fills the blank in the first pattern and is therefore different from most of the words in the pattern three list. The students should also note that some of the words in this list can take -er and -est endings and that some cannot. If the teacher wishes, the students can be led to make distinctions between the words that can take the endings and those that can't. Patriotic, for instance, which fits the blank but cannot take -er or -est endings, has a derivational suffix as will many other words which cannot take the -er and -est endings.

Similarly, using lists of words that fill the blanks in the other patterns, students can make generalizations about nouns, verbs, and adverbs. With this knowledge and a knowledge of some function words the students can proceed to the analysis of sentence patterns without much difficulty.

At this point it seems wise for the teacher to return to the sentences written by students and used originally for the analysis described above.

1 For a full analysis of the characteristics of the words in each of these form classes, see W. Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English (New York, Ronald, 1958).

The first sentence used above, The man stands still, can be coded as NV(Adv) with the parentheses around Adv to show that the adverb in the pattern is optional. Determiners such as the, a, an, appear before nouns generally so that there is no need to indicate them in the code. The students can code sentences used above and then build new sentences to fit these patterns. They will find that there are thousands of sentences which can be written in each of these patterns. After the students have written a number of sentences following the code, the teacher can demonstrate how these basic sentences can be expanded by the addition of details (modifiers) to any slot in the sentence. Take the following sentence as an example:

The man watched quietly.

By asking students to add details about the appearance of the man, the way he watched, and the setting in which he watched, the class might arrive at a sentence such as the following:

The tall, thin man, dressed in a black coat which was too large for him and a gray felt hat which showed spots of grease and mud, watched carefully and quietly in the early morning fog.

The underlined words indicate the parts of the original sentence. And these original parts are still the basis of the expanded sentence. Expanding several sentences should serve two purposes: 1) It should serve as a general introduction to the ways in which sentences are expanded, and 2) it should demonstrate that expanded sentences have basic elements around which other parts of the sentence are built and that when we speak of basic sentence patterns, we are referring to the patterns into which these basic elements are organized.

After this exercise the students can examine other sentence patterns and begin to differentiate the patterns in terms of the kind of verb required in each and the elements of the pattern. Paul Roberts in English Sentences prescribes ten basic patterns and presents them in a deductive manner. But it is possible (and preferable as far as this writer is concerned) for the student himself to induce the patterns from sentences which he produces or from sentences which the teacher presents. With bright students, after establishing the three patterns already used, it is possible to proceed by asking the students what other basic sentence patterns exist in English. With most students, however, it is best to begin with something more concrete, sentences they have written or sentences which the teacher presents. The following are the basic patterns as enumerated by Roberts:

- | | | | |
|----|---------|--------|---------------------|
| | N | V | (Adv) |
| 1. | The man | waited | quietly. |
| | N | V | Adj |
| 2. | The boy | looked | unhappy. |
| | N | V-b | N |
| 3. | The boy | became | a man. |
| | N | V | N |
| 4. | The man | wrote | a letter. |
| | N | V | N |
| . | The man | gave | the boy some money. |

N V-c N N

6. The man called him a fool.

N V-e N N

7. The people elected him mayor.

N be Adv

8. The man was early.

N be Adj

9. The man was ugly.

N be N

10. The man was a hero.

A complete analysis of each of these patterns and how to teach them is beyond the scope of this article. However, as an abbreviated example let us examine patterns 5, 6, and 7.

When the pattern NVNN has been isolated by the students, the next step is to discriminate among three patterns mentioned above. The most obvious distinction is that while the two nouns following the verb in pattern 5 have different referents, the two nouns following the verb in patterns 6 and 7 have the same referent. A less obvious distinction between patterns 6 and 7 is that while an adjective can be substituted for the second noun in pattern 6, only a noun (or pronoun) can fill the same place in pattern 7. Thus pattern 6 has two variations as exemplified in the following:

- a. The man thought him a hero.
- b. The man thought him brave.

These differences are due primarily to verbs which can fill the verb position in the patterns.

Pattern 5 verbs: give, hand, bring, throw,
show, offer, take, etc.

Pattern 6 verbs: consider, think, believe,
call, suppose.

Pattern 7 verbs: elect, choose, vote, make.

Students can make discriminations among the other patterns in a similar manner.

When students are familiar with the basic patterns, have had practice in building sentences following the patterns, and have collected examples of the verbs appropriate to each pattern, the teacher and class can turn their attention to ways of expanding the basic sentence patterns, and this brings us to our second reason for teaching syntax: the effect such instruction might have on composition performance.

Studies by Watts and La Brant have shown that the use of subordinate clauses increases with the maturity of the writers, suggesting that the more mature writer not only sees ideas in complex relationships but is able to arrange them in syntactic patterns conveying such complexity. The findings of Watts and La Brant give rise to at least two problems: 1) Are there other syntactic devices whose use increases with the maturity of the writer? 2) If there are, is it possible to hasten the development of the writer by appropriate instruction in the use of such devices? Recent research by the author suggests affirmative answers to both these questions. More research, of course, is necessary before definitive statements can be made. However, the

completed research does indicate guidelines for future research and for the production of experimental teaching materials in syntax. Such materials must be termed experimental in the sense that no full scale, controlled research has been undertaken to demonstrate their efficacy.

The first research project was undertaken to determine what if any syntactic differences existed among groups of ninth grade papers the author had previously graded A, B, and C. One of the most striking differences was that of sentence length. The average sentence length of the A papers was significantly greater than the average sentence length of the B papers, and the average sentence length of B papers was significantly greater than that of the C papers. Similarly, while 71.3% of the A papers contained at least one sentence of over 30 words, 38.4% of the B papers did, as opposed to 12.8% of the C papers. To check whether the author had some special propensity for giving high grades to papers with long sentences, four teachers of ninth grade students at another school were asked to record the individual sentence lengths of papers they had graded A, B, and C. There was no difference between the average sentence length of the papers which the author had graded A and those which they had graded A. The same was true of both sets of B papers. The papers which they had graded C had a mean sentence length greater than those to which the author had assigned C's but still significantly less than the sentence length of the B papers. Apparently sentence length was either one of the factors to which teachers responded in assigning grades or a concomitant of whatever factors they did respond to.

Since it is obviously not enough to say that sentence length is important if we know nothing of what is in the sentences, the study proceeded to an examination of the syntactic devices used in each group of papers. Three kinds of syntactic structures existed in significantly different proportions among the three sets of papers. These three kinds of structure were subordinate clauses, verbals, and compound clauses.

1. Subordinate clauses, in this study, included what are traditionally known as noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses. An average of 39% of all clauses on A papers were subordinate clauses. An average of 34% of all those on B papers and 28% of all those on C papers were subordinate. The differences among these three percentages were all statistically significant--the difference between the mean percentages for A and C papers being significant at the .01 level.

2. Verbals included infinitives and participles used in noun positions and in positions of modification. A ratio was formed between the total number of verbals and the total number of clauses for each paper. The study revealed that on the average, for every one hundred clauses on the A papers there were twenty verbals, for every one hundred clauses on the B papers there were eighteen to nineteen verbals, and for every one hundred clauses on C papers there were only ten verbals. Statistically, these differences were all highly significant at .01.

3. Compound clauses were a third syntactic structure which distinguished the groups of papers. The greatest difference occurred between the A and C papers. While on the average 19% of the sentences on A papers contained what might be called compound main clauses, an average of only 7% of the sentences on C papers did.

Obviously this research leaves much to be desired. The analysis of particular structures was confined to papers graded only by the researcher. The sample was relatively small: 35 A papers, 39 B papers, and 35 C papers.

The analysis examined only a few kinds of structures. To be of any real value in curriculum, the study needs to be replicated using other graders to rate the papers, a larger sample, students at other grade levels, and a more precise method of analysis. However, the study as it stands does indicate guide lines. When I graded the papers originally, my attention was focused on content, form, and to some extent, mechanics. As a grader I was not concerned with syntactic differences. Yet there is an indisputable relationship between the grades assigned and the use of certain syntactic structures.

Another, more ambitious study, using composition samples from four hundred sixty-nine students and a far more precise, linguistically based method of analysis, revealed similar differences among compositions from students in grades seven, eight, and nine. The correlations which were run as part of the study revealed that the use of certain syntactic structures varies with such factors as IQ and reading level.

The proportion of subordinate clauses, for instance, increases from the eighth to the ninth grades, but there are only negative correlations between scores used to indicate subordination and variables such as IQ, reading score, and average English grade. These negative correlations may seem incongruous in light of the previous study which showed the A papers with the highest level of subordinate clauses, 39%. However, in the second study which was carried three years later, the level of subordinate clauses for the entire ninth grade was 45.7%. For some unknown reason the use of subordinate clauses has increased greatly. It appears that, beyond a certain level, brighter students do not continue to increase the number of subordinate clauses which they use in their writing. However, there is evidence to indicate that they continue to increase their use of such structures as prepositional phrases. Scores indicating the proportion of prepositional phrases in compositions have positive correlations to variables such as intelligence, reading, and English grade.

In summary, the following conclusions are among those which seem warranted for the sample of compositions used in this study.

1. While the mean subordination index increases from the seventh to the ninth grades, there is a tendency for bright students to use fewer subordinate clauses.
2. There is an increase in mean percentage of subordinate clauses used as adjectival modifiers from the seventh to the eighth and from the seventh to the ninth grade.
3. There is a decrease in the mean percentage of subordinate clauses used in direct object positions from the seventh to the ninth grades.
4. There is a decrease in the mean percentage of adverbial subordinate clauses from the seventh to the ninth grades.
5. There is an increase in the proportion of prepositional phrases from the seventh to the eighth and ninth grades.
6. There is an increase in the mean percentage of infinitives used in direct object positions from the seventh to the eighth and from the seventh to the ninth grades.
7. There is an increase in the mean percentage of infinitives forming structures of complementation from the seventh grade to the eighth and ninth grades.

All of these conclusions point toward a general tightening up of syntax in student composition. The sentence develops vertically rather than

horizontally. It takes on more layers of modifiers as the student moves from seventh to the ninth grade. It incorporates more and more phrases and subordinate clauses; and the brighter the student writer is the more he tends to use fewer subordinate clauses and more phrases as expanders of structures.

What does all this have to do with the teaching of syntax? First of all it suggests that the acquisition of sophistication in syntax is sequential but that this sequence is not absolute with one kind of structure following another in the development of the students' writing. Rather, the sequence seems to evolve quantitatively with one kind of structure increasing in frequency to a leveling off point followed and/or accompanied by the increase in frequency of another structure. It may be that certain kinds of structures have a tendency to replace others as the writer matures as is indicated in the instance of subordinate clauses and prepositional phrases and in the instance of subordinate clauses and prepositional phrases and in the instance of subordinate clauses and infinitive structures of complementation appearing in direct object positions. Bearing this in mind the evidence of the study allows us to delineate the following rather general sequence:

1. The frequency of subordinate clauses levels off before the frequency of prepositional phrases does.
2. The frequency of subordinate clauses used as adverbials and in direct object positions appears to level off before the frequency of adjective clauses does.
3. The infinitive phrase appears to develop later than any of the preceding.
4. Participial phrases are perhaps the most sophisticated structures examined in the research and are used extensively only by a few of the brighter students.

All of this suggests that students seem to acquire skill in the use of these structures in a fixed order and that as teachers of English we might take advantage of our knowledge of this order to revive the use of such structures and to hasten the acquisition of competency in their use.

How best to do this is the next problem. Experience has shown that the use of models and patterns is very effective in that the student can learn to write specific structures immediately. What effect such practice will have on the syntax of the students' writing beyond the immediate situation remains to be determined. Nevertheless the practices of discovering what structures a student does and does not use, instructing him in the use of structures with which he needs help through the use of models and patterns, and making him aware of the changes and additions to meaning which the use of such structures can bring about hold great promise.

As a part of the unit on syntax such instruction begins by asking the students to examine model sentences in which certain patterns are apparent and by asking students to add details to the basic sentence patterns they have already studied, expanding one part of the pattern at a time through the use of various devices. Thus returning to the sentence, "The man stood still," the teacher simply introduces an adverbial clause such as "when he heard the explosion." When the pattern of the adverbial is understood, the students can practice introducing such clauses in various places in basic sentence patterns. Their attention should be directed to the semantic and stylistic effect which such clauses have. The student should be aware of the value of adding additional detail, but he should also be aware of other ways of introducing the same details and should evaluate all the possibilities.

and use what he considers the best structure. Although it seems wise for the teacher to introduce various structures systematically, the system ought to be fluid enough to allow the consideration of a participial phrase such as "hearing the explosion."

The students should examine the ways in which they can expand the various parts of a sentence by the use of modifiers such as adjectives, relative clauses, prepositional phrases, and participial phrases. They should examine the possibilities of using verbal phrases and noun clauses in subject and object positions. They should objectify and imitate such patterns as the parallel structure and the appositive. After examining and practicing these various structures, the students can direct their attention to the combination of ideas. They should discover that combining several ideas in a single sentence through the use of the various structures may be more effective than writing several sentences. Writing one long sentence may be more economical than writing several short ones. On the other hand they should note that a long sentence can become too complex and might be more comprehensible if rewritten as two or three sentences. They should also note that several long sentences might be very dull written all together.

In short this practical phase of a unit on syntax should not lead to the mechanical reproduction of various syntactic structures. Rather, it should make the student aware of the many syntactic possibilities of the written language, should give him practice and discretion in the use of these various structures. If the study of syntax can accomplish these goals or aid significantly in their accomplishment, then it is not simply a humanistic study but one of vital significance to the development of the student as a writer.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON DIALECTS

RELATED UNITS:
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TEACHING THE UNIT

This unit on dialects is closely related to both the seventh and the eighth grade semantics units. The major concepts covered in those units are referent, symbol, denotation, connotation, ladders of abstraction, euphemism, slang, and jargon. All these have been approached from the point of view of general semantics and have been applied to more effective writing. (For example, the eighth grade semantics unit includes lessons on writing a scene from different points of view, analyzing propaganda techniques, and writing letters of persuasion.)

Although this unit in dialects is closely related, its techniques and purposes are different. The techniques are those of the linguist rather than the general semanticist and the purpose is not application in writing, but rather development of an attitude of the relativity of language usage. The unit has accomplished its purpose if the students quit making absolute value judgments and turn instead to making judgments in terms of the specific situations in which language is used.

If the students have completed the eighth grade semantics unit, they are ready to make further distinctions about the Andy Griffith record Just For Laughs. If they have not had the semantics unit, the lessons on euphemism, slang, and jargon can easily be used in this unit on dialects. For this purpose, they have been included in this unit.

From the Andy Griffith record the students will distinguish the three major aspects of current language variation--vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax. The next lesson involves them in analysis and investigation of pronunciation and its relation to our alphabet. The third lesson investigates variations in vocabulary and syntax by methods of dialectologists. In both lessons two and three the students apply the learning in brief investigations in their community.

Lessons four and five (from the eighth grade semantics unit) deal with slang and jargon.

Lesson seven uses Pygmalion as a class reading project while the students work on individual projects they have selected from ideas of previous lessons or from the list of suggested topics included. The final lesson reviews the unit, leads to a class publication, and demands a paper from each student summarizing his learning from the unit.

MATERIALS

Andy Griffith. "What it was, it was football," Just For Laughs, Capitol Records T 962.

Hans Kurath. A Word Geography of the Eastern United States, University of Michigan Press, Ann Arbor, 1949.

Henry Lee Smith. "Dialects", University of Buffalo film.

George Bernard Shaw. Pygmalion.

See bibliography of dialect literature in Lesson #6.

LESSON #1: KINDS OF DIFFERENCES IN LANGUAGE

OBJECTIVE: To distinguish the three major kinds of dialect differences: pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar.

MATERIALS: Just For Laughs (record)

PROCEDURES:

- A. Play the record for the class and ask them why the record is funny. If students call his language "wrong," lead them to distinguish "different" from "wrong" through questions such as the following:
 1. What was his purpose in this record? ("To explain the game of football?")
 2. Yes, that was the purpose of the character on the record, but what was Andy Griffith's purpose? (To make us laugh)
 3. Did he accomplish this?
 4. Then how can you call his language wrong? What would be a better word than wrong? (Different)
- B. For bright classes, "Why is it funny?" may be enough. If the class's responses are less than adequate, ask them for specific examples of his different language usage. Supplement their examples with others which will accomplish the lesson objective.
 1. What words did he use to describe the football field?
 2. How did he pronounce "town," "there," or "right here"?
 3. How would we say "...what it was that was a goin' to happen"?
- C. Now that the direction of the analysis is clarified, replay the record, asking the students to record as many illustrations as possible of each kind of language difference they have discriminated. Various techniques can be used to reduce frustration in this activity.
 1. If the students are particularly able, each of them may be given responsibility for all differences.
 2. Students might choose particular differences to concentrate on to lessen the difficulty of the assignment.
 3. The transcription which follows will help the students succeed in the assignment.

LESSON #2: PRONUNCIATION

OBJECTIVES: To develop techniques for recording differences in pronunciation.
To examine the mechanics of producing different sounds.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

A. Student attempts to record pronunciation differences in "What it was, it was football" will create the problem of phonetic transcription. Call on one of the students to explain a difference in pronunciation and record the explanation, asking the students to aid you in spelling what he actually said.

eat here	was pronounced	e cheer
posts	was pronounced	postes (es as in churches)
real	was pronounced	rail (or rayul as in royal)
town	was pronounced	taun

1. Has each letter of the alphabet represented a different sound the way we have recorded the sounds?
2. What can we do to clear up this problem? (assign each letter to a different sound)
3. Let's see what different sounds we can make and make up a symbol for each of these sounds.
 - a. What is the difference between "sip" and "zip"? (vocalization)
 - b. Pronounce the underlined letters of these three words: kitty, cat, cow. What does your tongue do as you move from one sound to the next?
 - c. What sounds can we put in the blank (b__t) without making two syllables?

B. To help the students recognize the distinction between their own pronunciation and "correct" pronunciation, have two or three students volunteer as guinea pigs to record the following sentences (Do not have the phrases underlined on the copy from which the students read):

After the football game, we went to the drug store for a soda. We walked all the way, and just as we were walking in the door, some goofy kid walked in with us. That was really a bad break. We should have gotten away from him because his idea of fun was to talk about literature. We had just lost the biggest game of the year, and he wanted to talk about literature! We asked him to leave, but he wouldn't. Well, that is the way it goes.

After the recordings are made, distribute a copy of the paragraph underlined as it is above, and multiple copies of the key phrases listed on the left with space to write on the right.

1. Head the other columns with the names of our three guinea pigs, and record the way they pronounce these phrases.
2. Be sure to record both the way they divide the syllables and the actual sounds they use.

C. Do the first few examples for the students. After the students have heard the recordings often enough to transcribe all the underlined phrases, discuss the results with them.

1. The scientist has done much for our civilization because of the way he works. He analyzes his subject by making statements about it that he can prove true. You are now language scientists; let's see what statements we can make about language as it is spoken in this room.

a. What phrases or words did all three speakers pronounce the same?

b. What phrases or words did the three speakers pronounce differently?

2. How could we find out which of the differences is most common?

3. What would happen if we asked teachers and parents to read the passage as well as students? (We would get more variety of response.)

4. Let's prove or disprove that statement. Have different people read our passage, and record their answers to the key words and phrases. Also record the age, education, and geographic origin of the speaker. Maybe we will be able to draw some more conclusions about language variation from your investigations.

D. The next day, work with the students to summarize their findings. Review the main steps of the lesson with the students, and have them write a short paper explaining what they have learned about the alphabet and the way we talk, and the areas that they could pursue further.

LESSON #3: DIALECT GEOGRAPHY

OBJECTIVE: To recognize that well educated speakers of English from different sections of the country speak the language differently.

MATERIALS: "Dialects" (film)

PROCEDURES:

A. Introduce Henry Lee Smith's film.

1. Could you tell by Griffith's language where he was from?
2. Language scientists have studied the language of various parts of the country carefully to find out what differences exist.
Take notes on devices that this movie uses which you think would be valuable in our community.

B. Show the film and compare notes when it is finished.

C. Show the students copies of the most appropriate maps from Kurath's A Word Geography of the Eastern United States and help the students to develop definitions that they could use to question people about their usage. For example, Kurath lists the following variants of usage:

played truant
skipped school
played hookey
hooked school
hooked jack
bagged school
bagged it
lay out (of school)
laid out (of school)

If the class wishes to use this dialect variant, they must work out the necessary question to elicit this response. For example, they might ask, "What do you call staying out of school all day without anyone knowing it?" or "What do you call going somewhere else when you should go to school?" Have the students collect samples as they did in the previous lesson, and summarize their findings in a written report.

D. The most important result of this lesson is curiosity about language usage. Highly reward any students who can find examples of unusual usage that are peculiar to your area.

Sample Definitions to Use in Questioning People About Dialect
from James A. Drake, "The Effect of Urbanization on Regional
Vocabulary," in American Speech, Vol. 36, No. 1 (February 1961)
17-33; used in his analysis of the Cleveland area.

Window coverings on rollers.

Devices at edges of roof to carry off rain.

Small porch, often with no roof.

Kind of wooden fence.

Wall made of rocks or stones.

Heavy metal utensil for frying.

Water outlets.

Playground equipment--goes up and down by balancing two people.

Bread made of corn meal.

Round flat confection with hole in middle.

Homemade cheese.

Food eaten between regular meals.

Worm used for bait in fishing.

Sick stomach.

To coast lying down flat.

LESSON #3: SLANG

OBJECTIVES: To understand the purposes slang serves.
To recognize the various types of groups using slang.
To become aware that language illuminates the speaker.

MATERIALS: Records: "How to Speak Hip"
"Just for Laughs"
"You Could Look It Up"
Mark Twain short story

PROCEDURES:

A. Present on the board the following list of words and have the students try to determine when they would use one set of terms and when they would use the other terms.

Set A

kick the bucket
off his rocker
I mean like crazy, man.
nice babe
my old man
He shot off his mouth.

Set B

die
delirious
It's a beautiful car.
a real nice girl
my father
He talked a great deal.

1. If you were talking to your minister, priest, or rabbi, which set of expressions would you use in your conversation? (The more standard set.)
2. If you were talking to your friends at school, which expressions would you use? (Don't let the students accept either set as a whole. Help them make accurate statements about what they would really say.)
3. If your friends at school were all using the expressions in set A in a conversation, but you insisted on using the expressions in set B, how would they react to you? Why? (They'd think you were peculiar or kidding; because you just don't do that; you talk the way everyone else does.)
4. Why do people use different kinds of expressions and words in different situations and with different people? (This question is included to lead students to begin to think about language in social and personal terms. No particular answer is expected.)

B. Divide the students into small heterogeneous groups to give them an opportunity for more oral expression.

1. Compile a list of slang words and expressions you use.
2. When you have finished your list, define the slang words in non-slang (standard) language.

After the students have compiled their lists, have them read some examples and then ask the following questions.

1. Do you use such expressions more when talking to your friends at school or when you are talking to your

- parents? Why? (Friends at school; because parents don't like it, or don't understand it.)
2. Why don't you use some of the expressions that you use at school when you are at home? (They sound out of place; my parents wouldn't like it; they're just for kids; my parents wouldn't understand.)
 3. Is there anything wrong with the words that you use with your friends, but that you can't or don't use with your parents? (No, but parents don't like them; they don't understand them.)
 4. Describe the group with which you most often use slang. How old are most of these people? Are they your friends?
 5. Are there some slang terms that nearly everyone knows?
 6. Are there slang words that you do not understand? What kinds of people have their own special slang? (Ethnic, geographical, age groups, occupational groups.)

- C. To point out the weakness of vague vocabulary (including slang), have the students write the definitions for several slang terms as you read them aloud. (Cool it, dig it, that's crazy, etc.) The definitions that the students offer will probably vary a great deal. At this point the teacher can lead the students to recognize that these phrases mean many different things to different people. The teacher can also present to the students dead slang phrases from other eras to point out again the weakness of slang terms.

Have the students write the meanings for the following words:

nice	great
pretty	real

The definitions will vary greatly and again will demonstrate that words, whether slang or standard English words, usually lose specificity if they are overused.

- D. To vary classroom activity and give further experience with slang, play Close and Brent's recording of "How to Speak Hip."
1. If you did not know the story they were talking about, would you understand what is happening in this story? Why? Why not?
 2. What group would understand the language being used in this record? (Musicians, young people.)
 3. What people would not understand the language being used in this record? Why?
 4. Would the people who use this language use it in all their conversations with all the people they know?
 5. How would your teachers, parents, minister, employer, or friends react if you used this kind of language?

- E. Divide the class into small heterogeneous groups by reading speed and assign the stories "You Could Look It Up" to the faster readers and "Buck Fanshaw's Funeral" to the slower readers. Distribute the study guides for the stories and have the students look up the vocabulary words and read the questions before they read the stories.
1. Read the story and work out the answers to the questions on the study guide.
 2. Prepare to lead a class discussion which will explain the story and what it tells us about slang.
(Above stories omitted in unit on dialects.)

- F. To culminate the study of slang, have the students write a paper dealing with the social and personal implications of slang usage. Begin the assignment with a class discussion to synthesize the students' knowledge of slang.
1. What kinds of conclusions do we make about people because of the language they use? (Their social group, their age, their occupations, their background, their education, the situation they are in.)
 2. What specific examples could we use to support these conclusions? (Write the key words of a few examples on the board to serve as a guide for the students' compositions.)
 3. To have a good paper, we must have a good introductory paragraph and a good conclusion. What would be a good sentence to begin this theme? (Work with the class to develop a good first sentence which they can all use in their themes.)

Divide the students into small heterogeneous groups to continue the discussion of the paper by developing an adequate outline of the paper and writing the first paragraph of the paper. As the students work on this assignment, circulate among the groups and help them specify their attack according to their abilities. For example, the best group might very quickly separate to write the theme as an individual assignment; the middle groups might divide the assignment among the members and work as a whole group to put the paper together; the slower groups might work as a group throughout the writing of the paper with considerable teacher assistance.

LESSON #4 TECHNICAL LANGUAGE

OBJECTIVES: To recognize the value of technical language for its finer discriminations and for its speeding of accurate description and communication.

MATERIALS: "Just for Laughs".

PROCEDURES:

- A. Play Andy Griffith's recording of a football game in "Just for Laughs" and ask the following questions:
1. What kind of game is the speaker describing?
 2. What is wrong with the words he uses to describe a football game?
 3. Why doesn't he use the language of football?
 4. How would you react if someone described a football game to you in this manner?
 5. What can we say about the speaker's knowledge of football?
 6. What does his use of language tell us about his background and experiences?
 7. Is the kind of language we use to describe football "slang"? What is the value of the special vocabulary of football?
 8. Are there words that we use that are particular to certain fields such as sports, school subjects, and occupations? How is such language different from slang?
- B. To emphasize the specificity and value of technical language, divide the class by their special interests. (instrumental music, science, math, football, wrestling, fishing, swimming, tennis, etc.)
1. Write a paragraph that explains your field, but use language that is as exact as you can; that is, use the special vocabulary of your area of interest.
 2. Now rewrite the paragraph without using any specialized vocabulary terms.

When the students are finished rewriting their paragraphs, ask the following questions in a whole class discussion:

1. Why is it difficult to convey what goes on in a special field without using the special vocabulary?
2. Why is it necessary to have a special vocabulary for a special field?
3. In our special language, do we use fewer terms to describe our activity than we would if we used standard language?

4. What does special language ability usually tell us about a person?
5. What do we know about a person's knowledge who is able to use the language of many special groups? What do we know about a person who is not able to do this?
6. How does a person's special vocabulary also indicate his interests?
7. When is special language acceptable?
8. When is it not acceptable?
9. What would be a good definition for special language?
10. What are some of the differences between special or technical language and slang language?

C. To help the students objectify knowledge of slang and technical language, ask them to write a paper which will discuss the differences between the purposes and implications of slang and technical language. Begin with a discussion of the principles of writing developed in lesson #3 to remind the students of methods of organization and development. As the students begin to write their introductory paragraph and outline their papers, circulate among the students and use their previous papers as a basis for showing them how to improve their writing. The students should keep in mind the following questions as they write their papers.

1. What are the situations in which we use slang language and special or technical language?
2. What does a person's use of language usually tell us about him?
3. What do we think of people who use slang in all situations?
4. What happens to a person who talks or writes about a special area of knowledge (science, math, sewing, cooking, etc.) but is unable to use the special or technical language of that area of knowledge?
5. What happens to a person who uses special language even when he is in a group that is not specialized in that field?

LESSON #6: PROJECTS

OBJECTIVE: To have each student contribute to the knowledge of the class.

MATERIALS: Pygmalion

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the list of projects to the students and ask them to select the three projects which they would be most interested in carrying out, or to suggest other projects they would like to carry out.
- B. Introduce Pygmalion by explaining that it shows how language change can affect a person's future. Distribute the study guide and preview the general discussion questions before they begin reading.
- C. Use activities with the play--silent reading, discussion of study guide questions, writing out study guide questions, writing concluding themes--as background to free yourself to assist individuals and groups in the selection and development of projects. If some students finish the play before the project presentations are ready, they may be referred to either a second short project or additional reading listed in the bibliography.
- D. Aid the students in planning their project presentations so that the class activities will have wide variety.

SUGGESTIONS FOR STUDENT PROJECTS

1. Write a dictionary of the contemporary slang of your school.
2. What do adults know about teen-age slang?
3. Of the slang of the 1920's, 30's, or 40's what words became standard English? What words have died? Do adults still use these words? Can an adult's age be determined by the slang he knows?
4. What is the slang of the fifth and sixth graders of your community? What words does it have in common with your slang? What words are different?
5. Are there differences in slang among the various schools at the same grade level?
6. What differences distinguish the language of teachers and students?
7. Are there differences in language between students of the same age in different socio-economic levels?
8. What distinguishes the language of adults from the language of students?
9. What distinguishes the language of people who are from different areas of the country?
10. How many distinct sounds are there in the English language? Give examples of each sound.
11. What are the differences in the use of the vocal organs which create the different sounds of our language?
12. Describe the differences that distinguish the language usage of a TV personality.
13. Select a special interest group and determine what distinguishes the language of that group. (plumbers, musicians, football players, etc.)
14. How have patterns of speech moved west as our country developed?
15. Develop a map of the isoglosses of your community.
16. Explain the differences in language usage that one person shows in different situations.
17. Prepare a reading to give to the class of one of the poems or stories from the bibliography.
18. What do authors do to represent the dialects of speakers?
19. Discover the peculiarities of language that develop within a single family.
20. What gestures do people use when speaking? What do they mean?
21. What peculiarities of language can be found in the lyrics of modern popular music?
22. Develop a bulletin board of peculiar language usages that you hear on TV and radio or see in newspapers and magazines.
23. What evidence of foreign language influence can be found in your community? In individuals of your community?
24. Do people speak differently on the telephone?
25. Is braille a language? How is it related to the English language?
26. What is the language of the deaf?
27. How is the spoken language reproduced in shorthand? Is shorthand an accurate system?
28. Why would we call the following alphabets strange: Arabic, Chinese, Russian, Egyptian hieroglyphics? How are they related to our alphabet?
29. Why is Basque called the mystery language? Does it belong to a language family?
30. How are road signs a means of communication? How do European countries solve the problem of communicating traffic rules and conditions to speakers of several different languages?
31. What are the origins of artificial languages such as Esperanto, Walapuk, and ITO?
32. How do aviators of different countries communicate with each other?
33. What is the system of musical notation? Why can we speak of "reading" music?
34. How do symbols in mathematics convey meaning? Is there a "language" of mathematical symbols?

STUDY GUIDE: Pygmalion

by George Bernard Shaw

Act I

1. What is Higgins doing during the first act?
2. What is Higgins' profession?
3. What does the flower girl think Higgins is doing?
4. Why is there a good living in what Higgins does as a profession?
5. What strata of society are revealed in the first act? Consider Higgins, Eliza, and the Eynsford-Hills.
6. How is the basis for the play laid in the first act?

Act II

1. How does Mrs. Pearce reveal her social prejudice?
2. How do Mrs. Pearce's and Higgins' attitudes toward language differ?
3. How do Higgins' and Pickering's manner toward Eliza differ?
4. What does Pickering bet Higgins?
5. When Mrs. Pearce says, "What is to become of her?" she seems to point out the problems involved in social change. Can you suggest what this involves? What contrasts in social values exist in the play?
6. Why does Eliza assume a defensive attitude? She constantly says, "I'm a good girl, I am." and "I've as good a right to take a taxi as anyone." Why?
7. How do Eliza's reactions to her new environment reflect her previous environment and her social class?
8. Why does Doolittle come to Higgins?
9. How does Higgins handle Doolittle?
10. How does Doolittle explain his concept of morality?
11. What does Doolittle mean by middle-class morality? According to him what are the characteristics of middle-class morality?
12. Why does Doolittle wish to have only five pounds?
13. In what way is Doolittle's explanation of morality original?

Act III

1. What is an at-home?
2. What is the purpose of taking Eliza to the at-home?
3. Does Higgins act differently in front of his mother and the Eynsford-Hills?
4. How does Eliza nearly give the secret away?
5. How does Higgins pull Eliza out of the difficulty?
6. What does Mrs. Higgins mean when she says Eliza gives herself away "in every sentence she utters"?
7. Mrs. Higgins comments that Henry's language would be quite proper on a canal barge but not at a garden party. What does she mean? In what way is her comment, though intended as sarcasm, an insight into the social functioning of language?
8. Why does Mrs. Higgins foresee a problem for Eliza in the future?
9. What happens at the ball?

STUDY GUIDE: Pygmalion

Act IV

1. Why is Eliza upset after the ball?
2. What has Higgins done to irritate her?
3. How are the prophecies of Mrs. Higgins and Mrs. Pearce fulfilled in Act IV?
4. How does Eliza try to get even with Henry?
5. Why does she accept Freddy so readily?
6. How do you suppose Eliza really feels toward Higgins?

Act V

1. What does Doolittle mean when he says he is ruined?
2. What has Higgins done to ruin him?
3. For what reasons does Eliza like Pickering?
4. What does she hope to achieve in regard to Higgins by telling Pickering of these reasons?
5. In what way are Higgins, Pickering, and Doolittle different in their treatment of others?
6. What is Eliza's main objection to Higgins?
7. Why can't Eliza return to her old life?

GENERAL DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Why do people wish to change their language habits?
2. How does Doolittle take advantage of his unique language habits to help him get what he wants?
3. How does Higgins' language give away his attitudes toward the situation in which he finds himself?
4. Could this play have been written in the United States? If not, why not? If it could, suggest the characters that could be used.
5. What is the myth of Pygmalion? In what way may Higgins be compared to Pygmalion?

LESSON #7: CLASS PUBLICATION; REVIEW; UNIT CONCLUSION

OBJECTIVE: To conclude the unit.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Select an editorial board to evaluate student projects as they are presented in class. Have this group work with the individuals giving the best reports to prepare their reports for publication.
- B. As the editorial board prepares a class publication, explain the final theme assignment to the students and review the unit to prepare them for the theme.
 1. We have undertaken many different activities and learned many things from this unit. Your last assignment of the unit is to write a paper summarizing what you have learned.
 2. To help you write such a paper you will have four major sources of information--the notes you took during the unit, the project that you completed, the unit review that we are about to begin, and the class publication which you will soon receive.
- C. After reviewing the unit, establish with the class two or three possible models for the theme, and have the students begin their writing. Circulate among the students, helping them in their theme assignment. To reward student achievement, select the best two themes to add to the student publication as introduction and conclusion.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON SYNTAX

Distributed by

**The School District of Aiken County
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LESSON #1: REVIEWING FORM CLASSES AND BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

OBJECTIVES: To review form classes and basic sentence patterns

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Write the following sentences on the blackboard.
1. The sleekments jellified mogly.
 2. The goyers grillize stibwise.
 3. The nugins shomenated addunctively.
- B. Ask the students to write the symbols for the sentence pattern represented by the nonsense sentences above across the top of a sheet of paper. Then ask students to write several new sentences using real English words but conforming to the N V (Adv) pattern. When the students have written about ten sentences each, record some of their sentences on the blackboard for use in reviewing the form classes. Then for the review discussion ask questions such as the following:
1. What are the characteristics of the words in the noun slot?
 - a. What inflectional endings do nouns take?
 - b. What derivational endings do nouns commonly have?
 - c. What is the difference between a derivational and an inflectional ending?
 - d. How can the position of the nouns in these sentences be described?
 - e. Does the position of nouns ever vary from the position they have in these sentences?
 - f. What other positions can nouns take?
 2. What are the characteristics of the words in the verb slot?
 - a. What inflectional endings do verbs take?
 - b. What derivational endings do verbs commonly have?
 - c. How can the position of the verbs in these sentences be described?
 - d. Do verbs ever appear in other positions?
 - e. How may the verb be expanded using the -in and -ing inflections? What words appear with these forms?
 - f. What words commonly combine to build verb phrases?
 3. What are the characteristics of the words in the adverb slot?
 - a. What inflectional endings do adverbs frequently take?
 - b. What derivational endings do adverbs ordinarily take?
 - c. What positions can adverbs take?
 4. What words can be substituted for the? What do these words have in common?

C. Some of the above questions will lead automatically into a review of additional sentence patterns. If they do, so much the better. If they don't, the teacher can use sets of sentences such as the following to review each of the seven other major patterns.

1. N V (Adv)
2. N V N
 The king saddled his horse.
 He pulled his bow.
3. N V (give) N N
 The boys handed their mother a frog.
 The communists sent the president a warning.

4. N	V (elect)	N	N
The class	elected	Jim	president.
Jim	made	Tommy	his helper.
The soldiers	considered	Cpl. Thompson	their leader.
5. N	V (be)	N	
The man	was	a diplomat.	
He	became	a captain.	
All	were	soldiers.	
They	remained	citizens.	
6. N	V	Adj.	
John	seems	honest.	
His story	sounded	true.	
Chinese food	tastes	sweet.	
The boy	felt	ill.	
The child	looked	stupid.	

(Other verbs in this pattern are grow, smell, and appear. Note they are part of this pattern only when followed by an adjective. In the sentence, "The boy tasted Chinese food," tasted is followed by a noun food and the sentence is therefore N V N and not N V Adj.)

7. N	V (be)	Adj.
Jack	is	weak.
The girl	is	friendly.
Jennifer	became	beautiful.
The man	remained	a hobo.
8. N	V (be)	Adv.
The boys	were	there.
The time	is	now.
The chiefs	are	in their tent.

D. During the discussion of these sentence patterns or afterwards, the teacher should reintroduce the terms subject, predicate, indirect object, direct object, and objective complement. The following sentence pattern differentiates among the three objects more clearly:

N	V	N	N	N
You	elect	me	Ike	president!

LESSON #2: TRANSFORMATIONS OF BASIC SENTENCE PATTERNS

OBJECTIVES: To learn how the basic sentence patterns can be transformed into other patterns such as the passive form, question forms, and the there form.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

A. List some of the sentences which students have written in the following patterns on the blackboard: N V N; N V (give) N N; and N V (elect) N N.

1. N	V	N	
John	knew	the word.	
She	forgot	her notebook.	
The thief	stole	the jewelry.	
2. N	V (give)	N	N
The priest	gave	the people	his blessing.
Charlie	sent	his aunt	a card.
3. N	V (elect)	N	N
The clowns	thought	him	a fool.
The boys	elected	Jack	captain.

B. Ask the students if they can rephrase one of the N V N sentences so that the direct object becomes the subject.

1. The word was known by John.
2. The notebook was forgotten by her.
3. The jewelry was stolen by the thief.

C. Remind the students that any verb which can be changed as those above are transitive verbs. Then from the sentences which have been transformed ask the students to determine what three rules they would feed into an automatic translating machine so that the machine could perform the passive transformation on the basic sentence pattern N V N.

1. The object becomes the subject.
2. The verb takes its past participial form and adds a form of the verb to be.
3. The subject becomes the object of the preposition by.

D. Ask the students if any of the other sentence patterns can take the passive transformation. The students should note that the N V (give) N N can take two passive transformations. If they do not, ask questions such as the following and have the students work out the various transformations for particular sentences.

1. Can the indirect object assume the subject position?
2. Can the direct object also assume the subject position?

E. The students should also examine the N V (elect) N N in the same way and should note that this pattern takes only one transformation. That is, the objective complement cannot take the subject positions. This fact can be used as a test to discriminate N V (give) N N patterns from N V (elect) N N patterns.

F. Ask the students if any of the other patterns can take the passive transformation. The answer of course should be no. However, if the students try some passive transformations of other patterns they will gain some insights into the nature of the patterns which do take the passive transformation.

G. Another common transformation is the there change which occurs with the pattern N V (be) Adv.

1. Basic Sentence: A dog is outside the school.
Transformation: There is a dog outside the school.
2. Basic Sentence: The child is in the hallway.
Transformation: There is the child in the hallway.
3. Basic Sentence: A car is in the driveway.
Transformation: There is a car in the driveway.
4. Basic Sentence: Some boys are here.
Transformation: There are some boys here.

After the students have examined these basic sentences and their transformations, ask them to formulate a rule which designates the changes which take place in the process of transformation.

H. Only the N V (be) Adv. pattern can take the there transformation. However, after undergoing some minor changes, some of the other patterns can also take the there transformation. Ask the students what changes the following sentences must undergo before they can take the there transformation.

1. The school boy slides across the ice.
2. Some ladies play cards at noon.
3. Some boys made Jim their leader.

The students should suggest the following transformations:

1. The school boy is sliding across the ice. > There is a school boy sliding across the ice.
2. Some ladies are playing cards at noon. > There are some ladies playing cards at noon.
3. Some boys were making Jim their leader. > There were some boys making Jim their leader.

I. Distribute Worksheet #1 and ask the students to perform the transformations called for in the directions. When the students have completed the worksheet, ask them to decide which form of each sentence is most effective, direct, and forceful. The students should note that generally the active form of a sentence is more direct and effective than the passive form.

J. Ask the students to examine the sentences on Worksheet #1 and to suggest ways of transforming the sentences into questions. If the students have difficulty suggesting question transformations, the teacher might suggest a paradigm of transformations such as the following which is based on the first sentence of the worksheet.

1. The boy bought a new bicycle.
2. Did the boy buy a new bicycle?
3. Why did the boy buy a new bicycle?
4. A new bicycle was bought by the boy.
5. Was a new bicycle bought by the boy?
6. Why was a new bicycle bought by the boy?

Then ask the students to perform similar question transformations on the remaining sentences on the worksheet.

Work with the class to objectify the rules for, at least one form of question transform.

- The boy left. > Did the boy leave?
The boy is leaving. > Is the boy leaving?
The boy will leave. > Will the boy leave?

WORKSHEET 1: Transformations

A. Perform the passive transformation on the following sentences.

1. The boy bought a new bicycle.
2. The badger saw three ducks swimming in the pond.
3. That runner won three medals at the last track meet.
4. The coach saw three boys and three girls approaching him across the field.
5. The audience heard the soft strains of the music.
6. The eagle soaring hundreds of feet above the ground spied a rabbit sitting quietly beside a blackberry bush.
7. The student body elected the twins co-chairmen of the school dance committee.
8. The school children considered the old man a fool.
9. Mrs. Jensen had purchased her grandchildren many presents for Christmas.
10. The boys brought the geologist a number of different rocks.

B. The following sentences are in their passive form. Change them to the active form. For some of the sentences you will have to supply a subject.

1. Seven ducks flying over the meadow were seen by the hunters.
2. A gift was given every orphan by the mining company.
3. A total of seven thousand dollars was used to complete the research project.
4. Seventeen American soldiers were killed or wounded by the Communists in one encounter in South Viet Nam.
5. A total of ninety yards was gained by Notre Dame in the third quarter.
6. All the answers to the test were known by nearly every student in the class.
7. Mike was made platoon leader after the death of the sergeant.
8. Lyndon B. Johnson was elected president by a large majority of the votes.
9. The defendant's case was proved by the evidence presented by his lawyer.
10. The junk man was considered foolish by all but the little boy.

C. Perform the there transformation on the following sentences.

1. Three men were swimming in the pool.
2. Some boys are at the corner of the street.
3. An old man was sliding on the ice.
4. Three girls from school are in Washington.
5. A squirrel lives in that oak tree.

LESSON #3

OBJECTIVES: To recognize simple sentences with parallel compound subjects, verbs, objects, adverbs and adjectives.
To transform basic sentences into parallel structures.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

- A. To illustrate the process of combining like elements from basic sentences into a sentence with a compound subject place the following simple sentences on the board:

The boys left early.

The girls left early.

Pattern the structure of each sentence.

d N V Adv.

d N V Adv.

- B. Ask the students to choose the words which fill the same slot in both sentences, and write them on the board:

(The left early.)

Ask the students to name the words which differ in each sentence and their part of speech.

(boys, girls - nouns)

Ask the students to combine the two basic sentences into one sentence.

Several boys and girls left early.

1. Which word was added to form a logical sentence? and

2. What is the function of the word and?

It joins the two nouns together.

Pattern the transformed sentence:

d N † N V Adv.

- C. To illustrate the process of combining like elements in basic sentences into a sentence with a compound object, place the following sentences on the board:

The choir sang ballads.

The choir sang hymns.

The choir sang spirituals.

Pattern each sentence:

d N V N

- D. Ask the students to choose the words which fill the same slot in all three sentences, and write them on the board.

(The choir sang.)

Ask the students to name the words which differ in each sentence and their part of speech.

(ballads, hymns, spirituals - nouns)

Ask the students to combine the three sentences into one:

The choir sang ballads, hymns and spirituals.

1. Which elements were added to make the sentence logical.

(commas and and)

2. What is the function of and? of the commas?

- E. To illustrate the problem of joining non-parallel elements into a compound structure place the following sentences on the board.

The choir sang loudly.

The choir sang hymns.

The choir sang well.

Follow the same procedures as with the previous two sets of sentences.

1. d N V Adv.

d N V N

d N V Adv.

2. The choir sang.

3. loudly - adverb, hymns - noun, well - adverb

4. The choir sang loudly, hymns, and well.

- F. Ask the students to explain what is wrong with the transformed sentence.

The choir sang loudly, hymns, and well.

1. Why can't the three words in the final position be combined?

2. What kind of elements may be combined? (like elements; same part of speech)

3. How must the sentences be changed before they can be combined?

(d N V N may be changed to d N V Adv., as in

The choir sang gaily.)

- G. Write the corrected transformation on the board.

The choir sang loudly, gaily and well.

Pattern the corrected sentence.

d N V Adv. Adv. + Adv.

Ask the students to formulate a rule for the combining of elements into compound structures. (Only like elements may be combined to form compound structures.)

Introduce the word parallel at this point, and tell the students that such combined elements in a sentence are called parallel structures.

- H. To illustrate the process of combining verb forms, write the following set of sentences on the board:

The boys hunted skillfully.

The boys fished skillfully.

The boys sailed skillfully.

Follow the same procedures as with previous sets:

1. d N V Adv.

2. The boys skillfully.

3. hunted, fished, sailed - verbs

4. The boys hunted, fished and sailed skillfully.

5. d N V V + V Adv.

- I. To illustrate the problem of tense in creating parallel verb structures examine the following set of sentences:

The boys were hunting skillfully.

The boys fished skillfully.

The boys can sail skillfully.

1. d N V Adv.

2. The boys skillfully.

3. were hunting, fished, can sail - verbs

4. The boys were hunting, fished and can sail skillfully.

5. d N V V + V Adv.

Although the three combined elements are all alike (verbs), the sentence is awkward. What characteristic of verbs must be considered before combining them into parallel structures? (tense, or inflections and auxiliaries)

What three forms of the verb fill the verb slot in these three sentences?

1. to be + -ing
2. -ed
3. can + verb base

How may the forms be changed to make them parallel? (all -ing, all -ed, or all can + verb)

Write the corrected sentence on the board

The boys were hunting, fishing and sailing . killfully.

Point out to students that in a series of to be + -ing verbs, the to be form need appear only once.

- J. To provide practice in building and identifying parallel compound structures in a sentence, have the students do the following worksheet. Correct the work in class and discuss any problems which arise.

WORKSHEET

I. For each of the following sentences: (1) underline the identical words in each sentence. (2) label the part of speech of each differing word. (3) combine the three sentences into one, after making certain the compounded elements are alike. (4) add necessary punctuation and joining words.

- A. 1. The novelist is talented.
2. The novelist is creative.
3. The novelist is imaginative.

- B. 1. The potatoes grew in her garden.
2. The corn grew in her garden.
3. The carrots grew in her garden.

- C. 1. The boys clapped loudly.
2. The boys were whistling loudly.
3. The boys cheered loudly.

- D. 1. John's tropical fish dove in the water.
2. John's tropical fish frolicked in the water.
3. John's tropical fish glided in the water.

II. Correct the following non-parallel sentences.

- A. The young calves leapt, cavorted and were stumbling in the pasture.
B. The math class protested the assignment loudly and with bitterness.
C. Jonson's work is difficult, perceptive and a challenge.

(8)

LESSON #4: THE MOVEABLE PATTERN

OBJECTIVES: To identify the characteristics of simple moveables in basic sentence patterns.

To make use of moveables in writing.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Review the N V (Adv.) pattern by placing the formula on the board asking the students to write several sentences in this pattern. Then write some of the student sentences on the board and ask the students to make lists of words which can be used in the adverb slots of the sentences.

Eg. The boys talked quietly.
restlessly.
incoherently.
noisily.
rapidly.
haltingly.
bashfully.

Then ask the students if any of these adverbs can be placed elsewhere in the sentence pattern. It should be obvious that all of them can be placed at the beginning of the sentence. Ask the students how moving the adverbs affects the meaning of the sentences.

- B. Write sentences such as the following on the board and ask the students what element has been added to the basic pattern.

1. The boys ate rapidly.
2. The man ate his meal greedily.
3. Secretly, the kidnapper sent him a ransom note.
4. The group unanimously elected Hank treasurer.
5. The man officially was a diplomat.
6. Chinese food tastes sweet sometimes.
7. Apparently Jack is afraid.
8. The boys were there early.

- C. Then ask the students whether the adverbs in these sentences can appear in other positions. Let them experiment with moving the adverb to various positions in each of the sentences above. They should discuss how moving the adverb affects the meaning of the sentences. Ask the students to formulate a generalization about adverbs.

- D. Ask the students to examine the following sentences. What elements have been added to them? List all the prepositional phrases on the board. Then ask the students to write a formula for this phrase structure. Since the students have encountered prepositions before in the Morphology unit, it will only be necessary to review the position and function of prepositions briefly. Then ask the students to suggest words which might be substituted for the prepositions which appear in the sentences. Distribute the complete list of words which can serve as prepositions and ask the students to write phrases using the various prepositions on the list.

1. The boys ate at the table.
2. In the morning the man ate his meal.
3. The kidnapper sent him a ransom note through the mail.
4. During the meeting the group elected Hank treasurer.
5. The man was a diplomat in his youth.
6. Chinese food at that restaurant tastes sweet.
7. Jack is afraid in the dark.
8. The boys were on the field.

List of prepositions:

aboard	between	on
about	beyond	over
above	but (meaning except)	since
across	by	through
after	concerning	throughout
against	down	to
along	during	toward
among	except	under
around	for	underneath
at	from	until
before	in	up
behind	into	upon
below	like	with
beneath	of	within
beside, besides	off	without

E. Ask the students to examine the following sentences to determine which prepositional phrases can be moved without changing the essential meaning of the sentence. When they have examined all of the sentences, ask them to formulate the rule or generalization which governs the moveability of the prepositional phrase.

1. The boys at the table ate quickly.
2. In the morning the man in the blue jacket ate his meal.
3. The kidnapper of his son sent him a ransom note through the mail.
4. During the meeting the group elected Hank treasurer of the organization.
5. The man in the corner was a diplomat in his youth.
6. Chinese food at that restaurant on the corner tastes sweet.
7. That boy at the desk is afraid of the dark.
8. The boys in their uniforms were on the field.

F. The students should note that the prepositional phrases following nouns cannot be moved without altering the sense of the sentences in which they occur.

LESSON #5: MOVEABLE PATTERN: ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

- OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of the adverb clause.
To gain experience in using adverb clauses in various positions in relation to the basic sentence patterns.
To use the adverb clause accurately and effectively in writing.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the sheet of examples and ask students to underline the clauses beginning with the following signals: when, as, although, even though, unless, until, because. Ask the class to read their answers.
- B. Ask the students to examine the clauses and analyze their structures. Ask questions such as the following: How is each clause like a sentence pattern? What is the basic sentence pattern in each clause? While many of the patterns have been expanded by the addition of adjectives, prepositional phrases, and the like, most of the clauses contain recognizable basic patterns or their transformations.
1. When the characters begin to have new feelings
 N V N
 as their loves change and deepen
 2. although he loves the position
 N V N
 3. Even though he is noble
 N V (be) Adj.
 4. If Aristotle could hear what has been done to his third element.
 N V N
 5. When classical learning was revived passive
 (transformation of N V N)
 6. As each play progresses
 N V (Adv.)
 7. Although he stretches the story to fantastic extremes
 N V N
 unless we destroy our civilization in a nuclear war
 8. because they present sin, guilt, and self-discipline
 N V N
 9. because she loves him
 N V N
 although she was slightly fond of Rawdon Crawley
 N V (be) Adj.
 10. Until the two marriages take place
 N V
 when the real reason for her marriage is disclosed
 (passive transformation of N V N)

- C. Tell the students that these clauses are called adverbial clauses. Then ask the students to formulate generalizations about the structure and position of such clauses. Questions such as the following may be helpful in the formulation.
1. What words precede or introduce these clauses? (The teacher may wish to give the students a complete list of such words.)
 2. What is the internal structure of the adverb clause? How do these clauses differ structurally from the phrases in the previous lesson?
 3. What positions do adverbial clauses take in relation to the basic sentence patterns in which they appear?
- D. The teacher may wish to point out that in most formal writing adverbial clauses must appear along with a sentence pattern -- that is, a sentence pattern in addition to the one in the adverbial clause itself. This idea will become clearer to the students as the lesson progresses.
- E. Ask the students to write sentences using at least three of the basic sentence patterns. When the students have written the sentences, ask them to place the following words before each structure: when, after, because, while, although, before, even though, as, until.
- F. Discuss the results using questions such as the following:
1. How do the patterns change with the addition of such words?
 2. Do you feel that something needs to be added to the patterns?
 3. (Use a particular pattern that a student has written.)
What needs to be added to this pattern to complete it?
 4. From the adverbial clauses you have been working with and from those you have just written, how can an adverbial clause be defined?
- After the definition has been suitably developed, the teacher may wish to emphasize the punctuation of the introductory adverbial clause.
- G. Distribute copies of "Sentence Sets for Adverb Clause Development" to the students. Ask them to join the sentences using various signals with which they are familiar: when, because, after, before, etc. When the students have completed this assignment, discuss with them the effects of joining the various sentences together.
1. How does the relationship between the two sentences change as you change the signal?
 2. Can the adverb clause be placed anywhere other than at the beginning of the sentence?
 3. Does the meaning of the whole sentence change if you change the position of the adverb clause?
 4. In any of the sets of sentences is it better to write two or more separate parts?
 5. When you join three sentences with adverb clause signals, do the products sound clumsy?
 6. Which ones sound clumsy? How can they be rewritten to sound better?
 7. Does the meaning change as you rewrite the sentences?
 8. How can they be rewritten so that the meaning remains essentially the same?
- H. If possible, the teacher should continue the exercise above using groups of sentences culled from student papers.

Adverb Clauses from Student Writing

1. When the characters begin to have new feelings the love theme expands as their loves change and deepen, tempered by time and experience.
2. There is comedy in the unrequited love of Malvolio for Olivia, although he loves the position more than he loves her.
3. Even though he is noble, the tragic hero must have the flaw of character that will lead to his downfall.
4. If Aristotle could hear what has been done to his third element, language, I think he would turn over in his grave.
5. During the Renaissance, when classical learning was revived, men re-discovered Aristotle's works....
6. As each play progresses, both Oedipus and Jones lose confidence and their hard outer shells are worn away leaving only their true characters.
7. Although he stretches the story to fantastic extremes, Mr. Huxley believes that unless we destroy our civilization in a nuclear war, this "utopia" will be upon us in a few short generations.
8. In Brave New World, God and Good have been abolished, because they present sin, guilt, and self-discipline, which are all menaces to stability.
9. Amelia marries George Osborne because she loves him, but Becky, although she was slightly fond of Rawden Crawley, marries him for a more important thing -- his money.
10. Until the two marriages take place, Becky conceals her true nature very well, but when the real reason for her marriage is disclosed, the shell in which she dwelt for a few months shatters, and she once again becomes herself.

Sentence Sets for Adverb Clause Development

1. The monsters attacked during the night.
The boys ran, frightened out of their wits.
2. The earthquake was the largest ever recorded.
It caused little damage.
3. The gun went off.
John sprang from the starting block and set a rapid pace.
4. He wanted to prove himself.
He had trained hard for months.
5. The baby cried and screamed.
His mother fed him.
6. The boat skimmed the rough waters of the river, threatening
to capsize near every rock.
It reached quiet water.
7. The family was on a two week vacation.
The burglary took place.
8. Odysseus roamed the Mediterranean for ten years.
He finally reached his home.
9. Add the following sentence to set #1: They were exhausted.
10. Add the following sentence to set #2: There was nothing
in that barren land to damage.
11. Join set #3 and set #4.
12. He was old and crippled.
Several little boys pointed and laughed at him.
He entered the park.

LESSON #6: NOUN CLUSTERS

OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of a noun cluster.
To identify adjectives and prepositional phrases as parts of noun clusters.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

- A. Ask the students to examine the sentences in part A of the worksheet on noun clusters and to underline all words which are not part of the basic sentence pattern. If there is a need for review of sentence patterns, the students might be asked to write the formulas of the patterns which appear.
- B. Ask the students to identify the additions to the basic patterns as adjectives or prepositional phrases. If the students have underlined correctly they will see that a noun is the center of each structure. Tell them that the noun with its adjectives and prepositional phrases makes up what is called a noun cluster.
- C. Tell the students that a transformational grammarian would explain these clusters in terms of groups of basic sentences which have been transformed into a larger and more elaborate sentence. Call the attention of the students to part B of the worksheet which presents the basic sentences from which the first three sentences in part A have been developed.
- D. Then ask the students to develop a larger sentence for each group of basic sentence patterns in part C of the worksheet.
- E. During the lesson on adjective clauses which follows immediately, point out to the students that the adjective clause is another structure contained in a noun cluster.

WORKSHEET: Noun Clusters

- A.
1. That tall boy with blond hair plays deftly.
 2. The ominous glow of the moon frightened the little boy lost in the woods.
 3. The three young boys handed their rather squeamish mother a large green frog with a palpitating white throat.
 4. The football team made Jim their captain for the year.
 5. The tall tree near the barn is a tamarack.
 6. The boy became a confident leader among the students.
 7. The story of his escape sounded true except for the details about the prison guards.
 8. Jack is weak in terms of will power.
 9. The chiefs of all the tribes are meeting now in the largest tent near the banks of the river.
- B.
1. That boy plays deftly.
The boy is tall.
The boy has hair.
The hair is blond.
 2. The glow frightened the boy.
The glow was ominous.
The glow was of the moon.
The boy was little.
The boy was lost.
The boy was in the woods.
 3. The boys handed their mother a frog.
The boys were young.
There were three.
Their mother was rather squeamish.
The frog was large.
The frog was green.
The frog had a throat.
The throat was palpitating.
The throat was white.
- C.
1. The journey was exciting.
The journey was long.
The journey was to Mexico.
 2. That boy was elected captain.
That boy was popular.
That boy was at the table.
 3. That boy did not answer the question.
That boy was wise.
That boy was young.
The question was tricky.
The question was from a man.
The man was old.
 4. The children were playing a game of ball.
The children were in the yard.
They were young.
There were six children.
The game was fast.
 5. The boy gave the girl a book.
The boy was bashful.
The girl was the prettiest.
The girl was in his class.
The book was illustrated.
The book was about frogs.

LESSON #7: ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of the adjective clauses.
To gain experience in using adverb clauses in various positions in relation to the basic sentence patterns.
To use the adjective clause accurately and effectively in writing.

MATERIALS: Worksheets

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the sheet "Adjective Clauses in President Kennedy's Inaugural Address" and ask the students to underline the clauses beginning with who, whom, whose, that, which, and where. For the purpose of this lesson, ignore the traditional distinction between the adjective clause and the noun clause used as appositive.
- B. Ask the students questions such as the following:
 1. Where do the clauses appear?
 2. To what words do the signals refer?
 3. How do the clauses add to the meaning in each case?
- C. Ask the students to write sentences beginning with the following groups of words:
 1. The man who
 2. The man whom I saw
 3. The building that
 4. The dog whose
 5. The tractor which
 6. The mountains where
 7. The idea that
 8. The boy for whom
- D. Distribute the sheet "Sentences for Adjective Clause Development." Ask the students to add details in adjective clauses to the first ten sentences. Ask them to combine the sentences in each of the remaining sets by making one or more in each set into adjective clauses.
- E. Ask the students to compose sentences following the formulas of the first five basic sentence patterns. When they have completed that, ask them to add details to the various parts of the sentences through the use of adjective clauses. As the students write, the teacher should circulate among the students to give help and make suggestions whenever necessary.

Adjective Clauses in President Kennedy's Inaugural Address

1. And yet the same revolutionary beliefs for which our forebears fought are still at issue around the globe -- the belief that the rights of man come not from the generosity of the state but from the hand of God.
2. To those old allies whose cultural and spiritual origins we share, we pledge the loyalty of faithful friends.
3. To those new states whom we welcome to the ranks of the free, we pledge our word that one form of colonial control shall not have passed away merely to be replaced by a far more iron tyranny.
4. If a free society cannot help the many who are poor, it cannot save the few who are rich.
5. And if a beachhead of cooperation may push back the jungles of suspicion, let both sides join in creating a new endeavor -- not a new balance of power, but a new world of law, where the strong are just and the weak secure and the peace preserved.
6. The graves of young Americans who answered the call to service surround the globe.
7. Can we forge against these enemies a grand and global alliance, north and south, east and west, that can assure a more fruitful life for all mankind?
8. The energy, the faith, the devotion which we bring to this endeavor will light our country and all who serve it -- and the glow from that fire can truly light the world.
9. Finally, whether you are citizens of America or citizens of the world, ask of us here the same high standards of strength and sacrifice which we ask of you.

Sentences for Adjective Clause Development

Directions: Add details as directed in adjective clauses.

1. Charlie followed the bear tracks.
Add details about tracks.
2. The ship struck an iceberg.
Add details about iceberg.
3. The troop finally returned to camp.
Add details about troop.
4. The principal gave the book to me.
Add details about book.
5. The train left the station at six o'clock.
Add details about station.
6. The formal dance was held in the auditorium.
Add details about auditorium.
7. The judges awarded the trophy to Bob.
Add details about trophy.
8. The luncheon for the ladies' club is in the next room.
Add details about room.
9. Mr. Smith arrived at the meeting to meet the vice-president.
Add details about meeting.
10. He became dissatisfied with the progress of the project.
Add details about project.

Sentences for Adjective Clause Development

Directions: Use adjective clauses to combine the sentences in each of the following sets.

1. Charlie had been sitting quietly beside the tree.
Suddenly he sprang to his feet and ran down the path.
The path led directly toward the stream.
2. The general was calculating the position of his advanced units.
He was in charge of the western sector.
His advanced units had lost contact with headquarters three hours ago.
3. Hercules was a Greek mythical hero.
Because his parents were Zeus and Hera, he was immortal.
4. Hercules performed twelve superhuman tasks.
One of the tasks was his descent to Hades to bring back Cerberus, a three headed dog.
Cerberus guarded the gates of Hades.
5. The airplane soared above the runway and turned toward New York.
It had taken off late.
New York was its final destination.

LESSON #8: NOUN CLAUSE

OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of the noun clause.
To gain experience in using noun clauses in various positions in basic sentence patterns.
To use the noun clause accurately and effectively in writing.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the sheet of examples to the students to analyze the sentence pattern of the first sentence in every pair of sentences. When they have completed this task and when the class as a group has checked their analysis, draw the attention of the students to the second sentence in each pair. Ask the students how the second sentence of each pair is different from the first sentence. They should note that in the second, the word it has been removed and that a clause (or basic sentence pattern) has replaced it.
- B. Ask the students to analyze the patterns of the structures which have been substituted for it. Tell the students that these structures are called noun clauses. Ask the students to formulate some generalizations about the structure and position of noun clauses. Questions such as the following will aid in formulating the generalizations.
1. What positions in basic sentence patterns do noun clauses take?
 2. What words introduce noun clauses?
 3. What is the internal structure of the noun clause? Is it conceivable that any basic sentence pattern can be used in the noun clause position?
 4. Are the words that introduce the noun clauses necessary? That is, would the meanings of the sentences be changed if those words were removed?
- C. Write the following incomplete sentences on the blackboard and ask the students to complete them by building noun clauses.
1. That _____ was not true.
 2. It was true, however, that _____.
 3. They all knew that _____.
 4. The wise men believed _____.
 5. All three boys saw where _____.
 6. They quickly realized who _____.
 7. That _____ was not so obvious as they thought.
 8. He said _____.
 9. They wondered why _____.
 10. He knew why _____ and why _____.
- D. After checking these sentences as completed by the students, the class should revise its generalization about words which can be used to introduce noun clauses.
- E. List the noun clause signals on the board. Then ask the students to write some sentences of their own using noun clauses.

WORKSHEET: Noun Clause

1. They knew it.
They knew that the boys had stolen the bicycle.
2. It was true.
That the boys had stolen the bicycle was true.
3. They saw it.
They saw where the muskrat lived.
4. He believed it.
He believed that the Germans would go to war.
5. He said it.
He said, "You are a liar."
6. He shouted it.
He shouted that they could not come.
7. The boys began to see it.
The boys began to see that they would lose.
8. It was evident.
That the army was retreating was evident.

LESSON #9: VERBALS - PRESENT PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of the present participle.
To gain experience in using present participial phrases in various positions in relation to the basic sentence patterns.
To use the present participial phrases accurately and effectively in writing.

MATERIALS: "Nemo's Nemesis"
Worksheet
Model Sentences

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute copies of "Nemo's Nemesis", a short story written by two students.
- B. Say to students while passing out "Nemo's Nemesis", "When we talked about verbs, what were some of the inflectional suffixes that we decided were connected with verbs?"
Solicit answers: -s, -ed, -ing
- C. Then say, "Today we are going to talk about a stylistic device concerned with this ending." Indicate -ing.

- D. Say to the students something such as the following: "I would like you to read over the story, 'Nemo's Nemesis,' and, as you find words ending in -ing which do not have an auxiliary verb, raise your hand and we will compile a list on the blackboard."

After picking up	Recovering from	seemingly
While waiting	Leaping from	the packaging
Upon reaching	Propelling the vehicle	the beginning
After paying	Leaving the free sample	shopping cart
Gazing up	Forging	menacing look
Gliding along	Toting five bags	overwhelming

- E. Ask students questions such as the following:
1. What are the whole phrases in which these words occur?
 2. Do you think these phrases help the story? Do you think there are too many?
 3. Do all of these words occur at sentence beginnings?

- F. We will be concerned only with the -ing word at the beginning of a sentence or after words such as after, upon, and while.

1. Write sentences beginning with these words:
Whistling a merry tune, John
Riding from his parents, Tom
Toting five bags, Elwin
Entering the kitchen, Clarissa
(Be sure to read above with correct intonation patterns.)

2. Now try these:
After drinking five quarts of _____, Tom
While eating a quart of ice cream,
Since entering the store,
(have students read their sentences.)

3. Now try these:
- | | | |
|-----------|---------------|-----------------|
| Listening | Enjoying | After listening |
| Buttoning | Eloping | Never dreaming |
| Envyng | While eloping | |

- G. "You have been working with participial phrases. Look back at the phrases and compose a specific definition of them."
- H. Distribute the worksheet on participial phrases. Tell the students to follow the directions on the worksheet. They should progress as rapidly as they can while writing the most effective sentences they can. The teacher should circulate among the students to give help whenever it is needed. When all the students have completed a part of the sheet, the teacher should stop the class so that the students can share their answers to that part of the work.
- I. For additional practice in identifying participial phrases, distribute Model Sentences. Ask the students to identify the participial phrases by underlining. Check the work in whole class discussion.

"Nemo's Nemesis"

Gazing up at the fifty foot neon sign "Super Colossal Super Market," Nemo C. Cow marvelled at the ultra-modern establishment. He entered quickly, but timidly, and stared incredulously at the size of the store. As he looked down at the mat he was standing on, he observed that it resembled a conveyor belt. Gliding along, he suddenly felt cold steel fingers grasp his shoulders and put him in an atomic powered shopping cart, which then careened down a seemingly endless aisle.

Recovering from the shock of this experience, he gazed in wonder at the innumerable varieties of food and other articles. The store contained everything from the simplest food to atomic fired spark plugs. Astonished and overawed with the beauty of the most attractive packaging and arrangements, he felt compelled to buy many items he saw.

Leaping from his cart, he began heaping items into the conveyance, as though he were hypnotized. There was nothing unusual about his actions in the Super Colossal Super Market, for everyone was stuffing his cart with luxuries, because all the merchandise was so enticing.

Propelling the vehicle down an aisle, he found it crowded with people. To his delight he discovered he was in the "Free Sample" aisle. The featured article of the day was a miniature can of America's newest sensation for the home-owner, Instant Striped Paint. After picking up his free sample of the item no home should be without, he noticed that the line was slowing up. As he moved farther along, he learned the cause of the disturbance. An irate customer had jumped upon a soap box, and was shouting above the murmur of the crowd that Instant Striped Paint should be taken out of the Super Market and returned to the hardware store where it belonged.

Leaving the free sample aisle, he wandered aimlessly until he found a rack which featured a road map of the Super Market (for a mere \$1.50) without which he could not find his way out of the market.

Forging ahead, Nemo found his way to the aisle which led to the check out counters. While waiting for a traffic light to change, his attention was drawn to a large sign with bright red letters. It announced the beginning of a nationwide contest, in which the grand prize was fifteen minutes to collect all the merchandise one could gather in the super market. The directions were simple: Just complete in thirty-three words or less "I like Ravishing Rose green, phosphorescent fingernail polish because...." Although Nemo was not acquainted with the product, he took an entry blank.

Upon reaching the check out counter, he realized how much merchandise he had accumulated. The cashier totaled the bill which came to an overwhelming \$76.69. Nemo jokingly told the cashier to charge it to the management, but after a menacing look from the cashier, he quickly pulled out his wallet. After paying his bill, Nemo was thrilled to learn that because he had purchased over \$69.00 worth of items he was given a coupon worth \$5.00 off the final price of a new automobile. Along with this ticket, he was given some Summit Value Stamps. When a book of these stamps was completed, it could be redeemed for valuable premiums.

As Nemo walked home, toting five bags filled with groceries and other items, he recalled his recent experience. The Super Colossal Super Market and all its super facilities made him proud to be a citizen of his country, great because it developed such fine modern conveniences.

WORKSHEET ON PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

A. Fill in the blanks in the following sentences:

1. He could picture himself as a cowboy, riding _____, roping _____, and singing _____.
2. He gazed unhappily out to sea, watching _____, and wishing _____.
3. The horse raced into the wind, _____ ing _____ and _____ ing _____.
4. Charlie stood on the curb _____ ing _____ ing _____, and _____ ing _____.
5. The ants marched steadily across the field, _____ ing _____ and _____ ing _____.

B. Write a descriptive sentence using participial phrases about each of the following. Remember, each participial phrase should carry particular details.

1. A boy who cannot go outside to play because he has been naughty
2. A squirrel that lives in a clump of tall oak trees
3. A dog whose master has left him behind
4. A teacher who is very angry at his students
5. A river which is in the process of overflowing its banks
6. A volcano in the process of eruption
7. A girl who likes to look at herself in a mirror
8. A hot rod racer who is waiting for a race to begin
9. A quiet pond on a hot summer day
10. A factory during its busiest hours

C. Write five or more sentences of your own invention. Use participial phrases and specific details.

MODEL SENTENCES USING PARTICIPIAL PHRASES

The captain led the way, followed by the Under Secretary, walking slightly sideways. Browning, making one step to two of the Under Secretary's, brought up the rear. (from "Graven Image" by John O'Hara)

Everything along the sea-front was beautifully gleaming, drying, shimmering....I had a vision of my envelope skimming wildly along the coast-line, pursued by the old but active waiter and a breathless pack of local worthies. I saw it outdistancing them all, dodging past coastguards, doubling on its tracks, leaping breakwaters, unluckily injuring itself, losing speed, and at last, in a splendour of desperation, taking to the open sea. (from "A. V. Laider" by Max Beerbehm)

Soon the men began to gather, surveying their own children, speaking of planting and rain, tractors and taxes. They stood together, away from the pile of stones in the corner, and their jokes were quiet and they smiled rather than laughed. The women, wearing faded house dresses and sweaters, came shortly after their menfolk. They greeted one another and exchanged bits of gossip as they went to join their husbands. Soon the women, standing by their husbands, began to call to their children, and the children came reluctantly, having to be called four or five times. Bobby Martin ducked under his mother's grasping hand and ran, laughing, back to the pile of stones. (from "The Lottery" by Shirley Jackson)

On the way home they would stop and look at the illuminated shop windows, lingering over the photographs of New York actresses. On Sunday afternoon Haskett would take her for a walk, pushing Lily ahead of them in a white enameled perambulator, and Waythorn had a vision of the people they would stop and talk to. He could fancy how pretty Alice must have looked, in a dress adroitly constructed from the hints of a New York fashion-paper, and how she must have looked down on the other women, chafing at her life, and secretly feeling that she belonged in a bigger place. (from "The Other Two" by Edith Wharton)

In practice he saw himself spending his mornings in agricultural pursuit, riding round with the bailiff, seeing that his land was farmed in the best modern way, silos and artificial manures and continuous cropping, and all that. (from "The Gioconda Smile" by Aldous Huxley)

And again, seeing that he ran at her shoulder, she knew he had been there all the while, making a race of it, flailing the air with his long arms for joy of play in the cloud of spring, throwing his knees high, leaping the moon-blue waves of the brown grass, shaking his bright hair; (from "How Beautiful with Shoes" by Wilbur Daniel Steele)

The selections above were taken from short stories in the anthology, 50 Great Short Stories, Milton Crane, ed., Bantam Books, New York, N. Y.

LESSON #10: INFINITIVES

OBJECTIVES: To objectify the form of the present infinitive.
To gain experience in using present infinitive phrases in various positions in relation to the basic sentence patterns.
To use the present infinitive phrases accurately and effectively in writing.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the worksheets to the students.
- B. Tell the students that another verb form involves the word to plus the root form of the verb.
(e. g., to spy, to leap, to believe)
- C. Ask the students to underline the phrases which begin with infinitives.
- D. When they have done this, direct the students to the succeeding sections of the worksheet, checking their progress as they go.

WORKSHEET ON INFINITIVE PHRASES

A. Examples from student themes.

1. One of the hardest words to define in the English Language is "tragedy."
2. Creon is proud, too proud to admit a misjudgement. By refusing to admit his error, he condemns his pretensions to death along with his noble niece.
3. To repent his bargain with Mephistopheles would be to admit his fallibility and relative unimportance beneath God's will.
4. To understand the tragic figure we must be able to identify ourselves with him, to feel his fears and sufferings.
5. To lose that sense of objectivity that allows us to relate the play's characters and events to our own values would result in melodrama.
6. To make sure that nothing went wrong, the farmer had sent his farm hands to keep an eye on things.
7. This enabled him to interpret the life of the Flemish people in his paintings.
8. To fable form identifies the behavior of animals and birds with that of people, to emphasize the foibles of the human race.
9. To understand this revolt it is necessary first to examine what they are revolting against.
10. To do this they now call on a wider range of materials, textures, and pigments than have ever before been available to them.

LESSON #11: PARALLEL STRUCTURES

OBJECTIVES: To identify parallel clause and phrase structure.
To transform basic sentences into parallel structures.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

A. Distribute copies of the following sentences to the students. As each sentence is discussed, write it on the board.

1. Our newspaper wants to destroy competition and to eliminate labor unions.
2. The woman couldn't remember where she parked the car or where she put her keys.
3. The house on the corner by the church is 70 years old.
4. Jason visited us when he was twenty and after he got married.
5. The doctor who cured my cold and took my tonsils out is retiring.

Ask the students to break the sentences down into two basic sentences. Working with the two basic sentences, identify the clause or phrase structure common to each.

1. a. Our newspaper wants to destroy competition.
b. Our newspaper wants to eliminate labor unions.
Which words in each sentence form a clause or phrase?
(to destroy competition; to eliminate labor unions)
What type of clause or phrase are they? Does the same type appear in both sentences?
2. a. The woman couldn't remember where she parked the car.
b. The woman couldn't remember where she put the keys.
Which words in each sentence form a clause or phrase?
(where she parked the car; where she put her keys)
What type of clause or phrase are they? Does the same type appear in both sentences?
3. a. The house on the corner is 70 years old.
b. The house by the church is 70 years old.
(Use the same questions as with previous sentences.)
4. a. Jason visited us when he left for the army.
b. Jason visited us after he got married.
(Use the same questions as with previous sentences.)
5. a. The doctor who cured my cold is retiring.
b. The doctor who took out my tonsils is retiring.
(Do the same questions as with previous sentences.)

Ask the students to apply their rule for parallel structure from the previous lessons to these sentences.

B. Ask the students to combine the following sentences into parallel structures.

1. a. When we left the school it was snowing.
b. When we started home it was snowing.
2. a. The filing cabinet by the window is larger.
b. The filing cabinet in room 200 is larger.
3. a. Whoever leaves early will miss the basketball game.
b. Whoever arrives late will miss the basketball game.

4. a. The decision to pass up the cash prize was unanimous.
b. The decision to accept the television set was unanimous.
5. a. The book which is the thinnest is always chosen first.
b. The book which has the largest print is always chosen first.

While combining these sentences with the class discuss the various conjunctions necessary to complete the transformed sentences. Most sentences will take and, except #2 and #3. #2 combines two prepositional phrases with no addition of punctuation or conjunction and #3 takes the conjunction or.

- C. Assign the attached worksheet to provide practice in identifying and correcting non-parallel clause and phrase structures.

WORKSHEET: Parallel Structures

In each of the following sentences (1) underline the clauses or phrases (2) break the sentence down into two basic sentences (3) change the two basic sentences so that the clauses or phrases are parallel (4) re-write the sentences correctly.

- I. The math teacher told me I could pass by doing my homework and if I listened in class.
- II. Charles came to see us when he got fired and to borrow money.
- III. The notice telling of the dance, but which omitted the date, must be rewritten.

LESSON #12

OBJECTIVES: To identify the use of parallel structure in statements of comparison and contrast.
To write parallel statements of comparison and contrast.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

A. Distribute copies of the following short paragraphs to the students. Ask them to read the paragraph and then write a one sentence conclusion for the paragraph. Do the first one as an example. Whenever a non-parallel concluding sentence is formulated by the class, discuss it and correct it. If a parallel sentence is suggested identify the parallel structures.

1. Fifteen students were assigned to write poems as homework. All of them reported difficulty with the assignment and only 7 turned in a finished poem. The same students when assigned a short story worked enthusiastically and quickly. All of them turned in a finished story the next day.

Sample conclusion (parallel) --

Writing a poem is more difficult than writing a short story.

Sample conclusion (non-parallel) --

Writing a poem is more difficult than to write a short story.

To analyze the sentences ask the students to identify the clauses or phrases which indicate the items or ideas being contrasted or compared. Ask them to identify the structure as clause, phrase, simple noun, adjective, or adverb. Apply the rule of parallel structure to decide whether or not the sentence is correct.

2. Some people criticize the reading of Nathaniel Hawthorne's The Scarlet Letter because it deals with the sin of adultery. They have obviously never read the book because if they did they would realize that Hawthorne is not concerned with describing adultery in his book. Neither is he guilty of arousing undesirable thoughts in his readers. The author is concerned with the aftermath of sin, with the pain and suffering it produces for the people involved, and with the character change and development it brings about.

Sample sentence (parallel) --

In The Scarlet Letter, Hawthorne shows the aftermath of sin, not the act of sinning.

Sample sentence (non-parallel) --

In The Scarlet Letter, Hawthorne shows the aftermath of sin, not how a sin is committed.

3. "Escape", the story we read first in our unit shows the hero fighting against the Devil in an effort to conquer death. It illustrates the specific methods the hero used in order to escape the Devil. The story we just read yesterday involves the hero fighting off bands of Indians. It also describes specific plans the hero carried out in order to survive.

Sample sentence (parallel):

Two stories in our unit show the hero fighting an enemy and using effective methods of survival.

Sample sentence (non-parallel):

Two stories in our unit show the hero fighting an enemy and how to use effective methods to survive.

B. Do the worksheet with the class for practice in identifying parallel comparisons and contrasts.

WORKSHEET

Underline the elements of comparison or contrast. Convert them to parallel structures.

1. Each of the epic poems we have read shows the conflict between the here and the gods and how the gods are often jealous of man.
2. Both of these sweaters are nice, but the white one is itchy and the and the blue one costs a lot of money.
3. To plan a party ahead of time is better than waiting until the last minute.
4. A cup of coffee is more expensive than having a glass of milk.
5. Is it easier to pass if you study hard or to waste your time watching television.
6. Our homework assignment was to read a chapter, write a paragraph, and summarizing today's lesson.
7. The main character in this story was more difficult to believe than reading about the character in the last story.
8. Jan couldn't figure out how to operate the typewriter or getting the ribbon in right.
9. Several students were undecided, unhappy, and expressed dissatisfaction with their schedules.
10. He is either the laziest boy in the class or who does the least work.

LESSON #13

OBJECTIVES: To identify parallel structure in tense, number and person.
To write sentences parallel in tense, number and person.

MATERIALS: Worksheet

PROCEDURES:

- A. To introduce parallel structures in tense, number and person. write the following sentences on the board.
1. (tense) Mr. Jones stopped at the store window and admired the hunting equipment.
 - a. Underline the verbs.
 - b. Break the sentence down to two basic sentences.
 - c. Apply the rule for parallel structure.
 2. (tense) Mr. Jones stopped at the store window and admires the the hunting equipment.
 - a. Underline the verbs.
 - b. Break the sentence down to two basic sentences.
 - c. Apply the rule for parallel structure.
 - d. Correct.
 3. (number) Anyone who can identify the hero knows that he is usually courageous.

Underline the pronoun in the noun clause and the noun to which it refers.

How are these two words alike?
 4. (number) Anyone who can identify the hero knows that they are usually courageous.

Underline the pronoun in the noun clause and the noun to which it refers.

How are these two words unlike? How does this sentence violate the rule for parallel structure?
 5. (person) The reader must concentrate on the author's words if he wants to understand the story.

Underline the pronoun in the adverb clause and the noun to which it refers.
 6. (person) The reader must concentrate on the author's words if you want to understand the story.

Follow the same procedure as with the previous sentence.

In which of these two sentences are the related words parallel?
Why is the other sentence non-parallel?
- B. Summarize with the class the examples of parallel structure in tense, number and person. Answer any questions and provide additional examples if necessary; then assign the attached worksheet. This may be done as homework or in class, depending on the time available and the ability of the class.

WORKSHEET

Combine each of the basic sentences into one sentence. Make changes where necessary in order to make the related elements in the combined sentence parallel in tense, person and number.

1. Agnes saw a party dress at the department store.
Agnes asks the saleslady how much it costs.
2. Sometimes Sarah is going to class when I see her.
Sometimes Sarah goes to the library when I see her.
3. The true student always makes an attempt to do his homework on time.
You find that this is not always easy.
4. The three criminals in this novel planned a very complicated escape.
They accomplished it with only one slight mistake.
5. The public always sees the teenager as a hoodlum.
You won't see any hoodlums at our school.
6. Everyone knew the master spy would be caught.
They live too dangerous a life to escape capture.
7. All of us will ride on the same bus.
We met at the back door of the school.
8. Lately, the movies have been centered around teenager problems.
It always emphasizes the conflict between children and parents.
9. Don't go near the railroad track.
Don't wander too far from the group.
10. You never know if the answer is right or not.
One can't look in the back of an English book to check.

A NOTE ON CONTINUING THESE LESSONS

These lessons do not pretend to be complete. There is a need for lessons on such grammatical devices as appositives, especially for advanced students. There is a more important need for the things learned in the preceding lessons to be consciously carried over into writing assignments by both students and teachers. Without this application to individual themes the lessons will be of far less consequence than they might be.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON CHANGE IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE
Ninth Grade Average Curriculum

RELATED UNITS:
Definition & Etymology
Dialects

Distributed by

The School District of Aiken County
Office of the Superintendent

CURRICULUM DIRECTOR
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TEACHING THE UNIT

The purpose of this unit on change in the English language is to develop both attitudes and knowledge. If the students use the knowledge they gain to become more inquisitive about language and to become less prescriptive and more scientific about the language which they see and hear, the unit has been successful. If the unit leads to stultification, disinterest, boredom, or frustration, it has failed. This success or failure depends not only upon the materials, but also upon the teacher. Success depends upon the teacher's enthusiasm; if he does not show interest in the subject, surely the students will not. It also depends upon the teacher's adaptability; if he does not develop additional materials to bring the unit up to date, if he does not follow the interests of the students beyond the materials of the unit, then surely the unit will fail. These materials are a tool to aid a teacher, but they will work only insofar as they are well used.

After the unit is introduced with a recording of the 23rd Psalm in Old English (O.E.), Middle English (M.E.) and Modern English (Mdn.E.) the students pursue the question "What makes language change." Lesson two involves collection of accidental lapses and categorizing these accidental language changes. Lesson three, dealing with intentional innovation, investigates ways of creating neologisms, the effect of historical events on language, and the results of the students' attempt to introduce a word which they have coined.

Lessons four through eight deal with the question of how the English language has changed. Lesson four introduces students to the Indo-European language family, lesson five analyzes the kinds of change English has undergone, and lesson six compares English to the other languages of the Germanic family. Lesson seven is an etymological exercise in borrowings from other languages. Lesson eight deals with six kinds of semantic change in English.

The unit is concluded by having students write an introductory paragraph to the notebook which they have developed through their study. This activity serves to synthesize and relate the various aspects of language change to which the students have been introduced.

LESSON #1: Why does language change?

OBJECTIVES: To recognize that the English language has changed.
To suggest reasons for language change.

MATERIALS: Tape, 23rd Psalm in O.E., M.E., and Mdn. E.

PROCEDURES:

A. To make students aware of language change, play the recording of the 23rd Psalm in O.E., M.E., and Mdn. E. Preface the playing with a statement such as, "I'm going to let you listen to a selection that should be very familiar to you. It is something that you all know and it is in English. See if you can tell me what it is after I have played it."

After playing the O.E. version allow a few minutes for discussion, to tantalize the class and prepare them for listening to the M.E. version. The discussion might go something like this:

Teacher: Well, who knows what it was? (No response) Surely you recognized it! It was in plain English!

Students: That wasn't English! That was some other language!

Teacher: No, that was English. Let me play it again. Listen carefully; this version is a little easier.

B. After playing the M.E. and Mdn. E. versions of the Psalm, take advantage of the students curiosity to direct the discussion. Write on the board "Version I: about 1100 A.D. - Version II: about 1500 A.D. - Version III: about 1750 A.D.

1. All of these were English as it was spoken at that time. What conclusion can we draw from this tape about the English language?
2. Why has English changed? What do you suppose has caused the change?

C. Allow the students to state their opinions and argue among themselves. Accept their suggestions, and develop the discussion by asking questions which force them to pursue more deeply their tentative suggestions. Conclude the discussion by having the students copy onto a page in their notebooks the suggested causes of language change as hypothesis to be tested.

This initial discussion should serve as a basis for organizing the remainder of the unit.

1. The enthusiasms, and interests, of the students may suggest an entirely different order for the remaining lessons.
2. Their suggestions may indicate additional lessons needed to satisfy their curiosity. (For example, a lesson on the effects of geography as a language barrier.)
3. Their ability may demand either the omission of the more difficult lessons, or the addition of more challenging lessons.

LESSON #2: ACCIDENTAL LANGUAGE CHANGE

OBJECTIVE: To become familiar with the ways in which all of us change language.

MATERIALS: "The Loose That Gaid the Olden Gegg"

PROCEDURES:

- A. Read to the students "The Loose That Giad the Olden Gegg," as they follow it in the text. Then distribute the worksheet on spoonerisms. After the students have worked individually or in small groups to answer the questions, have two or three students put their definitions on the board. In class discussion, develop from these examples a single well-worded definition.
- B. To prepare the students for the worksheet on analogical lapses, introduce the principle of analogy through class discussion.
1. Since we know that women in the United States wear a great deal of jewelry, what would we assume about women in other parts of the world? (That they also wear a great deal of jewelry.) Why would we assume this? (Since they are alike in one respect - being women - they will probably be alike in other respects - wearing jewelry.)
 2. What would you do if someone threw you a light bulb? (Try to catch it to keep it from breaking.) If you caught the light bulb and discovered it was made of rubber, what false assumption would you have made? (That because the object was like a light bulb in some respects - its appearance - it would be like a light bulb in other respects - being breakable.)
 3. If we knew that most verbs form their past tense by adding ed, how would we form the past tense of a verb we had never used before? (by adding ed) What does this assume? (That since the new word is like other verbs in some respects, it will probably be like other verbs in respect to forming past tense.)
 4. This kind of reasoning - assuming that things alike in one respect are also alike in other respects - is called reasoning by analogy.

Distribute the worksheet on analogical lapses. Read the poem to the students, and discuss it to help them understand the principle of analogy.

1. How do we usually form the plural of most words? (add s or es)
2. If you came across a noun you had never seen before, what would you do to make it plural? (add s or es)
3. What assumption would you be making about the new noun? (That it followed the same pattern for forming plural as most other nouns.)
4. What kind of reasoning is this called, (analogical reasonong)
5. What assumption did the author of the poem make? (That words should follow the pattern of forming plural of mouse - mice or that - those.)
6. What kind of reasoning is this called? (analogical reasoning)
7. Does language work by analogy?
 - a. If the students answer yes, point out more examples that do not follow the general pattern.
 - b. If they answer no, point out numerous examples that do follow the general pattern.
 - c. If they answer usually, but not always, commend them for their accuracy.

Have the students complete the work sheet, and follow the same procedure to arrive at a definition as was used with spoonerisms.

- C. Introduce shortening as a form of language change with the following statements:
1. Another form of language change is the shortening of words.
 - a. We now say "plane." What did we used to say?
 - b. American soldiers are quite often described as "Yanks." What group is that a shortening of?

- c. Gary Moore once used the word "jeet" on his TV show. What group of words do we say that way? (Did you eat?)
- d. We say TV. What is that short for?
- e. We often call a man in prison a "con." What word is "con" short for?
2. Can you think of any other examples of word shortening that we use? (List on the board all examples that the class offers.)
3. Language scientists have found that this kind of language change has been occurring in our language since it was first written. For example, in the 500's English speakers used the words "godum" and "godan." Later the words changed to "gooden" and "goode." Now we simply say "good." Select a list of thirty words whose shortening is illustrated in the etymological entries of your standard school dictionary. Assign one word to each student to research for the shortening it illustrates. If some students finish more quickly than others, assign them a second word.

Examples:

mob	brandy	curio	photo	bus
piano	grog	hobby	auto	phone
gin	hock	brig	prof	plane
miss	rum	fad	gym	wig
wag	whicky	fan	trig	drawing-room
still	sport	spite	tend	lone
fend	fence			

4. Do one example with the class to establish a model for the form their report should take.
- D. Have the students obtain beforehand or pass out to the class 3x5 note cards to use to record lapses of their friends, family, and classmates.
1. The students are to record the lapses they hear and supply the necessary information about the lapse in the following manner:

Type of lapse (technical name)	
Erroneous utterance	
Intended utterance	
Description of the speaker (brief)	Name of collector
 2. Remind the students that many times their families or friends use lapses that have caught on. Children in families use an amusing word that adults imitate. (e.g., occifer for officer; "I did it byself," for "I did it by myself.")
 3. Use one of the examples from spoonerisms, analogical lapses, or shortenings for all the students to do as their first card. Do it with them on the board to set the pattern for them.
 4. Point out to the class that there may be many lapses that don't fit the three categories of spoonerism, analogy, and shortening. Tell them that after they have collected lapses, the class will look at these and attempt to discover other major kinds of lapses and give them names.
- E. When the class has collected lapses, lead them in grouping the lapses according to their similarities and devising names for the major groups. Although the names and classes arrived at are not nearly so important as the thought involved, it may be helpful to use the patterns established by Louis A. Muinzer in his article "Historical Linguistics in the Classroom" in the Illinois English Bulletin, November, 1960. (109 English Building, Urbana, Illinois.)
- F. Conclude the lesson by having the students head a page in their notebooks "Accidental Language Change" and listing on that page the kinds of lapses and their definitions. Follow this same procedure for each of the other lessons in the unit so the student will have a complete notebook on language change at the conclusion of the unit.

WORK SHEET: SPOONERISMS

- Directions:** 1. Fill in the blanks in numbers 1 through 6.
2. Follow the same pattern to write a sentence explaining numbers 7 through 11.

1. At lunch I hate to eat parrots and keys.

The /k/ sound of carrots was interchanged with the _____ sound in peas.

2. When shopping I always steal at the doors.

The /d/ sound of deals was interchanged with the _____ sound of stores.

3. The poor man received a blushing crow.

The /kr/ sound of crushing was interchanged with the _____ sound of blow.

4. It will either drain or rizzle, with shattered scours.

The _____ sound of _____ was interchanged with the _____ sound of _____; the _____ sound of _____ was interchanged with the _____ sound of _____.

5. I always sat it never pains but it roars.

The _____ sound of _____ was interchanged with the _____ sound of _____.

6. Lots of farmers are tons of soil.

The _____ sound of _____ was interchanged with the _____ sound of _____.

7. Ah, Victoria, our queer old dean!

8. Met some gilc.

9. What left is else.

10. Students groaning on their beery wenches.

11. Marden me, Padam, your pie is occupewed, may I sew you to another sheet?

DEFINE SPOONERISMS:

WORKSHEET: ANALOGICAL LAPSES

PLURALS ARE SINGULAR

Now if mouse in the plural should be,
and is, mice,
Then house in the plural, of course,
should be hice,
And grouse should be grice and spouse
should be spice
And by the same token should blouse
become blice.

Then if one thing is that, while some
more is called those,
Then more than one hat, I assume,
would be hose,
And gnat would be gnose and pat
would be pose
And likewise the plural of rat would
be rose.

People often make this kind of mistake in language. They are making the mistake because they apply language patterns that don't always hold true. In the following examples, what language pattern did the person mistakenly use?

An army sergeant: "You meng get out of bed."

Because the plural of boy is boys, the army sergeant applied that language pattern to make the plural of man, _____.

A three-year-old: "Hersterics."

Because hysterics sound like his-sterics, the three-year-old applied that language pattern to make the female of hysterics, _____.

Jinx the cat on Huckleberry Hound: "I hate you meces to pieces."
Because the plural of church is churches, _____.

Because the plural of tooth is teeth, _____.

A college student (for fun): "bookses; shoeses."

Because the _____ watch is watches, _____.

High school student: "excape" for "escape."

Because we say explode and expand, _____.

DEFINE ANALOGICAL LAPSES:

LESSON #3: INTENTIONAL INNOVATIONS

OBJECTIVES: To recognize that new problems and new inventions demand new words.
To identify acronyms, combining forms, and new sound combinations as ways of creating new words.

MATERIALS: Magazines with numerous ads.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Analyze with the class three kinds of word coinage.
1. Some new words are made up of new sound combinations which have no history. "Kodak" and "dacron" are examples. Find an example of words made from new sound combinations. (Magazine ads are an excellent source.)
 2. The following words are called acronyms. How were they made up?
 - a. Awol TV CIO SPEBQSA VIP
Unesco GOP CORE NAACP
 - b. Find two acronyms other than those listed.
 3. How was the word acronym made up?
(acro Gr. outermost=the first letters+onyma Gr. name=names made up of the first letters of a group of words.)
Look up homonym, synonym, and homograph to see how they were created by joining two forms which already meant something. Find at least one additional word created by combining Greek or Latin forms.
 4. Write a four paragraph report beginning with the sentence "New words are coined in many ways." Use these three kinds of coinage for your first three paragraphs. For your fourth paragraph find a fourth kind of word coinage and add a concluding sentence. Be sure that you include the definitions of the words that you use as examples in each paragraph. (Slower students may need help in finding a fourth kind of coinage such as word borrowing - Volkswagon, metaphoric adaption - Mustang for a brand of car and capsule for a space vehicle; agglutination - brunch for a meal between breakfast and lunch; or adaption of a proper name - macadam for a road surface developed by the British Engineer John L. McAdam. Better students should be urged to extend their papers by discussing other forms of word coinage which they discover.)
- B. Ask the class why new words many times have to be created in a language. Help the students find groups, events, or actions for which they might coin new words.
1. The recent integration problems have led to many new words. They have named groups such as CORE, the NAACP, and Black Muslims. They have named new events such as sit-ins and freedom rides. And they have named new actions: people sit-ins. We could coin words for groups, events, or actions if we wanted to.
 2. Let's see if we can't make up words to describe some things around the school.
 - a. The main office is a place where certain kinds of things happen. What things happen there that involve students? (List student reactions on the board.)
 - b. What could we call the office, that would reflect these things? (Again list student responses.)
- Follow the same procedure to help the students coin other words. Possible topics for them to work with are:
- an athletic student
 - crowds which gather at athletic events
 - a bad class a good class
 - that Friday afternoon feeling
 - a general name for teen-age idols
 - a boy who always walks a certain girl to class
 - a new dance step which needs a name
 - the mania over the Beatles

around the school.

2

a. The main office is a place where certain kinds of things happen. What things happen there that involve students? (List student reactions on the board.)

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Follow the same procedure to help the students coin other words. Possible topics for them to work with are:

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a good class
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a boy who always walks a certain girl to class
a new dance step which needs a name
the mania over the Beatles

Have the class select from their coinages the word which they think is best.

After the class has created its coinage and has mastered its definition, instruct the students to introduce the new word in their other classes and in their social circles as opportunity permits. After two weeks, they should report on the success of their efforts. In this report, they should indicate how readily the coinage met acceptance and to what extent it was rejected. They should also try to determine what kind of individuals were most willing to accept and use the coinage without challenge, and conversely, what types scorned it with the simple pronouncement that "There's no such word!" The results of this experiment are as unpredictable as life itself.

After the students have reported, ask, "Doesn't our coinage prove that language change need not be started by an individual?" The discussion should lead the class to see that language change always begins with one individual and moves to larger and larger groups of people.

- C.
1. Some events that have recently had an effect in language are sputnik, Berlin, integration demonstrations, and the Beatles. The students should be able to find examples of how people actually use an event to create new words and word meanings.
Choose a current event that has led to word coinage, and have the students search newspapers and magazines, listen to conversations, the radio and television, and any other source of current language at their disposal.
 2. Have the students record on 3x5 cards new word coinages from the phenomena and define these words. Use this information to develop with the class a written report which will serve as a model for the next activity.
 3. When the class has gained an historical sense by contemplating the linguistic activity of its own age, it is ready to examine the sputniks of the past. Here are a few such events which have made linguistic history:

- (3) a. FOR THE BEST STUDENTS
1. Germanic tribes trade with the Romans.
 2. The Normans invade Anglo-Saxon England.
 3. Monastic reform sweeps through Old England.
 4. Columbus discovers America and the new world is explored.
- b. FOR AVERAGE STUDENTS
1. Modern warfare is born in Virginia and Tennessee. (Civil War period)
 2. Baseball becomes an American pastime.
 3. Prohibition and the speakeasy come into existence.
 4. The American western frontier is settled.
- c. FOR SLOWER STUDENTS
1. New fashions for women's clothes develop in the 1960's.
 2. The Atomic age begins.
 3. Teenage boys become interested in automobiles.
 4. The space age begins.
4. Divide the students into small groups to research a topic and write a theme explaining their findings.
- a. Students may need more explicit instructions such as the following.
- 1.) Brainstorm to think of all the words you can which fit your topic.
 - 2.) Put each word on a 3x5 card.
 - 3.) Use magazines and books to add to your list of words. (Here they may need help in using the Reader's Guide and various reference works.)
 - 4.) Write on each card the definition of the word. Try it out on some students to see if it is clearly stated.
 - 5.) Group your words into groups of three, four, five, or six that in some way deal with the same subject. Give that subject a name and write a sentence to introduce that paragraph. Do the same for all the other groups.
 - 6.) Decide in what order to present your paragraphs.
 - 7.) Write an introductory paragraph that explains when your topic became important, whether or not it is still important, and what the major subjects are that have led to new words. (Use your topic words for your paragraphs for this step. Be sure to put them in the order in which you plan to present them.)
 - 8.) Now have each member of the group write some of the paragraphs. Be sure to be fair in dividing the work.
 - 9.) Put the paragraphs in order and read through your theme as a group. Add any sentences necessary to make the paper flow smoothly from one paragraph to the next.
 - 10.) Now as a group develop a concluding paragraph that will bring the paper to a logical ending.

- (4) b. Such a procedure is obviously difficult for slower students. The difficulty can be reduced in two ways.
- 1.) Give the students a model composition written by other students and lead them through an analysis of the above points.
 - 2.) Give the students only one step at a time, orally. When they have finished that step, give them the next one, again orally.
- c. Some students may be more creative in their form of presentation if you help them plan a different approach-- a skit, a recording, a puppet show, or a panel. Such activities will of course take more time to prepare.

LESSON #4: THE INDO-EUROPEAN LANGUAGE FAMILY

OBJECTIVE: To analyze the similarities and differences among languages of the Indo-European family.

MATERIALS: Worksheets with examples of Indo-European expressions.

PROCEDURES:

A. Distribute Worksheet I on Indo-European expressions. (If possible, print each on a 3x5 card and give each student a set, so he can manipulate them more easily.) Tell the students that each means the same thing as the English, and ask the students questions which will help them group these languages according to their similarities and differences. For brighter classes, few questions will be necessary. Slower students may have to be led step by step through the analysis of similarities and differences. The following questions should be used as they are necessary in the particular class to gain an adequate classification. It would be far better to follow the spontaneous lead of the class than to try to use the specific questions and answers which are presented here only to illustrate the kind of procedure involved.

Note that the word "adequate" is underlined in the previous paragraph. Since the students are dealing with such a limited corpus and do not have the oral equivalents available, they could not possibly be expected to develop an exact classification. The importance lies in the inductive process of language analysis rather than the specific conclusion.

1. All these languages have many similarities which suggest that they are somehow related. What characteristics do all these languages have in common? (Initial letter in mother and the "r" in three.)
2. How would you group these languages on the basis of their similarities and differences?
 - a. What three groups could we make on the basis of the second letter in the word mother?

I	II	III
English	French	German
Dutch	Portuguese	
Norwegian	Rumanian	
Swedish	Polish	
Flemish	Spanish	
Danish	Italian	
Icelandic	Czech	
	Russian	

3. What letters in the words for "yes" suggest that our classification of Group I is correct? (The initial y and i which all in Group I have in common.)
4. On the basis of this evidence, is German closer to Gro or Group II? (Put German back into Group I.)
5. What letters of the words for "have" show the similarity of all Group I words? (Initial h in all the Group I words.)
6. Let's look further at the languages we have included in Group II. Do you see any basis for subdividing them into two or three groups?

- (A) 5. What letters of the words for "have" show the similarity of all Group I words? (Initial h in all the Group I words.)
6. Let's look further at the languages we have included in Group II. Do you see any basis for subdividing them into two or three groups?
- a. How could we divide them into two groups on the basis of the letters in the words for "yes"? (i versus a; note that this misclassifies Rumanian as Slavic rather than Romance.)
- | <u>IIa.</u> | <u>IIb.</u> |
|-------------|-------------|
| French | Rumanian |
| Spanish | Czech |
| Portuguese | Polish |
| | Russian |
- b. How do the letters of the word for "I have" support our classification? (All IIb. languages include the letter m.)
- c. How does Rumanian differ from the other languages in IIb.? (No t in mother, more than four words, e in three.)
7. Where should we put Rumanian? (If the discussion flounders, the class could decide by vote; the decision is not important at this point.)
- B. If students have developed fluency in this pattern of analysis, they should be divided into small groups to follow the same pattern in subdividing the languages of Group I. If they have not developed fluency, the teacher should continue to direct the analysis until it is completed.
- C. When the student analysis is completed, distribute copies of the correct subdivision. Explain to the students that their analysis may differ from the linguists' because the linguists had more information to work from, including the pronunciation of these words.
- D. This lesson may be supplemented with analysis of the relationships of geography and the Indo-European language family. Distribute a map of Europe and the Middle East, and ask the students if the subdivisions of the Indo-European languages follow a geographic pattern. Have the students solve this problem as a homework assignment by marking the areas of the languages. When they return to class the next day, after they have explained their findings, ask them for logical reasons for language relationships which are apparently illogical according to geographic distribution. Help them reach the conclusion that those which are apparently illogical can be explained by migration patterns.
- E. Help students develop appropriate statements for inclusion in their notebooks.

Indo-European Languages

Danish:	Ja, mor, jeg har tre.
Dutch:	Ja, moeder, ik heb drie.
French:	Oui, ma mère, j'en ai trois.
Czech:	Ano, matko, mám tři.
Icelandic:	Já, móðir, ek hefi þrjá.
Portuguese:	Sim, mãe, tenho tres.
Polish:	Tak, matko, mam trzy.
German:	Ja, Mutter, ich habe drei.
Italian:	Sì, madre, ce n'ho tre.
Flemish:	Ja, moeder, ik heb drie.
Norwegian:	Ja, mor, jeg har tre.
Rumanian:	Da, mama mea, eu am trei.
Russian:	Da, mat', u men' á tri.
Spanish:	Sí, madre, (yo) tengo tres.
Swedish:	Ja, moder, jag har tre.
English:	Yes, mother, I have three.

Indo-European Languages

Germanic

Icelandic:	Ja, mópir, ek hefi þrjá.
Swedish:	Ja, moder, jag har tre.
Danish:	Ja, mor, jeg har tre.
Norwegian:	Ja, mor, jeg har tre.
German:	Ja, Mutter, ich habe drei.
Dutch:	Ja, moeder, ik heb drie.
Flemish:	Ja, moeder, ik heb drie.
English:	Yes, mother, I have three.

Romance

French:	Oui, ma mère, j'en ai trois.
Spanish:	Sí, madre, (yo) tengo tres.
Portuguese:	Sim, mãe, tenho tres.
Italian:	Sì, madre, ce n'ho tre.
Rumanian:	Da, mama mea, eu am trei.

Slavic

Czech:	Ano, matko, mám tři.
Polish:	Tak, matko, mam trzy.
Russian:	Da, mat', u men' a'tri.

LESSON #5: HISTORIC CHANGES IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE.

OBJECTIVES: To recognize alphabetic, spelling and pronunciation, inflection, and word order changes in English.
To find additional examples of these kinds of changes.
To write a composition explaining these changes.

MATERIALS: Tape and printed copies of "The Parable of the Vineyard."

PROCEDURES:

A. The major purpose of this lesson is stated in the objectives. Section B. of these procedures suggests a specific pattern for introducing this lesson, but its major purpose is to illustrate a guiding approach to the analysis of the parable:

1. Find an example of change.
2. Determine its nature and give it a name.
3. Write a sentence stating the kind of change.
4. Illustrate the statement by additional examples.

As much of this work as possible should be left with the students. The teacher should give hints, ask leading questions, and develop models with the class only when the students have reached a dead end or do not know how to proceed.

Consequently, the teacher may find the lesson more interesting if he simply asks the students the pre-listening question, "What differences can you find in these three periods of English from present day American English?" and follows the spontaneous comments of the students. Also, better students may be allowed to work in small groups or individually without teacher-led discussion.

In other words, the amount of assistance given in the form of study guides, teacher direction, peer support, and composition models should be varied to fit the abilities of the students.

- B. Remind the class of the recording of the 23rd Psalm which they listened to in the first lesson. Tell the class that such a recording shows many kinds of changes that have occurred in the English language from the Seventh Century to the Twentieth Century. Tell the students that in the recording they are about to hear, again all three passages are the same. Before playing the tape, distribute the study guide and the printed copy of the passage to help them focus on some of the changes that have occurred in English. Ask them to make notes on any changes they hear or see which are not mentioned on the study guide.
- C. Sections of study guide II should be used at the discretion of the teacher in a whole class, small group, or independent situation to help the students reach the objectives of the lesson. Also, sentences, paragraphs, and/or the organizational pattern of the composition can be developed with students as a model for their writing. A sample theme written by a teacher, is included in the lesson to illustrate to the teacher one possible pattern for such a theme.

Allow the students to play the tape as many times as is necessary for them to complete their analysis.

Parable of the Vineyard (Matthew 20: 1-16)
Wycliffe, 1389.

SEE THE
ATTACHED
PAGE ON
TYNDALE, 1526.

Anglo-Saxon, 995

1) Soplice heofona rice ys gelic þam hiredes ealdre, þe on aerne mergen ut-eode, anhrian wyrhtan on hys win-geard. 2) Gewordenre gecwydraedene þam wyrhtum, he sealde aelcon aenne penig wiþ hys daeges weorce, he asende hig on hys win-geard. 3) And þa he ut-eode embe undern-tide, he geseah oþre on straete idele standan. 4) þa cwaep he, Ga ge on minne win-geard, and ic sylle eow þaet riht byþ. And hig ba ferdon. 5) Eft he ut-eode embe ða sixtan, and nigoban tide, and dyde þam swa gelice. 6) þa embe þa endlyftan tide he ut-eode, and funde oþre standende; and þa saede he, Hwi stande ge her ealne daeg idele? 7) þa cwaedon hig, Forþan þe us nan man ne hyrode. þa cwaep he, And ga ge on minne win-geard. 8) Soplice þa hyt waes aefen geworden, þa saede se win-geardes hlaford hys geretan, Clypa þa wyrhtan, and agyf hym heora mede, agynn fram þam ytemestan, oþ þone fyrmestan. 9) Eornostlice þa þe gecomon, þe embe þa endlyftan tide comon, þa onfengon hig aelc his pening. 10) And þa þe þaer aerst comon wendon, þaet hig sceoldon mare onfon, þa onfengon hig syndrige penegas. 11) þ ongunnon hig murcnian ongen þa hiredes ealdor, 12) And þus cwaedon, þas ytemestan worhton ane tide, and þu dydest hig gelice us, þe baeron byrþeana on pises daeges haetan. 13) þa cwaep he, and swarigende hyra anum, Eala þu freond, ne do ic þe naenne teonan; hu ne come þu to me to wyrceanne wiþ anum peninge?

1) The kyngdam of heuenes is lic to an husbond man, that wente out first erly, to hyre workemen in to his vyne3erd. 2) Forsothe the couenaunt maad with workmen, of a peny for the day, he sente hem in to his vyne3erd. 3) And he, goa out about the thridde hour, say oþer stondynge ydil in the chepynh. 4) And ne seide to hem, Go and 3ee in to my vyne 3erd, and that that shal be ri3thful, I shal 3eue to 3ou. Sotheli thei wenten forth. 5) Forsothe eft soone he wente out aboute the sixte hour, and the nynthe, and dide on liche manere. 6) But aboute the elleuenthe houre he wente out, and foond oþer stondynge and he seide to hem, What stonden 3e her ydil al day? 7) Thei seien to hym, For no man hath hirid us. He soith to hem, Go and 3e in to my vyne3erd. 8) Forsothe whenne euerynge was maad, the lord of the vyne 3erd seith to his procuratour, Clepe the workmen, and 3elde to hem her hiire, bygynnyng at the laste til to the firste. 9) Therefore wheane thei weren comen, that camen about the elleuenth hour, and thei token synguler pens. 10) Trewly and the firste cummyng demeden, that thei wern to take more, trewly and thei token echon by hym silf a peny. 11) And thei takynge grutcheden a3eins the husbond man, 12) Seyinge, These laste diden worche oon our, and thou hast maad hem euen to us, that han born the charge of the day and hete.

ANGLO-SAXON, 995
continued

14) Nim þæt þin ys, and ga; ic
wylle þysum ytemestum syllan,
eal swa mycel swa þe.

15) Opþe ne mot ic don þæt ic
wylle? Hwæþer þe þin eage
manful ys, forþam þe ic god eom?

16) Swa beoþ þa ytemestan
ytemeste, and þa ytemestan
fyrreste; soþlice manega synt
geclypede, and feawa gecorene.

WYCLIFFE, 1389
continued

13) And he answeyng to oon of
hem, seide, Frend, I do thee no
wronge; whether thous hast nat
accordid with me for a peny?

14) Take that that is thine; and
go; forsothe Y whole 3eue and to
chis the laste man, as and to thee.

15) Wher it is nat leful to me for
to do that that I wole? Wher
thin ei3e is wickid, for I am good?

16) So there shulen be the last
men the firste, and the firste men
the laste; for many ben clepid,
bot few chosun.

PARABLE OF THE VINEYARD (MATTHEW 20:1-16)
(continued)

TYNDALE, 1526

1) For the kyngdom off heven ys lyke vnto an housholder, which went out erly in the morninge, to hyre labourers into hys vnyarde. 2) And he agreede with the labourers, for a peny a daye, and sent them into his vnyarde. 3) And he went out about the thyrde houre, and sawe other stondyng ydell in the market place. 4) And sayd vnto them, Go ye also into my vnyarde, and whatsoever is right, I will geve you. And they went there way. 5) Agayne he went out about the syxte, and nynthe houre, and dyd lyke wyse. 6) And he went out aboute the eleventhe houre, and founde other stondyng ydell; and sayde vnto them, Why stonde ye here all the daye ydell? 7) They sayde vnto hym, Because no man hath hyred vs. He sayde to the, Goo ye also into my vnyarde, and whatsoever shalbe right, that shall ye receave. 8) When even was come, the lorde of the vnyarde sayde vnto hys steward, Call the labourers, and geve them their hyre, begynnyng at the laste tyll thou come to the fyrste. 9) And they whiche were hyred aboute the eleventhe houre cam, and receaved every man a peny.

10) Then cam the fyrst, supposyng that they shulde receave mooare, and they like wyse receaved every man a peny.

11) And when they had receaved it they grudged agaynsi the good man of the housse,

12) Sayng, These laste have wroght but one houre, and thou hast made them equall vnto us, which have born the burthen and heet of the daye.

13) He answered to one of the, saynge, Frende, I do the no wronnge; dyddeste thou not agre withe me for a penny?

14) Take that which is thy duty, and goo thy waye; I will geve vnto this last, as moche as to the.

15) Ys yt not lawfull ffor me to do as me listeth with myne awne? Ys thyne eye evyli, because I am good?

16) Soo the laste shalbe fyrste, and the fyrste shalbe laste; for many are called, and feawe be chosen.

STUDY GUIDE II (continued)

- 3) ynezerd (verse 1)
 4) kyngdara (verse 1)
 erlý (verse 1)
 hyre (verse 1)
 peny (verse 2)
 ydil (verse 3)

In Mod. E. how are the underlined letters in the following groups of words pronounced?

1. heyen (verse 1) geve (verse 4)
 ynyarde (verse 2) elevente (verse 6)
2. vnto (verse 1)
 vs (verse 7)
3. hve (verse 1)
 vnyarde (verse 2)
 stondyng (verse 3)
4. vnyarde (verse 2)
 ye (verse 7)

3. a. What do the underlined letters in the following O.E. words mean?

What is the equivalent in Modern English?

- daeges haetan (verse 12)
daeges weorce (verse 2)
penige (verse 13)

- b. What do the underlined letters in the following O.E. words mean? What replaces them in M.E. and Mod. E.?

O.E.	M.E.	Mod. E.
(v.9) pe <u>g</u> ecomon	thei weren comen	they can
(v.3) he <u>g</u> eseah	he say	he saw
(v.16) manega... <u>g</u> eclypede	many ben. clepid	many are called
(v.16) feawa <u>g</u> ecorene	few chosun	fewe be chosun

4. "Translate" the following. In everyday language how would we say the same thing?

- he ut-eode (verse 3)
 He geseah opre on straete idele standan. (verse 3)
 þ cwaep he (verse 4)
 us nan man ne hyrode (verse 7)

LANGUAGE CHANGE

The spoken and printed texts of the Bible passages in Modern English, Middle English, and Old English, make it evident that over a period of time many changes have occurred in the English language. There are changes in the alphabet, in spelling, in pronunciation, in inflection, and in word order.

In the OE and ME alphabets there are symbols that do not exist in our present alphabet. In OE a th sound was represented by the symbol þ as in þe, wiþ, þa. Today the letters t and h represent that sound as in the, with, than. In ME the y sound as in vineyard and you was represented by the symbol ȝ: vynezerd, ȝou.

Some of the letters in our alphabet today were pronounced differently in the 10th Century, so that there have been many spelling changes in the English language. In OE the letter c had a k sound: this is evident in the words weorce, cwaep, clypa. The combination sc was pronounced as an sh sound as in sceoldon. The letter g was pronounced in two different ways. In the words gelic, ga, agynn, the g was pronounced as it is in the word green. In the words wingearð and ge, the g was pronounced like the y in year. In ME the letter u was pronounced in two distinct ways. In the words heuenes, couenaunt, and geue, the u had a v sound as in very. However, in husband, syngular, and cummynge, the u was pronounced as it is in the word plus.

In Modern English the y had two distinct sounds. In heven, geve, and receave, the v was pronounced as it is in velvet; however, in vnto and vs the v was pronounced as the u in under. Besides being pronounced as the y in year (vynyarde and ye), the y was also pronounced as the i is pronounced in sip; examples of the latter are hys, vynyarde, stondynȝ, and ys.

In OE and ME pronunciation as a whole was different than it is today because each letter was pronounced. For instance, in the OE words rice, eode, tide, the final e was pronounced like the a sound in father; today we usually do not pronounce final sounds. In the word win-geard both the e and the a are pronounced more distinctly than they are today in the word ear; the pronunciation of eode, weorce, and heora is similar. This pattern of pronunciation is the same in the following ME words: heuenes, vynezerd, forsothe, and thridde.

From comparing OE and Mod. E. words it is evident that there have been inflectional changes. In verse two in the word daeges the es is an inflectional ending which indicates possession; thus, today the phrase daeges weorce would be expressed work of the day or day's work. Another example of this change occurs in verse 12. In OE the ge prefix attached to the verbs is an inflectional ending that indicates the past tense. In ME and Mod E. this prefix is replaced by forms of the verb to be or is expressed by the past tense. Examples of this change are be gecomon (OE) which becomes thei weren comen (ME) which becomes they cam (Mod E.) which today is they came or they have come; feawa gecorene (OE) which becomes few chosun (ME) which becomes feawe be chosun (Mod E.) which today is few are chosen or few were chosen.

Another significant change in the English language involves a change in word order. In OE he ut-eode meant he out-went; one says, he went out. As in ME and Mod E. he geseah oþre on straete idele standan (OE) meant he saw others on the street idle standing; today we would say on the street he saw others standing idle. Other examples occur in verses four and seven.

From these examples it is evident that changes concerning alphabet, spelling, pronunciation, inflections, and word order have occurred in the English language.

LESSON #6: THE GERMANIC LANGUAGE FAMILY (optional for bright students)

OBJECTIVE: To familiarize the students with the characteristics of Germanic languages.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

A. Distribute copies of the four main characteristics of Germanic languages. Discuss each characteristic and give examples of each.

1. A simpler conjugation of verbs (only two tenses), including a twofold classification (strong and weak);
2. a twofold classification of adjectives (strong and weak);
3. a fixed stress accent;
4. a regular shifting of stopped (or explosive) consonants.

If the class is not familiar with words such as conjugation, tense, and consonant, explain these words as the lesson develops.

B. Explanation of Characteristic #1:

1. German and English, both Germanic languages, show analytical structure, whereas Latin and Greek display synthetic structure. In a phrase such as "I had loved" or "ich hatte geliebt" (German), we have three separate words that function as a single group. In Latin the same phrase appears as "amaveram." "Amaveram" is equivalent to "I had loved," but it is made up of inseparable parts that cannot occur by themselves. The English analytic structure displays separate units in combination, functioning as a single group, whereas the Latin synthetic structure shows inseparable units in combination.
2. Have the students give examples of the way a certain verb is conjugated in a foreign language they are taking and write its English equivalent next to it.
3. Latin, French, and Spanish verbs have a very elaborate series of synthetic forms to show differences in mood, tense, person, and number. Greek is even more elaborate. English in contrast has a simpler conjugation of verbs. It is identified as having only two tenses, one to express past time, the other to express present and future. The Germanic verb's most distinctive feature is its use of -ed and -t in English and -te and -t in German to indicate the past tense (preterit) and past participle. The addition of -ed or -t to verbs in English to show the past tense or the past participle creates a verb that we call a "weak" verb as in walk, walked. Most verbs belong to this "weak" group. Some verbs historically correspond to other languages. These verbs are called "strong" verbs and are recognized by internal vowel change as in sing, sang, sung.
4. Now distribute to the class a list of strong and weak verbs and have them write the past tense (preterit) and participle of each. Have them also give an example of analytic structure and synthetic structure, using an example in English and its equivalent in Latin, French, or Spanish.

C. Explanation of Characteristic #2:

Germanic languages have a twofold classification of adjective (strong and weak), but English through constant change has lost all declension of the adjective. There is no change in the adjective "good" in phrases such as "good men" and "these good men," but in Old English the same phrases appear as "gōde menn" and "þas gōdan menn." It is easy to see that adjectives did change in Old English and this shows its relationship to other Germanic languages. Although we do not continue this distinctive feature in Modern English, we know we possess it in Old English.

D. Explanation of Characteristic #3:

If we look at the accent in Greek or Latin words we see that the accent shifts its position as in "podos," "podi," "poda" (Greek), and "amās," "amāt," "amāmūs," "amatis" (Latin). In English we tend to stress the first syllable (prefixes excluded). The Germanic language places its accent on the base syllable and it is fixed.

With few exceptions, accent in Germanic languages is a matter of stress and not pitch accent as in other languages.

E. Explanation of Characteristic #4:

1. Germanic languages display another distinctive characteristic in that there is almost a regular shifting of the Indo-European stopped consonants: ([b], [k], [t], [g], [p]). Other Indo-European languages kept the original Indo-European sounds, but the Germanic shifted. This shift can be discovered by comparing hundreds of words whose meaning is very close, but whose forms differ between the Germanic and non-Germanic branches of the Indo-European language family. A definite pattern can be seen.

2. Grimm's Law

bh > b	b > p	p > f
dh > d	d > t	t > th
gh > g	g > k	k > h

p, t, and k shifted first, leaving room for b, d, and g to shift. Finally bh, dh, and gh shifted. The process took place only once so that bh, dh, and gh did not shift to b, d, and g, and then to p, t, and k. Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, Irish, etc. illustrate how other languages did not undergo this change, and Old Norse, Old High German, Old English, Old Saxon, etc., illustrate how the Germanic languages, of which they are members, underwent this shift.

C. Explanation of Characteristic #2:

Germanic languages have a twofold classification of adjective (strong and weak), but English through constant change has lost all declension of the adjective. There is no change in the adjective "good" in phrases such as "good men" and "these good men," but in Old English the same phrases appear as "gōde menn" and "þās gōðan menn." It is easy to see that adjectives did change in Old English and this shows its relationship to other Germanic languages. Although we do not continue this distinctive feature in Modern English, we know we possess it in Old English.

D. Explanation of Characteristic #3:

If we look at the accent in Greek or Latin words we see that the accent shifts its position as in "podos," "podi," "poda" (Greek), and "amās," "amāt," "amāmūs," "amatis" (Latin). In English we tend to stress the first syllable (prefixes excluded). The Germanic language places its accent on the base syllable and it is fixed.

With few exceptions, accent in Germanic languages is a matter of stress and not pitch accent as in other languages.

E. Explanation of Characteristic #4:

1. Germanic languages display another distinctive characteristic in that there is almost a regular shifting of the Indo-European stopped consonants: ([b], [k], [t], [g], [p]). Other Indo-European languages kept the original Indo-European sounds, but the Germanic shifted. This shift can be discovered by comparing hundreds of words whose meaning is very close, but whose forms differ between the Germanic and non-Germanic branches of the Indo-European language family. A definite pattern can be seen.

2. Grimm's Law

bh > b	b > p	p > f
dh > d	d > t	t > th
gh > g	g > k	k > h

p, t, and k shifted first, leaving room for b, d, and g to shift. Finally bh, dh, and gh shifted. The process took place only once so that bh, dh, and gh did not shift to b, d, and g, and then to p, t, and k. Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, Irish, etc. illustrate how other languages did not undergo this change, and Old Norse, Old High German, Old English, Old Saxon, etc., illustrate how the Germanic languages, of which they are members, underwent this shift.

Non-changing language examples

b

Lithuanian troba (house)
Old Bulgarian slabic (weak, slack)
Lithuanian dubus

d

Latin dentem
Greek edein
Russian dva

g

Sanskrit yuga
Greek (gi) gno (skein)
Latin genu

p

Greek plotos (floating)
Latin nepos
Persian pidar

t

Polish torn
Latin tu
Old Latin tongere
Russian Matt
Russian tri

k

Greek deka
Latin canem
Irish cridhe

Changing language examples

p

Old Norse throp (village)
English sleepp
English deepp

t

English tooth
English eatt
Old English twa (two)

k

English yoke
English know
German Knie (knee)

f

English flood
Old English nfa (nephew)
English father

th

English thorn
English thou
English think
English mother
English three

h

Gothic taihun (ten)
German Hund (dog)
English heart

Grimm's Law is modified somewhat by Verner's Law. A bright student in the class can do research on this topic and present it to the class. It is rather a complex law and the teacher may wish to bypass it. The important thing is that the class see the relationship of the members of the Indo-European language family and the distinctive features of the Germanic languages that are members of this larger family.

F. Develop in class discussion specific statements about the German languages to be included in the students' notebooks.

LESSON #7: LOAN WORDS

OBJECTIVE: To illustrate periods and sources of English vocabulary borrowing.

MATERIALS: Passages for etymological analysis.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute passage one, which is from an advertisement for travel in Great Britain. Ask the students to look up the etymologies for the following words: castle, basks, small, breeze, ripples, loch, afternoon, travel, around, sights, schedule, loaf, umpteen.
- B. Discuss with the students how these words illustrate the sources of English vocabulary.
- C. Distribute the second passage, which is intended to illustrate the major periods of borrowing from Latin, French, and Scandinavian. The teacher should bear in mind that there are four major chronological periods of borrowing from Latin: 1) while the Anglos and Saxons were on the European continent (referred to as Continental AS), 2) the Seventh Century borrowings which came into Old English directly from Latin through the missionary efforts of Christian monks and priests; 3) Middle English borrowings directly from Latin; and 4) Renaissance borrowings directly from Latin. (The teacher should note that the etymologies of this latter group are marked Ren. E < L on the accompanying sheet, but most dictionaries are likely to indicate only < L, thereby indicating Modern English as the receiver.)
- D. Ask the students to find the etymologies of the underlined words and to infer from these the major sources and periods of borrowing. A brief paper analyzing the sources and periods would be in order here. The student should use the words in the passages as illustrative examples. In seeking etymologies direct the students to dictionaries such as Webster's New World Dictionary, The Merriam-Webster Third International Dictionary, or The Shorter Oxford Dictionary.
- E. If there are too many words for each student to check, the words might be divided among the members of the class. They can pool their information during a class discussion.
- F. The third passage illustrates a much broader range of sources of English borrowing and may be used at the discretion of the teacher.
- G. Conclude the lesson with a discussion to determine the most appropriate material to include in each student's notebook.

Passage #1 for Etymological Analysis

A castle basks in the sun. A small Scottish breeze ripples across the loch. It is afternoon in the Highlands.

As you travel around Britain, sights like this may tempt you to forget your schedule and loaf. Go ahead. Britain offers umpteen ways to take it easy.

Passage #2 for Etymological Analysis

I awoke in a peaceful atmosphere on Sunday morning in my Madrid hotel. As I dressed in my shirt and trousers, I recalled the gourmet feast of the previous night. It had included perch; an egg omelette, a lettuce, tomato and radish salad; oysters; lobster; roast beef; wine; and cheese. The memory of the meal left me with no desire for breakfast.

As I went into the street a dirty fellow in a cheap, tattered coat and cap approached me for alms. I put a few pieces of money in a cup which he had thrust under my nose. Poverty is a normal expectation in Spain and charity is regarded as a virtue. A number of other beggars were conspicuous among the people approaching church. An old lady with a rosary held tightly in one hand scowled, put a few coins into a beggar's cup and hurried into the church.

The mass was to begin in a few minutes. As I entered the church doors, I could see the altar, the pulpit, a bishop resplendent in his mitre, and the poor sitting near the back of the church, their clothes tattered and torn. The contrast of Spain was apparent; the joy I had taken in the feast of the previous night was gone.

Passage #3 for Etymological Analysis

An Exercise in Ethnic Sources of American Words
Cynthia Templeton

To be an American is to be many things. Ours is a vast country and within its boundaries lie many different ways of life. A journey through this land is like a journey through a mammoth kaleidoscope. And some places where all magic is made, the great wheel turns and in a gypsy whirl the designs form again and again--and the traveler picks his way through the odd and the ugly, the beautiful and the wild designs of American culture.

In the South, he finds American life slow and gentle--especially if viewed from a hammock on a shaded veranda with the sun checkering a pattern through oleander leaves. And if you are that traveler, you remember the swift hot rains of summer--the tattoo of drops as they splash on the tobacco leaves. And you remember the scent of crushed jasmine after the rain. You remember fried bananas and candied yams, hominy grits and coffee thick with chickory flavor. You remember the polished mahogany in colonial houses and perhaps a sofa covered with scarlet silk taffeta. You remember the Southern lady with the cherubic smile and her hanky sprinkled with camphor for the mosquitoes, and with phlox for the gentlemen. You remember the slow skid of days into weeks and the loose slip of weeks falling like shale in a quiet gully. And it will be time to move on.

Perhaps you travel West through Texas and the prairie lands, and from out your window, you watch the sky. In the west, you learn colors as you've never known them. You learn that crimson is morning, sapphire is noon, azure is dusk, and cobalt is the last hour of night. In the desert, you learn that cactus blooms at dawn. You watch tornadoes play with sand, tossing it into geysers of color and losing it in a deep mountain chasm. Though buffalo no longer stand and stare, or panic with the wind, gophers watch you pass and at night, the coyote sings you his mournful song. For hours you gaze at the road beds, watching the fine shifting dirt glitter with quartz. Then suddenly, the landscape flattens and you feel as though you are driving on top of an egg. And the air, and the sun, and your tired eyes play tricks on you, and you may see camels walking upside down ahead of a caravan of silent wagons--strange, lonely pilgrims in this land. And as your mirage fades, the Rockies will rear like juggernauts threatening to crush the road on which you drive--and your car, a bantam defender, bravely battles with jiujitsu cunning these hearty goliaths of nature. And looking down from the Rockies' brow, you'll see the high ski runs, the sled trails, and --you'll see the sea.

Passage #3 for Etymological Analysis (continued)

Hebrew

cherub
camel
gopher

Arabic

camphor
coffee
cotton
crimson
sofa

Sanskrit

sapphire
candy

India

juggernaut

Portuguese

buffalo
veranda

Spanish

mosquito
tornado

Celtic

down

Anglo-Saxon

brow
roar
rear

Icelandic

geyser

Persian

jasmine
azure
caravan
checker
magic
scarlet
taffeta

Slavic

mammoth
polka

South American

mahogany

Japanese

jiujitsu

Mexican and West Indies

coyote
hammock
tobacco

Old Norse

dirt
skid
sky
flat
loose
odd
ugly
they
their
egg

Norwegian

ski

American Indian

hominny

African

banana
yam

Egypt

gypsy

Greek

panic
rhythm
cactus
phlox
chasm

Dutch

landscape
sled
wagon

Chinese

silk

Java

bantam
tattoo

German

cobalt
quartz
shale

Italian

pilgrim
American

Latin

nature
culture

LESSON #8: SEMANTIC CHANGES

OBJECTIVES: To recognize and define semantic change.
To recognize and define 6 types of semantic change: analogy, specialization, cognates, broadening, doublets, antonymic.
To trace semantic changes in loan words.

MATERIALS: Dictionary
Word Lists

PROCEDURES:

- A. This lesson focuses on the changes in the meaning of words, both referential and connotational. For the purpose of instruction, the complex and subtle changes in meaning have been divided into six categories. None of the categories is rigid nor mutually exclusive. Any given word may undergo several of the changes, and since the history of meaning is to some degree hypothetical, there is often room for disagreement. This fact should be made clear to the students early in the study so that they will not become confused by words which do not neatly fit into a given category.
- B. To introduce the six types of semantic change, distribute work sheet #1 and discuss each pair of examples one at a time.
1. Ask the students to give the current definition(s) for the word in American English.
 2. Trace the history abbreviated here with the student.
 3. Ask the students to describe what meaning changes which have taken place, and then hypothesize on the logic, or reasoning behind the change.
 4. Once a description has been agreed upon, ask the students to write the description briefly below the example.
 5. Ask the students to state the similarities between the two examples.
 6. After both examples have been discussed as above, label the type of change, define the label, and ask the students to explain the relationship between the label and the process. Ask the student to write the labels in the place provided on the worksheet.

Arriving at accurate descriptions will be difficult at first for the students. Questions and clues will have to be given by the teacher as discussion develops.

The following is a list of the types of changes with a brief explanation for the teacher.

- I. Analogy - People have a tendency to create implied metaphors between similar actions, events and objects. This is often expressed verbally by transferring a word from one situation to another similar situation. A current example would be the colloquial expression "to rub out" as a euphemism for "killing," derived from "rubbing out a mark," or "erasing." Hypothetically, these two examples are the historical result of this tendency. In both cases, the original metaphor has been lost.

The similarity between gathering flowers for a bouquet and gathering good literary selections for a collection (anthology) is the analogy in example A. The similarity between a portion of something separated from the whole, and the mark which separates parts of a sentence (comma) is the analogy of example B. There may be a visual comparison operating here based on the shape and size of a comma.

- II. Specialization: Words which have undergone specialization are words whose meaning has become more specific. Robot, for example, is derived from "robotnik," which refers to a slave, which is derived in turn from the more general word, robata, meaning work. The meaning today has been narrowed to include only mechanical workers, created by man in his own image. Infant is the result of a specialization in the use of the word infans. In original Latin this word referred to anything which was unable to speak. Today it is applied only to

babies, who, of course, do not yet speak, or to anyone exhibiting the behavior of a small child.

- III. Cognates: Cognates occur when words from the same source are assimilated into different languages, and then develop different meanings. The result is that several modern tongues contain similar words with different, though historically related, usages. The English words silly and knight are cognates of the modern German words selig (happy) and knabe (boy). They may be traced back to common sources, Old Saxon salig and the Indo-European base gnegh-.
- IV. Broadening: The opposite of specialization, broadening involves a generalization of a word's meaning. Originally, persona referred specifically to the mask worn in drama. The meaning was broadened to include the people behind the mask and the role they played, and finally any individual who "plays a role" in life. Illustrating the overlap of these categories, the broadening probably occurred as a result of analogy. Rival is derived from rivalis, a word which indicated "one living on the opposite side of the stream from another." Today the meaning is expanded to cover anyone in competition with another, as the Roman on either side of the river very often was.
- V. Doublet: Doublets are two words in the same language which have developed from the same root word. The most striking doublets are those in which the two words have entirely unrelated, often incongruous, meanings. Perfume and fumigate, both derived from the Latin word fumus, differ radically in both denotation and connotation. The same is true for tavern and tabernacle.
- VI. Antonymic Change: The near-reversal in meaning in many words through the centuries gives rise to the term antonymic to describe such changes. Although they are not always true antonyms the change is so drastic that the term is arbitrarily used. A simple comparison of "nice" and "silly" with their original meanings, illustrates the type of change.
- C. To apply the concepts introduced in worksheet I in a more independent situation, divide the class into heterogeneous groups and distribute worksheet.
- II. Have the students, as a group, analyze the examples in the same way as the whole class worked through the first worksheet. When they have finished, conduct a whole class discussion to compare, evaluate and correct the small group work.
- D. To evaluate the comprehension of individual students, assign a list of selected words for research. The information may be gathered from a good classroom dictionary or from various dictionaries and books on word origins in the library. Ask each student to write out the pertinent etymology of each word, label the type of meaning change which has taken place, and write a brief explanation of the possible reasons for such a change.

Words for individual analysis:

1. hyperbole
 2. deer
 3. magazine
 4. comrade
 5. friend
 6. free
- E. The worksheet "Dead Metaphors and Doublets" may be used at the discretion of the teacher with the class or with particular students who either need reinforcement or are ahead of the class.
- F. Conclude the lesson with the two page worksheet, "A Composition on Semantic Change."
- G. Conclude the unit by having students complete their notebook entries. Have each student review his notebook and then write a single paragraph to introduce it. Collect the notebooks and grade them.

WORKSHEET: DEAD METAPHORS AND DOUBLETS

Many words that once embodied sharp metaphors have been used so long that the comparison they originally conveyed has been forgotten. We call these words "dead" metaphors. We have already noticed the dead metaphors in intelligence and comprehend. Here are some words that you will find more interesting to use when you know the lost metaphor that each conceals. Look up the origin of these words in a good dictionary and be ready to explain the dead metaphor in each case.

- | | |
|---------------|-----------------|
| 1. aplomb | 11. magazine |
| 2. capricious | 12. muscle |
| 3. career | 13. prevaricate |
| 4. contrite | 14. precipitate |
| 5. delirium | 15. result |
| 6. easel | 16. sarcasm |
| 7. eliminate | 17. subtle |
| 8. embarrass | 18. superfluous |
| 9. eradicate | 19. tribulation |
| 10. grenade | 20. urchin |

DOUBLETS

Consult an unabridged dictionary. Sometimes you will find that one of the words retains the original meaning and the other is a later development; sometimes both have left the original meaning far behind. Tell what element of meaning is common to each set of doublets, what the original meaning was, and how the other meanings appear to have developed.

If the dictionary you use gives definitions in the order of their historical development, as most dictionaries do, the order will help you see the way the meaning changed. The explanatory notes at the beginning of your dictionary tell whether historical order or frequency of use determines the order of the definitions. Do not overlook quotations which show you how a word was used at a certain date.

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1. daft, deft | 11. parole, palaver |
| 2. danger, dominion | 12. poignant, pungent |
| 3. etiquette, ticket | 13. praise, price |
| 4. genteel, jaunty | 14. sargeant, servant |
| 5. guest, hostile | 15. shirt, skirt |
| 6. jealous, zealous | 16. sole, sullen |
| 7. lap, lapel | 17. soprano, sovereign |
| 8. lace, lasso | 18. tabernacle, tavern |
| 9. mosquito, musket | 19. tradition, traitor |
| 10. onion, union | 20. vast, waste |

Worksheet I: Types of Semantic Change

I. _____ (label)

- A.) Am.E. - anthology -
Gk. - anthologia - "flowering gathering"
Gk. - anthos - "flower" + lego - "gather"

Description:

- B.) Am.E. - comma -
Gk. - komma - "a portion cut off"

Description:

II. _____ (label)

- A.) Am.E. - robot -
Czech. - robotnik - "slave"
Czech. - robota - "work"

Description:

- B.) Am.E. - infant -
Latin - infans - unable to speak

Description:

III. _____ (label)

- A.) Am. E. - silly -
Mo.Gr. - selig - blessed > O. Saxon-
salig - "happy"

Description:

- B.) Am. E. - knight -
Mo.Gr. - knobe - "servant" > IE base
gnegh -

Description:

IV. _____ (label)

- A.) Am.E. - person -
L. - persona - part played in drama
L. - persona - mask used in drama

Description:

- B.) Am.E. - rival -
L. - rivalis - "one living on the opposite side
of the stream from another"

Description:

V. _____ (label)

- A.) Am.E. - perfume -
L. - perfumare - "to smoke"
L. - fumus - "smoke"

- Am.E. - fumigate -
L. - perfumare - "to smoke"
L. - fumus - "smoke"

Description:

- B.) Am.E. - tavern -
L. - talurna - "hut, booth"

- Am.E. - tabernacle -
L. - taberna - "hut, booth"

Description:

VI. _____ (label)

- A.) Am.E. - nice -
E. - nice - "difficult, precise"
E. - nice - "shy or coy"
M.E. - nice - "foolish"
L. - nescio - "ignorant"

Description:

- B.) Am.E. - silly -
M.E. - seli - "good, blessed, innocent"

Description:

Worksheet II: Small Group Analysis of Semantic Change.

1. _____ (label)

Am.E. - marshal -
E. - marshal - "military commander"
ME. - marescal - "high officer in charge of military"
ME. - marescal - "master of the horse in a royal household"
OHG. - marahscalk - "horse servant"

Description:

2. _____ (label)

AmE. - album -
L. - albus - "white, blank"

Description:

3. _____ (label)

AmE. - girl -
ME. - gírle - "youngster of either sex"

Description:

4. _____ (label)

- a. AmE. - corn -
A.S. - corn - "seed, grain"
- b. British - corn - "grain"
A.S. - corn - "seed, grain"
- c. Scot. - corn - "oats"
A.S. - corn - "seed, grain"

Description:

5. _____ (label)

AmE. - peculiar -
O.E. - peculior - "exclusive property of someone"
L. - peculium - "private property"
L. - pecus - "cattle"

Description:

6. _____ (label)

Am.E. - cretin -
Gk. - Christos - "anointed"
Am.E. - Christian -
Gk. - Christas - "anointed"

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

**A UNIT ON
FORM CLASSES (MORPHOLOGY)**

Distributed by

**The School District of Aiken County
Office of the Superintendent**

**CURRICULUM DIRECTOR
Leonard V. Kosinski**

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LESSON #1: TAXONOMIC CLASSIFICATION

OBJECTIVES: To classify words according to the form and structure of their referents.

MATERIALS: Exercises

PROCEDURES:

A. To introduce students to idea of classification, ask them to suggest various ways in which they could group members of their own class. (If no suggestions are forthcoming, mention situations in which they themselves classify people--telephoning, invitations to parties, etc.)

1. How do you locate a friend to call him up: (alphabetically)
2. How do you describe an "average" seventh grader?

Students will volunteer such possible groupings as height, weight, first letter of last name, color of hair, eyes and skin, place of residence, country in which parents (and grandparents) were born, intelligence, grades, interests (hobbies), and so on.

Chart the class under one of above groupings on board.

B. To classify objects according to form and structure, distribute Exercise 1, and ask students to classify the terms on the sheet according to their referents. As they work, circulate to give help where needed.

SAMPLE CLASSIFICATION (for the teacher)

<u>Mammals</u>	<u>fish</u>	<u>plants</u>	<u>non-living</u>
whale	shark	ivy	chair
seal	cod	oak tree	desk
cow	pike	geranium	sky
human	catfish	pansy	ocean
dog	trout	cactus	paper
platypus	puck	evergreen	stove
cat	blue gill	jack-in-the-pulpit	pen
sheep	sun fish	dogwood	pin
bull	tuna	pachysandra	suit
kangaroo	salmon		name
	bull head		cloth
	angel fish		calendar
	guppies		stone
			matches
			sand
			gold
			granite
			petrified wood
			glass

C. When they have completed the assignment, have two students place their results on the board. Discuss the discrepancies with the class and objectify with the students the process they have used in making decisions as to category. Point out the difficulty of discovering sound bases for judgement in the cases of discrepancies.

D. To reinforce the process of classification, distribute Exercise 2 and ask the students to follow the same procedure as in Exercise 1. Again discuss discrepancies, and summarize the process.

EXERCISE 1

Classify the following words into four groups on the basis of their referents.

whale	ivy	catfish	tuna
calendar	oak tree	cow	desk
paper	pin	kangaroo	geranium
dogwood	gold	piranha	angel fish
pansy	dog	sand	bull
perch	human	matches	suit
sheep	cactus	evergreen	pike
pachysandra	stove	cod fish	cloth
chair	name	seal	shark
stone	petrified wood	sunfish	glass
bullhead	cat	salmon	platypus
philodendron	bluegill	trout	guppy
	jack-in-the-pulpit		

EXERCISE 2

Classify the following words into groups on the basis of their referents.

granite	radish	sassafrass tree
rabbit	grackle	toad
beech	tulip tree	bat
whale	salamander	lizard
kiwi	rhinoceros	shale
muskellunge	man	green frog
baboon	quartz	opossum
clay	seal	purple finch

LESSON #2: NONSENSE SENTENCES

OBJECTIVES: To classify words according to position and inflectional ending.

MATERIALS: Nonsense paragraph.

PROCEDURE:

- A. To introduce the students to the idea of classifying words by structure, write the following nonsense sentences on the board. Make certain that the students understand that, whereas in Lesson 1 they were classifying the referents of words, in this lesson they are classifying the words themselves.

Thutly, the lanigest lops fleaped. The laps glimpsed and the penlils conped the flos. The clars mortly borded the flariest maks and the granest luns. The thuniest penlils glimpsed winsly.

Ask the students to study the paragraph to see if they can group the similar nonsense words (all words except the and and). Some of the students may not grasp the system of classification at first. To aid them and to allow the rest of the students to check their lists, ask one student to list his groups on the board. The student model selected to go on the board should consist of four groups categorized by ending. (Number the groups I, II, III, and IV.)

I	II	III	IV
lops	fleaped	lanigest	Thutly
laps	glimped	flariest	mortly
penlils	gonped	granest	winsly
flos	borded	thuniest	
clars	glimped		
maks			
luns			
fenlils			

After the words have been classified, ask the students how the words were grouped. They should answer by ending (-s, -ed, -est, -ly). At this point, the names commonly given each class of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) are unimportant. It would, however, simplify further discussion to introduce the standard signs: N, V, Adv., and Adj.

- B. To facilitate the classification of words by position, either use four different colors or write the sentences, leaving out the endings:

For example: _____ ly the _____ est _____ s _____ ed.

Ask the students if there is any repeated pattern in the position of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. For example, where do -s words most commonly appear? -ed words?

The students will eventually arrive at the definition of the positional patterns:

-s words (N) follow -est words follow <u>the</u> come before -ed words	-ed words (V) come after -s words	-est words (adj.) come after <u>the</u> come before -s words
-ly words (adv.) optional position (mobility)		

If the students suggest positions which will not always hold true (such as, -ed words before the) list them. Eventually in the unit they will prove invalid.

- C. Ask the students what kind of word always precedes a noun in the work they have done. Explain that since this kind of word determines that there will be a noun following, it is identified with the letter D, for the word determine.
- D. To give the students practice in classifying words by position and ending, have them classify the nonsense and English words in the following sentences.

Ask the students to make five columns on a sheet of paper and label the columns D, N, V, Adj., and Adv. After the students have listed the words in columns, discuss the basis for classification--ending and position. Examine as many of the sentences as needed to insure the students' understanding of the process.

If some of the students do not seem to grasp the classification, more sentences may be used for their benefit. Students who do understand the process can assist those who do not.

1. Tonly, the niest glep burked.
2. Homs weaped.
3. The flams shaned the fluiest glams and fleeped the lamest lors hodgely.
4. The sanis sparled the loos.
5. Boys jumped.
6. The girls cried softly.
7. Quickly, the boys peeled the ripest bananas.
8. The noblest knights saved the loveliest ladies.
9. The cats scratched the ugliest boys and climbed the nearest fences.
10. The noisiest fans screamed, hollered, and shouted, and the quietest fans waited patiently.

LESSON #3: VERBS

OBJECTIVES: To identify verbs: their inflections, combinations, and positions.
To identify verbs functioning as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs.

MATERIALS: Exercises 3 and 4.

PROCEDURE:

A. Review with the class the rules for verbs established in Lesson #2.

1. -ed ending
2. position after nouns

B. To discover other possible verb endings, on the board write: Yesterday the boy kicked the dog. Ask the class to pick out the verb. Change the statement to: Now the boy is _____ the dog. Ask the class to supply the correct form of the verb (kicking). Change the statement to: Now the boy _____ the dog. (kicks); then to: The boy has _____ the dog. (kicked). Point out that all of these endings (-s, -ed, -ing) are verb endings. To discover irregular inflections, go through the above procedure substituting a verb such as catch.

C. To reinforce the students' ability to recognize verb endings, distribute Exercise 3. Explain that to plus the verb form without any ending is called the infinitive. To help the students set up their papers correctly, go through the test frames using the verb kill. Emphasize the necessity of using the test frames to determine the correct verb form so that the students do not make careless mistakes dealing with the irregular verbs. Circulate while they are working. When they finish, discuss the external inflections of regular verbs and the internal inflections of the irregular verbs. Summarize by asking the class how they can distinguish any word that can function as a verb; they should answer that the word can undergo the changes required by each test frame.

D. At this time give the students a list of auxiliary verbs and explain that they can be used in combinations with other verb forms or alone. Illustrate by listing several examples, but do not belabor the point. An especially good class will probably notice that such words pattern in the verb position or with verbs, and, therefore, must function as verbs.

E. Distribute Exercise 4 and direct the students to complete part I in order to reinforce their ability to identify verbs. After discussing part I, go on to part II. This section of the exercise illustrates how some verb forms can function as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs. Put the sentence "The limping boy lost the race" on the board and ask the class to identify the words. They should be able to recognize that limping is basically a verb, but by its position in this case it is functioning as an adjective. If they do not understand, change the form of the word to limped. If the word is functioning as a verb, it should semantically be able to undergo such changes. Emphasize that the -ing form of a verb functions only as a verb when it is accompanied by at least one auxiliary verb.

EXERCISE 3

1. Jim always _____ when we are together.
2. While at the dance yesterday I _____ (to) it.
3. I have _____ (to) it before.
4. I am _____ (it) now.

to kill

to love

to hate

to talk

to work

to assemble

to type

to label

to travel

to exercise

to ring

to swim

to drink

to freeze

to know

to think

to ride

to send

to grow

to speak

to steal

EXERCISE 4

I. Identify the words in the following sentences. (N, V, adj, adv)

1. The happy boy laughed loudly.
2. The conservationists will try to save the forests.
3. The horses were chasing the red foxes.
4. The little boys flew the Japanese kite.
5. The healthiest girl swam the mile.
6. The angry children have broken the swing.
7. The car certainly could have hurt the children.
8. The flowers might have been killed suddenly.
9. The hungry kitten was crying impatiently.
10. The woman had bought the picnic food hungrily.

II. Identify the words in the following sentences. Be sure you consider all the rules we have established.

1. The laughing boy flew the wooden airplane.
2. The prancing horses excitedly led the parade.
3. The crying kitten found the unraveled yarn.
4. The running boys raced to win the contest.
5. The ranning won the contest.
6. The modernized house was finished hurriedly.
7. The four children had disobediently cut the blooming flowers.
8. The librarians will eliminate the unqualified students.
9. The dark clouds have hidden the twinkling stars.
10. The pretty girl did win the gum-chewing contest.

LESSON #4: NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

OBJECTIVES: To identify noun inflectional endings and noun position.

MATERIALS: Exercises 5, 6, 7, and 8.

PROCEDURES:

A. Review with the class the rules for nouns established in Lesson 2.

1. -s ending.
2. Position after determiner.
3. Position after adjectives.
4. Position before verbs.

B. To discover other determiners, set up the test patterns, "_____ boy is going," and "_____ boys are going." Ask the class to fill in the blanks with other words like the. (some, most, many, more, any, one, each, no, every, a several, etc.)

C. Ask the students to circle all the nouns in Exercise 5 and list above the noun the positional rule which it follows.

Example: Carca -- before verb
Whisperfoot -- before verb
Cougar -- after determiner
leap -- after determiner

D. Ask the students to explain what the -s ending on nouns indicates (plural). List nouns whose plurals are irregular (not formed by addition of -s or -es.)

Example: oxen, sheep, fish, etc.

E. As a guide for the students, set up test frames for nouns. Explain the usefulness of such frames for testing nouns. Any word which will fit both positions may be considered a noun. Set up the first frame for the students. Ask them to suggest the second.

1. The _____ is nice.
2. The boy sees the _____.

E. Assign Exercise 6.

F. To introduce pronouns to the students, distribute Exercise 7. Read the first paragraph with the students and ask them to fill in the blanks of the second paragraph. Ask the class to look up the prefix pro, as used with noun. They will see that pronoun means "in the place of a noun." Explain the fact that although some pronouns have been dropped from the English language, none have been added. Thus pronouns are considered a closed class of words. Ask the class to make a list of as many pronouns as they can.

Sample list

I, me, mine, myself, my	She, her, hers, herself
We, us, our, ours, ourself	It, its, itself
You, your, yours, yourself	They, them, their, theirs, themselves
He, him, his, himself	

Some of the students will notice that some of these pronoun forms may be used as determiners. List those which fit the determiner test frame "_____ coat" and "_____ coats."

G. Work Exercise 8 to determine nouns and pronouns.

EXERCISE 5

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. Carca danced slowly.
2. Whisperfoot sharpened five arrowheads.
3. The cougar caught the sneaking weasel.
4. One leap quickly positioned the big cat.
5. A whistle sounded two times.
6. Several stray dogs chased Arthur.
7. That author has written an exciting novel.
8. No teacher will accept any excuse.
9. Three thieves burgled this store.
10. Some giraffes were eating the pink blossoms.

EXERCISE 6

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. Maurice tramped ten miles.
2. The heavy rain will destroy the yellow daisies.
3. Yellow-Jacket has tracked several bears.
4. The debating team is challenging the other schools.
5. Each ferret was stalking an innocent rabbit.
6. The horrible monsters will surely astonish the movie-goers.
7. Some children will be given the free tickets.
8. Every leap counted four points.
9. Many boys were carrying the used books.
10. No child should tease any animal.

EXERCISE 7

Read paragraph I. Then fill in the blanks in paragraph II so that the meaning of the paragraph is not changed.

I. Yesterday the younger children decorated two dozen eggs for Easter. Sally wrote the names on the eggs, Alice decorated the eggs with flowers, and Bobby put the eggs in the dye. When Sally, Alice, and Bobby went to bed, Jack and Louise hid the eggs in the yard, so Sally, Alice, and Bobby could hunt for the eggs this morning. Sally, Alice, and Bobby hunted for the eggs for an hour. When Bobby noticed that Alice had more of the eggs, Bobby took one of Alice's eggs and put the egg in Bobby's basket. Alice said Alice didn't care.

II. Yesterday the younger children decorated two dozen eggs for Easter. Sally wrote the names on _____, Alice decorated _____ with flowers, and Bobby put _____ in the dye. When _____ went to bed, Jack and Louise hid the eggs in the yard so _____ could hunt for _____ this morning. _____ hunted for _____ for an hour. When Bobby noticed Alice had more of _____, _____ took one of _____ eggs and put _____ in _____ basket. Alice said _____ didn't care.

EXERCISE 8

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. She threw him a pencil.
2. He dropped his coat.
3. The cat dragged it slowly.
4. They quickly offered to recover it.
5. Her mother bought her a new dress.
6. We are enjoying his party; are you?
7. I hope I can have a car.
8. This house is theirs; that house is ours.
9. The owl lost its wisdom.
10. She wanted to do it herself.
11. That hat is mine.
12. John, will you close the front door?
13. They followed us.
14. Is this horse yours?
15. It certainly is the hottest day!

LESSON #5: PHRASE MARKERS

OBJECTIVES: To recognize the prepositional phrase structure.

MATERIALS: Exercises 9 and 10.

PROCEDURES:

- A. To introduce the students to phrase markers write the following sentence on the board:

"I was beside the statue."

Ask the students to pattern the sentence by identifying the parts of speech which they can recognize. (N, V, _____(D), N.) Ask them to fill in the blank with words like beside. (In, around, toward, above, against, under.) Explain to the class that these words are called prepositions. Place the pattern prep. (D) N on the board and ask the students to suggest words which will form this pattern in English. Label each word in the suggested prepositional phrases.

- B. Give the students the list of prepositions and ask them to use the prepositional phrase pattern in short sentences. Select some of the sentences the students have written and write them on the board. Underline the phrases signaled by prepositions. Circle the prepositions.
- C. To reinforce the concept of prepositional phrases, give the students Exercise 10, asking them to identify Nouns, Verbs, and Prepositional phrases.

EXERCISE 9

I. These words and groups of words can function as prepositions.

in	of	across	without	on account of
on	off	after	within	out of
into	up	against	like	
over	down	among	during	
under	near	along	except	
to	past	until	through	
at	outside	underneath	throughout	
by	inside	between	till	
for	toward	before	concerning	
from	above	beside	according to	
beyond	about	below	instead of	
behind	around	with	in spite of	

II. Prepositional phrases are made up of at least one preposition and a noun; determiners and adjectives can position between the preposition and noun.

In the following sentences circle each preposition and underline each prepositional phrase.

Example: She is in the corner.

1. The girls fell off the chair.
2. The rain is coming in the window.
3. From the school came the flood of children.
4. The flower stood alone in the glistening snow.
5. We laughed at the silly animals in their costumes.
6. The dried flower fell out of the book.

EXERCISE 10

Identify the words in each sentence; underline each prepositional phrase.

1. He ran down the street.
2. The girls jumped awkwardly over the fence.
3. Into the night rode Zorro on his silver stallion.
4. Around the corner came Mr. Robb.
5. After the party we walked to the drugstore.
6. Through the old house the winds were howling frightfully.
7. The teacher, the principal, and the student were in the office to talk.
8. She laughed and slipped under the desk with the green snake in her hand.
9. The lost boys hiked for three days without any food.
10. In the morning before homeroom they walk through the halls.
11. At first they noticed the child with the yellow shoes.
12. For four months the wanderer travelled around the world.

LESSON #6: CONJUNCTIONS AND CLAUSE MARKERS

OBJECTIVES: To recognize conjunctions and adverb clause markers.

MATERIALS: Exercises 11 and 12.

PROCEDURES:

A. To illustrate the use of conjunctions as joiners of parallel structures in a sentence, list the following sentences on the board.

1. He and I went to a movie.
2. They saw Jim and me after lunch.
3. The neighbor's children and our family traveled to New York for the week end.
4. He is taking either Jim or John.
5. I am tired whereas she is full of energy.
6. Neither the students nor the teachers want a shorter vacation.
7. I went to the store and then I returned home.

Underline the conjunctions in each sentence. Ask the students to label the words on either side of the underlined words. Then ask them to study the words or combinations of words to discover the function of the underlined words in the sentence. Students should see that the conjunctions join together like elements in a sentence. Label the words conjunctions and tell the class that in patterning the plus sign is used to indicate a conjunction. (as in N + N)

B. To illustrate the use of clause markers, write the following sentence on the board.

She hurried while I waited.

Ask the students to pattern the known parts of the sentence.

N V _____ N V

Some of the students may place a + instead of a blank, because while appears to perform the same function as the conjunctions just studied. Ask the students to fill in the blank with other words like while, excluding those labeled conjunctions (because, since, so, although, as) To distinguish between conjunctions and subordinators, list the following patterns on the board.

1. N + N V
(example - He and I left.)

2. N V _____ N V
(She drove and I walked.)

Ask the students to put the words because, since, so, although, and as in the pattern. They will discover that they will not function in that slot. Label the subordinators as clause markers. Explain to the students that they are called clause markers because they indicate the beginning of a clause. For practice in identifying clause markers, list the following sentences on the board.

1. Although I could not go, I enjoyed planning the trip.
2. Sarah waited until I was ready.
3. Judy graduated although she flunked math.
4. I left after I ...

To distinguish clause markers circle them on the board. Place parentheses around the rest of the clause in the first two sentences. Ask the students to isolate the clauses in the last two.

- C. To distinguish the difference between clauses and phrases, write the following sentences on the board.
1. She left because she was late.
 2. She left on the last train.

Ask the students to identify the clause in Sentence 1 and the phrase in Sentence 2. Identify with them the parts of speech within each structure. Ask them to define the difference between a clause and a phrase. Ask the students if the clause, without the marker, can stand alone as a sentence.

- D. To give the students further practice, assign Exercise 12.

EXERCISE 11

I. Co-ordinating Conjunctions

and
but
or
nor
for

Correlative Conjunctions

both...and
not only...but also
either...or
neither...nor
whether...or

Subordinating Conjunctions

after
although
as
as if
as long as
as soon as
because

before
if
in order that
since
so that
than
though

unless
until
when
whenever
where
wherever
while

- II. Select two words or two groups of words from each of the above classes of conjunctions and write sentences using these words. Exchange your papers; try to identify the conjunctions on the paper you receive without using your notes.

EXERCISE 12

Identify the words in each sentence; underline all clauses; put parentheses around phrases.

1. Although she needed the book, she left it in the library.
2. On her dresser was the picture of her hero.
3. When Jack and John jumped over the bushes, John got caught on a fence.
4. Each one received an A and four B's.
5. As soon as he gets to his house, he will call Leo and me.
6. Beyond the hill is the college town.
7. Neither the girl nor the dog wanted the candy.
8. They left the party because no one was having a good time.
9. Since the water had frozen and the snow had been cleared, we decided
to go skating.
10. For forty days and forty nights the water kept rising, and we kept
hoping for sunshine.
11. As long as you follow the directions, you will receive the proper credit.
12. Whether he goes or does not go, I am planning to make the trip
to Washington.

LESSON #7: SENTENCE PATTERNS

OBJECTIVES: To identify simple sentence patterns.

MATERIALS: Exercise 13

PROCEDURES:

- A. To introduce the concept of sentence patterns, ask the students to write 10 of the shortest sentences they can think of. They will write such sentences as:

Birds fly.
Dogs bark.
The boy ran.

Select some of the sentences they have written and write them on the board. Ask the students to identify the parts of speech, for example: N V
(D) N V

- B. To examine the importance of sentence patterns, ask the students if the words in the examples on the board can be changed around and still form an English sentence having the exact same meaning. Establish the point that in English the order of words in a sentence is very important. Scrambling sentences such as, boys several here are, will further illustrate this point to the students.

Write the following simple sentences on the board and ask the students to study the patterns:

1. The boy shouted
2. The boy called me.
3. the boy gave me some candy.
4. The class elected Bill, president.
5. She liked candy.
6. She is my sister.
7. The boy sat in the chair.
8. You give her some help.
9. We are a class.

Tell the class to study the sentences and find the sentence patterns. (For simplification ask the students to label only the nouns and verbs.)

- C. To show the class that we sometimes distinguish pattern by semantics (meaning), ask them to look at Sentences 3 and 4. Both of these have the sentence pattern N V N N. Ask the class if they notice any semantic difference between Bill and president and me and candy. They should see that Bill and president have the same referent, whereas me and candy, have two different referents. In order to distinguish this semantic difference, mark the patterns:

N V N N (same)
1 1

N V N N (different)
1 2

To practice recognizing the difference, ask the class to pattern the following sentences:

1. We gave him presents

4. The school presented Tom an award.

D. To explain the difference between be and other verbs in a sentence pattern, ask the class to look at Sentences 5 and 6. Ask them the difference in semantic relationship between she and candy and she and sister. Again they should see that she and candy have different referents whereas she and sister have the same referent. Ask them to study the following sentences and put a check next to those in which the first noun and the second noun have the same referent. Once they have identified Sentences 1, 4, and 5, ask them to find another similarity among the sentences.

(If they have difficulty identifying the forms of to be, review them briefly.) Tell the class that since be operates differently than other verbs, it is distinguished by the label be in a sentence pattern. Pattern the five sentences.

1. Robinson Crusoe is a book.
2. She threw a ball.
3. Mary closed the book.
4. Sally was president.
5. Some movies are a bore.

E. Ask the students to review what sentence patterns they have thus far labeled:

N V

N V N

N V N N
1 1

N be N

N V N N
1 2

For practice in recognizing these patterns, ask the students to work Exercise 13.

(Additional worksheets may be necessary, depending on how quickly the class grasps the sentence pattern concept.)

EXERCISE 13

Identify the sentence pattern in each of the following sentences.

1. The thief stole a car.
2. The girls called him Romeo.
3. She slammed the door.
4. The choir sang at the assembly.
5. She is her friend.
6. He had a dollar.
7. It is a dollar.
8. The mother had given the girls some beans.
9. The tallest man is the manager.
10. He gave the horse a kick.
11. The boy considered his sister a tomboy.
12. Each student bought five folders.
13. Books should give you knowledge.
14. The group was answering.
15. She ruined her favorite skirt.

LESSON #8: ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

OBJECTIVES: To identify the position and endings of adjectives and adverbs.

MATERIALS: Exercises 14, 15, 16.

PROCEDURES:

A. Ask the class what they know about adjectives from Lesson 2.

- est ending
- position before noun
- position after determiner

Ask the class to identify the adjectives in the following sentences:

1. The meanest man received his just reward.
2. Courage and justice are noble virtues.
3. The old, dilapidated, white frame house was deserted.
4. Some children are pleasant children.
5. The heavy, musty old car belonged to my father.

B. To identify the predicate position of an adjective, write the following sentences on the board and ask the class to underline the adjectives:

1. The cat's miaow was a weak miaow.
2. Nuclear war is destructive war.
3. The sea was a dangerous sea.
4. The Rocky Mountains are treacherous mountains.

Ask the class how these sentences would normally be shortened. (By omitting the noun and determiner after the verb, leaving only the adjective.) Then ask the students to try placing the final words in the previously formulated adjective position (between determiner and noun).

C. To reinforce the idea of predicate adjective position, write the following sentences on the board, and ask the class to name the adjectives. Underline them.

1. She is happy.
2. Mother seems pleased.
3. The sky looks overcast.
4. Games are fun.
5. Waste is needless.

D. To introduce possessives as adjectives, refer the students to the sentence, "The cat's miaow was weak." Ask what part of speech cat would usually be. (noun) In what position is it used in this sentence? (adj.) To show students that it is the 's ending which converts a noun to an adjective, place the following sentences on the board and ask the students to name the structure which converts the noun to an adjective.

1. The boy's story sounds true.
2. The neighbor's cat is a Siamese.
3. Yesterday's promises are forgotten.

Ask the class to supply more examples..

- E. To synthesize the preceding work on identifying adjectives, assign the students Exercise 14.
- F. To review adverbs as a class, ask the students to state what they have learned about adverbs from Lesson 2. List the two characteristics on the board.

1. ly ending
2. mobility in position

Write on the board, the sentence, "The birds flew swiftly," and ask the students to identify parts of speech. ((D) N V Adv.) Ask them if they can place the adverb elsewhere in the sentence. (Swiftly the birds flew. Adv. (D) N V; The birds swiftly flew. (D) N Adv. V.)

Write the following sentence on the board and ask the students where else they can place the adverb: "Quickly he dodged the ball." (He dodged the ball quickly. He quickly dodged the ball.)

Write the sentence patterns of the two examples on the board. Underline the Adv. position:

(D) N V Adv.	N V (D) N Adv.
Adv. (D) N V	Adv. N V (D) N
(D) N Adv. V	N Adv. V (D) N

Ask the class to state where adverbs may be placed.

Beginning of the sentence.
 End of the sentence.
 Between noun and verb of sentence.

A test of adverbs is to place the word in any one of the above positions and see if the sentence still makes sense.

- G. To give students practice in identifying adverbs, assign Exercise 15.
- H. To provide practice in distinguishing adjectives from adverbs, write the following sentences on the board:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. The girl looked lovely. | 1. His voice sounded manly. |
| 2. The girl looked quickly. | 2. His voice sounded loudly. |
-
- | |
|------------------------------|
| 1. The boy appeared ugly. |
| 2. The boy appeared quickly. |

Ask the class to apply the position test to tell the difference between adjectives and adverbs in such sentences.

Example: The girl lovely looked. (not adv.)
 The lovely girl. . . (adj.)

The girl quickly looked. (adv.)
 The quickly girl looked. (not adj.)

- I. To give the students practice in working with adverbs and adjectives, assign Exercise 16.

EXERCISE 14

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. Her new dress is pretty.
2. The homecoming queen looked beautiful.
3. The house's windows were dark.
4. The young boy had grown tall and handsome.
5. He ran his long, bony fingers over the rough surface of the old desk.
6. The dog's bark sounded mean and frightening.
7. Her mother's chocolate cake tasted best of all.
8. His summer shirt was orange, red, and yellow.
9. Gold and silver are valuable.
10. For the nation peaceful relationships with other countries have been beneficial.

EXERCISE 15

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. The story ended mysteriously.
2. The girl in the first row certainly knew the answers.
3. Suddenly the storm swept across the farm country.
4. The cat obviously was watching the little mouse.
5. The goat jumped over the fence easily.
6. The empty seat is there.
7. The baby fell down.
8. Here your jacket is.

EXERCISE 16

Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. The tumbling boys looked strange.
2. He openly admitted the crime.
3. The foreign students talked funny.
4. The little girls looked silly to the older boys.
5. The stray dog acted friendly toward the children.
6. The homely cat was playful.
7. Gracefully the football player passed the ball.
8. The green and white house belongs to that family.
9. The ripened peaches will surely taste sweet.
10. Before the test he anxiously sharpened his stubby pencil.

D. Ask the class to list all the sentence patterns and write a sentence for each pattern.

N V

N V N N
1 2

N be Adv.

N V Adj.

N V N

N be Adj.

N be N

N V N N
1 1

E. To give the class further practice in analyzing sentence patterns, assign Exercise 17.

EXERCISE 17

Identify the basic sentence pattern in each of the following sentences.

1. The chicken became a rooster.
2. The new school is red.
3. He jumped quickly.
4. The crowd looked terrible.
5. The boys chose him captain.
6. Each boy worked hurriedly.
7. She appeared sick.
8. They called him a clown.
9. That woman is my mother.
10. She is my best friend.
11. The fox seems sly.
12. The girl pouted in her room.
13. Immediately the rain began.
14. The gang waited near the drugstore.
15. Your dress looks lovely.

LESSON #10: DERIVATIONAL SUFFIXES

PURPOSE: To identify and use derivational suffixes.
To differentiate between derivational and inflectional suffixes.

MATERIALS: Exercise 18

PROCEDURES:

- A. To introduce the idea of derivational suffixes, give the students Exercise 18 and ask them to write the formulas for changing one part of speech to another. After they have finished the exercise, assign them the following words to transform into other parts of speech by adding endings. Label each part of speech as the suffixes are added.

regular
swift
crystal
moment
real

- B. Write the derivational suffixes on the board and beside them write the inflectional suffixes used in the previous lessons (-s, -ed, -ing, -est). Ask the students to examine the lists carefully to see if they can discover any difference in the usage of the two types of endings. The students may not see that inflectional suffixes are final (not taking any additional endings) whereas derivational suffixes are not final (inflectional and other derivational suffixes may be added). To aid their perception of the difference, place the following words on the board:

objected objectify objectified objectification

Remind the students that -ing is a verb inflection only when it appears with a form of to be preceding it. When it is used to create a noun or adjective it sometimes acts as a derivational suffix, as in the current expression, "The goingest people. . ."

EXERCISE 18

In the first sentence of the following pairs, one word is underlined; fill in the blank in the second sentence with a form of the underlined word.

Example: The girl purchased three items.
The clerk _____ the list. (itemized)

1. The harmony sounded lovely.

Finally, the singers _____ the music.

2. The man smashed a giant crystal.

The ice _____ beautifully.

3. The man planned a quick trip.

The train travelled _____.

4. The shy girl wanted a quiet dog.

The dog walked _____.

5. The bright boy wanted a bigger bike.

The lamp _____ the dark room.

6. The girl wanted pure milk.

The milk lacked _____.

7. He established a new school.

They visited the new _____.

8. Easily the athlete accomplished the feat.

The _____ pleased the boy.

9. The car transported the boys.

The girls also needed _____.

10. The teacher organized the project.

The new _____ was successful.

11. In each pair of sentences identify (N, V, etc.) the underlined word and the word you put in the blank. Are they the same? What caused the change in each case?

LESSON #11: REVIEW OF MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

OBJECTIVES: To review the identification of form classes and sentence patterns.

MATERIALS: Exercises 19 and 20.

PROCEDURES:

- A. To determine which students have problems with syntax and morphology, give the class Exercise 19 to analyze for sentence patterns and phrases. Use the results of this exercise to diagnose individual problems. If necessary, arrange small group work, student-to-student tutoring, or teacher-student conferences to provide additional instruction.
- B. Use Exercise 20 as an evaluation of the unit.

EXERCISE 19

A. Identify the words in the following sentences.

1. The sly foxes chased the yellow butterflies.
2. The horse gracefully leapt over the blockade.
3. The soldiers in their new uniforms looked handsome.
4. The prancing ponies were leading the holiday parade down the street.
5. Out of the water jumped the flying fish.
6. Across the lake from our cottage is the boat house.
7. He magically pulled the bird from his sleeve.
8. During the year each class published the school paper.
9. The scout troop hiked over the mountain and through the undergrowth.
10. Both she and I won a game of cards.

B. Identify the basic sentence pattern in each of the following sentences.

1. He might have been persuaded.
2. The song became a hit.
3. Several girls danced in the street.
4. She threw me the pencil.
5. The teacher looked angry.
6. The bear was riding a bicycle.
7. His brother called the boy an idiot.
8. The movie was Thunderball.
9. The water crystalized on the window.
10. Many girls run awkwardly.

EXERCISE 20

A. Identify the words in each sentence.

1. After the skiing we made some hot chocolate.
2. The mad bees chased their keeper around the pear orchard for an hour.
3. The boys in the back of the room were taking the final exam.
4. The powerful waves destructively crashed on the primitive boat.
5. The ducks eagerly gobbled the bread crumbs.

B. Identify the basic sentence pattern in each of the following sentences.

1. The harmonizing sounded professional.
2. The criminal should have been caught.
3. That boy is my cousin.
4. They called him the rifleman.
5. Evil is bad.
6. Bill gave John a car.
7. They elected Jane secretary.
8. The actors were performing on the stage.
9. The soprano sang sweetly.
10. Jake appeared a madman.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON DEFINITION AND ETYMOLOGY
Seventh Grade Average Curriculum

RELATED UNITS:
Semantics (7,8 A)
Symbolism 9
Dialects 8

Distributed by

The School District of Aiken County
Office of the Superintendent

CURRICULUM DIRECTOR
Leonard V. Kosinski

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Project Upgrade
P.O. Drawer 771
Aiken, S.C. 29801

TEACHING THE UNIT

The first part of the Definition and Etymology Unit for seventh grade average students is designed to equip the students with the ability to formulate their own definitions. Definition is the process of explaining the meaning of a word or phrase. There are various methods of defining. The simplest method is definition by synonym. But this method is effective only if exact and clear synonyms are available. The lesson on definition by synonym attempts to focus on the connotational shades of meaning among synonyms. Experts in rhetoric prefer formal, analytical definition, which consists of two steps: 1. classification, which places the item in question in its general class or genus, and 2. listing particular qualities, which indicates in what way the item in question differs from others in its class. This method, definition by analysis, is inductively introduced to the students as they formulate a definition by analysis and determine a list of problems to avoid when defining by analysis. While reading, often the meaning of a word is accurately guessed because of the context. To demonstrate this method of definition by putting the word into sentences or paragraphs where the meaning can be understood, nonsense paragraphs are read and written by the students. Clues to the meaning are listed and then the corresponding meaning is given. The fourth method of definition in this unit is definition by demonstration where a word is defined by using pictures, maps, graphs, or actions.

Etymology, the study of the historical, mythological, and social background and development of present day language, is the second part of this unit. It introduces the students to the skills necessary for tracing the history of words in dictionaries, encyclopedias, and resource books. The amount of time spent in class developing familiarity with the dictionary and the symbolic etymology of words depends on the ability of the class. In this unit, several words are traced by the class; then in small groups the students receive reinforcement by achieving with less teacher direction. The final test of the students' ability to handle the materials developed in the Definition and Etymology Unit is writing a paper combining the skills taught in the two parts. The students suggest an outline containing the major aspects of this unit and a model paper is written following this outline. After each student has shown an understanding of the format established in the model, he selects a word about which to write a paper that follows the model. Conferring with the students about the resource books and their rough drafts enables the students to proceed independently in their analysis of their word.

The suggested exercises used for reinforcement in both sections of this unit may be supplemented or deleted depending on the range of ability of the class. The better students might deal with doublets, the problem of synchronous and diachronous elements in the meaning of words, and with euphemisms. For some students, more drill work may be added instead of the final paper. This unit is a guide of suggested procedures to follow when teaching etymology and definition in the seventh grade.

LESSON #1: DEFINITION BY ANALYSIS

OBJECTIVES: To show the need for precise expression.
To define clearly and accurately.
To inductively introduce definition by analysis.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Ask the class to define a fairly common word like tiger. As the students give their answers, list them on the board. Most students will have little direction in their definitions and the list would look something like this:

cat	mean
yellow and black animal	big cat
ferocious	four-pawed
animal	mammal
jungle beast	cruel
wild cat	Asiatic animal
yellow fur striped with black	fangs
living thing	sly
member of the cat family	"fast" man
	vicious animal

- B. Discuss the words listed for their adequacies, similarities, and differences. Eliminate the words that the class feels are too general, such as: mammal, jungle beast, animal, cat, living thing; then eliminate words that are judgments, such as: ferocious, wild cat, vicious animal, mean, big cat, cruel, sly, "fast" man. Ask if the words four-pawed and fangs are necessary to the definition of a tiger. Usually the class will agree that these particular qualities are not descriptive of features of a tiger that are outstanding to it alone.
- C. The remaining words are:
- yellow and black animal
 - yellow fur striped with black
 - member of the cat family
 - Asiatic animal

Have each student write in his notebook the heading Definitions with the subheading Definition by Analysis. Below that tell them to write the word tiger. Then they are asked to give the class to which the tiger belongs (Asiatic member of the cat family). To distinguish the tiger from other members of the cat family, they then list the particular qualities that are characteristics of the tiger.

- D. Have the class define the process of Definition by Analysis. They should arrive at a clear statement of CLASS and PARTICULAR QUALITIES.

- E. To reinforce this process, define an object around the classroom with the entire group. After the students have satisfactorily grasped the process, group them homogeneously and give each group a list of five words to define by analysis. Suggested lists are:

1. table	2. chair	3. lamp	4. desk
elm tree	tulip	oak tree	poison ivy
toaster	reaper	wrench	pencil
square	triangle	rectangle	circle
American	freedom	Communist	democracy

Guide each group's ideas by directing questions that will clarify their ideas. Special help will be needed with words that are abstractions.

- F. As a class, discuss the strengths and weaknesses of the group definitions. List the four mistakes to be avoided when defining:

1. Don't put the term you are defining in too broad or too narrow a class.

TOO BROAD A sprinter is a person who... (But students, scientists, etc. are persons too.)

TOO NARROW A sprinter is a high school runner... (But not all sprinters are in high school.)

GOOD A sprinter is a runner who covers short distances at top speeds.

2. Don't begin your definition with when or where. If you are defining a noun, the word after is should also be a noun (the name of the class).

Not this: A party is when people get together to have a good time.

But this: A party is a gathering for pleasure.

3. In defining a term do not use the word itself or a word derived from it.

Not this: A synonym is a word that is synonymous with another word.

But this: A synonym is a word that has the same meaning as another word.

4. Don't define an unfamiliar term with a word more unfamiliar.

Not this: Enmity is a feeling of antipathy.

But this: Enmity is a feeling of hostility or hatred.

- G. To apply the four don'ts to be avoided when defining a word by analysis, correct these faulty definitions:

1. An inventor is a man who invents things.
2. Optimism is where a person always looks on the bright side.
3. The circumference of a circle is its periphery.
4. A truck is a four-wheeled vehicle.
5. A quadrilateral is when a figure has four sides.
6. A journalist is a man who writes or edits material for a periodical.
7. Ambition is being ambitious.
8. A democracy is where the people select their own rulers.
9. To submerge is to immerse.

10. A paratrooper is a person who jumps out of airplanes.

- H. To test the students' ability to define words by analysis, ask them to define five of the following names by giving the class and the particular qualities in the form they have just practiced.

axle	parachute	dictatorship	corporation	jeep
basketball	helicopter	home run	army captain	scissors
spruce	rifle	window	tape recorder	radio

LESSON #2: DEFINITION BY SYNONYM

OBJECTIVES: To define a word by giving another word with the same meaning.
To study the similar denotations and differing connotations of words.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

Note to teachers: The seventh grade students at Euclid Central Junior High School have previously had a unit on semantics that established principles such as referent, symbol, connotation, denotation, levels of abstraction, report and judgment.

- A. On the board list a series of synonyms and ask the students to tell what all the words have in common and how they differ. The term synonym will not need to be introduced because of the students' elementary background. Review the differences in connotation and denotation with the pairs of words. A sample list is:

surprise - astonish	sick - ill	house - home
capable - able	stout - fat	portal - door
sanitary - hygienic	agitate - perturb	forgive - pardon
seaman - sailor - mariner		drunkard - alcoholic
bard - poet		

- B. Point out to the class that careful choice of synonyms is one mark of superior writing. Notice the superiority of the words underlined in the following passages over possible alternate choices:

1. We the people of the United States, in order to...insure domestic tranquility. (Constitution of the United States) Alternate choices: peacefulness, calmness, placidity, serenity, stillness.
2. ...but hearing ofttimes
The still, sad music of humanity. (Wordsworth) Alternate choices: quiet, silent, noiseless, quiescent, soundless.
3. There is, however, reason to believe that there was a small nucleus of truth around which this great mass of fiction gathered. (Macaulay) Alternate choices: core, center, hub, focus, heart, middle.
4. ...her head sank deep into the pillow, taking on the majestic pallor and immobility of marble. (Conrad) Alternate choices: whiteness, paleness, wanness, lividness.
5. ...the feverish life of gold-seeking, the recklessness engendered by sudden gain and as sudden loss... (James Truslow Adams) Alternate choices: hectic, wild, frantic, mad, exciting, melodramatic.
6. Yesterday, December 7, 1941--a date which will live in infamy... (Franklin D. Roosevelt) Alternate choices: shame, ignominy, notoriety, disgrace, dishonor, obloquy.
7. The trumpet call had let loose an enormous volume of noise. (George Orwell) Alternate choices: great, huge, vast, immense, colossal, gigantic, mammoth.

C. To reinforce student understanding of the connotational differences of synonyms, have the students write a brief note indicating how these pairs of words differ in what they suggest (connote). Tell them to be frankly impressionistic rather than coldly accurate.

corpulent, obese	immense, monstrous	savage, barbaric
condolence, sympathy	rustic, rural	falter, waver
cede, yield	injure, impair	ambush, waylay
conference, parley	threaten, intimidate	lunatic, maniac

D. Have the students write a synonym for each of the following words. This exercise may be done in small groups.

quarrel	ugly	confine	poverty
delay	punish	astonish	praise
native	repay	round	sadness
speed	top	repeat	branch
secret	weary	steal	warn
throb			

LESSON #3: DEFINITION BY DEMONSTRATION

OBJECTIVE: To define a word by using pictures, maps, graphs, or actions.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Have several of the students leave the room and ask them to pick an action or emotion to demonstrate before the class.
 1. How did you know what they were doing? (It was acted out or demonstrated.)
 2. In what other ways can words be defined by demonstration? (Through directed questioning, pictures, maps, and graphs will be listed.)
 3. Give me an example of each type of definition by demonstration.
- B. The assignment for the next day could be to have each student make a map, graph, or act out for the class a word of his choice.

LESSON #4: DEFINITION BY CONTEXT

OBJECTIVE: To define the word by putting it into a sentence or paragraph where the meaning can be understood.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. Distribute the two nonsense word paragraphs to the class. Ask them to read the paragraphs, tell what a reptich and a trafga are and tell the particular qualities or clues in the paragraphs that gave them the meaning of the two words.

Paragraph #1

The life to which she fled, flung her back, cast her out. The happiness she had hoped for soon faded. The flowers she had dreamed of became thorns. Sylvia's fate had darkened the clouds of her future. All this because she had not worn her glittering reptiches to the tribal dance. All other members of the small tribe had remembered to wear theirs. Each woman proudly flashed their reptiches in their ears. The men toyed with them, and as the evening progressed, the reptiches were given to the men as a remembrance of the night. Sylvia's ears bore none; therefore, no man would seek her. She sunk to the mud in disgrace for breaking the custom traditionally carried out during the tribal dance.

Paragraph #2

Joe bought some new trafgas. Because they were brown, Joe felt the trafgas would look best with his khaki suit. He decided to take the trafgas home in a paper bag rather than a box. Trafgas buckle instead of having to be tied. Trafgas are more expensive because they are made of alligator skin. Joe's feet are so long that he has trouble finding trafgas to fit. Joe had to have his trafgas resoled in a month.

- B. After the students are aware that they could define the two words above because of the context of the paragraphs, give them these examples of the varying meanings of strike.

"Strike three!" roars the umpire as thousands of fans groan in disappointment.

"I have a strike," whispers the fisherman to himself as he plays out his line.

"It looks as though a strike cannot be avoided," says the worried employer as he enters from a conference with the union representatives.

"He bowled his fourth consecutive strike," says the excited announcer to the television audience watching a bowling match.

The word strike can be used with the meanings above or with others such as these: to strike a person in anger; to strike a medal to commemorate an event; to strike an enemy; to strike out a word; to strike an average; to strike it rich; to strike up a friendship. The exact meaning or sense in which the word strike is used in each of the examples given is determined by three factors: the entire text which accompanies it, or the verbal context; the situation which is being discussed, the physical context; and emotional or social judgments involved, the social context.

- C. To show the importance of contextual definition, ask the class to briefly define this list of words:

duck, hands, mother, pad, face, service, salute, favored.

Then compare their definitions with the meaning of the words in these sentences.

1. The small boat had duck sails.
2. The horse was seventeen hands high.
3. Mother had formed in the jar of liquid.
4. The lion had a thorn embedded in his pad.
5. Oriental peoples ascribe great importance to face.
6. They received a sterling silver coffee service for their wedding.
7. The battleship gave a loud salute when the admiral came aboard.
8. The portrait showed that the daughter favored her mother.

- D. Assignments:

1. Select an object to define by context. Be sure that you do not give away too much of the meaning in the first paragraph.
2. Choose a word that has several meanings and use it in different sentences to show the change in meanings.

LESSON # 5: ETYMOLOGY

OBJECTIVES: To gain an understanding of the development of the English language.
To study the origin and the passage from language to language of a word.

MATERIALS: Thorndike-Barnhart High School Dictionary

PROCEDURES:

- A. To secure student involvement, set up a game for the class. Tell them the rules are that they cannot get out of their seats, only one person to a hand at a time, and no scratching. Then, with two delicious apples, tell the class that anyone who can take them away can have them. (If this game seems too energetic, another one could be substituted.) Walk around the classroom, giving each student time to grab at the apple, and when you are a little over half way around, let someone succeed. After everyone has had a chance at an apple and only one was taken, tell the class that the person who best describes in one word what you were doing to them will receive the other apple. Someone will guess tantalize; toss him the apple. Ask if anyone knows why the word tantalize means what it does. Students rarely know the answer, so ask where they could find a brief explanation of the meaning. Look the word up in the dictionary, find its derivation (Tantalus) and discuss the story of Tantalus with the class.
- B. After "tantalizing," ask who knows what an aardvark is. When the students check aardvark in the dictionary, they will find that it is an anteater. Then ask them why it is called an aardvark. From the etymology of the word in brackets they will find that it comes from two words that mean earth-pig. Notice how this information is arranged typographically and discuss the symbols.
- C. Have the class notice on the flyleaf of the dictionary the abbreviations for the various languages as used in the text of the dictionary. Notice the three varieties of American and the ancient languages. Compare these with the modern languages in number and type, and finally, notice the historical varieties of English.
- D. Have the class in small groups suggest generic terms like animal, liquid, shades of colors, types of dwellings, etc. Using a thesaurus, develop lists of individuals in each type. Using a dictionary, have each person select a word from his list and trace its history.
- E. From their findings, ask the students from what countries their words originally came. List the countries on the board and then ask how our language happens to draw from so many other languages. Mention the sources of words 1) coming from another language, 2) derived from other words in the language already, and 3) new words consisting of two or more words already in the language.

F. Assignment:

1. Trace this word to its origin.
2. Rewrite the symbolic etymology in a sentence.

(This assignment should be done in class to give help to those who are still having trouble understanding the symbolic etymology.)

Suggestions for words:

coffee	lilac	rival
garage	limerick	salary
bonfire	tulip	penguin
panic	janitor	cardigan
curfew	macaroon	kodak

- G. Distribute Study Sheet #1 to the students to reinforce what they have been discussing in class.**

Definition and Etymology - Study Sheet #1

One of the major sources of word definition is the dictionary. Also useful in this area are encyclopedias. There are many types of dictionaries printed today; some poor, some good, and some excellent. Their quality depends on the reliability and variety of information given.

Dictionaries and encyclopedias also contain useful and interesting information concerning the etymology of words. Etymology is a study of the historical background and development of present day language. It traces the adoption of a word from one language into another and the changes it underwent following such adoption.

Many writers of books on the language have dedicated chapters or full-length works to the study of etymology. It is a fascinating field containing historical, mythological, and social information based on the language of the people.

We have been working on definitions of words as to their meaning in our time. Now let us take a look at the historical and social background of our language.

I. The following list of symbols and abbreviations will help you to understand the word histories found in dictionaries:

AS	Anglo-Saxon	ML	Middle Latin
D	Dutch	MLG	Middle Low German
F	French	OF	Old French
G	German	OHG	Old High German
Gr	Greek	Pr	Provençal
It.	Italian	SP	Spanish
L	Latin		
LG	Low German	g.	going back to
LGr	Late Greek	r.	replacing
LL	Late Latin	t.	taken from
ME	Middle English	m.	modification
MFr	Middle French	cf.	compare with
MGr	Middle Greek	+	and
MHG	Middle High German	=	equals
		<	from
		der.	derived from
		f.	formed from

Any symbols and abbreviations not found on this list will be given in the dictionary, at the bottom of the page or in the front of the volume.

II. Here are six words with interesting backgrounds taken out of dictionaries. Read them over and figure out the etymology from the information given.

1. chocolate - A preparation of the seeds of cacao, roasted, ^{broken}ground, and often sweetened and flavored as with vanilla. ?/t. Sp., t/A. m. chocolatl, bitter water.

2. choreography - n., F. chorégraphie, Gr. χορεία*, dance γράφειν**, write. The art of representing the various movements in dancing by a system of notation.

* choreia

** graphein

Study Sheet #1 - cont'd.

3. garage - n., a building for sheltering, cleaning, or repairing motor vehicles. t. F., f. garer put in shelter. t., Pr: m. garar keep heed.

4. dollar - n., LG daler=D. Dalder, < G. thaler, for Joachimsthaler, 'coin of Joachimsthal' (place of silver mines in Bohemia.) The monetary unit of the United States equivalent to 100 cents.

5. ink - n., OF enque (F encre), < LL encaustum, < LGr ΕΥΚΑΥΣΤΟΥ***, purple ink used by Greek and Roman emperors. A fluid, black or colored, used for writing or printing.

6. tobacco - n., Sp. Tabaco, from a West Indian name explained as meaning originally a kind of pipe used in smoking, a roll of leaves smoked, or the plant.

III. These stories of word origins are taken from Picturesque Word Origins, published by G. & C. Merriam and Company.

arrive: to come to shore.

Latin as means "to" and ripa means "shore" or "sloping bank of a river." These two words combined are found in Late Latin arripere, "to come to shore." Old French in the course of centuries changed the word into the form ariver, and Medieval (Middle) English borrowed it as ariven, meaning "to land." The meaning broadened from "going ashore" to mean reaching a point in any way. Today, when we arrive by automobile or airplane, it is interesting to think of the original meaning, "to come to shore."

bugle: from the ox that first supplied it.

The first meaning of bugle in Modern English was "a wild ox, especially a buffalo." We can trace the word back to the Middle English Bugle, "Buffalo," then to the French bugle which was derived from Latin buculus, "a young bullock."

The horn of an ox, made into a blowing instrument, was called a bugle horn after the animal which supplied the horn; then horn was dropped and bugle alone came to be used with the same meaning and that meaning has been retained while the original meaning "ox" has long been obsolete.

*** enkauston

LESSON #6: WRITING A PAPER COMBINING THE DEFINITION AND ETYMOLOGY STUDIES

OBJECTIVE: To culminate the unit on Definition and Etymology by testing the students' ability to apply the concepts studied.

MATERIALS: Bibliography
Model paper

PROCEDURES:

- A. Ask the students what parts of the unit they considered to be important. As they name these, list them on the board. Then ask them to organize them into a format for a paper.
- B. Discuss an example of a paper on etymology as a model to follow when writing a paper. Note the listing of books used as resources.
- C. Have the students choose their word from the following list:

farce	talent	extrovert	barn
canine	vivid	money	barbecue
gymnasium	guard	house	baritone
zenith	pagan	etymology	school
pilot	janitor	eccentric	tripod
liberty	pencil	telegram	lantern
freedom	urbane	rack	legend
sovereign	peasant	silo	league
grammar	candidate		
- D. Take the class to the library and help them select and use the books on the bibliography. Give them several days to work on their rough drafts during which time you should have a conference with each student.

AN EXAMPLE OF A PAPER ON ETYMOLOGY

Belfry

I. Dictionary Definition

A bell tower usually attached to a church or other building, but sometimes separate, as a campanile; a room in a tower in which a bell is or may be hung, or the lower floor or room under the bells in a tower from which the bells are rung.

ii. My Definition

A belfry is a part of a tower, usually of a church or other building, in which a bell is hung.

III. Symbolic Etymology

[ME borfray, movable tower used in sieges, < OF Berfreis < MHG bercvrit, the name of a movable war tower used by besiegers (from bergen, to protect, and vride, peace, security) < LL berefridus.]

IV. Explanation of Etymology

- A. Late Latin (2nd-6th Century) to Middle High German (12th Century) to Old French (13th Century), and thence to Middle English (1100-1400).
- B. In Medieval German, two words, bergen, to protect, and vride, peace or security, were combined to form bercvrit, the name of a movable war tower used by besiegers. A form of this word was borrowed from Old French as berfrei, and thence into Middle English as berfray with the same meaning. The custom of putting bells in towers made people think that berfray ought really to be bell-fray, and gradually both the pronunciation and the meaning of the word were changed by this ignorant usage until in Modern English it has become belfry.

V. My Summary and Additional Comments:

Strangely enough, the origin of the word belfry has nothing to do with bells. This word, which now suggests peace and good will, once denoted an instrument of war. In Medieval Germany it was a movable war tower used by besiegers. It was only a step from the meaning "siege tower" to the meaning "watch tower," and then to any tower. Then it became the custom to put bells in towers, suggesting peace and good will. In Modern English, belfry means exclusively a "bell tower" or the bell room atop a tower.

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THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON SEMANTICS
Seventh Grade Curriculum

RELATED UNITS:
Semantics (8 and 9)

Distributed by

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TEACHING THE UNIT

Effectively taught, semantics is a guide to accurate thinking, reading, listening and writing because it shows how men use words and words use men. If the teacher expects the students to be able to analyze symbolism in poetry, persuasive writing in propaganda, or human interaction through linguistic communication, a knowledge of the basic concepts of semantics is necessary. Semantics gives the students tools for critical thinking. With these tools at their disposal, the students should become more exacting in their ability to communicate effectively. The carry-over of the semantics unit is manifested not only in the classroom, but in all aspects of the student's language experience.

Using the student's knowledge and background, the teacher develops the semantic concepts inductively. Students begin with an undifferentiated holistic concept -- language. They analyze, make distinctions, and finally through application, synthesize these new concepts into a more sophisticated view of language. As the unit progresses from the basic concept of language as an arbitrary assignment of a sound (symbol) to an object (referent) to the complex relations of terms such as connotation and denotation, the unit leads students to distinguish concepts and affords the student an opportunity to synthesize the concepts in application. He becomes aware of the misuse or misunderstanding of language. This awareness becomes a facet of his semantic environment. The student soon realizes that he is affected every hour not only by the words he hears and uses, but also by his unconscious assumptions about language.

The student examines advertisements and the psychological format used by advertisers. The picture in the advertisement is discussed for color connotation and packaging techniques. The ad copy is used to illustrate reports, judgments, directives, etc. that persuade the audience to buy the product. After the student has analyzed an advertisement independently, the unit is concluded by having the students create an ad which uses the principles they have learned.

By the time the students complete the unit, they should be aware of some of the affective uses of language and should be able to read, listen, and use the language more precisely and critically.

LESSON # 1: REFERENT AND SYMBOL

OBJECTIVES: To define referent and symbol

To recognize that a symbol is arbitrarily assigned to a referent.

To recognize that symbols help communication only if we agree on the referents they stand for.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

A. (A better class might omit or use only part of this section and move to section B without this careful preparation.)
To illustrate the arbitrariness of language ask the class to label objects in the room with sound patterns different from those they normally use. Tell them each object named must be easy to touch without having to stand on something. This will eliminate the ceiling lights, etc. Example: Let's call the flag a "sponch" and the window a "mopper". After the class has labeled about ten objects, make up signs on 3 x 5 cards with the new words on them. Paste the cards on the object and tell the class you will give them five minutes to memorize the new name for each object.
After the class has had sufficient time to memorize the new names ask them to write some short sentences in which they refer to the objects by their new names. Eg. "The sponch waved proudly in the breeze." "Would you please open the mopper. It's terribly warm in here."

1. Collect the student's sentences and to provide interest split the class into two sections and tell them that they will be treated as two teams. Tell them that you will read the sentences aloud and when one of the new words that they created is used, one person from each team must touch the object mentioned. To insure that all the students aren't running about the room, emphasize that only one in each group will be allowed out of his seat. Simply number the rows in each group and say that for the first sentence read the front person in the first row will be responsible for touching the object. For the next sentence the person behind him will be responsible, and so on until everyone has had a chance. Tell them that the other members of the group will not be allowed to refer to the object by its original name. Eg. They cannot call a sponch a flag. If they do refer to the object by its original name, their team will be disqualified for that sentence and the other team will receive the point.

- A.
2. After each person has had a chance to participate and the scores have been added, ask the class how they knew what objects they were supposed to touch.
 - a. How did you know what object was being referred to? (The class had agreed upon the new symbol.)
 - b. Why did some members of the class have difficulty? (They forgot the new symbol for the referent.)
 - c. Why do we use the names we do? (no reason for any particular name, but we must all agree in order to communicate.)

B. To provide the class with a beginning vocabulary in semantics, tell the class that among speakers of English, people have decided to call the flag by the word flag, sun by the word sun, etc. Speakers of other languages will call them by different sounds. These sounds -- flag, sun, mirror, car, etc. -- stand for something or call our attention to particular things.

1. Does anyone know what we call something that stands for something else? (symbol)
2. The particular things which symbols stand for are called referents. The only way to show a referent is to point it out.
 - a. What is the referent of blackboard?
 - b. What is the referent of table?

C. After the class has pointed to several referents in the room, have each student take an object from his pocket or from the top of his desk and hold it in his hand. Then ask each student to demonstrate to the class the referent and the symbol of the object he is holding.

D. To illustrate to the students that language is an arbitrary assignment of sounds to referents, ask the class questions such as the following:

1. Why do you stand when the American flag is presented during an assembly?
2. What is the flag?
3. What does it mean to you?
4. Why do we call the flag flag?
5. Why don't we call the flag sun and the sun flag?
6. Who taught you to call this (point to the flag) a flag? Where did he or they learn that it was called a flag?
7. Why is it useful that we all know that this (point to the flag) is called a flag?
8. What would happen if we didn't have a word for this (point at the flag)? How would I let you know what I was talking about if I didn't know the word for a flag?

E.

Ask for three volunteers to come to the front of the room. Have one student pretend he cannot use his hands and arms. Number him number one. Have another student pretend he cannot speak. Number him number two. Have the third student pretend he can neither speak, see, nor use his hands and arms. Number him number three. Tell number one and number three that they must not move from the places where you put them. Number two may move about the room. Take an object from your pocket or from some place in the room and ask each of the three students questions such as the following:

1. Can you indicate what the symbol of this object is?
2. Can you indicate what the referent is of this object I'm holding?

Student number one will be able to indicate the symbol for the object because he can speak. Students number two and three will not. Students number one and three will not be able to indicate the referent of the object because they cannot point to it, but student number two will.

F.

Have the three students in the front of the room and ask the class questions such as the following:

1. Why was student number one able to identify the symbol of the object I held? (He was able to speak)
2. Why weren't students number two and three able to do the same thing? (They couldn't speak)
3. Why was student number two able to indicate the referent of the object I held? (He could point to it.)
4. Why weren't students number one and three able to indicate the referent? (They couldn't point to it or hold it up to the class.)
5. From this demonstration what would you say was one of the major ways we use symbols? (In our speech.)
6. What is one of the best ways to indicate a referent? (Point it out to someone so he can see it.)
7. What must you have to get ideas across to others if you use only referents? (The objects themselves.)
8. Why are the symbols of speech so helpful to us? (We can discuss referents without having them present.)
9. Do we call a dog, "dog", because he has attributes that force us to label him with this symbol, or is the label simply arbitrary and established through agreement? Explain.

LESSON # 2 LEVELS OF ABSTRACTION

OBJECTIVES: To identify the levels of abstraction of different symbols that refer to the same object.

To make a graphic illustration of the levels of abstraction.

To infer the necessity of the process of abstraction.

MATERIALS: "The Necessity of Abstraction"

PROCEDURES:

A. To demonstrate to the students the process of abstraction, select a student who is not easily flustered and have him sit in the front of the room. Ask the students to supply a symbol that identifies as clearly as possible the student in the front of the room. The students will usually identify the student by his name. Write this on the blackboard. Then ask them if there are other ways to identify the student in front of the room. The students will usually say that he is --

a boy	a human	a living creature
a student	an animal	an object

Write their responses on the blackboard. Then ask the students if they really wanted someone to know exactly who they were talking about in a conversation, what would be the best way to indicate or identify the person. (Point him out) Tell them that it is not always possible to have the person we are talking about present, so we must rely on the symbols of the spoken language to get our ideas across. Then tell them that they used several symbols to identify the boy in the front of the room and that some symbols identify him more exactly than others. To illustrate this ask questions such as the following:

1. Which symbol is the most precise in identifying this student?
2. Which one is the least precise?
3. Which symbols could refer to other referents beside the one in the front of the room?
4. Which symbol refers to the highest number of referents? To the least number?

B. Ask the students to list the symbols on the board on a piece of paper so that the symbols that refer to the least number of referents are on the bottom of a scale and those that refer to the highest number of referents are on the top of the scale. Tell them that the symbols will refer to one or two referents, 100 referents, 1,000 referents, a million referents, a billion referents and all referents and that the symbols should appear on a scale somewhat like the following:

- B. (Cont'd)
6. All referents.
 5. Billion referents.
 4. Million referents.
 3. Thousand referents.
 2. Hundred referents.
 1. One or two referents.

C. After the students have created their scales have some of them write their scales on the blackboard. Review each of the scales on the blackboard allowing the class to point out errors as each of the students who wrote his scale on the blackboard defends his arrangement of the symbols. Then ask the class what they said was the best way to identify the object they've been talking about. (Point to it or show it to someone.) Then ask the class questions such as the following:

1. Is what we see when we look at the boy in any way an abstraction?
2. Do we really see the total boy when we look at him?
3. What things are part of the boy that cannot be seen or measured scientifically?
4. How much of anything do we actually perceive with the sense of sight?
5. Is the thing we see the actual total thing or a distortion (abstraction)?

After the students have dealt with these questions sufficiently, write a definition such as the following on the bottom of the scale.

The boy we see: Not the symbol (word), but the boy that the experience of sight allows us to perceive. Not the thing itself, but that which is abstracted by the process of sight because we cannot see the total boy. (His insides, his thoughts, his emotions, etc.)

D. Now ask the class if there is a method by which the total boy might be known even if only momentarily. What class do you attend that takes most of its time helping you learn ways of describing things and how they work? In what class do you dissect things to find out all the parts that make it up? (Science) After the class has briefly discussed the scientific method write on the blackboard at the bottom of the scale of abstraction something such as the following:

The boy as described as known to science: The boy in reality made up of atoms, electrons, behavioral habits, etc. The characteristics of the boy if they were to be described completely are almost infinite and are changing from one moment to the next.

E.

Number each item in the scale on the blackboard starting with one for the item on the bottom until all items are numbered. Then ask the class questions such as the following:

1. Which item includes the most characteristics of the object being described?
2. Which one contains the least?
3. On the scale created what happens to the specific characteristics that identify the object we are talking about as we move up the scale? (They are fewer)
4. Is it necessary to know about those items below any given item on the scale in order to understand those above them? Why?
5. Why would it be almost impossible to communicate using only the bottom two items on the scale? What would happen to communication?

F.

Pass out to the class "The Necessity of Abstraction", and go over the study questions with them.

"The Necessity for Abstraction"

by Louis L. Mentor

Once upon a time on a beautiful island there lived five tribes. Each tribe had a leader. One tribe called its leader "king", another called its leader "president", another called its leader "emperor", another called its leader "premier", and the last called its leader "dictator". None of the tribes for thousands of years had ever met someone from another tribe.

One day, though, a flood caused all the people of all the tribes to flee to the mountain that was located in the center of the island. Each person was shocked to see that other people lived on the island and they went running to their separate leaders to tell them what they had seen. The leaders of course were aware of the presence of foreigners and each determined in a spirit of generosity to take all the people on the mountain under his protection.

The king sent out a messenger to the foreign people telling them that he would care for them. The other leaders did the same. Each was very surprised to receive messages that some funny sounding thing wanted to take care of his people. The "king" asked his advisors what were those things called premier, dictator, president and emperor. The wise men could not answer for they, like the king, had never heard of any such thing. This process was repeated in the other four tribes and no one could answer the leaders' questions.

Weeks passed as the flood continued to cover the island and the five tribes sat in separate groups near the top of the mountain. One day as the king's servants carried him out of his hut he noticed that one person in each of the other tribes was being carried out of a hut in a similar fashion. At first he was angry, but he controlled

himself and watched the activities of the other tribes. He noticed that the same men gave orders as he did, ate well as he did, and in general were treated in much the same manner as he was. While he was pondering his discovery, the premier, the president, the dictator and the emperor were doing the same thing, for they too had observed what had happened in the morning and had been watching the other tribes throughout the day.

The king after much painful thought and a discussion with his wise men concluded, although he did not particularly like the idea, that the other four men must also be kings. He resolved that for the purpose of survival he would try to be nice to the other kings, so he sent each a message.

"I, the Royal Mark of Life, King of the Earth, do salute you. I request that you as a King of Some Foreigners meet me on the top of Holy Mountain."

Signed

The King

Each of the other leaders sent the same message to the other tribes, but in place of the word King, they substituted the word Premier, President, Dictator or Emperor, depending upon who sent the message. When each received the messages from the others, he could not understand it, because he did not know what was meant by the titles used by the other leaders. Despite the misunderstanding each went to the top of the mountain because he had requested that the others meet him there.

When they all assembled there was confusion because none of them really knew how to deal with those that were almost equal to him in rank. The day was successful, though, because each leader relied on his wise men for advice. The leaders discovered that in essence the words king, premier, dictator, emperor and president meant the same thing, because each man fulfilled the same function. They worked well together and decided that they would cooperate with each other, but one great problem arose. The leaders, when referring to all the other leaders got tired of using all the titles in a string such as the king, emperor, dictator, president, premier -- depending upon who was talking, because it just took too much time. The king suggested that they all be referred to as kings, but the others said no, their titles they said were more appropriate. No one would agree and just as things looked like they were going to break up an old wise man spoke. His words saved the entire conference. He said, "Oh, great King, Emperor, Dictator, Premier and President, why don't we refer to all of you together as leaders, a new word your humble servant just created, and refer to each of you separately by your title?"

Each agreed that this in no way was offensive so from then on whenever the five tribes got together they saved time in their conversation and got along better because each tribe saw it had a great deal in common with the others -- it too had a Leader.

STUDY GUIDE: "The Necessity for Abstraction"

1. Why did the leaders of the five tribes have difficulty understanding each others' titles?
2. Why was each leader surprised when the others said they would care for his people?
3. Why were they surprised when the people did not come to them for protection?
4. How did each leader conclude that the others were leaders also?
5. Why did the creation of the word "Leader" solve the problem that was troubling the leaders?
6. Why do you think it is necessary to be able to use abstractions in your conversation? How do they help you communicate?

LESSON # 3

OBJECTIVES: To define denotation.

To define connotation both affective and informative.

To examine and explain how writers use words to color their writing.

To write short passages that distinguish between words with "good" or "neutral" connotations and those with "bad" connotations.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

A. To introduce the students to denotation hold some object in your hand and ask the class what the symbol for the object is. Then ask them what the referent is. Tell them that the word referent is the same as the word denotation. They are synonymous. Tell them that whenever they are asked for the denotation of a word they should not say a word but simply point at the object.

B. To illustrate to the class that some words have no denotation, ask members of the class to indicate the denotation of words such as love, devil, freedom, eternity, etc. The class will not be able to indicate these items because the items cannot be seen, felt, drawn, photographed, or detected by any scientific method. There is no way of measuring their existence. This does not mean that the items do not exist. It simply means that if an argument arises in which these items are used, no scientific proof can be brought to bear and the argument could be endless.

C. To illustrate the above point write on the blackboard the classic question: "How many angels can dance on the head of a pin?" Ask several members of the class if they know. If some try to answer the question let them do so for a few minutes. Then ask them what the denotation of angel is. Show them why the argument cannot be ended and pass out the "Worksheet on Argument" and have them point out the kind of arguments that can be brought to an end and those that cannot. Discuss each item with the class.

D. To introduce the students to affective connotation write words such as horse, woman, house, and slow on the blackboard and ask the students to suggest other symbols for the referent of the label on the blackboard that make the referent appear worse or better than it is.

Examples:

1. Horse

hay burner
nag

trotter
pacer
thoroughbred

- | | | |
|-------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 3. house | <u>shack</u>
<u>dump</u> | <u>castle</u>
<u>home</u> |
| 4. ignorant | <u>dumb</u>
<u>stupid</u> | <u>slow</u>
<u>exceptional</u> |

After the students have given suggestions, ask them what the differences are among the various words for the same referent. They should be able to distinguish between the "bad" and "good" affective connotation of words used for the same referent. Label the feeling associated with the word affective connotation.

E.

To reinforce the concept of affective connotation and to introduce the concept of informative connotation write the word "Communism" on the blackboard and ask them to write on a sheet of paper a definition for the word and explain how they feel about the word when they hear it. When they have completed the assignment, collect the papers and read several of the definitions. Then read the definition of Communism from a good dictionary. Follow this by reading several of the comments about how students feel when they hear the word and ask the class questions such as the following:

1. Which passage most accurately and objectively defines Communism? Why?
2. Why weren't many of your definitions as good?
3. What is the difference between the definition you gave and attitude you expressed about the word Communism?
4. Do you think that all the people in the world feel the same way toward the word Communism as you do? Would all people be likely to agree with the dictionary definition or your attitude toward it? Explain.

F.

Tell the class that the definitions they gave and the dictionary definition are called the informative connotations of a word. In other words the definition is the socially agreed upon meaning, the so-called "impersonal" meanings. Tell them this is as close as we can come to give the meanings of words by the use of other symbols (words). The best way of course is to point to the object so others can see it. The feelings associated with words are called affective connotations. They have little to do with the definition of the word, but are aroused solely by the mention of the word.

G. To provide the students with more opportunities to distinguish between affective and informative connotations, write on the blackboard the following series of items and have them number the items one through four according to their preference.

Set I

You are mentally ill.
You have problems.
You are insane.
You are crazy as a bed bug.

Set II

Prime ribs of beef
flesh and bones
dead cow
meat

Then ask them questions such as the following:

1. Why did you prefer the item you chose?
2. Why did you put as least preferable the one you did?
3. Do the items in each set have the same connotation or referent? Explain.
4. Do they have the same connotation? Explain.

H. To reinforce how connotation is used in language and how we select words to show our feelings, distribute to the students the following list of words and discuss with them the connotations connected with the words. Point out that the referent could be the same in each series.

*1. discreet	cautious	cowardly
2. loyal	obedient	slavish
3. warmhearted	sentimental	musky
4. mature	old	decayed
5. tolerant	nondiscriminating	nigger-lover indian-lover jew-lover
6. humanitarian	idealist	do-gooder
7. Pilgrim	immigrant	alien
8. orator	influential speaker	rabble-rouser
9. official	office-holder	bureaucrat
10. investigator	detective	flatfoot

*From Major Social Problems, by Earl Raab and G. J. Selznick, Row, Peterson & Co., (White Plains, New York), 1959, pp 223-224.

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H. (Cont'd) Ask them why they would use the words in the first column to describe something or somebody they liked, and why they would use the words in the third column to describe something or somebody they disliked. What is it about the words that show our attitude toward the object being described? Discuss with the class how some words have "good" connotations, in other words, create good feelings in us, while others have "bad" connotations which create negative feelings in us. Also show how the words in the middle column tend to be neutral, arouse little feeling, either good or negative.

I. To give students further exercise in recognizing and using connotative language, pass out the work sheet "It's All How You Look At It". Have them read the first two selections and then compare them. Ask questions such as the following to elicit discussion.

1. Which article uses favorable words in discussing the subject?
2. Which writer dislikes the subject he is discussing? How do you know?
3. Is the information offered in both articles essentially the same? Explain.
4. What causes the great differences in attitude in the two articles?

J. Have the students read the third article and then tell them that they are to write an article that demonstrates a negative or positive attitude toward the subject (depending on which sheet is used), but they must present the same amount of information as the original article does. They may use the first two articles as models. There are two sets of models. One is fairly difficult and one is easy. The class may be divided into groups according to ability and both sets can be worked on in this fashion, or the easiest may be used first by all students to give them practice for working on the other one. Another possibility is that only the most difficult be given to a class that is able to deal with it reasonably well without practice work ahead of time.

"Worksheet on Argument"

1. How many number two cans will fit in a standard size railroad box car?
2. How much time will it take that man to grow a four inch beard?
3. How many vampires are there in the Cleveland area?
4. How long is the horn of an average unicorn?
5. What kind of brooms do witches use to fly about on?
6. How many passengers does the U.S.S. United States carry each year?
7. How much heat must be created to make ice in the average refrigerator?
8. What is the main cause of corruption of the human soul?
9. Which countries of the world experience true freedom and liberty?
10. Why must a good country always conquer an evil country?

"It's How You Look At It" No. 1

1. Five teenagers were loitering on the corner. As their raucous laughter cut through the air, we noticed their sloppy black leather jackets and their greasy sweat-back hair. They slouched against a building with cigarettes dangling contemptuously from their mouths.

2. Five youngsters stood on the corner. As the joy of their laughter filled the air, we noticed their loose fitting smooth jackets and the gleam of their smartly combed hair. They relaxed against a building smoking evenly on cigarettes that seemed almost natural in their serious young mouths.

3. Hordes of flies hovered over the garbage cans that stood along the edge of the dark alley. It was obviously a slum area whose fly-by-night inhabitants gave little time to keeping the area neat.

"It's How You Look At It" No. 2

- *1. This is a remarkable bibliography. Not only does it examine, with the cool painstaking labor of scholarship, the 193 manuscripts in Mrs. Lawrence's collection -- and nine others thrown in for good measure -- but also, it is informed with warmth, a growing sympathy, admiration, understanding of its subject, never forgetting that that subject was a man, never seeking to claim him as a literary property, as so often tends to be the case when scholars figure they have learned more facts about somebody than anybody else. There is enough material in Professor Tedlock's book to fascinate those with an appetite for such items as that the paper measures eight and a half by ten and five-eighths inches, or that the pages are incorrectly numbered; there is also material for those who want to study how an artist improved, corrected, extended, his initial attempts; beyond all that, the book is interesting to any who care about Lawrence, so that, as Frieda Lawrence says in a brief foreward, the love and truth in him may rouse the love and truth in others. Professor Tedlock's study is a valuable help, and readable.
- *2. This bibliography examines, with the appalling industriousness of the professional pedant, the 193 manuscripts in Mrs. Lawrence's collection -- and nine others thrown in for good measure. Professor Tedlock goes completely overboard for his subject. Like other worshipers at the Lawrence shrine, he is almost as much preoccupied with Lawrence the man as with his works -- so much so, indeed, that it is surprising that he does not take Lawrence over as a literary property, as so often tends to be the case when scholars figure they have learned more facts about somebody than anybody else. There is enough material in Professor Tedlock's book to fascinate those with an appetite for such items as that the paper measures eight and a half by ten and five-eighths inches, or that the pages are incorrectly numbered; there is also material for those who, not content with the study of finished works, want to pry into the processes by which an artist improved, corrected, and extended his initial attempts; beyond all that, the book is interesting to any who, in this day and age, still insist on caring about Lawrence, so that what Frieda Lawrence calls, in a brief foreword, the "love" and "truth" in him may arouse a similar "love" and "truth" in others. To these followers of the Lawrence cult, Professor Tedlock's study is no doubt a valuable help. The style is readable.

*From S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Co., (New York), 1949, pp. 97-98.

**3. Lights black out; the clatter of glass and silver fades to silence; a high spotlight slants through the dark to light up a dusky 5-foot 3-inch girl packed impudently into a tight, black, sparkling dress; she starts to sing, and the voice spills out like an impious and interesting proposition, huskily suggestive in the low register, urgent and vibrant on high: "This is a lovely way to spend an evening..." Shirley Bassey, 24, lately of Britain but now one of the keener pleasures of the opening New York night-club season, thus twice nightly hushes the crowd in the Plaza Hotel's Persian Room.

A fresh face and fresher voice in the U.S. entertainment circuit (Americans have heard her briefly in Las Vegas, Reno, Hollywood and on the "Ed Sullivan Show"), Miss Bassey has been enchanting most New York reviewers, visually and aurally, with a style and repertoire as simple as sentiment and sin.

Working mostly in a small spot that fits almost as tightly as her dress, she winds herself around an assortment of moody old standards like "Somebody Loves Me" and "You'll Never Know," but gives the act a flip change of pace with an insinuating air called "Who Wants to Help Me Burn My Candle at Both Ends?" (Written for her by English friend Ross Parker).

Miss Bassey (wife of British TV director Kenneth Hume) was born in Cardiff, Wales, to a Welsh mother and an African father, started singing for fun, graduated to small bistros, and, at 18, to budding fame in England when she got a part (and fine reviews) in a London revue called "Talk of the Town." Her gifts—the voice, the strong presence, the knack for putting meaning in every little movement, canny timing—have to be laid to natural causes. "I never had a singing lesson," she said between shows at the Plaza (where she's to play four weeks before going back to London and the Palladium). "I can't read music," she added, "but I can read an audience. Something happens between me and those people."

**"Tight Fit", from Newsweek, Vol. LVIII, No. 14, Newsweek Inc., Oct. 2, 1961, Page 56.

LESSON #4

OBJECTIVES: To define report, false report and judgment.

To distinguish among reports, false reports, and judgments.

MATERIALS: Dictionaries.

PROCEDURES:

- A. To provide the students with examples of reports, false reports and judgments, distribute the worksheet. Ask the students to write down the numbers of those items that could either be proved or disproved scientifically.
- B. After the class has finished the assignment go over each item with the class asking them why they picked the items they did. Each time ask them how they would go about proving or disproving the statements. Items numbered 3, 4, 5, 7, 12, 13, 14 and 15 cannot be proved or disproved. Ask the class how the statements that could not be proved or disproved could be changed so that by the addition of a few words or the subtraction of a few words they could be disproved or proved.
- C. Tell the class that statements that can be proved or disproved are called reports or false reports depending on the outcome of scientific investigation and that statements that cannot be proved or disproved are judgments or opinions. Ask them to look up in the dictionary, definitions of judgment and report.
- D. To provide further work in distinguishing among reports, false reports, and judgments, have the students make up three sentences for items such as the following. One sentence should be a report, one a false report, and one a judgment. Tell them to label each sentence according to what it is.
- | | |
|-------------|---------------|
| a. food | f. Christmas |
| b. teachers | g. school |
| c. boys | h. home |
| d. girls | i. music |
| e. hot rods | j. government |
- E. To demonstrate the usefulness of recognizing the use of reports and judgments, distribute to the class the "Dictionary Definitions" and go over the study guide with them.

F. After the class has finished the above discussion, assign the student homework in which he is to select any short piece of writing -- editorials, news reports, poetry, short story, etc. Tell him that the selection must accompany his analysis of the piece when he hands it in. In his analysis he should include:

1. The author's subject.
2. The author's attitude toward his subject.
3. Whether the author relies mainly on reports or judgments.
4. Proof for the author's use or overuse of reports or judgments.
5. The affective connotations (whether "good" or "bad") of the words the author uses.
6. The author's effectiveness in using connotation, report, and judgment.

Tell the students the latter will invoke judgments on their part. Point out to them how an author must rely on the affective connotative value of words if he wants to arouse our emotions, whether these be good or bad.

DICTIONARY DEFINITIONS

communism n (F communisme, fr. commun common) 1a: a theory advocating elimination of private property b: a system in which goods are owned in common and are available to all as needed 2 cap a: a doctrine based upon revolutionary Marxian socialism and Marxism-Leninism that is the official ideology of the U.S.S.R. b: a totalitarian system of government in which a single authoritarian party controls state-owned means of production with the professed aim of establishing a stateless society c: a final state of society in Marxist theory in which the state has withered away and economic goods are distributed equally¹

communism n. (Fr. communisme L. communis; see COMMON), 1.a) an economic theory or system of the ownership of all property by the community as a whole. b) a theory or system of the ownership of all means of production (and distribution) by the community or society, with all members of the community or society sharing in the work and the products; specifically, such a system as practiced in the Soviet Union since 1917, and later in China, Poland, Czechoslovakia, and other communist countries, theoretically based on the doctrines of Marx, Engels, Lenin, and, latterly, Stalin, characterized by state planning and control of the economy, ruthless suppression of all opposition political parties and all deviation within the Party, and the suppression of individual liberties under a dictatorship; since 1940 expansionist by military action and subversion in Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Czechoslovakia, etc. 2. (often C-), a) a political movement for establishing such a system. b) the doctrines, methods, etc. of the Communist parties. 3. loosely, communalism.²

¹ Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, G. & C. Merriam Company, Publishers, Springfield, Massachusetts, U.S.A., 1963.

² Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, The World Publishing Company, Cleveland, 1958.

STUDY GUIDE: Dictionary Definitions.

1. What is the referent of both selections?
2. Which selection uses symbols that have "bad" affective connotation?
3. Which selection is the most objective in its presentation? Explain.
4. Which selection seems to be almost completely made up of reports? Explain.
5. Which selection makes use of some judgments? What are these judgments?
6. Which definition would most people agree with? Explain.
7. What kind of connotation is most demonstrated by these two selections?
8. Do you think reports are made up mainly of words with affective connotation or informative connotations? Explain.
9. What kind of connotations do you think are instrumental in making up judgments? Explain.

(9)

WORKSHEET: Reports, False Reports, and Judgments.

1. This room is 18 feet by 11 feet.
2. The principal of this school is a man.
3. Robert is intelligent.
4. His stupidity lost us the game.
5. He was afraid to answer.
6. Columbus discovered America in 1513.
7. Tom is religious.
8. That is a 1914 Ford.
9. A pound of feathers is heavier than three pounds of lead.
10. The Cleveland telephone book has 498,273 names in it.
11. Apple pie tastes better than cherry pie.
12. Tom is a filthy liar.
13. Democracy is the best form of government.
14. John Kennedy was a good man.

LESSON # 5: ADVERTISEMENT ANALYSIS

OBJECTIVES: To apply the tools of semantic analysis.

To identify the use of reports, judgments and affective connotations in written advertisements.

To recognize the referent of an advertisement and the use of abstractions in advertisement.

MATERIALS: Advertisements from magazines

PROCEDURES:

- A. To stimulate critical evaluation and thinking through the use of semantic tools, have students in the class select advertisements from magazines. In a discussion, analyze the advertisements for the delusion and fantasies produced through the use of words and visual apparatus.
1. Analyze the picture for the following:
 - a. Color connotation.
 - b. Packaging techniques.
 2. Analyze the copy for the following:
 - a. The symbol applied to the referent.
 - b. Affective and informative connotative phrases used for appeal.
 - c. Reports.
 - d. Judgments.
 3. Criticize the blurb for the following:
 - a. Promises of health.
 - b. Predictions of wealth.
 - c. Assurance of social prominence.
 - d. Associations with romance and domestic bliss.
 - e. Promise of personal popularity.
 - f. Aura of fashion and elegance.
 - g. Emotional appeal through the use of a poor child, etc.
 - h. The parent symbol.
- B. Divide the class into small heterogeneous groups and ask each group to analyze a different set of ads in the same manner.
- C. To evaluate the individual's ability to apply concepts of referent, symbol, report, judgment, connotation, denotation, and level of abstraction, ask the students to select an advertisement other than the ones used in class and write a critique utilizing the following concepts:

- C. (Cont'd)
1. Referent and symbol.
 2. Affective connotation and denotation.
 3. Usage of judgments and reports.
 4. The levels of abstraction used.
 - a. Which words are specific?
 - b. Which words are general?
 - c. Which, general or specific, reveals the most about the product?

D. To conclude the unit, divide the students into small heterogeneous groups to create an advertisement.

1. Select a product.
2. Create a trademark to symbolize the product.
3. Plan the layout of the page.
 - a. Illustrations.
 - b. Headings.
 - c. Copy.
4. Create the ad; make sure each student in your group has a fair amount of work to do.

Display the ads in the classroom when they are completed.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON SEMANTICS
Eight Grade Curriculum

RELATED UNITS:
Semantics (7 and 9)
Definition & Etymology
Dialects

Distributed by

The School District of Aiken County
Office of the Superintendent

CURRICULUM DIRECTOR
Leonard V. Kosinski

Charles C. Rogers
Project Upgrade
P.O. Drawer 771
Aiken, S.C. 29801

MATERIALS

RECORDS:

Griffith, Andy, "Just for Laughs", Capitol Records, T962

Close, Del and John Brent, "How to Speak Hip", Mercury Records,
CCM 2205

SHORT STORIES:

Thurber, James, "You Could Look It Up", in Short Story Masterpieces,
ed. Robert Penn Warren and Albert Erskine, Dell Publishing
Company, New York, 1954.

Clemens, Samuel L., "Buck Fanshaw's Funeral", in Essays on
Language and Usage, ed. Leonard F. Dean and Kenneth
Wilson, Oxford Press, New York, 1959.

ESSAYS:

Rafferty, Max, "What's Happened to Patriotism", Independent
Star-News, Pasadena, California, July 9, 1961.

FILMS:

Propaganda Techniques, Coronet Films.

LESSON # 1: REVIEW

OBJECTIVES: To recall the concepts and vocabulary taught in the seventh grade semantics unit.

MATERIALS: None

PROCEDURES:

- A. If students finish a previous unit at different times, the teacher should work with the first few students to finish. A reminder of the terms and the situations used to develop them with questions which test the students' knowledge of terms and applications leads to a review of those areas in which the students are weak. As these students become proficient in their knowledge of the seventh grade concepts, they may help other students who finish the previous unit. When all the students have had an opportunity for brief review, a diagnostic test will indicate their proficiency.

If the class completes a previous unit as a group, the teacher can begin this unit with a class discussion to remind the students of the seventh grade unit. A diagnostic test will again indicate their proficiency.

Diagnostic Test

1. What is a symbol?
2. What is a referent?
3. Why can you not use referents in your writing?
4. Give an example of an object which is both a symbol and a referent.
 - a. Describe it.
 - b. Explain what it symbolizes.
5. What is the denotative meaning of a word?
6. Which is more denotative, your answer to 4a. or your answer to 4b?
7. Give the denotative meaning of the word "rat".
8. What is the connotative meaning of a word?
9. Which is more connotative, your answer to 4a. or your answer to 4b.?
10. Give the connotative meaning of the word "rat".
11. What is the difference between the words "policeman" and "flatfoot"?
12. On the back of your test paper, write the word "car" one third of the way down the page. Label the top of the page "general" and the bottom of the page "specific". Now develop a ladder of abstraction for the word "car".

- B. To aid students who are weak in understanding, return their test papers and review with them the questions they missed. Use advertisements as a source for materials which use these concepts and assign students both the analysis and the creation of ads. Specify the particular concepts that they should emphasize in their work.
- C. Lesson #2 is particularly closely related to the seventh grade concepts. As it develops, work with individual students to relate it to the seventh grade unit concepts.

LESSON # 2: EUPHEMISM

OBJECTIVES: To understand that "decency" and "propriety" are powerful forces in changing the use of words.
To understand that language reflects the speaker's point of view.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

- A. To develop the concept from the student's experience, ask the students to supply a list of words which we use in place of the word dead. (passed away, departed, deceased, gone to his reward, no longer among us, kicked the bucket, a corpse.)
1. Which of these words are polite and which of them are crude? (As the students distinguish the two, list the words in two columns; if there are words about which they are not sure, place these in a center column. Label the three columns + , 0 and - .
 2. Why do we have all these words and phrases for the term dead? (They don't scare people; to be polite; we don't like to talk about dying; they have better connotations.)
 3. We do this also with many occupations. Can someone suggest another word for undertaker? (mortician, embalmer) For doctor? (sawbones, quack, physician)
 4. Why do people prefer some of these titles for their work to others that you have suggested? (They sound better; they have better connotations.)
- B. To label the concept, at this point introduce the word euphemism and define it as rewording to make an item or action sound better.
1. We also do this in our every day situations. Suppose that a member of the class talks a great deal. What would be a good euphemism for that phrase? (Some students may answer with phrases of worse connotation; correct them and direct the discussion again toward euphemism -- words and phrases that sound better, eg. He has great verbal skill.)
 2. What would be a good euphemism for "That boy never sits still"? (He is very active; he is a very busy child.)
- C. Work with the class on a writing problem which will aid the students in their comprehension of the concept.
1. Suppose that a group of boys playing in a vacant lot knocked a baseball through the window of the house next door. The person who lives in the house is a woman

of 65 who lives alone and has complained to the boys' parents about their playing. She owns the lot on which they play. On this particular occasion she decides to call the police. The first thing she says to the lieutenant who answers is to describe herself, her home, and her lot. Of course she uses euphemisms to do so. Let's write what she might say. (To provide a model for the next assignment and to reduce frustration, record the writing on the board as it develops.)

- D. To allow for less teacher direction, divide the class into small heterogeneous groups to develop the next section of the writing.
1. Next she describes the boys and their activities. In this case she uses words with harsh connotations. What would she say?
 2. Write out this situation in your groups.
- E. To give the students independence in their activity, make the following assignment.
1. Now the policemen come to the vacant lot and find the boys there. They ask the boys to describe what happened.
 2. Write the description the boys would give of the woman and the description they would give of themselves and their activities.
- F. After this assignment has been finished, conclude the lesson by asking the students to fold a sheet of paper into three columns heading them - for bad connotations, 0 for neutral words, and + for euphemisms. Begin the list with the students by filling in the words developed in part A of this lesson plan.
1. Now add to this list the words from the composition you have just written. Try to fill in all three columns.
 2. Listen carefully to the conversations you hear around school and at home today. Add five additional words to this list from what you hear today. Be ready to give these additional words to the class tomorrow.

LESSON # 5: INTRODUCTION TO PROPAGANDA

OBJECTIVES: To develop a critical attitude toward all forms of propaganda, whether they be "good" or "bad" forms of propaganda.
To understand the techniques used in propaganda.
To understand that scrutiny is necessary to distinguish between propaganda and scientific truths and facts.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Pass out mimeographed sheets on which the following sentences appear and have the students divide into groups to decide whether the statements can be proven or not. Ask them to explain the reasons for their answers on paper.
1. President Kennedy is the greatest President this country has ever had.
 2. President Kennedy was born on December 7, 1917.
 3. President Kennedy was born on September 6, 1920.
 4. All living men use their lungs to breathe.
 5. Democracy is the best form of government.
 6. Hemingway is the greatest writer of the twentieth century.
 7. There are 42,726 books in the public library.
 8. There are fifty people in that neighborhood who read newspapers.
 9. Cletus is a fool.
 10. Water contains two parts of oxygen to one part of hydrogen.
- After the students finish the assignment, discuss their answers with the whole class. Emphasize the importance of facts and lead the students to be aware that many statements offered as facts are only opinions.
- B. Divide the class into groups and have each group arrive at a definition for both "fact" and "opinion". After the discussion, each group can present its definitions. The teacher can note the main points on the blackboard and add any points the students may have omitted. The class can then develop a working definition.
- C. Have each student look in newspapers or magazines and select an article in which the author uses opinion and another article that uses scientific fact. When they bring these articles to class, select some to be read to the class, and then let the students tell why they believe one depends mostly on opinion and the other on fact.

LESSON #6: NAME CALLING AND GLITTERING GENERALITY

OBJECTIVES: To recognize these two propoganda techniques.

MATERIALS: "What's Happened to Patriotism?"

PROCEDURES:

- A. Present on the blackboard a sentence such as: "The anti-American, Communistic spirit of Senator Cope makes it perfectly clear why he has been called upon to appear at this committee hearing today." Ask the students the following questions to direct their thinking:
1. What can you tell me about Senator Cope?
 2. Where is Senator Cope, and what is about to happen to him?
 3. What words in the sentence turn you against Senator Cope?
 4. How do we know Senator Cope is anti-American and Communistic?
 5. Do you think it is enough to take the speaker's word that Senator Cope is anti-American and Communistic?
- B. On the basis of answers developed ask the students to write a definition of "name calling". Students who need more help in developing the concept of "name calling" may work with the following examples:
1. The fault-finders of the Democratic Party are constantly threatening our way of life.
 2. Can we allow the greedy spirit in the Republican Party to become wide-spread in our country?
 3. The inhuman and grasping nature of our opponents is what we are against.
 4. In his usual sissy way immature George started crying when he saw that the game was lost.
- C. To introduce glittering generalities, have the students examine the same selection used in the name calling example. Substitute the word "Commissar" for "Senator". For the benefit of the class the word "Commissar" should be explained. Divide the students into heterogeneous groups to discuss the following questions:
1. What can you tell me about Commissar Cope?
 2. In what country does he live?
 3. Is he an important person?
 4. Where is Commissar Cope, and what is about to happen to him?
 5. If you were a Communist living in Russia, what would be your reaction to the above statement about Commissar Cope?
 6. How do we know Commissar Cope is anti-American and

Communistic?

7. Is it enough to take the speaker's word that Commissar Cope is anti-American and Communistic?
8. What is the difference between the use of the words "anti-American" and "Communistic" in the two sentences presented on the blackboard?
9. Is there any way to prove scientifically that the words used are true, even though at one time the words are used to damage the name of the person and at another time they are used in praise of the person?

The term "glittering generality" can now be presented to the class. The class should note that glittering generalities differ only from name calling in that glittering generalities are used in praise whereas name calling is used to turn us against some idea or some person.

- D. Ask the students to give a definition for the term "glittering generalities". The definition should note that these devices do not use scientific fact, but depend solely on the connotative value of words used by a speaker to prejudice our attitudes toward a given subject. Both techniques are used to make us accept and approve, or reject and condemn without examining the evidence. Have the students examine the following examples of glittering generalities.
 - a. The Liberty loving and God fearing Democratic Party wishes to bring progress to our nation.
 - b. Now is the time for true Americans to back the cause of freedom by voting for the man of truth, the Republican Party's candidate.
 - c. Courageous George, a clean sportsman, walked across the bridge to the car.
 - d. In a time of stress, dedicated George in his usual loyal manner, worked like a true martyr despite constant set-backs.
- E. Ask the students to write two paragraphs. One paragraph should use the Name Calling technique and the other paragraph should use the Glittering Generalities technique. The subjects of both paragraphs should be the same in order that the students will clearly observe that by changing the words with "bad" connotative value for words with "good" connotative value they change the attitude of the listener or reader toward the subject.
- F. Distribute "What's Happened to Patriotism?" and have the students write a paper in which they analyze and discuss the use of name calling and glittering generalities in this article. The article can also be used for small group analysis and general class discussion.

LESSON #7: TRANSFER

OBJECTIVES: To recognize the use of this propaganda device.

MATERIALS: Study Guide: The propaganda technique of transfer.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Divide the students into heterogeneous groups and distribute the study guide. From the study guide, the students should come to the conclusion that the pictures of the great Americans, the cross, and the flag are things that we respect and revere. The speaker in the illustration is trying to transfer to himself and his cause the feelings and ideas we associate with these things by displaying them prominently for all to see. The transfer technique is not limited to visual materials. It can be employed in words. The students should be aware that they would probably react favorably to the surroundings presented in the illustration.
- B. After discussing the questions in the study guide and the term "TRANSFER", the student should reread the words of the speaker and answer the following questions:
1. Does the speaker try to associate anything we respect and revere to his cause? (God, Christ, the American way of life, liberty, freedom.)
 2. Why do you think the speaker includes these things in his speech?
 3. What does the speaker really want his movement to do?
 4. Is the speaker really advocating freedom and liberty for all?
 5. Do you think that "liquidating" all opponents is something that is God-like or Christlike?
 6. Is it part of the "American way of life" to completely destroy or kill your opposition?
 7. Is it part of our "American way of life" to eliminate the Senate and the House of Representatives?
 8. Do you think the things that the speaker tries to associate with his cause are really compatible with his cause?

The teacher should make sure that students are aware that the propagandist in using the transfer technique is hoping that we will connect with him, without being critical, the authority, the sanction, and the prestige of things we respect and revere. The teacher can also use the speech presented in the illustration to review name calling and glittering generalities.

- C. Ask the students to write a paragraph in which they show how the transfer technique is used in something with which they are familiar. They should tell what ideas or feelings are involved in the situation they describe, and why they think the person would want to transfer these feelings or ideas to himself or something else. Some examples for discussion to help the students think can be discussed in class.
1. Why would a boy who was never involved in sports appear in public with a sweater that had a large school letter and marks on the sleeve that indicated he had won a letter for three years in sports?
 2. Why would a boy who does not really like to smoke always put a cigarette in his mouth when he is with his gang?
 3. Why would a large manufacturing company that is primarily interested in making money spend a great deal of money for movies for schools and for advertising that only emphasized the good that it does for the public?
 4. Why would a man who seldom reads a book have on display a large library filled with expensive volumes?

STUDY GUIDE: The propaganda technique of transfer.

A man is standing on the stage which has six large American flags displayed prominently along the front of the stage. Behind the man are huge pictures of George Washington, Abraham Lincoln, and Thomas Jefferson. Above the man hangs a large cross that is spotlighted in order that it can be easily seen. The man is wearing an academic gown and cap. He is speaking.....

"Following the principles of God, our movement must conquer the small, stupid minds that stand in the way of the American way of life. With Christlike determination we must completely destroy all opposition to the American Fascist movement. If we are to succeed, the devil institutions of the Senate and the House of Representatives must be erased from the face of our liberty loving land. God is our guide. God will see that the American Fascist movement will liquidate all who oppose us. Freedom, God, and the American Fascist cannot fail."

1. What do you think of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and Abraham Lincoln?
2. Why do you think the speaker had the pictures of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson and Abraham Lincoln displayed behind him?
3. What does the cross or the American flag mean to you? What are they symbols of?
4. Why do you think the speaker had these placed on the stage with him?
5. Why did the speaker wear an academic gown and cap? Was he trying to tell you something about himself without saying it?

LESSON #8: TESTIMONIAL

OBJECTIVES: To recognize this propaganda device.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

A. Present the following situation to the class:

A candidate is running for the office of governor of your state. He has a number of people appear on television supporting him in his campaign for the office. The people supporting him are the President of the United States, a famous movie actress, the head of the Chamber of Commerce, a leading labor leader, a television comedian, and a group of religious leaders.

Ask the students the following questions:

1. Why do you think the candidate has these people speak on his behalf?
2. Who was the candidate trying to influence by using such different personalities?
3. What people would most likely be influenced by each different personality?
4. Are all of these people really qualified to judge the candidate?
5. How do you think each personality was motivated to endorse the candidate?

The students should realize that the testimonial technique attempts to make us accept things on the basis of the prestige or authority of the person who does the endorsing. We are not asked to think about the qualifications of the things being endorsed, and we are not expected to examine evidence. We are just told something or someone is good or bad because the endorser says so.

B. Have the students bring to class an ad using a testimonial.
They should ask whether the person giving the testimonial is qualified to give it, or whether the person is motivated by some ulterior motive.

LESSON #9: PLAIN FOLKS AND BANDWAGON

OBJECTIVES: To recognize this propaganda device.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Present to the class a group of questions that will help them understand the Plain Folks technique.
1. Which person would you more than likely trust most, a person who appears to be down to earth like you, or a person who seems distant and not part of your group? Why?
 2. Would you tend to trust a neighbor or an outsider more? Why?
 3. Which person would you like more, a man running for political office who appears to enjoy the homey things of life and goes to picnics with his "neighbors" and seems like a real down to earth person, or a politician who keeps himself from the people and does not seem to have the same feelings and interests that ordinary men have? Why?
 4. Why do men who wish to influence us try to appear to be just like us? Why do they want to appear as "just plain folks among their neighbors"?
 5. If we say that each of the questions we've used illustrates a technique in propaganda called the plain folks technique, how would you define this propaganda technique?
- B. Present to the class the following situation: A fashion magazine reports that women are wearing the hem of dresses an inch below the knee this year.
1. What would make a girl want to hem all dresses an inch below the knee?
 2. Why do people usually like to do what everybody else is doing?
 3. Why is it hard for an individual to go against what everyone else considers proper?
 4. Why do kids follow a parade on their bikes when they aren't really a part of it?
 5. When fellow students tell us that everybody else is watching a particular program, do we usually make it a point to watch that program in order to be able to discuss it with our friends, or do we just ignore it?
 6. Why would a politician tell us, "Everybody's on our side. Be on the winning side. Vote for us."?

The students should be aware that most people like to follow the crowd and that we usually will follow what our group is doing. We are held together by common ties of nationality, race, sex, vocation, religion, and environment. The propagandist usually will appeal to these ties by saying that the rest of our group is doing something; therefore, we should also. This appeals to our desire to remain in the groups we belong to. The term "band wagon" can be used in connection with this propaganda technique.

LESSON #10: SYNTHESIS OF PROPAGANDA TECHNIQUES

OBJECTIVES: To review the techniques of propaganda.
To discover other techniques used in propaganda.
To develop a definition of propaganda.

MATERIALS: "Propaganda Techniques" (film).
Advertisements and newspaper stories.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Lead the class in a discussion of the propaganda techniques and their purposes.
 1. We have discussed many propaganda techniques.
What purpose do they all have? (To influence us.)
 2. Let's list them all and see if they all really do have this purpose. (As the students name the techniques, write them on the board.)

- B. Distribute the materials collected from the students in lesson #5 of this unit. Also distribute at least two ads to each student. Ask the students to read these materials to see if they can find any techniques that have not been mentioned in class. Accept any suggestions the students make. They may mention color, appealing pictures, humor, or repetition. On the basis of student ability and enthusiasm the teacher may decide whether to pursue these suggestions or let them stand.

- C. To focus student attention for the film, present it as a brief summary of propaganda techniques.
 1. After this film, each of you will write a definition of propaganda. Watch the picture carefully for what it says about propaganda.
 2. We may have missed some important propaganda techniques. If the film mentions any that we have not discussed, be sure to pay close attention so that you can explain that technique also. (Card-stacking is explained in the film but has not been developed in this unit.)

- D. To culminate the study of propaganda techniques assign each student the task of turning in an ad, editorial, or essay that illustrates each technique and a written analysis explaining how the item uses the technique.

LESSON #11

OBJECTIVES: To apply persuasive techniques in writing.

MATERIALS: None.

PROCEDURES:

- A. To culminate the unit, have the students write a letter in which they use the persuasive techniques taught in the unit.
1. What are some issues that are very important to you?
(Brainstorm with the students to find important issues.)
 2. Is there anything you would like to see changed?
 - a. Why?
 - b. How?
 3. Who is the person who could best make these changes or solve these issues?
 4. Prepare a letter to that person. Try to convince him to make the change by using the techniques we have discussed. What are these techniques? (List them on the board as the students name them.)
- B. Select one of the best letters, ditto it, and, as a final test, distribute it to the class.
1. Underline the words and phrases which use persuasive techniques.
 2. Write these on your test paper and after them explain what they are and how they work.

THE EUCLID ENGLISH DEMONSTRATION CENTER

PROJECT ENGLISH MATERIALS

A UNIT ON SEMANTICS
Ninth Grade Average Curriculum

RELATED UNITS:

Semantics (7)

Semantics (8)

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TEACHING THE UNIT

Although the ninth grade semantics unit is a sequel to the seventh and eighth grade units, it may be taught independently with minor revisions. This unit involves the study of generalization, logical reasoning and argumentation, and also encompasses a review and reapplication of semantic techniques studied in previous units. It provides the students with a synthesizing approach to semantics leading up to the analysis and writing of essays.

To stimulate the students' interest in the concepts of the unit, the introductory lessons consist of a reading of two derogatory essays about the modern teen-ager. The expected protest on the part of the students will involve them in refuting generalizations through the use of inductive reasoning. Using the students' own statements, the teacher introduces the concepts of generalization, induction and assumption. The discussion of these terms is brief, as other lessons will enlarge upon each of these ideas.

The students begin with work on recognizing and defining generalizations. From here they proceed to induction as a means of formulating and verifying general statements. Also, they are briefly introduced to the deductive syllogism as a method of using generalizations in formal reasoning. Such formal logic is not a key objective of the unit, but is merely introduced as a graphic guide to later, more informal reasoning they will be expected to use their analysis. It is hoped that knowledge of induction and deduction will help the student develop a more sophisticated approach to argumentation than the more emotional reactions to which adolescents, and many adults, are prone.

Since fallacies in reasoning take many different forms, students are introduced to examples of logical errors which they are asked to criticize. The terminology associated with such fallacies is kept to a minimum, the emphasis being placed more on recognition of the erroneous processes behind the statement than on the labeling of such processes.

Before beginning a study of newspaper and magazine articles and editorial commentary, the students review the propaganda techniques studied in the eighth grade. A film and followup discussion are used for this purpose. Equipped with some knowledge of logical thought processes, types of logical errors, and techniques of propaganda, the students begin criticism of various written material. Through analysis of the argumentation presented in this material, the student's ability to evaluate a writer's purpose and the validity of his ideas is developed.

Not only are the students asked to identify the methods and test the validity of arguments and commentary written by others, but they are also asked to utilize these methods in their own compositions and evaluate themselves using the criteria established in their studies. The lesson on the composition of an argumentative paper begins with the study of two short examples--each arguing on a different side of a controversial issue. From the models the students derive an idea of the form of argument--proposition, evidence, conclusion--and two of the modifications this form may undergo in actual writing. Each of the three parts of the argumentative form are worked with individually. Finally, a topic is chosen by each student and the writing of an original paper begins. Samples of previous student written arguments are studied while the students are writing their own, with the idea that the perception of errors in papers written by their peers will prepare them to examine their own work with a more critical eye. The class works in groups for discussion of their own papers and those mentioned above before the final copies of the argumentative papers are written. The papers produced in this lesson open up approaches to concluding the unit with review and counter-argument, or they may serve as the final evaluation of the entire unit.

MATERIALS

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LESSON #1

OBJECTIVE: To identify generalizations, assumptions, and inductive proof in argumentation.

MATERIALS: Essays on Teen-agers

PROCEDURES:

A. To stimulate argumentation in the class distribute both essays on teen-agers. Have the class read the obvious and emotional essay first and then the other essay before any class discussion takes place. After the class has finished reading the essays it should not be hard to get the students to react. Ask then if they agree with what the authors are saying, or simply say, "These seem like reasonable arguments to me. What do you think?" It is useful to goad the students in order to get everyone in the class involved. The students will usually begin by saying that the articles aren't true. Simply ask them why. They should begin by picking out the generalizations about teen-agers. They will say that they know lots of teen-agers who are not like the ones represented in the essays. They will probably point out that the authors have picked isolated examples to base their arguments on. As the students do this, have them support and build their arguments with some kind of proof. Make them constantly refer to specific passages in the essays to criticize. Don't allow their reactions to remain strictly emotional.

B. After the students have had sufficient time to argue against the essays, start to analyze their arguments with them. First illustrate a generalization by writing one they have criticized on the board.

1. How did you go about disproving this statement? (By citing examples which do not fit this generalization.)
2. How do you think the author arrived at this generalization in the first place? (He just assumed it. He saw several examples and overgeneralized.)
3. What could we call generalizations which a person accepts without proof or which he does not or cannot prove? (Assumptions.)

Draw a graphic description of the process of generalization on the board and label it

INDUCTIVE REASONING	
Teen-ager #1 is rude	SPECIFIC FACT
Teen-ager #2 is rude	SPECIFIC FACT
Teen-ager #3 is rude	SPECIFIC FACT
ALL TEEN-AGERS ARE RUDE	GENERALIZATION

C. To provide further practice with the testing and criticism of assumptions, distribute the worksheet on assumptions and work through the first few examples with the class as a whole. When the students have developed some fluency in the analysis of assumptions, let them continue with the worksheet in small groups or individually. Have the groups report their conclusions to the class and discuss the results.

After the class has gone through the first few examples, ask the following questions:

1. Are the assumptions testable?
2. Were the assumptions correct?
3. How could we test to see if they were correct?
4. Can an assumption be incorrect?
5. Why is it important to discover assumptions and then test them?
6. Are all assumptions provable?

To give further practice in identifying and testing assumptions, return to the worksheet and have the students tell what is being assumed and whether the assumption is valid or not. They should also state how they would go about disproving the statement.

- D. In order to review concepts taught in the seventh and eighth grade semantics units, list the major concepts of those units on the board, and ask the class for examples of each in the two articles "Teen-age Corruption" and "A Threat to Our Ideals."

List of concepts from seventh and eighth grade semantics units:

affective connotation	report	name calling
informative connotation	judgment	glittering generalities
symbol	euphemism	band wagon
referent	testimonial	slang
denotation	slanting	technical language
false report	transfer	card stacking
scientific fact	plain folks	

Ask the following questions in order to start the discussion on "Teen-age Corruption."

1. In paragraph one the author calls the students "obnoxious" and "disrespectful"; is this a fact? (No.) What is it? (Opinion or judgment.)
2. Compare the first three sentences of paragraph one with the last two sentences of the same paragraph. What is different about the tone of the two sets? Is the first set of sentences a judgement? Explain.
3. How does the author describe those who want to protect and help teenagers? What specific words does he use? Is the feeling we associate with these words good? (No.) Why? What do we call the feeling that we associate with a word? (Connotation.) What do we call words like this when someone uses them in reference to someone else? (Name calling.)
4. What do we call the device that someone uses to tell you something, but doesn't present all the evidence or first selects that material which serves his purpose? (Slanting or card stacking.) Can you find examples of this technique in the essay?
5. Does the author use any name calling techniques in paragraph three? How does he show that E. P. Thompson is wrong?
6. How does the author try to appeal to you and get you on his side in paragraph four?
7. In the last paragraph the author uses words like "goodness," "love," and "Creator" to prove his point. What propaganda technique is he using? Describe how this technique is used.

Have the students follow the same procedure in small groups with the second essay.

- E. In order to compare the tone and style of the two essays, ask questions such as the following.
1. Which essay uses propaganda techniques more obviously? Support your choice with examples.
 2. Which one offers more support for its opening argument?
 3. How does the author in "A Threat to Our Ideals" attack those who say teen-agers aren't so bad? (Paragraph 5) How does this compare with the similar attack in "Teen-age Corruption"? (Paragraph 3.)
 4. Would the persuasiveness of the two articles be the same to all people?
 5. How would they differ?
- F. To reinforce the study of assumptions, assign a paper on assumption in which the students attack the authors' arguments by destroying the assumptions that are made.

TEEN-AGE CORRUPTION by Mentor

One day as I was walking through the halls of our school, I saw a young girl standing at her locker swearing quite loudly because her lock was stuck. I walked over to her and asked her if she could refrain from using foul language in the halls. Just as I made my statement, two other students approached and came to the defense of the girl. All three students were obnoxious in their attitude and were in every way disrespectful. It is this kind of disrespect, foul language, and cliquishness that typifies the low moral tone of the teen-agers of today.

Teen-agers are probably the most corrupt segment existing in our society. Most of this corruption is due to the fact that spineless, ill-informed, and irresponsible adults who pretend to be educated coddle these sickening children. In our schools, churches, homes, courts, and businesses, so-called well-meaning idiots say that teen-agers must have a chance at free expression and must be dealt with kindly because they are going through a difficult period of life. They say teen-agers are socially maladjusted because of problems that disturbed these children when they were infants and because our world is insecure. These statements are rubbish.

Teen-agers must be dealt with in the same fashion as any other criminal or immoral group in our society. They must be shown firmness and must be shown that our democratic society will not tolerate their corruption. We must not try simply to understand them, but must deal with them swiftly and efficiently. Psychologists, such as E. P. Thompson of the Committee for Teen-age Guidance, state that teen-agers are basically moral and that the crime and immorality that they demonstrate is but an expression of their insecurity. Mr. Thompson had better wake up. His statement is completely false because he follows the policies of a misguided left-wing organization. He is so worried about keeping his job as a psychologist that he cannot face the question directly. He is a poor authority because he has no children who are teen-agers, and he lives in the ivory tower of the academic world. If he would ever leave the confines of his library and walk out into the truth of day, he would see the evil that spreads over our country.

Any human being who loves mankind and dignity, and is able to think objectively, or for that matter, anyone who is able to think at all, can see that teen-agers have reached the lowest ebb of human existence. They are human only in name; they are surely not human in the sense that the great Greek philosophers conceived it.

Teen-agers are like movie sets which look appealing at first glance but on closer inspection are shallow. Movie sets are highly painted flimsy paper and canvas that change according to the requirements of the show. They are simply trash that have no real value but impress many by their glitter. It is only when we see the real thing that we are disgusted with movie sets. With these things in mind we can see what teen-agers really are like.

The real shame is that the violence exhibited by teen-agers turns our streets into a paradise for evil. Our older citizens are afraid to walk the streets at night. Our highways have become the slaughterhouse of the world. We citizens who really care about goodness and love must band together as an immovable unit to force teen-agers back into the mold that their Creator established for them. We must move before it is too late. We cannot stand by while our world falls into oblivion.

A THREAT TO OUR IDEALS
by Deuteronomy

Every society that man has created has been dependent upon its young people to carry on its ideals and culture. Our society is not different from those that have existed before. Our society, which believes in the dignity of the individual, the betterment of the human race, and the equality of all men, seeks to continue itself so that the world will always have a light of freedom to turn to even in the darkest hours of despair. If we are to give this light to the future generations of the world, we must concentrate our attention on our teen-agers, who will be responsible for carrying this light and passing it on to those who follow them.

I fear our task is a difficult one, because our teen-agers seem to have lost many of the ideals that are so sacred to human dignity. On January 28, 1963 a boy of seventeen in a fit of anger shot and killed his mother, father, and two older sisters. When asked later if he regretted his deed, he answered, "No, they deserved what they got! They weren't any damn good." The following day a boy and a girl, both fifteen, were arrested in the act of burglarizing a store. When the police questioned them they found out that these two teen-agers were responsible for forty-seven other burglaries that had been committed in a two-year period.

These stories are typical of the behavior of our teen-agers all across the country. Our teen-agers have lost the values of their religious heritage. Teen-agers no longer care for their families, the property of others, or individual morality. They think of little else than having a good time and being well liked.

If we look objectively at teen-age dances, we can see the weakening of the moral fibers that make our country what it is today. Teen-agers dance in such a way as to arouse primitive passions in each other. They use dance parties as an excuse to drink, smoke, and tell filthy stories. The dances are one of the main causes for the decay of values among our young people. Years ago dances used to be fun because young people gathered to exchange experiences and they were always careful to conduct themselves in morally acceptable ways.

Those days of morality seem to be gone. Many leading men in our country have echoed the same fear. They feel that our teen-agers have lost the way and are incapable of being leaders in our democratic society. These men of dignity and authority have a right to fear because anyone who looks at our teen-agers can see the sad state that they have fallen into.

There are a few misguided individuals in our society who say that the teen-agers of today are no different from those generations that came before. These people say that our teen-agers will grow up in time and that a few mistakes are not enough to give one the right to condemn teen-agers. I believe they are wrong. If we do nothing about an infection, it spreads until it has destroyed the whole organism. Those people who say that juvenile delinquency among teen-agers is just a phase that young people go through are not looking at the facts. They are retreating from reality. They are adults who are unable to realize the threat to morality. They are too concerned about their own little world of today to think about our responsibility to tomorrow. They are sleeping while the wolf waits outside the door.

We, who realize the facts, will not sleep while the wolf devours our society. We will relight the lamp of freedom and insure that the future will have that lamp. The overwhelming corruptness of our young must be dealt with. We will deal with it in the home, in the school, in the church, and in the courts. We will see that tomorrow will not be destroyed today.

WORKSHEET: ANALYZING ASSUMPTIONS

1. If in math class you were given some exercises to perform and after you had completed them the teacher told you to open your books to the answer pages to check to see if your answers were the same, what does the teacher believe about the answers in the back of the book?
2. What do we call this belief that something is correct without testing it?
3. If you are planning to buy a new bicycle and a friend tells you he knows where you can get it at a 40% discount, he does not usually ask you if you want to save 40%. What does your friend believe about you?
4. If you are terribly sick in the morning and your mother calls the doctor immediately to come and see you, what beliefs about you and the doctor does she hold?
5. "I know he's stupid. He's a Democrat, isn't he?"
6. During the World Wars, we always sang the national anthem when a large group assembled. Why wouldn't that custom engender patriotism during the cold war of today?
7. "My brother always wins at cards when he wears that green tie in the corner. Why don't you wear it tonight when you play bridge?"
8. "John is really tough; he's a Marine."
9. "Betty doesn't know anything about teaching; she's only an assistant typist."
10. Out of one hundred people tested 98% said they owned a Ford. This shows that most people in our country own Fords.
11. "Don't touch those boxes; they are full of poison!"
12. The fact that 10% of the children in our school have been arrested shows that crime among children in America is increasing at a shocking rate.
13. The test showed that six out of one hundred children are unhappy at home. This indicates that parents are doing a poor job in some homes.
14. When an individual is threatened by someone bigger than he, he is justified in using a weapon to defend himself. So too must Cuba develop an atom bomb to defend itself against the United States.
15. "The clock says 11:00, so Olive must be in bed."
16. "Molly, the President said the cost of new items has decreased since he came into office. Therefore, we should buy a car."
17. Two teen-agers won medals in the Olympics while the coach was in the hospital. If teen-agers were given more freedom in sports activities we would win a great many more medals at the Olympics.
18. Education is the means by which the Negro in America will gain equality. For a man without an education is like a seed that is not planted. It cannot grow. It cannot serve the purpose it was meant for.
19. We must unite in order to stop the progress of Communism. If we do not, it will destroy all in its path. Religion will be lost. Freedom will die. Man's spirit will be crucified under the banner of materialism.

LESSON #2

OBJECTIVES: To define and identify a generalization.
To evaluate the validity of testing generalizations through predictability.

MATERIALS: Worksheets

PROCEDURES:

A. To reinforce the concept of generalization, distribute Worksheet 1 and ask the students to mark the items G (generalization) or S (specific). Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 14, and 15 are all generalizations. The students will mark some of these as specific because of the use of specific detail such as "Water freezes at 32°F." (See explanation below.) Before discussing their answers, ask the class to give their definition of generalization. They should have some knowledge of the terms, general and specific, from previous semantics units. To arrive at a distinction between the two types of statements, write two of the worksheet items on the board.

1. Jeremy is a Roman Catholic.

2. Water freezes at 32°F.

The class, through discussion, should see that #1 gives information about one individual, and #2 gives the quality of a class of matter which we call water. In other words, #2 is saying that all water possesses this quality and groups it together. Follow through on this type of analysis until all the statements are properly classified.

B. To begin the definition of generalization, ask the class to form a definition which will cover all the examples on the worksheet. They should develop something similar to the following:

A generalization is a statement which groups together similar occurrences or objects into a class.

C. To develop the idea of predicability inherent in a generalization, read the class the following paragraph.

Mr. and Mrs. Simpson spent their vacation in Florida every winter. They had always enjoyed the warmth of Florida sunshine while their northern neighbors struggled with frozen fuel lines and icy sidewalks. Mr. Simpson always bid his fellow businessmen good-bye every November, saying, "Why don't you come with us? Winters in Florida are warm and sunny." He and his wife planned for their trip months ahead of time, stocking up with suntan lotion, sunglasses and sports clothes. This winter they loaded their car, and with thoughts of palm trees, fresh orange juice and sandy beaches, began their journey south. A week later the local headlines read "Frost Destroys Orange Crop--Florida Freezes." There were no "Wish you were here" post cards from the Simpsons this year.

Discuss the following with the class:

1. What knowledge about Florida had the Simpsons accumulated during the years?

2. What generalization had they made as a result of this knowledge?

3. On what did they base their decision to go south?

4. Do we make many decisions of this kind based on generalizations?

Ask the class to supply examples from their own experience where they made a decision or a judgement based on a generalization.

Examples:

a. Because I heard that geometry was a difficult course, I decided not to take it in the tenth grade.

b. Because I knew that Gertrude was a gossip, I did not tell her about my date with Herman.

Ask the students what they are doing when they base a decision on a generalization. If they do not arrive at the word prediction, supply this label once the idea is established.

D. To provide opportunity to test a prediction and the probability of its validity, present the class with a generalization such as the following:

The average teen-ager smokes a package of cigarettes a day.

Ask questions such as those listed below to elicit analytical responses from the class.

1. What prediction can you make from this generalization? (A teen-ager I meet will be a smoker.)
2. To what extent will the prediction be a true one? (Disagreement will arise here. Members of the class will point out that they or their friends and relatives do or don't smoke.)
3. Does the statement say that all teen-agers smoke? (No.)
4. How does one arrive at an average in math class?
5. In forming this prediction was it possible to examine all the cases before establishing the average? (No.)
6. How do you suppose this generalization was arrived at? (Tested a sample and generalized the average from it.)
7. If you ran the test on your school would you come out with the same generalization? (Response dependent on nature of student body.)
8. Would the totals and average from a school survey permit you to predict the smoking habits of all teen-agers? Why or why not? (Should get at the idea that the school is a narrow sample from one area of the country, with, probably, a particular socio-economic background.)
9. If you wanted to do a more valid survey of the average teen-ager, how would you set up your study? (Random sampling--covering all areas of the country and socio-economic backgrounds.)
10. What types of questions then must you ask before you can accept a generalization? (Summarize the preceding questions.)
11. Are the predictions made from generalizations always reliable?

If the students appear confused about prediction and probability, lead a whole class discussion of generalizations such as the following in the same manner as above:

1. The average American family earns \$5,000 a year.
2. Children begin to walk at one year of age.
3. The average San Francisco temperature in the winter is 56° F.
4. The average American family owns two cars.
5. Everyone's switching to I. & Q. cigars.

E. To enlarge the definition of generalization, have the students add the quality of predicability to the existing class definition. The addition may read something like this:

. . .and implies or predicts that all members of that class will possess the same qualities.

F. To provide practice in the identification and analysis of generalizations, distribute the second worksheet after dividing the class into heterogeneous groups. Allow time on the last part of the worksheet for students to survey advertisements to find examples of the generalizations presented.

WORKSHEET 1: IDENTIFYING GENERALIZATIONS AND SPECIFICS

1. 40% of all Scandinavians have blond hair.
2. A bird is a winged, feathered animal having two feet, claws and a beak.
3. Violets bloom best in a window with northern exposure.
4. Jeremy is a Roman Catholic.
5. Minor politicians get good jobs because they support the candidate.
6. Jon lives in Norway.
7. Water freezes at 32° F.
8. If teen-agers eat rich foods, they will have a bad complexion.
9. Ford cars are made by Ford Motor Company.
10. Insurance rates for women are lower.
11. Mrs. Jones drives a car.
12. Every action must have an opposite and equal reaction.
13. Cletus weighs 175 pounds.
14. Labor unions want higher wages for their members.
15. Teen-agers become juvenile delinquents because they can't get jobs.

WORKSHEET II

I. 1. Upon what well-known generalizations do the cartoons on the following pages rely for their humor?

II. 1. What is the prediction in the following advertisement?

2. On what generalization is it based?

Dad is smiling because our new Bark handles like a sports car. Mom is smiling because it has almost as much room as cars costing hundreds of dollars more. But they won't be smiling very long. That policeman we just passed got a big water bomb right in his face.

III. 1. Which statements in the following advertisements are generalizations?

2. What kind of investigation could you do to test the reliability of these general statements?

A. Frozen food packages are wet. So are milk containers. Load a week's groceries on top of them and OOPS! Grocery clerks sometimes try to solve this problem by doubling up on bags. But two bags cost the grocer twice as much as one bag. Papaya has developed H₂O, a water resistant bag that can carry a load of soaking wet groceries for 45 minutes.

B. What do doctors do when they have a headache? A survey shows many doctors take the fast, pain-relieving ingredients in Goober Peas. In fact, 3 out of 4 doctors recommend this same type relief to their patients.

IV. 1. Are the generalizations in the following quotation verifiable? Why or why not?

"In Europe we all hate one another. There is no friendliness in Europe. We believe more in ideas for ideas' sake than in people--the theory of loving, yes, but no love. The American is a person who is friendly. I know this is a cliché--but he is entitled to a cliché, for basically he is a humble individual, one of the last."

Romain Gary, Life, January 12, 1962.

V. 1. What generalizations about the techniques and problems of the advertising agency do these excerpts from Hidden Persuaders make?

2. Which of these generalizations can you find evidence for in modern advertising?

A. In the early days the cake mix packages instructed "Do not add milk, just add water." Still many wives insisted on adding milk as their creative touch, overloaded the cakes or muffins with calcium, and often the cakes or muffins fell, and the wives would blame the cake mix. Or the packages would say, "Do not add eggs." Typically the eggs and milk had been added by the manufacturer in dried form. But the wives who were interviewed in depth studies would exclaim: "What kind of cake is it if you just add tap water?" Several different psychological firms wrestled with this problem and came up with essentially the same answer. The mix makers should always leave the housewife something to do. Thus Dr. Dichter counseled General Mills that it should start telling the housewife that she and Bisquick together could do the job, and not Bisquick alone. Swansdown White Cake Mix began telling wives in large type: "You add Fresh Eggs..." Some mixes have the wife add both fresh eggs and fresh milk."

B. The oleomargarine people felt they had a perfect inexpensive substitute for butter. Their product had to lift itself literally by its own bootstraps to become an accepted part of middle-majority life. The obstacles seemingly were as formidable as they were irrational. The difficulty was summed up eloquently by Pierre Martineau to ad men in these words: "I guess I am trying to say that mere words and logic often are quite insufficient to remold our deep-seated prejudices. Margarine, for instance, sells for half the price of butter, it looks and tastes like butter, and the margarine people insist it has all the nutritional values of butter. Yet most people stubbornly say it isn't as good, and all the advertising logic by the margarine manufacturers is ineffective to change this attitude." The margarine people, in their uphill struggle against what they felt was unreason, sought to disguise their product as butter in every way they could. They got into long arguments with the Federal Trade Commission because they kept using words like "churn," "fresh churned," "real churns," and "churned a full hour"; and they usually lost. Evidence of the irrationality margarine was combating was provided by Louis Cheskin of the color Research Institute. He asked a large number of women at a luncheon if they could tell the difference between butter and margarine. More than 90% insisted they could, and that they preferred butter because oleo tasted "oily," "greasy," "more like lard than butter," to use some of the descriptions. Two pats were served to each lady present. One was yellow (margarine) and the other white (freshly churned butter). The ladies were asked if they could tell the difference in the taste of the two and describe what they were. More than 95% of the ladies identified the yellow margarine as butter and used such words as "pure" and "fresh" to describe it. And they identified the white butter as margarine and complained that it was oily and greasy and tasted like shortening...

C. A refrigerator maker ran into trouble trying to convince housewives of the wondrous performance of his magic automatic-defrosting system. In the ad in print and on TV, the refrigerator was shown with the door wide open, unattended. The Institute for Motivational Research in talking to housewives who had seen this ad found what it believed to be the reason for their failing to try to buy the wonderful product. It found that all the message about the merits of automatic defrosting had gone right past the women, unheeded. They couldn't take their eyes off that wide open refrigerator and wondered uneasily what kind of a housekeeper would be so careless in wasting electricity and letting food spoil. After that the refrigerator maker was always careful to show a housewife with her hand on the open refrigerator door.

LESSON #3

OBJECTIVES: To test generalizations by inductive reasoning.
To construct a deductive syllogism.

MATERIALS: True-False Test
"You Can Buy Happiness"

PROCEDURES:

- A. To provide material for analysis, ask the class to take the True-False Test. Total the number of true and false answers on each of the items by show of hands. Discuss with the class the ways in which they can logically test generalizations on which they disagreed.
1. Once you have a generalization, how can you test whether it is reliable or not? (The answers will probably involve an inductive method of proof-testing a number of specific examples to see if they provide the same generalization. If there is no response, remind them of the way they challenged generalizations about teen-agers in Lesson #1.)
 - a. Number of cases studied to make up the generalization.
 - b. Number of exceptions.
- B. To apply this test, take one of the items from the test and analyze the faulty inductive logic that could have gone into its construction.
Example: Women are poor drivers.
 - a. How many women would you have to test?
 - b. What do you mean by "poor"?
 - c. How could you set up the test?
 - d. What else would you have to find out about the women tested?
(Age, education, I. Q., health, years of driving.)
- C. To give further experience, ask the students to select one of the other items and make up a set of questions they could ask to test the generalization inductively. Check the questions to see that they include the number of cases studied, the number of exceptions, and consideration of other factors which might account for the result.
- D. To apply the deductive test of a generalization, reproduce a diagram of the deductive pattern of reasoning on the board. Make one of the generalizations on the test the major premise:
People on welfare are too lazy to work.
Ask the class how they could test this statement deductively.
1. Believing this statement to be true, what would you expect to find the next time you met someone who relied on welfare money for support? (Lazy)
 2. If your father lost his job and had to get welfare payments, what would you conclude about him, based on this generalization? (Lazy.)
 3. But if you know your father had tried to get a job, and was a hard worker, what must you say about the generalization? (Overgeneralized, or probably false.)
 4. Let's set up deductively on the board to see what the reasoning looks like.
 - (1) People on welfare are too lazy to work.
 - (2) My father is on welfare.
 - (3) My father is too lazy to work.
 5. How could you divide statement one?
People on welfare/are too lazy to work.
 6. How could you divide statement two?
My father/ is on welfare.

7. How could you divide statement three?

My father / is too lazy to work.

8. How can you describe the two parts of each of these statements?
- Number one sets up a general group (class) and gives a quality they possess.
 - Number two gives an individual which belongs to the group.
 - Number three concludes the individual, because he belongs to the group, possess the quality.
 - What is the function of the phrase "are too lazy to work"? (Describes class; gives quality of class.)
 - What is the function of "is on welfare" in statement two? (Classifies individual.)
 - What is the second part of statement three a repetition of? Why? (Gives quality of class to individual member of class.)
9. If you know the conclusion (statement three) is false, what happens to the generalization? How could you correct it?

If the students do not perceive the form immediately, the following type of questioning should bring about the desired response:

- If placed on a ladder of abstraction (seventh grade semantics unit) where would "People on welfare" stand in relation to "my father"?
- What is the relationship between the general term "People on welfare" and the specific term "my father"? (The second belongs to the first.)
- In definition, what do we call that group to which the thing being defined belongs? (Class.) In the same way, "People on welfare" a general class in this kind of reasoning.

Label the class and the individual on the board.

10. Analyze the following generalization in the same way.

- All Italians are gangsters.
- My grandmother is an Italian.
- Therefore, my grandmother is a gangster.

#1 class - Italians
quality - gangsters

#2 individual - grandmother
class - Italian

#3 individual - grandmother
quality - gangster

11. If your grandmother, to the best of your knowledge is not a gangster, what can you say about the reliability of the generalization. (False generalization; overgeneralization.)
12. Examine the following reasoning:
- All Italians are gangsters.
 - My uncle is a gangster.
 - Therefore, my uncle is Italian.

Can you predict whether or not someone is Italian based on statement one? What violation of form in the above reasoning has created the unreliable conclusion? (Statement two, part two, and statement three, part two, have switched around.)

13. Choose any three of the items on the test and set up deductive tests for them. Check the validity of the conclusion against your personal experience.

14. Does one exception disprove a generalization? Does one true conclusion prove a generalization? Then how is this reasoning useful?
 15. When we are thinking about something, do we set up formal tests like this in our minds? What is the purpose of diagramming reasoning in such a way?
 16. Do people always change their minds when their beliefs are logically proven false? What kinds of answers could you get from a person when you logically proved him wrong? Why?
- E. Review with the class the terms inductive, deductive, generalization. Ask summary questions of this type:
1. How may knowledge of the inductive reasoning process aid in testing the validity of generalizations?
 2. How may deductive reasoning provide a means for testing generalizations?
- F. To illustrate these processes in an informal and more natural setting, distribute the Buchwald editorial, "You Can Buy Happiness." After the class has finished reading, ask questions such as the following to stimulate discussion.
1. What popularly believed generalization is the author trying to disprove?
 2. Does he do it inductively or deductively?
 3. Based on the generalization, what would the Schmicks be? the Smugs?
 4. What happens when the author discusses the two families based on the popular generalization on which he is trying to cast doubt?

TRUE - FALSE TEST

Mark the following statements as true or false.

1. American democracy provides equal opportunities for all.
2. Jews are rich people.
3. Progress is good.
4. People on welfare are too lazy to work.
5. Christians are charitable.
6. Man is basically good, but outside forces corrupt him.
7. Teen-agers are mature enough to drive cars.
8. Negroes wash less often than whites.
9. War has no purpose other than destruction.
10. Anything old is out of date.
11. Negroes are poor and out of jobs.
12. Communist newspapers never tell the truth about Americans.
13. South Americans can't run a good honest government.
14. All dictators are tyrants.
15. All Southerners hate Negroes.
16. If you smoke you will die of lung cancer.
17. Blonds are more attractive than brunettes.
18. Dyed hair is cheap.
19. Negroes have a lower intelligence than whites.
20. Japanese are sneaky and can't be trusted.
21. Anyone who fails just hasn't tried hard enough.
22. All men are created equal.
23. Republicans don't care about the working man.
24. Labor unions are corrupt.
25. Anyone can be president in the U.S.A.
26. The best things in life are free.
27. Money is the root of all evil.
28. All decent people work hard for a living.
29. Women are poor drivers.
30. Goodness is always rewarded.
31. All Italians are gangsters.
32. Handmade things are cheap and lower-class.
33. All college graduates are well-educated.
34. Fat people are jolly.
35. Approval by the majority is the best test of truth.
36. Baldness and gray hair are unattractive signs of old age.

YOU CAN BUY HAPPINESS
by Art Buchwald

All our life we've been told you can't buy happiness and we must say we used to believe it. But lately we've changed our mind.

Money can buy happiness and usually does.

Take our friends, the Schmicks. They're poor, honest, hard-working people. All they have is each other and they're miserable.

Then take our friends, the Smugs--he's a banker, she inherited money from her father. They live on Park Avenue in the winter and Westhampton in the summer, unless they go abroad. Everything they do costs money, and you won't find two happier people anywhere.

The Schmicks live in a small apartment in Brooklyn in the winter, and they vacation in the same small apartment in Brooklyn in the summer. When they really get desperate, they go to Far Rockaway for a swim.

Once Mr. Schmick said to us, "We may not have all the comforts and pleasures of the rich, but do you think that makes us unhappy? You bet your sweet life it does."

The Smugs, on the other hand, wouldn't have it any other way.

Mr. Smug told us, one night when he had a few drinks too many, "You know, when I was young, I was in love with a poor girl who worked as a secretary. I was poor too and we were going to get married. Then I met my wife who was rich, so I decided to marry her. You know something? I bumped into that poor girl a few weeks ago and she had gone all to pieces. It takes money for a woman to keep looking young. I was sure glad I married the rich girl."

The Smugs are not happy all the time. Sometimes they fight and then Mrs. Smug flies off to California to visit friends. But the Schmicks fight, too. Only when they get into a quarrel, Mrs. Schmick has no place to go, so they yell at each other until the police come. Last year the Schmicks were fined \$30 for disturbing the peace.

The Smugs entertain a lot of important and influential people who accept their invitations because the Smugs are rich. The Schmicks can only afford to entertain relatives they don't like, who complain afterwards about the food and liquor.

When it comes to children, the Smugs and Schmicks also differ.

Smug told us, "We have two children. We've given them the best of everything. Private schools, riding lessons, tennis lessons, cater parties--we've bought everything for them that money will buy and they're smart, happy, contented children."

Schmick, on the other hand, told us, "We haven't been able to give our children anything but love and devotion--and they hate us."

Smug told us, "I've tried to impress on the children the importance of being rich and the great benefits that can be derived from having money. They know exactly what I'm talking about and they respect me for my wisdom."

Schmick said, "I tell my kids money isn't everything. There are some values in life that are much more important, such as love, friendship and family. And do you know what they do? They go around the neighborhood and tell everyone, 'Our father is nuts.'"

And so it goes with Smugs and Schmicks--economically, socially, intellectually they are poles apart. But because they live in America, the land of opportunity, the only difference between them is that the Smugs are happy and the Schmicks are not.

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LESSON #4

OBJECTIVE: To recognize logical fallacies.

MATERIALS: Worksheets

PROCEDURES:

- A. Although each of the fallacies has a formal name, the object of this lesson is not definition of terms, but rather a recognition of usage. Therefore, an understanding of the error is more important than the memorization of labels. Terms should be used only when they clarify ideas.
- B. To begin identification of errors in reasoning, distribute Worksheet I to the entire class. Discuss with the students each of the examples. The analysis below is to aid the teacher in leading class discussion. It is not to be given to the class. (For further information on logical fallacies, consult the books listed on the teacher's bibliography.)
1. Ignoring the question. The second statement does not argue the first statement. It focuses on a different problem which is not valid proof against the point in question: the housewife's lack of thrift and planning.
 2. Post Hoc Ergo Propter Hoc (after this, therefore because of this). This is an example of the common error of attributing an occurrence to that which immediately precedes it. There may be other hidden causes, which in the case of a stroke is obviously true. Students should see that causes and effects are not as simply explained as this, and oversimplifications and/or misinterpretations of this kind, although plentiful, are fallacious.
 3. Equivocation. This fallacy involves using the same term with two different meanings in the same argument. In this example the word one has two different meanings. The first use of one means the one which is chosen as winner. In the second sentence one means the one which someone has bought, which is not necessarily the winning ticket.
 4. Invalid use of authority. The use of authority is valid when the person presented as an authority truly has recognized knowledge in the field in question. In the case of this example, there is no logical connection between being a good football player and knowing the merits of soft drinks. The students may at this point recall the propaganda technique of testimonial to which this fallacy is related.
 5. Either-or fallacy. When setting up an either-or premise the formulator must be careful to present two valid alternatives. The premise must cover the situation adequately and exhaust all the possibilities. In #5 the two alternatives are not the only possibilities and so the conclusion is not valid. The boyfriend in question may not be either of the two types described.
 6. Begging the question. This method of begging the question is to introduce the point being argued as a fact in the original proposition--- therefore invalidating any argument. The question of pollution is eliminated if the water is already classified as "unclean."
 7. Faulty generalization. A faulty generalization is the result of inadequately testing specifics before making an inductive leap from specific to general. In example #7 the generalization about the student elections is based on a small sampling of students, too narrow to be indicative of the entire student body.
 8. Faulty authority. This faulty use of authority is based on the ignoring of the time element. An authoritative statement formulated in a different era, under different conditions, is not necessarily applicable universally. The point of view expressed by Einstein in the example was later retracted after the outbreak of German aggression.

9. Argument Ad Hominum. This fallacy involves arguing against the man rather than attacking the theory. It is an attempt to discredit the exponent of an opinion or theory and thereby discredit the worth of the argument. It is a fallacy because the theory must be judged on its own terms and its validity is not connected with the character of the person who at the moment may be advocating its acceptance. President Johnson's personal life has no necessary connection with his theories of government.
10. Improper analogy. To draw an analogy between two situations in an attempt to explain, justify, or predict from one through its similarity with the other, two things are necessary:
- (1) The two situations must be alike in all important respects.
 - (2) Differences must be shown to be unimportant.
- The analogy between horses and students is difficult to justify since the two main subjects have many important differences, the most obvious in this case being intelligence.

C. To give further practice in identifying fallacies with decreased teacher direction, divide the class into heterogeneous groups and give each group copies of Worksheet II. After the groups have discussed the errors, compare the analyses by whole class discussion. A review of techniques covered in the seventh grade semantics unit is stated below, along with identification of errors for the teacher's use. If the students have not developed fluency in dealing with logical fallacies after finishing the second worksheet, the teacher may wish to develop further worksheets.

1. Either-or fallacy.

2. Faulty generalization. This example also provides an opportunity to review the idea of judgement as presented in the seventh grade semantics unit, since the degree of difficulty is a matter of opinion. This also reinforces the error of the generalization which covers all ninth graders.

3. False analogy.

4. Begging the question.

5. Ignoring the question.

6. Post Hoc Ergo Propter Hoc.

7. Faulty use of authority by ignoring time element. Equivocation in the use of the word noble. A review is possible here of use of good connotation to influence the attitude of the audience toward the subject.

8. Faulty use of authority by using the statement of an individual who lacks knowledge in the field in question. Also involves the misinterpretation of judgement as fact.

9. Argument Ad Hominum. Use of judgement and bad connotation to sway the audience against the man.

10. Equivocation of the words free and right.

WORKSHEET I

1. He: Every time you cook dinner you prepare too much food. Then you never use the leftovers, but simply throw them away. Our food budget is too limited to allow such poor planning.
She: Well, the last time you played golf you lost four golf balls. They cost \$1.25 a piece. Isn't that wasting our hard earned money?
2. My grandfather was climbing a ladder to wash windows when he suffered a stroke. If he had left those windows alone he never would have been paralyzed.
3. The holder of one raffle ticket is bound to win the prize. He holds one raffle ticket and therefore he is bound to win.
4. All the members of the Browns football team drink Pep-o Cola. Since men in the know drink Pep-o, why don't you?
5. There are two kinds of boys: those who care for nothing but themselves, and those who care for nothing. Your boyfriend doesn't seem to be conceited, so he must be worthless.
6. The unclean water in Ohio lakes is polluted by industry.
7. Jennifer did not win the class election for president by an overwhelming majority. I asked seven or eight of my close friends, and none of them voted for her.
8. I am against taking part in any war. Albert Einstein said in 1917 that no war was justified and that young men should refuse to fight against their so-called enemies.
9. President Johnson's endorsement of the program to aid poverty-stricken areas is evidence for the foolishness of such a plan. Who can possibly have faith in a program supported by a man who speeds around on American highways and who is inhumane to helpless animals.
10. If students won't study there's nothing a teacher can do. After all, you can lead a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.

WORKSHEET II

1. All women are either wives or sisters. She is not his wife. Therefore she must be his sister.
2. The three books on the bibliography list which I read were all too hard for me. I'm going to complain to the teacher. Her reading lists are too difficult for ninth graders.
3. Paul Smith was a platoon leader in the Korean War. If we elect him President of the Board our business will be in good hands.
4. The overcooked food served in our school cafeteria is poorly prepared.
5. How can you accuse me of neglecting my studies and wasting my time: Don't I get up at 6:00 every morning to deliver newspapers?
6. After the Democrats took office the Berlin Wall was built, the Panama Canal Zone challenged U. S. authority, and missiles were set up in Cuba. Can the voters ignore the problems created by a Democratic administration?
7. Plato believed that only educated and intelligent citizens of noble birth should be allowed a voice in government. With the support of this brilliant philosopher I present my plans for restricting the vote to noble Americans.
8. Mr. Jones, our math teacher, says that our English program isn't any good. He's a good teacher, so he should know.
9. Cletus is the most unpopular boy in the school. He dresses weirdly and he can't get a date with any of the girls? How could you support his suggestion for organizing the ninth grade dance?
10. Free speech is a right guaranteed by our constitution; yet our newspapers are neither free nor right.

LESSON #5

OBJECTIVE: To review techniques of propaganda studied in the eighth grade.

MATERIALS: "Propaganda Techniques" (Film)
Semantics Test

PROCEDURES:

- A. To focus student attention for the film, tell the class that the film is one they saw in the eighth grade on propaganda. Ask them if they remember the various techniques the propagandist uses that they studied when they looked at advertisements in the eighth grade. Take whatever comments the students make and develop them through class discussion. After the students have made all the comments they can, tell them that the film will recall for them many of the techniques they have not mentioned. Tell them to take notes while the film is on. They are to be sure to write down all the techniques mentioned in the film.
- B. After showing the film, discuss each technique with the students. Have them recall examples from their own experience of the use of each technique. When the students have given enough examples to insure that they understand the material, ask them what the purpose of these techniques is. (To influence us.) Then have the students explain what the user of each technique is trying to do. (In using name calling the propagandist tries to turn us against something without offering proof that the thing is bad; and the words he uses have "bad" connotation.)
- C. To insure that the students can identify the various propaganda techniques and other semantic terms, distribute the semantics test and have them tell what kind of persuasion is being used in each. What appeal is being made?

- I
1. That which you can indicate only by pointing it out.
 2. That which represents something else and can refer to it in less direct method than pointing.
 3. The arrangements of words which stand for the same object in a vertical column running from the most specific to the most general.
 4. The feelings or thoughts which a word or phrase associates with the thing to which it refers.
 5. A statement which is provable right or wrong, and which, as far as possible, contains no expression of approval or disapproval.
 6. A statement which is an expression of the writer's or speaker's approval or disapproval of the occurrences, persons, or objects he is describing.

II

1. The immoral, idiotic noisemaking created by twisted, shabby-haired morons who know nothing more than barbaric rythm is known as rock-n-roll.
2. The noble, gallant men in our peace-loving community will join the crusading vigilantes.
3. "I'll wear my Army uniform tonight," said George. "All the girls will want to dance with a brave, manly soldier."
4. "I use Decedrin whenever I have a headache," said Mrs. Housewife, "and I have some terrible pain. It always does the job."
5. I remember our candidate when he was a little boy back home in Indiana, going to county fairs just like you folks gathered here today. He enjoyed them then, and he still does today. Washington hasn't changed ol' Sam Hill. No sir!
6. "Chock-full-o-Beans" is the coffee chosen by all the pavilions at the World's Fair. Now people from all over the world enjoy its rich taste.
7. The deceptive lure of the stupid bigotry pulls at the baser threads in our nature.
8. I, like Abraham Lincoln, must do what I know is right. Washington, Jefferson, and Christ fought for what was right. I must do the same.
9. I'm just a plain simple man, but like all the people in my home town I believe that apple pie, mother, and simplicity are good things.
10. The Democrats were in power when World War I, World War II, and the Korean Conflict broke out. They were in power when the revolt against Spain's Republican Government took place. They were in power when China fell to Communists and Czechoslovakia joined the Communist bloc. We can see that a vote for the Democrats is a vote for a lost and troubled America.

I

- a. connotation
- b. judgement
- c. symbol
- d. levels of abstraction
- e. referent
- f. report

II

- a. card stacking
- b. name calling
- c. transfer
- d. bandwagon
- e. glittering generality
- f. testimonial
- g. plain folks

LESSON # 6

OBJECTIVES: To recognize the use of generalizations, assumptions, logical fallacies, and propaganda techniques in newspaper articles.
To analyze criticisms of newspaper articles made by fellow students:

MATERIALS: Newspaper and magazine articles and editorials.

PROCEDURES:

- A. Find an article, editorial, or letter to the editor that is on a current issue of interest in the community. The article should contain some propaganda techniques and faulty use of logic, generalizations and assumptions. Ditto this material for the class and go through it with them having them point out the uses of these phenomena. Be sure to devise questions that will allow the students to find the faults of the selection. The questions should be structured so that they refer specifically to the articles.
- B. After the students have criticized the dittoed selection, tell them they are to search newspapers and magazines for materials of a similar nature. They are to select one article for criticism. It would be helpful if the teacher had a great many to bring these materials from their homes for use in class.
Tell the students that they will be working in groups in order to help each other in the criticism.
- C. When the students have selected articles, have them meet in groups of four and have each of them go over his article with his group. Each student should tell his group what faults he found in the article and then his group should make additions if they are needed.
After each person in the group has presented his article and it has been discussed by the group, have each group select one article to be presented to the class. Have these articles duplicated for distribution to the class.
After each person in the group has presented his article and it has been discussed by the group, have each group select one article to be presented to the class. Have these articles duplicated for distribution to the class.
Have each person in the group present its criticism to the class through a discussion in the front of the room. Let the class ask them questions and make additions where they feel they are necessary.

LESSON #7

OBJECTIVES: To identify the proposition on which an argument is based.
To state a proposition specifically and unambiguously.
To identify and evaluate evidence.
To accumulate and organize evidence.
To anticipate opposition.
To write an argumentative paper.

MATERIALS: "The Comics...Very Funny"
"Cain Before Comics"
Worksheet
Sample Student Compositions
(Writing With A Purpose)

PROCEDURES:

- A. To provide an example for the analysis and criticism of the argumentative form and content, distribute copies of "The Comics...Very Funny". After reading through the argument with the class, discuss the following points. (The class may become interested enough to carry on a worthwhile discussion without the questions as stimuli. The ideas anticipated in the answers to these questions should, by either method, be covered.)
1. How does the author begin his argument? What purpose does this beginning serve?
 2. Which sentence states the point which the author will try to prove? Is it complete? If not, how would it read if it were complete?
 3. What proof does the author offer?
 4. What is the implication at the end of the fifth paragraph?
 5. In any of the examples do the young people studied ever state that the comic books gave them criminal ideas?
 6. Does the author's evidence constitute reliable proof? Is there anything wrong with the examples he has chosen?
 7. If you disagreed, how would you argue against him?
 - a. Which of his points would you challenge?
 - b. Which of his generalizations or assumptions would you challenge?
- B. To encourage criticism and anticipate the next reading assignment, develop question #7 in detail either orally or as a short writing assignment. Then distribute "Cain Before Comics" and the study guide. Allow time for the class to read the article and answer the questions. Then discuss the study guide questions.
- C. Based on an analysis of the two articles just studied, develop with the class and outline on the board the formal structure of an argumentative paper. Ask the class if anticipating the opposition in the paper would have aided Mr. Werthan's cause. From their own criticism they should see the necessity for such anticipation. (This rebuttal of anticipated criticism should be built into the theme outline.)
- D. To begin selection of an argumentative topic, ask the students to suggest areas in which they have strong opinions and about which they would argue. Sample topics may be supplied to illustrate:
1. Teen-agers have lost their religious faith.
 2. The English spelling system should be revised to be more consistent with phonetics.
 3. Communism should be taught in the public high schools.
 4. Gum chewing relieves tension during test taking.
 5. Clean gym clothes are no indication of good citizenship.
 6. Optional class attendance eliminates disruptions by disinterested students and teaches individual responsibility.

E. To evaluate the problems of faulty propositions (as many of those suggested by the class will be) provide examples of poorly worded propositions for the class to discuss. Criticize for use of vague words (such as "Good," "Better"), matters of personal taste (such as #5 below) and multiple points of view.

1. High school athletics should be abolished and the funds used for equipment should be spent on textbooks.
2. The average teen-ager is a good driver.
3. The Beatles are better than Elvis Presley.
4. Mussolini was a great man.
5. Football is more fun to play than tennis.
6. The grading system hurts education.

After the students have criticized these examples, go back to their suggestions on the board and rework those which are faulty. If the students appear unsure of the requirements of a good proposition, prepare a worksheet containing faulty propositions. Ask them to evaluate and rewrite. After they have noted the weaknesses in the examples on the worksheets, have the students suggest a more arguable proposition dealing with the same topic, for example:

1. Our parish priest is generous with his time.
2. More people order lemon pie than any other kind in cafeterias.
3. Cletus buys expensive clothes and follows the current fashion styles.
4. Frenchmen get fewer divorces than Americans.
5. French is more popular among junior high school students than English.
6. "The Defenders" is more like actual court procedure than "Perry Mason."
7. Bullwinkle has more fan clubs than Snaggle-puss.
8. Barnaby influences the behavior of his child audience.
9. Often people before they get married overlook the faults in each other which later cause arguments.
10. July has a greater number of warm, sunny days in the temperate zone than the other months of the year.

F. To give the students aid in choosing the type of evidence they will use in support of their proposition, review the type of evidence used in the arguments on comic books. Discuss generally the kinds of proof a writer can use in support of his argument.

1. Specific examples.
2. Testimony by valid authorities.
3. Correlation with existing, tested hypotheses.
4. Analogy.

Since each of these methods can be used invalidly, review with the class the logical fallacies which they are to avoid.

G. After the students have stated their proposition, organized their evidence and considered their opposition, have them write a rough draft of their paper. Before criticizing their papers, distribute copies of previous student arguments, such as those attached, which lend themselves to criticism. Divide the class into groups, and allow each group to choose the paper they will criticize for argumentative form, evidence and logical fallacy. The group work may be checked by assigning each group to write a critique of the composition, or less formally, by circulating among the groups as they discuss the paper.

H. To criticize their own work, ask the members of the group to study each others' rough drafts and attach a sheet of comments and suggestions. When this is accomplished, the students may then begin the final copies of their argumentative papers.

STUDY GUIDE: "Cain Before Comics"

1. What is the generalization that the author is trying to prove? In doing so, what is he attempting to disprove?
2. Does he at any time state his point specifically? If not, what are the clues to his intent?
3. What points of evidence does the writer give to support his argument? List them briefly.
4. Are any of the points made logically invalid? Why?
5. How do the examples of Leopold and Loeb and Cain and Abel argue against Dr. Wertham and in favor of the author's point?
 - a. What is the generalization implied by Dr. Wertham?
 - b. Following his argument, what must have been the cause of the two crimes?
 - c. If you were Dr. Wertham, how could you argue against this reasoning?
6. What is the purpose of the last paragraph?

WORKSHEET: Improving Propositions

1. All priests are kind people.
2. Lemon pie tastes better than apple pie.
3. Cletus has an attractive way of dressing.
4. Frenchmen are better husbands than Americans.
5. French is a prettier language than English.
6. "The Defenders" is a better program than "Perry Mason."
7. Bullwinkle is funnier than Snaggle-puss.
8. Barnaby is a good man.
9. Love is blind.
10. July is the nicest month of the year because May comes too early.

SAMPLE STUDENT COMPOSITIONS

I think teen-agers do have respect for their parents to a certain extent. They shrug off their home chores because they want to go out. Almost every teen-ager talks back. It is not their fault.

It is the parents' fault because they didn't teach the kids when they were kids are raised right they have respect for their parents when they are older.

You have to start teaching them when they are young. It is too late to start correcting them when they are teen-agers.

If teen-agers were brought up right and are happy at home, they usually have respect for their parents.

The vast majority of the people in America feel that teen-agers have become too interested in sports and its related activities. They feel that sports is unimportant and that time is wasted in the field of sports. These people have not gone farther into sports and have not seen how sports can teach many fundamentals basic to human behavior and citizenship.

Basically, sports and its rules teach the fundamentals of getting along with others, working as a team, and acquiring basic obedience in discipline. Working together on a team to win a game teaches teamwork to America's youth which will follow in the world of tomorrow. Getting along with others in junior and senior high prepares youth when it goes out into the world of competition and rivalry. The rules which must be followed in the game prepare teen-agers for the many laws which they must follow in the world today. Cheerleaders, and every student in the school who backs the team realize and come to understand these principles as do the members of the team.

Sports and its related activities although accused of wasting precious time and effort do much, much good to the youth of America. Teaching basic principles that will be important now and later in life, prepare America's youth for the role it must play in the world.

To the outside observer, most of America's teen-agers seem to hate schoolwork. This idea is actually a misconception based on first impressions.

America's teen-agers can be divided into three academic classes: those who love work and study as their major occupation; those who do not 'love' education but accept it and its useful training; and those who are completely against organized education.

The first group has a great many members. These are the students who attend school willingly, work fairly well or on a very high level, and enjoy at least some educational pastimes. A small part of this group is made up of the excellent students, who think of nothing more than getting more and more knowledge.

The second, and by far largest group, are those who range from working for their futures to just trying to please their teachers. They usually (though not always) are average in achievement and intelligence.

The group which is responsible for the "weakminded teen-ager" idea is composed of very anti-regimentation, anti-regulation teen-agers. They bring the most attention by their activities out of school. Many are underprivileged or otherwise in a position to get the wrong ideas about education. These students make the most public impression, but do not present a true picture of America's teen-agers.

Most American teen-agers are good workers, with a positive healthy attitude toward education. The impression of lazy, anti-education teen-agers is spread by a minority who are of this opinion. Most American teen-agers know and take advantage of the importance of education in their futures. These are the people who will make the most impression as educated adults.

Teen-agers aren't the only people in the world who are interested in sports. After all, most of the full grown men are sports crazy. For instance golf, football and "the fights" are often more valuable to a man than going on an outing with his family. Sometimes it is true that the teen-ager will be enthused with sports, but the male population is even more interested in it.

As far as sports being abolished in schools that is ridiculous. A sports program teaches sportsmanship and emphasizes the importance of getting along with other people. Sports also create an interest in something that serves to keep the teen-ager's mind off being a trouble maker and purposefully being deceitful. First of all he has to work harder at his school to even be permitted to be on a team. Many times the student will gain and learn respect from participating in things like sports. So really sports are a serious thing and can be referred to as a reward for his effort in even taking interest in the game.

The adults of this country criticize teen-agers to no end, when they themselves are the ones who set an example for the teens today. Teens aren't as bad as adults make them out to be.

There are a lot of teens who wear black leather jackets, smoke on corners, and just don't care about anything but they are in the minority. There are more teens who are from a good family and are more level headed than the racks.

The adults who complain the most about teens today have no children of their own and don't realize how hard it is to bring up a teen. They also don't seem to realize that the times have changed and we're not back in the 20's.

Adults are not around teens all the time, like in school. They should visit a student council meeting and see how we respect our country and are interested in other problems instead of our own all the time.

Adults should open their eyes and see some of the good points about teens, and emphasize them instead of some of the blackballs we have at our age. Nobody is perfect.

People who jump to conclusions that teen-agers should not be allowed to drive on highways are wrong. First of all they seem to be basing their conclusions on only a few teen-agers who are involved in accidents and those who drive carelessly.

Many accidents that occur on highways often concern drunken old men who lose control of their car, a housewife who is more concerned with her kids that are safe in the back seat than the road and her driving, and old people who have weak eyes so they cannot see the road clearly and cannot control the car because of this and other faults.

I do agree that some teen-agers should not be allowed to drive on public highways and I feel that these teen-agers should be punished for reckless driving and other offences but I also feel that adults should be fair to the majority of teen-agers who drive carefully. By being fair I mean that they should not pass judgement and make general statements that are based on a few such as "Teen-agers should not be allowed to drive cars on public highways."

In conclusion I feel that the adults are fortunate that we teen-agers are not as narrow-minded as the adults, because if we were we could make absurd statements such as "Adults should not be allowed to drive cars on public highways," which would be just as justified as the one being discussed previously.

Advertisers contribute greatly to the notion that teen-agers who use cosmetics, hair preparations and other products of this type speed up the processes of becoming an adult or looking older.

The vast majority of teen-age girls are using more and more cosmetics day after day because they believe it can make them look older. Seeing the commercial advertisements on television promotes this idea. "Do blondes really have more fun?" is one of the most commonly heard advertisements. Who can help but go out and buy peroxide if you see a blonde giggling and having so much fun with a crowd of boys around her? So, they go out and buy this product; then try it and it looks like straw.

Eye shadow and other cosmetics of this type are seen on teen-agers even during school to make them believe that their eyes are dashinglly irresistable to look at.

Hair cosmetics for both boys and girls are becoming increasingly popular. Hair spray for girls is supposed to give them a natural look, so soft and sleek that it is just bouncing with vitality.

There are also hair creams for boys that claim that every product except theirs is supposed to be that "greasy kid's stuff." Their product is supposed to make a boy's hair so shiny and wavy that every girl in the city will be after him.

There are many other advertisements that not only contribute to the misbelief of looking older but also to delinquency.