CHAPTER 2

REFERENTIAL FRAMEWORK
2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

BACKGROUND

Present-day conceptions of "correctness" are to a large extent based on the notion, prominent in the 18th century, that language is of divine origin and hence was perfect in its beginnings but is constantly in danger of corruption and decay unless it is diligently kept in line by wise men who are able to get themselves accepted as authorities, such as those who write dictionaries and grammars. Latin was regarded as having retained much of its original "perfection."... When English grammars came to be written, they were based on Latin grammar, even down to the terminology... The most important eighteenth century development in the English language was its conscious regulation by those who were not really qualified for the job, but who managed to acquire authority as linguistic gurus.”

ORIGIN OF ENGLISH

We speak English, but do we know where it comes from? I did not know until I started to study on this subject and I learned where it comes from and how it has developed. The history of English begins a little after A.D. 600. The ancestors of the language were wandering in the forests of northern Europe. Their language was a part of Germanic branch of Indo-European Family.

The people talking this language spread to the northern coast of Europe in the time of Roman Empire. Among this people the tribes called Angels, Saxons, and Jutes which is called Anglo-Saxons come to England. The first Latin effect was in that period. Latin affected the language with the merchants traveling the tribes. Some of the words taken from Latin are; kettle, wine, cheese, butter, cheap. Also in the 14th century Rome Empire weakened because Goths attacked to Mediterranean countries of Roman Empire and Anglo-Saxons attacked to empire. On the other hand the Celtic tribes in Scotland and Wales developed. At the end in 410
the last roman emperor left the island to Celtic and Anglo-Saxons. Celtic and Anglo-Saxons fought for 100 years and Anglo-Saxons killed all the Celtics. In 550 Anglo-Saxons established England. During Roma Empire Latin wasn’t the native language of the kingdom because people in the country were talking Celtic. When Anglo-Saxons became Christian in 597 they learned Latin. According to the effects to English, the history of the language divided in to three; Old English (7th century-1100), Middle English (1100-1450/1500), Modern English (1500-now). In some books Modern English is divided in to two Early modern (1500-1700), Late Modern (1700-now).

OLD ENGLISH

When England was established there were several kingdoms and the most advanced one was Nurthumbria. It was this period that the best of the Old English literature was written, including the epic poem *Beowulf*.

In the 8th century Nurthumbrian power declined, West Saxons became the leading power. The most famous king of the West Saxons was Alfred the Great. He founded and established schools, translated or caused to be translated many books from Latin in to English.

After many years of hit-and-run raids between the European kingdoms, the Norseman landed in the year of 866 and later the east coast of the island was Norseman’s. Norse language affected the English considerably. Norse wasn’t so different from English and English people could understand Norseman. There were considerable interchanges and word borrowings (sky, give, law, egg, outlaw, leg, ugly, talk). Also borrowed pronouns like they, their, them. It is supposed also that the Norseman influenced the sound structure and the grammar of English.

Old English had some sound which we don’t know have now. In grammar, Old English was much more highly inflected that Middle English because there were case endings for nouns, more person and number endings of words and a more complicated pronoun systems, various endings for adjectives. In vocabulary Old English is quiet different from Middle English. Most of the Old English words are
native English which weren’t borrowed from other languages. On the other hand Old English contains borrowed words coming from Norse and Latin.

**MIDDLE ENGLISH**

Between 1100 - 1200 many important changes took place in the structure of English and Old English became Middle English. The political event which affected the administration system and language was the Norman Conquest. In 1066 they crossed the Channel and they became the master of England. For the next several years, England was ruled by the kings whose native language was French. On the other hand French couldn’t become the national language because it became the language of the court, nobility, polite society, literature. But it didn’t replace as the language of the people. English continued to be the national language but it changed too much after the conquest.

The sound system & grammar wasn’t so affected but vocabulary was affected much. There were word related with government: parliament, tax, government, majesty; church word: religion, parson, sermon; words for food: veal, beef, mutton, peach, lemon, cream, biscuit; colors: blue, scarlet, vermilion; household words: curtain, chair, lamp, towel, blanket; play words: dance, chess, music, leisure, conversation; literary words: story romance, poet, literary; learned words: study, logic grammar, noun, surgeon, anatomy, stomach; ordinary words for all sorts: nice, second, very, age, bucket, final, gentle, fault, flower, count, sure, move, surprise, plain. (Clark, V.P. & Eschholz, P.A. & Rose, A.F.; 1994; 622)

Middle English was still a Germanic language but it is different from Old English in many ways. Grammar and the sound system changed a good deal. People started to rely more on word order and structure words to express their meaning rather than the use of case system. “This can be called as a simplification but it is not exactly. Languages don’t become simpler; they merely exchange one kind of complexity for another” (Clark, V.P. & Eschholz, P.A. & Rose, A.F.; 1994; 622)
For us Middle English is simpler that Old English because it is closer to Modern English.

**EARLY MODERN ENGLISH**

Between 1400 -1600 English underwent a couple of sound changes. One change was the elimination of a vowel sound in certain unstressed positions at the end of the words. The change was important because it affected thousands of words and gave a different aspect to the whole language. The other change is what is called the Great Vowel Shift. This was a systematic shifting of half a dozen vowels and diphthongs in stressed syllables. For example the word *name* had in Middle English a vowel something like that in the modern word *father*;...etc. The shift affected all the words in which these vowels sounds occurred. These two changes produced the basic differences between Middle English and Modern English. But there are several other developments that affected the language. One was the invention of printing. It was introduced to England by William Caxton in 1475. After this books became cheaper and cheaper, more people learned to read and write and advanced in communication.

The period of Early Modern English was also a period of English Renaissance, which means the development of the people. New ideas increased. English language had grown as a result of borrowing words from French, Latin, and Greek.

The greatest writer of the Early Modern English period is Shakespeare and the best known book is the King Jones version of the *BIBLE*.

**RECENT DEVELOPMENTS**

In order to establish the language they developed a dictionary. The first English Dictionary was published in 1603. Another product of the 18th century was the invention of English Grammar. As English is replaced with Latin as the language of scholarship, it was felt to control the language. The period where English was most developed was in the Modern English. In that period the people speaking that
language increased too much. Now, English is the greatest language of the world spoken natively and as a second language. What will happen in the future? It'll continue to grow, may be it will be the universal language.
HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is an Anglo-Frisian language brought to southeastern Great Britain in the 5th century AD by Germanic settlers from various parts of northwest Germany (Saxons, Angles) as well as Jutland (Jutes).

Prior to the invasion of Britain by these Germanic tribes, the native Britons spoke an early form of Brythonic (the ancestor of Modern Welsh). Unlike in Gaul and Hispania, the indigenous population did not adopt Latin as a native language during the Roman occupation, where it was mainly confined to the Roman cities and garrisons. The degree to which the original Celtic-speaking inhabitants remained or were displaced by the Germanic invaders is a matter of some debate. Recent genetic studies together with a re-evaluation of archaeological evidence suggest that the native Celtic population were not substantially displaced in any part of Britain.\[5\] If correct, this interpretation of events would imply that the native Celts in the south and east of Britain, gradually adopted the language and culture of a politically and socially dominant ruling class (see Sub-Roman Britain). Celtic languages survived in parts of the island not colonized by the invaders: Scotland, Wales, Cornwall, and, to some extent, Cumbria.

The dialects spoken by the invaders eventually coalesced to a degree and formed what is today called the Old English language, which resembled some coastal dialects in what are now northwest Germany and the Netherlands (i.e. Frisian). Throughout the history of written Old English, it remained a highly synthetic language based on a single standard, while spoken Old English became increasingly analytic in nature, losing the more complex noun case system, with a heavier reliance on prepositions and fixed word-order. This is evident in the Middle English period, when literature is first recorded in the various spoken dialects of English of the time, after written Old English lost its status as the literary language of the nobility. It has been postulated that the early development of the language may have also been influenced by a Celtic substratum.\[6\][7] Later, it was influenced by the related North Germanic

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1 http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/English_language
language Old Norse, spoken by the Vikings who settled mainly in the north and the east coast down to London, the area known as the Danelaw.

Then the Norman Conquest of England came in 1066. For about 300 years following, the Norman kings and the high nobility spoke only Anglo-Norman, which was very close to Old French. A large number of Norman words found their way into Old English, leaving a parallel vocabulary that persists into modern times. The Norman influence strongly affected the evolution of the language over the following centuries, resulting in what is now referred to as Middle English.

During the 15th century, Middle English was transformed by the Great Vowel Shift, the spread of a standardized London-based dialect in government and administration, and the standardizing effect of printing. Early Modern English can be traced back to around the time of William Shakespeare.

Classification and related languages

The English language belongs to the western sub-branch of the Germanic branch, which is itself a branch of the Indo-European family of languages.

The question as to which is the nearest living relative of English is a matter of some discussion. Apart from such English-lexified creole languages such as Tok Pisin, Scots (spoken primarily in Scotland and parts of Northern Ireland) is the Germanic variety most closely associated with English. Like English, Scots ultimately descends from Old English, also known as Anglo-Saxon. The closest relative to English after Scots is Frisian, which is spoken in the Northern Netherlands and Northwest Germany. Other less closely related living West Germanic languages include German itself, Low German, Dutch, and Afrikaans. The North Germanic languages of Scandinavia are less closely related to English than the West Germanic languages. Many French words are also intelligible to an English speaker (though pronunciations are often quite different) because English absorbed a large vocabulary from Norman and French, via Anglo-Norman after the Norman Conquest and directly from French in further centuries. As a result, a substantial share of English vocabulary is quite
close to French, with some minor spelling differences (word endings, use of old French spellings, etc.), as well as occasional divergences in meaning, in so called "faux-pas", or false-friends.

**Geographical distribution**

![Distribution of first-language native English speakers by country (Crystal 1997)](image)

Over 380 million people speak English as their first language. English today is variously estimated as the second, third, or fourth largest language by number of native speakers. All estimates have it trailing Mandarin Chinese, and other estimates are mixed as to whether it outranks Hindi, Spanish, and a combination of the various Arabic dialects.[8][9] However, when combining native and non-native speakers it is probably the most commonly spoken language in the world, though possibly second behind a combination of the Chinese languages.[10][11] Estimates that include second language speakers vary greatly from 470 million to over a billion depending on how literacy or mastery is defined.[12][13] There are some who claim that non-native speakers now outnumber native speakers by a ratio of 3 to 1.[14]

The countries with the highest populations of native English speakers are, in descending order: United States (215 million), United Kingdom (58 million), Canada (20 to 25 million - see note # 17), Australia (17.5 million), Ireland (3.8 million), and New Zealand (3.4 million).[15][16][17][18][19] Of those nations where English is spoken as a second language, India has the most such speakers ('Indian English') and it has been claimed that, combining native and non-native speakers, India now has more people who speak or understand English than any other country in the world.[20] Following
India are the People's Republic of China, the Philippines, Nigeria, and Germany.[21][22][23][24]

English is the primary language in Anguilla, Antigua and Barbuda, Australia (Australian English), the Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, Belize, the British Indian Ocean Territory, the British Virgin Islands, Canada (Canadian English), the Cayman Islands, Dominica, the Falkland Islands, Gibraltar, Grenada, Guernsey, Guyana, Isle of Man, Jamaica (Jamaican English), Jersey, Montserrat, Nauru, New Zealand (New Zealand English), Ireland (Hiberno-English), Pitcairn Islands, Saint Helena, Saint Lucia, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Singapore, South Georgia and the South Sandwich Islands, Trinidad and Tobago, the Turks and Caicos Islands, the United Kingdom (various forms of British English), the U.S. Virgin Islands, the United States (various forms of American English), and Zimbabwe.

In many other countries, where English is not a first language, it is an official language; these countries include Cameroon, Fiji, the Federated States of Micronesia, Ghana, Gambia, India, Kiribati, Lesotho, Liberia, Kenya, Namibia, Nigeria, Malta, the Marshall Islands, Pakistan, Papua New Guinea, the Philippines, Puerto Rico, Rwanda, the Solomon Islands, Samoa, Sierra Leone, Singapore, Sri Lanka, Swaziland, Tanzania, Zambia, and Zimbabwe. It is also one of the 11 official languages that are given equal status in South Africa ("South African English"). English is also an important language in several former colonies or current dependent territories of the United Kingdom and the United States, such as in Hong Kong and Mauritius.

English is the language most often studied as a foreign language in the European Union (by 89% of schoolchildren), followed by French (32%), German (18%), and Spanish (8%).[25] It is also the most studied in the People's Republic of China, Japan, South Korea, and Taiwan.[citation needed] It is worth noting that English is not an official language in either the United States or the United Kingdom.[26][27] Although the U.S. federal government has no official languages, English has been given official status by 25 of the 50 state governments.[28]
English as a global language

Because English is so widely spoken, it has often been referred to as a "global language", the *lingua franca* of the modern era. While English is not an official language in many countries, it is currently the language most often taught as a second language around the world. Some linguists believe that it is no longer the exclusive cultural sign of "native English speakers", but is rather a language that is absorbing aspects of cultures worldwide as it continues to grow. It is, by international treaty, the official language for aerial and maritime communications, as well as one of the official languages of the European Union, the United Nations, and most international athletic organizations, including the International Olympic Committee.

Books, magazines, and newspapers written in English are available in many countries around the world. English is also the most commonly used language in the sciences. In 1997, the Science Citation Index reported that 95% of its articles were written in English, even though only half of them came from authors in English-speaking countries.

Dialects and regional varieties

The expansion of the British Empire and—especially since WWII—the primacy of the United States has spread English throughout the globe. Because of that global spread, English has developed a host of English dialects and English-based creole languages and pidgins.

The major varieties of English each include, in most cases, several sub varieties, such as Cockney slang within British English; Newfoundland English, and the English spoken by Anglo-Québécers within Canadian English; and African American Vernacular English ("Ebonics") and Southern American English within American
English. English is a pluricentric language, without a central language authority like France's Académie française; and although no variety is clearly considered the only standard, there are a number of accents considered as more formal, such as Received Pronunciation in Britain or, formerly, the upper-class Bostonian dialect in the U.S.

Scots developed — largely independently — from the same origins, but following the Acts of Union 1707 a process of language attrition began, whereby successive generations adopted more and more features from English causing dialectalization. Whether it is now a separate language or a dialect of English better described as Scottish English is in dispute. The pronunciation, grammar and lexis of the traditional forms differ, sometimes substantially, from other varieties of English.

Because of English's wide use as a second language, English speakers have many different accents, which often signal the speaker's native dialect or language. For the more distinctive characteristics of regional accents, see Regional accents of English speakers, and for the more distinctive characteristics of regional dialects, see List of dialects of the English language.

Just as English itself has borrowed words from many different languages over its history, English loanwords now appear in a great many languages around the world, indicative of the technological and cultural influence of its speakers. Several pidgins and creole languages have formed using an English base, for example Tok Pisin began as one. There are many words in English coined to describe forms of particular non-English languages that contain a very high proportion of English words. Franglais, for example, is used to describe French with a very high English word content; it is found on the Channel Islands. Another variant, spoken in the border bilingual regions of Québec in Canada, is called Frenglish. Norwenglish is a form of English containing many words or expressions directly copied from Norwegian.
Constructed varieties of English

- **Basic English** is simplified for easy international use. It is used by some aircraft manufacturers and other international businesses to write manuals and communicate. Some English schools in Asia teach it as an initial practical subset of English.
- **Special English** is a simplified version of English used by the Voice of America. It uses a vocabulary of 1500 words.
- **English reform** is an attempt to improve collectively upon the English language.
- **Seaspeak** and the related **Airspeak** and **Policespeak**, all based on restricted vocabularies, were designed by Edward Johnson in the 1980s to aid international cooperation and communication in specific areas. There is also a **tunnelspeak** for use in the Channel Tunnel.
- **English as a lingua franca for Europe** and **Euro-English** are concepts of standardising English for use as a second language in continental Europe.
- **Manually Coded English** — a variety of systems have been developed to represent the English language with hand signals, designed primarily for use in deaf education. These should not be confused with true sign languages such as **British Sign Language** and **American Sign Language** used in Anglophone countries, which are independent and not based on English.
- **E-Prime** excludes forms of the verb "to be."

Euro-English (also Euroenglish or Euro-Englich) terms are English translations of European concepts that are not native to English-speaking countries. Due to the United Kingdom's (and even the Republic of Ireland's) involvement in the European Union, the usage focuses on non-British concepts. Examples are the concept of spatial planning or something being "digressive", and the word "Euro-". It also refers to dialects of English spoken by Europeans for whom English is not their first language, especially since English is frequently used by two Europeans to communicate even when neither of them knows English as the first language. (For example, a French person who doesn't know German and a German who doesn't...
know French, but both of whom know English, would use English to communicate with one another, even though it is not the native language of either - such as at the first meeting of Jacques Chirac and Angela Merkel at the Elysée palace after Merkel's confirmation as chancellor).
GRAMMAR

English grammar displays minimal inflection compared with most other Indo-European languages. This is caused by deflexion. For example, Modern English, unlike Modern German or Dutch and the Romance languages, lacks grammatical gender and adjectival agreement. Case marking has almost disappeared from the language and mainly survives in pronouns. The patterning of strong (e.g. speak/spoke/spoken) versus weak verbs inherited from Germanic has declined in importance and the remnants of inflection (such as plural marking) have become more regular.

At the same time as inflection has declined in importance in English, the language has become more analytic, and developed a greater reliance on features such as modal verbs and word order to convey grammatical information. Auxiliary verbs are used to mark constructions such as questions, negatives, the passive voice and progressive tenses. Every word has its own meaning by itself, to express and idea the words have to be combined, but the words can only be combined in a limited number of patterns. So we need a way of describing the structure of phrases and sentences which will account for all the grammatical sequences and rule out all the ungrammatical sequences, for this we use grammar\(^3\).

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SYNTAX

It is the study concentrated on the structure and order of components within a sentence. The word syntax\(^4\) comes originally from Greek and literally meant “a setting out together” or “arrangement”. It produces an accurate analysis of the sequence or the ordering “arrangement” of elements in the linear structure of the sentence. While this remains a major goal of syntactic description, more recent work in syntax has taken a rather different approach in accounting for the “arrangements” we observe in the structure of sentences.

**Generative grammar:**

Since the 1950s, particularly developing from the work of the American linguist Noam Chomsky, there have been attempts to produce a particular type of grammar which would have a very explicit system of rules specifying what combinations of basic elements would result in well-formed sentences. (Let us emphasize the word “attempts” here, since no fully worked-out grammar of this or any other type yet exists.) This explicit system of rules, it was proposed, would have much in common with the types of rules found in mathematics. Indeed, a definitive early statement in Chomsky’s first major work betrays this essentially mathematical view of language: “I will consider a language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences”

This mathematical point of view helps to explain the meaning of the term **generative**, which is used to describe this type of grammar. If you have an algebraic expression like \(3x+2y\), and you can give \(x\) and \(y\) value of any whole number, then that simple algebraic expression can **generate** an endless set of values, by following the simple rules of arithmetic. When \(x=5\) and \(y=10\), the result is 35. When \(x=2\) and \(y=1\), the result is 8. These rules will follow directly from applying the explicit rules. The endless

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set of such results is “generated” by the operation of the explicitly formalized rules. If the sentence of a language can be seen as a comparable set, then there must be a set of explicit rules which yield those sentences. Such a set of explicit rules is a **generative grammar**.
SEMANTICS

Semantics is the study of the meanings of words, phrases and sentences. In semantic analysis, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what a speaker might want the words to mean on a particular occasion. This technical approach to meaning emphasizes the objective and the general. It avoids the subjective the local. Linguistic semantics deals with the conventional meaning conveyed by the use of words and sentences of a language.

Conceptual versus associative meaning

When linguists investigate the meaning of word in a language, they are normally interested in characterizing the conceptual meaning and less concerned with the associative or stylistic meaning of words. Conceptual meaning covers those basic, essential components of meaning which are conveyed by the literal use of a word. Some of the basic components of a word like needle in English might include “thin, sharp, steel, instrument”. These components would be part of the conceptual meaning of needle. However, you may have “associations”, or “connotations”, attached to a word like needle which lead you to think of “painful” whenever you encounter the word. This “association” is not treated as part of the conceptual meaning of needle. In a similar way, you may associate the expression low-calorie, when used to describe a product, with “good for you”, but we would not want to include this association within the basic conceptual meaning of the expression. Poets and advertisers are, of course, very interested in using terms in such a way that their associative meanings are evoked, and some linguists do investigate this aspect of language use.

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WHAT SHOULD TEACHERS KNOW

To understand the complexity of the grammar issue, teachers need to have some understanding of the language acquisition process. And they need to understand that children enter the classroom with a thorough grounding in the internalized system of rules of their language. They already know Grammar 1. Teachers should also understand that, barring some cognitive impairment, native speakers use “good” grammar, even though the language they speak may not be “standard” English. They should also understand the problems in thinking of grammars as a remedy for supposed inadequacies in students writing and spoken language.

Bell hooks (1994) eloquently points out a few problems with the notion of teaching grammar. In essence she asks “whose grammar are we teaching?” If the goal of grammar teaching (whether within the context of writing or not) is to help students speak and write the language of power, we must ask ourselves if this is a noble goal. And by assuming that there is a language of power, and that those who master it have a better chance of being “successful” what are we saying about those who do not, or will not, speak that language? Hooks, recalling the fact that Africans brought here during the slave trade had to learn the “language of the oppressor” writes:

“Needing the oppressor’s language to speak with one another they nevertheless also reinvented, remade that language so that it would speak beyond the boundaries of conquest and domination. In the mouths of black Africans in the so-called New World, English was altered, transformed and became a different speech (170).”

Hooks goes on to say that there is a direct relationship between the broken English that displaces Africans as slaves and the black vernacular speech of some African Americans today. She points out that this “rupture of standard English” enables both

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6 What Should Teachers Know. http://www.msu.edu/user/patter90/grammar.htm
rebellion and resistance. Black English, she points out, is an intimate speech that enables resistance to the dominant culture but also creates an alternative space for different ways of thinking crucial to creating an alternate world view. She stresses that “it is absolutely essential that the revolutionary power of black vernacular speech not be lost in contemporary culture. That power resides in the capacity of black vernacular to intervene on the boundaries and limitations of Standard English” (171).

In our attempts to help students gain control over language, and to help them express themselves through oral and written texts and learn the conventions of Standard English through those experiences, we cannot forget that other dialects are used successfully. “So called" Standard English may be the language of power, but only in certain venues. It is important for teachers to remember this. Hooks writes:

“To heal the splitting of mind and body, we marginalized and oppressed people’s attempt to recover ourselves and our experiences in language. We seek to make a place for intimacy. Unable to find such a place in standardized English, we created the ruptured, broken, unruly speech of the vernacular (175).”

But there is still a problem here. Granted we must honor the validity of all dialects. And we must honor the fact that language is a cultural marker. But what about those who speak only a non-privileged dialect? It is fine and good to respect that dialect as dynamic and powerful.

But Delpit points out that those who believe grammar (or issues of correctness in Standard English), namely writing process advocates, view the mundane issues of correctness and the teaching of skills to be a hindrance to the process of writing. Delpit points out that some Black students, for example, continue to write and speak in their own dialect and are not pushed to use Standard English. And although Delpit does not support the isolated skill and drill that many students are subjected to, she does believe that Black students, for example, be given enough experience with the technical skills of language that could help them find a place in the world outside their own dialect group. She writes:
“Let there be no doubt: a skilled minority person who is not also capable of critical analysis becomes the trainable, low-level functionary of the dominant society, simply the grease that keeps the institutions which orchestrate his or her oppression running smoothly. On the other hand, a critical thinker who lacks the skills demanded by employers and institutions of higher learning can aspire to financial and social status only within the disenfranchised underworld. Yes, if minority people are to effect the change which will allow them to truly progress we must insist on ‘skills’ within the context of critical and creative thinking (19).”

Teachers need to understand the power issues involved in the teaching of grammar. And, indeed, it is a question of power, as Hartwell, citing Emig stresses. He writes:

“…that the thrust of current research and theory is to take power from the teacher and give that power to the learner. At no point in the English curriculum is the question of power more blatantly posed than in the issue of formal grammar instruction. It is time that we, as teachers, formulate theories of language and literacy and let those theories guide our teaching…(127).”

It may seem that the truth of the grammar issue may be that there is no truth. Students acquire language and literacy in much the same way, through social interaction, through dialogue. And over the course of the literacy acquisition years, which is probably an entire lifetime, language users grow in their abilities to use that language. We as teachers can foster that growth through meaningful language-rich classroom activities that place students in situations where they build upon their knowledge of Grammar 1. But clearly more research needs to be conducted, especially in the area of Descriptive Grammar and its impact on student writing.
TEACHING GRAMMAR

Goals and Techniques for Teaching Grammar

The goal of grammar instruction is to enable students to carry out their communication purposes. This goal has three implications:

- Students need overt instruction that connects grammar points with larger communication contexts.
- Students do not need to master every aspect of each grammar point, only those that are relevant to the immediate communication task.
- Error correction is not always the instructor's first responsibility.

Overt Grammar Instruction

Adult students appreciate and benefit from direct instruction that allows them to apply critical thinking skills to language learning. Instructors can take advantage of this by providing explanations that give students a descriptive understanding (declarative knowledge) of each point of grammar.

- Teach the grammar point in the target language or the students' first language or both. The goal is to facilitate understanding.
- Limit the time you devote to grammar explanations to 10 minutes, especially for lower level students whose ability to sustain attention can be limited.
- Present grammar points in written and oral ways to address the needs of students with different learning styles.

An important part of grammar instruction is providing examples. Teachers need to plan their examples carefully around two basic principles:

7 Teaching Grammar;http://www.nclrc.org/essentials/grammar/goalsgram.htm
• Be sure the examples are accurate and appropriate. They must present the language appropriately, be culturally appropriate for the setting in which they are used, and be to the point of the lesson.
• Use the examples as teaching tools. Focus examples on a particular theme or topic so that students have more contact with specific information and vocabulary.

Relevance of Grammar Instruction

In the communicative competence model, the purpose of learning grammar is to learn the language of which the grammar is a part. Instructors therefore teach grammar forms and structures in relation to meaning and use for the specific communication tasks that students need to complete.

Compare the traditional model and the communicative competence model for teaching the English past tense:

Traditional: grammar for grammar's sake

• Teach the regular -ed form with its two pronunciation variants
• Teach the doubling rule for verbs that end in d (for example, wed-wedded)
• Hand out a list of irregular verbs that students must memorize
• Do pattern practice drills for -ed
• Do substitution drills for irregular verbs

Communicative competence: grammar for communication's sake

• Distribute two short narratives about recent experiences or events, each one to half of the class
• Teach the regular -ed form, using verbs that occur in the texts as examples. Teach the pronunciation and doubling rules if those forms occur in the texts.
• Teach the irregular verbs that occur in the texts.
• Students read the narratives, ask questions about points they don't understand.
• Students work in pairs in which one member has read Story A and the other Story B. Students interview one another; using the information from the interview, they then write up or orally repeat the story they have not read.

Error Correction

At all proficiency levels, learners produce language that is not exactly the language used by native speakers. Some of the differences are grammatical, while others involve vocabulary selection and mistakes in the selection of language appropriate for different contexts.

In responding to student communication, teachers need to be careful not to focus on error correction to the detriment of communication and confidence building. Teachers need to let students know when they are making errors so that they can work on improving. Teachers also need to build students' confidence in their ability to use the language by focusing on the content of their communication rather than the grammatical form.

Teachers can use error correction to support language acquisition, and avoid using it in ways that undermine students' desire to communicate in the language, by taking cues from context.

• When students are doing structured output activities that focus on development of new language skills, use error correction to guide them.

Example:
Student (in class): I buy a new car yesterday.
Teacher: You bought a new car yesterday. Remember, the past tense of buy is bought.

• When students are engaged in communicative activities, correct errors only if they interfere with comprehensibility. Respond using correct forms, but without stressing them.
Example:
Student (*greeting teacher*): I buy a new car yesterday!
Teacher: You bought a new car? That's exciting! What kind?
2.2 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Ambiguity: An expression whose meaning cannot be determined from its context. Unclearness by virtue of having more than one meaning.

Competence: The quality of being adequately or well qualified physically and intellectually.

Composition: An essay (especially one written as an assignment). The act of creating written works.

Comprehension: An ability to understand the meaning or importance of something (or the knowledge acquired as a result).

Concepts: An abstract or general idea inferred or derived from specific instances.

Dangling Modifiers: A word or phrase apparently modifying an unintended word because of its placement in a sentence: e.g., 'when young' in 'when young, circuses appeal to all of us'.

Example: An item of information that is representative of a type. A representative form or pattern. Something to be imitated.

Exercise: Systematic training by multiple repetitions. A task performed or problem solved in order to develop skill or understanding. Put to use. Learn by repetition.

Grammar: The study of the way the sentences of a language are constructed, especially the study of morphology and syntax. A set of rules accounting for the features or constructions of a given language. Knowledge or usage of the preferred forms in speaking or writing. The branch of linguistics that deals with syntax and morphology (and sometimes also deals with semantics or morphology).
**Helpful:** Providing assistance or serving a useful function. Of service or assistance. Showing a willingness to cooperate.

**Interesting:** Excite the curiosity of; engage the interest of. Be on the mind of. Be of importance or consequence. Adj. Arousing or holding the attention.

**Linguistic:** Consisting of or related to language. Of or relating to the scientific study of language.

**Major:** A university student who is studying a particular field as the principal subject. The principal field of study of a student at a university.

**Misplaced modifiers:** A word or phrase apparently modifying an unintended word because of its placement in a sentence: e.g., 'when young' in 'when young, circuses appeal to all of us'.

**Performance:** The act of performing; of doing something successfully; using knowledge as distinguished from merely possessing it.

**Phonetics:** The branch of acoustics concerned with speech processes including its production and perception and acoustic analysis.

**Program:** A system of projects or services intended to meet a public need. A series of steps to be carried out or goals to be accomplished. An integrated course of academic studies.

**Reading:** The cognitive process of understanding a written linguistic message. The action of a person who reads. Matter read or for reading. The form of a given passage in a particular text.

**Speaking:** The utterance of intelligible speech.
Textbook: A book prepared for being used when teaching and learning.

Theory: A well-substantiated explanation of some aspect of the natural world; an organized system of accepted knowledge that applies in a variety of circumstances to explain a specific set of phenomena.

Useful: Capable of being used to advantage; serviceable.

Vocabulary: A listing of the words used in some enterprise. A language user's knowledge of words. The system of techniques or symbols serving as a means of expression (as in arts or crafts).

Writing: The act of creating written works. The work of a writer; anything expressed in letters of the alphabet (especially when considered from the point of view of style and effect). Letters or symbols written or imprinted on a surface to represent the sounds or words of a language. The activity of putting something in written form.
2.3 LEGAL FRAMEWORK

This project is based on what “La Ley de la Carrera Docente” of El Salvador, expresses in its art. 2 and 3.

Art. 2- This law has the aim to guarantee that the teaching practiced by teachers in “El Registro Escalafonario del Ministerio de Educación”, assure their work stability, as a medium to get a quality education.

Art. 3- This regulation will be applied:

1) To teachers that play roles as teachers and education technicians at the service of the state.
2) To teacher that provides teaching service in private schools, in all that subjects that are not regulated by the labor code; for the escalafon, only as for its register, classification and capacity to practice teaching, and,
3) To teachers pensioned and retired.

Any English teacher has to act under these articles. Nowadays many schools are requesting teachers who can speak English as well. Any English teacher is compromised to practice his career with ethic, to provide not a good but excellent learning of the language. That is why the Universidad Francisco Gavidia is totally interested in providing students with all the necessary knowledge of the English Language, due to the demand of competitive professionals of the English career.

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8 LEY DE LA CARRERA DOCENTE DE EL SALVADOR.