

Department of Art & Design

Subject: Functional English

Total Marks: 50

June 26, 2020

ID NO; 16969

Plagiarized answers are not acceptable.

Q1. Voice refers to the form of a verb that indicates when a grammatical subject performs the action. What are the mechanics of voices which are generally preferred to use in academic writing?

ANS : Grammar for Academic Writing provides a selective overview of the key areas of English grammar that you need to master, in order to express yourself correctly and appropriately in academic writing. Those areas include the basic distinctions of meaning in the verb tense system, the use of modal verbs to express degrees of certainty and commitment, and alternative ways of grouping and ordering written information to highlight the flow of your argument. Grammar is often defined as the rule system of a language, but it is also useful to think of it as a resource for expressing meaning. For example, when we talk of someone ‘knowing’ the Present Perfect in English, we mean that they know how to form it (by combining the auxiliary verb have with the past participle of the relevant verb) but more importantly in which situations it is used and which meanings it can convey. Thinking of grammar as primarily ‘rules’ tends to make people think there is one-to-one relationship between grammar and meaning. As we will see in the next task, the same meaning can be expressed in different ways, and even with different tenses.

The **voice** of a verb tells whether the subject of the sentence performs or receives the action. In English there are two voices: **active** and **passive**.

Active voice

In active voice, the subject performs the action expressed by the verb.

Example:

The student wrote a song.

Passive voice

In passive voice, the subject receives the action expressed by the verb.

Example

A song was written by the student.

Active and Passive Voice in Writing

The choice between using the active or passive voice in writing is a matter of style, not correctness. However, most handbooks recommend using active voice, which they describe as more natural, direct, lively, and succinct. The passive voice is considered wordy and weak (except when used in cases above). Examine the following examples.

- **Weak passive:** The skater was slammed into the wall by Maria.
- **Strong active:** Maria slammed the skater into the wall.
- **Weak passive:** The book was enjoyed by me because the events of her childhood were described so well by the author.
- **Strong active:** I enjoyed the book because the author described the events of her childhood so well.

Voice in academic writing

Often in academic writing, we don't want to focus on who is doing an action, but on who is receiving or experiencing the action. The passive voice is thus extremely useful in academic writing because it allows writers to highlight the most important participants or events within sentences by placing them at the beginning of the sentence.

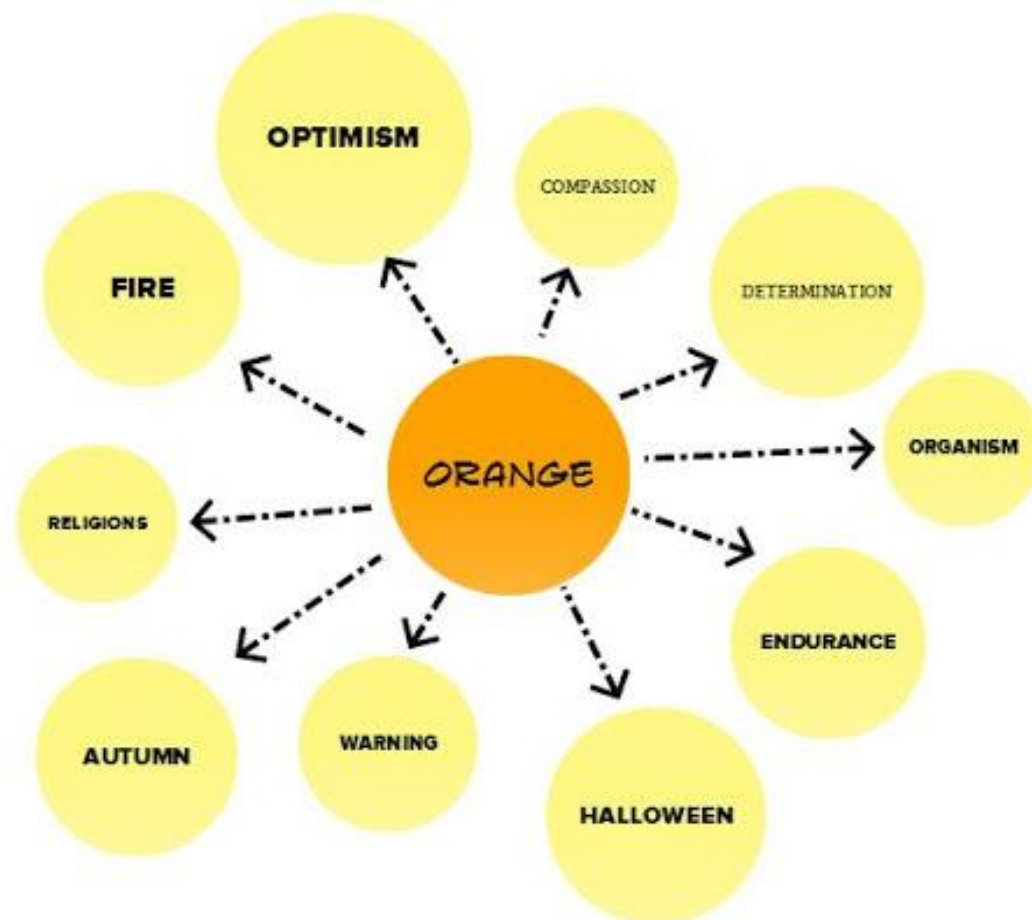
Examples

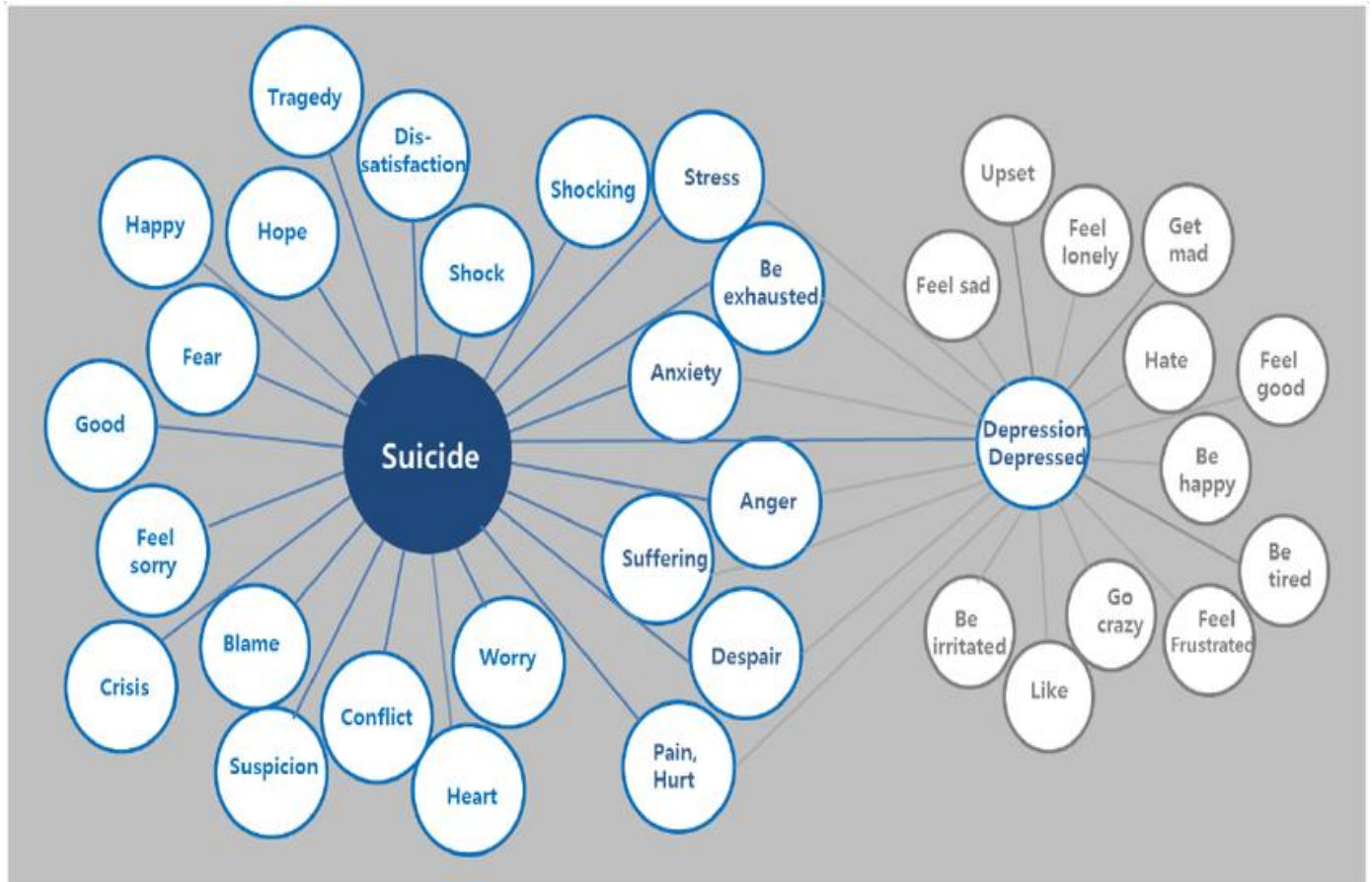
In the following sentences, the passive construction is preferable because you want readers to focus on the result of an action rather than the person doing the action.

In addition, in academic writing sometimes it is obvious, irrelevant or repetitive to state who the 'doer' of the sentence is: thus the passive voice is a useful way to construct these types of sentences. It is also a way that the use of informal personal pronouns can be avoided. Using the active voice in this passage would change the tone of the passage and create quite different message.

Q2. It is common practice in linguistics to attempt to use selection constraints and semantic type hierarchies as primary knowledge resources to perform word sense disambiguation. In the light of this statement how would you design lexical set on physical and metaphysical categories?

ANS :





To study linguistics is to gain a greater understanding of a fundamental part of what it means to be human. Linguistics is a scientific field and an academic discipline that has both theoretical and practical applications. Linguists study language structure at several theoretical levels that range in size from tiny units of speech sounds to the context of an entire conversation. Students of linguistics often begin with a basic understanding of each level of language, then specialize in one or more levels or in a practical application of linguistics. The smallest units of language are studied in the field of phonetics, which concerns itself with the individual sounds produced while speaking. Phonology takes a look at those small units of sound together in the context of whole utterances, and searches for patterns in sound across a language or a whole group of languages. Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, how stems come together with prefixes and suffixes to make whole words. Syntax explores the structure of complete sentences exactly as people really produce them, not how your seventh grade English teacher told you to produce them. Linguists also seek to understand the meaning behind words and combinations of words in the field of semantics. The meanings of these

combinations when they interact with contextual information, and how they are produced and perceived, are the focus of a subfield known as pragmatics. It is common practice in computational linguistics to attempt to use selection constraints and semantic type hierarchies as primary knowledge resources to perform word sense disambiguation (cf. Jurafsky and Martin 2000). The most widely adopted methodology is to start from a given ontology of types (e.g. Word net, cf. Miller and Fell Baum 2007) and try to use its implied conceptual categories to specify the combinatorial constraints on lexical items. Semantic Typing information about preferences is then used to guide the induction of senses for both nouns and verbs in texts. Practical results have shown, however, that there are a number of problems with such an approach. For instance, as corpus-driven pattern analysis shows (cf. Hanks et al. 2007), the paradigmatic sets of words that populate specific argument slots within the same verb sense do not map neatly onto conceptual categories, as they often include words belonging to different types. Also, the internal composition of these sets changes from verb to verb, so that no stable generalization seems possible as to which lexemes belong to which semantic type (cf. Hanks and Jezek 2008). In this paper, we claim that these are not accidental facts related to the contingencies of a given ontology, but rather the result of an attempt to map distributional language behavior onto semantic type systems that are not sufficiently grounded in real corpus data. We report the efforts done within the CPA project (cf. Hanks 2009) to build an ontology which satisfies such requirements and explore its advantages in terms of empirical validity over more speculative ontologies. The object in what follows will be to present in outline metaphysical systems that have exercised, and indeed continue to exercise, a strong intellectual appeal. In most cases, these systems were given classical shape by particular philosophers of genius. Relatively little attention, however, will be paid to this fact here, because the present concern is with types of view rather than with views actually held. Thus, reference will be made to Platonism instead of to the philosophy of Plato, and so on in other cases.

Q3. How does the figurative expression enlighten the common idioms in English language?

ANS: Figuring prominently in language teaching and learning, figurative language has long been a topic of intense research activity. Teachers and learners alike enjoy reading about figurative language as much as they enjoy employing creatively said language in an array of activities and projects. This entry explores figurative

language and focuses exclusively on figurative language techniques for instruction. Common figures of speech are presented along with some age-appropriate teaching suggestions and resources to help English language teaching practitioners learn, review, or teach figurative language to their students as they move toward a working knowledge of figurative language use. Activities and projects suggested herein are designed to help students improve their reading. In a world where over 6,000 languages are spoken, the variety between languages is worth examining (Kövecses, 2010). The differences and similarities between languages can enlighten the topic of language—a universal tool that people in all parts of the earth utilize. Each language is tied to the culture of its speakers. In this combination of language and culture, there is controversy: is culture embedded in language, or is language embedded in culture? Culture seems to affect language, but language also seems to influence culture to exist in a particular way. It is important to study languages and cultures in order to obtain an accurate view of people across the globe without having biases or false understanding of their lives. By seeing the value that culture has upon language, people can be motivated to study culture—especially as an accompaniment to language studies. Culture can provide directions for how to express an idea, but culture does not create that idea. In other words, culture explains how to convey an idea, but not what the idea is. We know that from culture to culture, there are shared human experiences that are expressed through language. These experiences lead to the same idea expressed in different ways in different cultures. Benjamin Lee Whorf and Edward Sapir were supporters of the view that language influences culture and thus created the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. The two men hypothesized that language is strongly influential in shaping culture (Hussein, 2012). The research provided in this thesis examines differences and similarities in expressions of universal ideas. This research is based upon the idea that all people share common experiences that create universal meaning/writing skills regardless of academic grade or language proficiency level.

Q4. Poor spelling makes poor communication. What are the requirements of high degree accuracy in academic writing?

ANS : Spelling is a complex process requiring knowledge of language-specific sound-to-letter mappings and letter patterns. For some, spelling is a laborious and difficult process whereas others spell words effortlessly. Individual differences in spelling skills have been linked to oral language and word reading abilities (Bishop & Clarkson, 2003; Swanson, Training, Necochea, & Hamill, 2003; Ricketts,

Bishop, & Nation, 2008). According to connectionist models of word reading (Seidenberg & McClelland, 1989; Strain, Patterson, & Seidenberg, 1995; Plaut, McClelland, Seidenberg, & Patterson, 1996) oral language influences spelling via semantic-orthographic connections, whereas word reading contributes to spelling via phonologic-orthographic connections. Previous research with two groups of children – those with dyslexia and those with specific language impairment (SLI) – have shown mixed results with regards to difficulties when spelling words despite normal nonverbal cognitive abilities and adequate literacy instruction (Leonard, 1998; Lyon, Shivwits, & Shivwits, 2003).

Connectionist models of word reading (Seidenberg & McClelland, 1989; Strain et al., 1995; Plaut et al., 1996) provide one way of examining how phonologic (spoken words), orthographic (printed words), and semantic (word meaning) representations interact and are modified for the purposes of spelling. These models suggest that during the early stages of literacy development children develop connections between phonologic and orthographic representations. However, as learning continues (i.e. children become better readers and spellers) there is less dependence on phonologic-orthographic connections, but more reliance on the semantic pathway between them. The semantic pathway is a direct link between the meaning of a word and its orthographic representation. This provides readers with a quicker and more efficient way to read and spell words, in particular words with less predictable or highly irregular letter to sound correspondences, such as ‘yacht’ or ‘pint’.

Two groups of children, those with dyslexia and those with SLI, are hypothesized to reveal how the connections used to spell words within connectionist models develop because each group has known deficits in one (or more) set of representations. Phonologic-orthographic connections provide information about letter-sound associations. For example, a review of the literature by Valentina, Fletcher, Snow ling, and Scanlon (2004) showed that children with dyslexia have difficulty encoding phonologic and orthographic information, therefore their word reading and spelling is impaired via deficient connections between phonologic and orthographic representations. Moreover, the connection between semantic and orthographic representations offers a way to examine how vocabulary knowledge and the understanding of words, words parts, and letters interface. Children with SLI exhibit deficient oral language, including semantic processing (e.g. Gray,

2004), which should lead to weak semantic-orthographic connections (cf. Nation & Snowling, 1998a). However, whereas a positive association between word reading and spelling is robust (e.g. Zell & Resnick, 1989; Swanson et al., 2003), the link between oral language deficiencies and spelling is equivocal. Some studies show that children with SLI have poor spelling (Nuclear, 2004), whereas others do not (Mackie & Dockrell, 2004; Bishop, McDonald, Bird, & Hayiou-Thomas, 2009). Four methodological issues may explain discrepant results.

First, SLI and dyslexia are highly co-morbid (Catt's, Adolf, Hogan, & Ellis Weimar, 2005). If word reading and spelling skills are associated more so than language and spelling skills, it follows that the extent to which a specific sample of children with SLI who have co-morbid dyslexia (i.e. word reading problems) will explain the extent to which they have spelling difficulties. Simply stated, samples of children with SLI will show spelling difficulties if those children also have co-morbid dyslexia. On the other hand, children with SLI who have good word reading skills should show good spelling skills. Support for this hypothesis is found in a study of SLI in which those with normal word reading showed average spelling abilities. Bishop and colleagues (2009) examined the spelling abilities of 9 and 10 year old children with SLI (n = 35), dyslexia (n = 73), or SLI and dyslexia (n = 54) compared to their typical peers (n = 176). Results revealed that their sample of children with SLI spelled as well as their typical peers, whereas the children with SLI and dyslexia showed poorer spelling than typical peers. Likewise, Larkin and Snowling (2008) found that those with language impairment and a concurrent reading disability exhibited poor spelling. A study of spelling including these groups of children with SLI, dyslexia, or both selected carefully to represent low and normal word reading skills and low and normal language skills better isolates the link between word reading, oral language skills, and spelling.

REQUIREMENTS

Requirements of Academic Writers To improve your academic writing, you should focus on three points: a) The content of your essay b) Correct grammar c) Advanced level vocabulary d) Critical thinking skills

2. a) The Content of Your Essay 1. 2. 3. 4. College writing focuses on a variety of issues such as reacting to a piece of literature or writing about science or politics.

The students need to understand the topic and research it before attempting their first draft. This can be done through reading encyclopedia articles to build a foundation. The body paragraphs may include examples, statistics, examples, questions, definitions, quotations, and anecdotes. By giving supporting ideas, you make your main idea more detailed, easier to read, and much more impressive.

03. b) Correct Grammar Students need to review the basic grammatical structures such as subjects and verbs. 2. Students must check their essay for verb-tense consistency and correct punctuation. 3. It is recommended that your sentences become more complex by including transitions, gerunds, and embedded clauses 1.

04. Transition Words they are used to spice up your work and to make the sections flow more smoothly from one to another. Within these types of words, your writing will become choppy. Transition words should really fall very naturally throughout a composition. Transition words include words such as Therefore, However, Moreover, Lastly, Next, Also, Furthermore, In addition to, Similarly, Likewise, Accordingly, Hence, Consequently, As a result, Thereby, Otherwise, Subsequently, Thus, So then, Wherefore, Generally, Usually, For the most part, As a rule, Ordinarily, Regularly, In particular, For instance, Particularly, Especially, Such as, Including, Namely, For example, As an example, In this case, Above all, Singularly, Likewise, Coupled with, Compared to, In comparison to, Together with, Besides, In brief, In short, In conclusion, In the meantime, Soon, Later, In the meanwhile, Afterward, Earlier, In summary, To summarize, Finally, Before, After, By the way, Incidentally, As a result of, Accidentally, Here, There, Over there, Opposite, Under, Beyond, In the distance, To the

4. Examples 1. Carla spent a long day working at the school and then cooking dinner for her family. She got a large cup of coffee. Carla spent a long day working at the school and then cooking dinner for her family. Therefore, she got a large cup of coffee. 2. Jeffrey will be ready to leave for the trip in twenty minutes. Fill up the car with gas please. Jeffrey will be ready to leave for the trip in twenty minutes. In the meanwhile, fill up the car with gas please. 3. The trip through the desert was extremely tiring for the crew. In the distance they saw civilization. The trip through the desert was extremely tiring for the crew. Finally, in the distance, they saw civilization. 4. Paul did not run for the ice cream truck with the other children. He doesn't like ice cream. Paul did not run for the ice cream truck with the other children. Besides, he doesn't like ice cream.

6. Embedded Clauses "One clause may be embedded within another, that is, it may be used as a constituent part of another clause. Such a clause is called an embedded

clause (or a subordinate clause) and the clause within which it is embedded is called the matrix clause. The embedded clause is a constituent of the matrix clause. A clause that could occur on its own as a sentence is called a main clause.

07. Examples □ The boy who came is his cousin. I told him that I would go. He left when the bell rang. The three kinds of embedded clauses illustrated here are a relative clause (who came), a noun clause (that I would go), and an adverb clause (when the bell rang). Note that embedded clauses are usually marked in some way, e.g., by the initial who, that, and when in the above sentences."

08. c) Advanced Level Vocabulary 1. 2. 3. 4. 5. Slang and abbreviated terms are not acceptable in formal writing. Academic writing requires sophisticated vocabulary. Students need to have a new dictionary and thesaurus to help expand their word knowledge. Students have to be aware of how often words and phrases are repeated throughout your essay. Students have to search for synonyms to replace simple words.

09.D) Critical Thinking Skills Critical thinking requires you to approach a subject from multiple angles. The word "critical" suggests that you should come to the topic with heightened awareness of fallacies, missing information and contradictions. Critical thinking involves effective communication and problem-solving, and requires constant analyzing, reasoning and evaluating. Critical thinking skills are imperative for young students and even adults to perform well academically and professionally. Critical thinking skills are usually separated into three categories: affective, cognitive strategies encompassing macro-abilities and cognitive strategies for micro-skills. These skills will help you to understand yourself and the people you interact with, and you will also be able to utilize information better.

10. Dimensions of critical thoughts. 1. Affective strategies: They address the need to control emotions and exercise them to our advantage. They can also be used to judge and respond to the emotions and values of others. They refer to the development of self-awareness and recognizing that your reality might not be your neighbor's. Other dimensions of these strategies include exercising fair-mindedness, developing intellectual courage, confidence in reason and intellectual humility and suspending judgment. All affective strategies allow us to develop more mature ideas and also understand other people's ideas.

11. Cognitive Strategies Macro Abilities Macro-abilities in terms of cognitive strategies are mostly information-based. They include how a person finds information and decides if that information is valuable to his needs. This can be

through critically listening, reading, discussing, analyzing and evaluating. Specific dimensions of this strategy include making interdisciplinary connections, clarifying and analyzing the meanings of words or phrases and reasoning dialectically and evaluating perspectives, interpretations or theories.

12. Developing Cognitive "Micro" Skills. □ Micro-skills are generally more specific to the thought and use of certain information. Examples of these skills include comparing and contrasting two different works of art from the same artist or gathering results from a science experiment to create an original theory or solution. Specifically, dimensions of this type of thinking are "noting significant similarities and differences", "evaluating evidence and alleged facts" and "exploring implications and consequences."

Q5. Read the following passage and answer the questions given at the end.

Philosophy of Education is a label applied to the study of the purpose, process, nature and ideals of education. It can be considered a branch of both philosophy

and education. Education can be defined as the teaching and learning of specific skills, and the imparting of knowledge, judgment and wisdom, and is something broader than the societal institution of education we often speak of.

Many educationalists consider it a weak and woolly field, too far removed from the practical applications of the real world to be useful. But philosophers dating back to Plato and the Ancient Greeks have given the area much thought and emphasis, and there is little doubt that their work has helped shape the practice of education over the millennia.

Plato is the earliest important educational thinker, and education is an essential element in "The Republic" (his most important work on philosophy and political theory, written around 360 B.C.). In it, he advocates some rather extreme methods: removing children from their mothers' care and raising them as wards of the state, and differentiating children suitable to the various castes, the highest receiving the most education, so that they could act as guardians of the city and care for the less able. He believed that education should be holistic, including facts, skills, physical discipline, music and art. Plato believed that talent and intelligence is not distributed genetically and thus is to be found in children born to all classes, although his proposed system of selective public education for an educated minority of the population does not really follow a democratic model.

Aristotle considered human nature, habit and reason to be equally important forces to be cultivated in education, the ultimate aim of which should be to produce good and virtuous citizens. He proposed that teachers lead their students systematically, and that repetition be used as a key tool to develop good habits, unlike Socrates' emphasis on questioning his listeners to bring out their own ideas. He emphasized the balancing of the theoretical and practical aspects of subjects taught, among

which he explicitly mentions reading, writing, mathematics, music, physical education, literature, history, and a wide range of sciences, as well as play, which he also considered important.

During the Medieval period, the idea of Perennialism was first formulated by St. Thomas Aquinas in his work "De Magistro". Perennialism holds that one should teach those things deemed to be of everlasting importance to all people everywhere, namely principles and reasoning, not just facts (which are apt to change over time), and that one should teach first about people, not machines or techniques. It was originally religious in nature, and it was only much later that a theory of secular perennialism developed.

During the Renaissance, the French skeptic Michel de Montaigne (1533 - 1592) was one of the first to critically look at education. Unusually for his time, Montaigne was willing to question the conventional wisdom of the period, calling into question the whole edifice of the educational system, and the implicit assumption that university-educated philosophers were necessarily wiser than uneducated farm workers, for example.

QUESTIONS

Q1. What is the difference between the approaches of Socrates and Aristotle?

Ans : Socrates differed from Aristotle in that Socrates relied heavily on enquiring dialogue for his learning and teaching. Aristotle on the other hand published his works. He also founded institutions of higher learning. He relied upon lectures for the dissemination of his thoughts and discoveries.

Q2. Why do educationists consider philosophy a 'weak and woolly' field?

Ans : Philosophy is the tag applied to the study of the objective, process, nature, and ideals of the preparation. Many educationalists observed as weak and indefinite field because it is too far from the practical applications. But they go back to Plato and Aristotle have given space much thought and significance, and there is small doubt that their idea has helped mold the practice of teaching over a thousand years.

Q3. What do you understand by the term 'Perennialism', in the context of the given comprehension passage?

Ans : 1) It refers to something which is of ceaseless importance

2) It refers to something which is quite unnecessary

3) It refers to something which is abstract and theoretical

4) It refers to something which existed in the past and no longer exists now

The first option is correct because the term comes from the root word 'perennial' which means ceaseless.

Q4. Were Plato's beliefs about education democratic?

Ans : since Descartes, historical changes have transformed truth, ... Understanding Plato's contribution to democratic education means more than ... their own opinions and decide issues in common with him, harmonizing their beliefs.

1) He believed that only the rich have the right to acquire education

2) Yes

3) He believed that only a select few are meant to attend schools

4) He believed that all pupils are not talented

Answer:

The second option is correct – Plato's beliefs were democratic but not his suggested practices.

Q5. Why did Aquinas propose a model of education which did not lay much emphasis on facts?

Ans : He believed that education should be holistic, including facts, skills, physical discipline, music and art. ... He proposed that teachers lead their students systematically, and that repetition be used as a key tool to develop good habits, unlike Socrates' emphasis on questioning his listeners to bring out their own ideas.

1) Facts are not important

2) Facts do not lead to holistic education

3) Facts change with the changing times

4) Facts are frozen in time