Department of Art & Design

Subject: Functional English

Total Marks: 50
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ID: 16931

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 zones of English grammar that you need to major, in order to prompt yourself correctly and applicably in academic writing. Those zones include the basic dissimilarities of meaning in the verb tense system, the use of modal verbs to prompt degrees of inevitability and commitment, and marginal ways of grouping and ordering written information to highlight the course 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 conveying meaning. For example, when we talk of someone 'knowing' the Present Perfect in English, we mean that they know how to form it, but more significantly in which situations it is used and which meanings it can convey. Thinking of grammar as primarily 'rules' inclines to make people think there is a one-to-one relationship between grammar and meaning. As we will

see in the next task, the same meaning can be conveyed 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 conveyed by the verb:

The student wrote a song.

Passive Voice

In passive voice, the subject receives the action conveyed by the verb:

A song was written by the student.

Q2. It is common practice in linguistics to attempt to use sectional 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 increase a grander understanding of a fundamental part of what it means to be human. Linguistics is a scientific field and an academic correction that has both theoretical and practical applications. Linguists study language construction at several theoretical levels that variety in size from tiny units of speech sounds to the context of an all-inclusive conversation. Students of

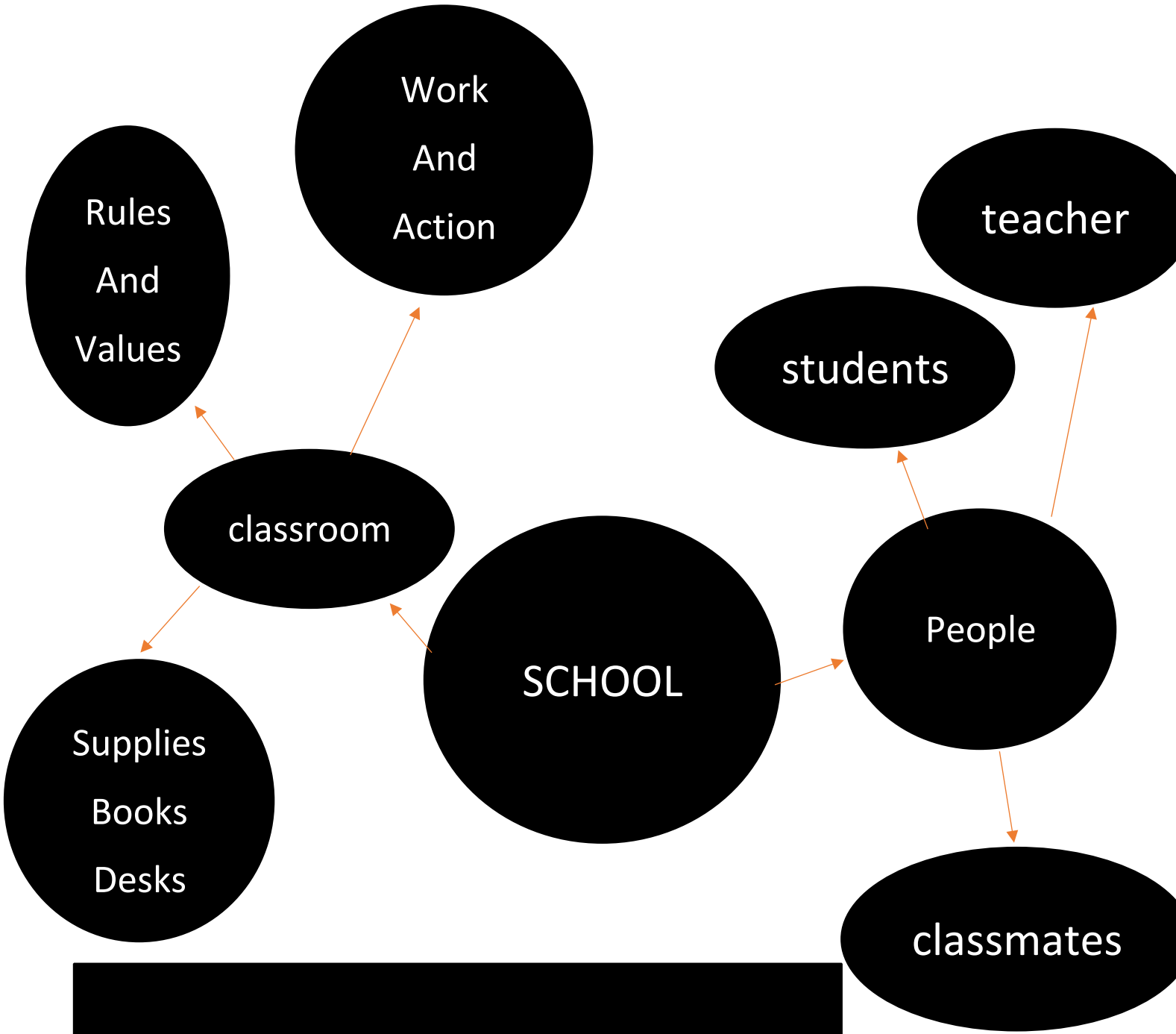
linguistics often begin with a basic understanding of each level of language, then concentrate in one or more levels or in a practical application of linguistics.

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 statements, and searches for patterns in sound across a language or a whole group of languages.

Morphology is the study of the inner structure of words, how stems come together with prefixes and suffixes to make whole words. Syntax discovers the structure of complete sentences correctly as people really harvest 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 alleged, are the focus of a subfield known as pragmatics.

It is common practice in computational linguistics to endeavor to use sectional constraints and semantic type hierarchies as primary knowledge resources to perform word sense disambiguation (cf. Jurafsky and Martin 2000). The most broadly embraced methodology is to start from a given ontology of types and try to use its implied intangible categories to specify the combinatorial constraints on lexical items. Semantic typing information about sectional partialities is then used to guide the induction of senses for both nouns and verbs in texts. Concrete 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 spaces within the same verb sense do not map neatly onto intangible categories, as they often include words belonging to different types. Also, the internal configuration of these sets changes from verb to verb, so that no steady simplification seems possible as to which lexemes belong to which semantic type. In this paper, we claim that these are not unintended facts related to the likelihoods of a given ontology, but rather the result of an attempt to map distributional language behavior onto semantic type systems that are not appropriately grounded in real corpus data. We report the struggles done within the CPA project (cf. Hanks 2009) to build an ontology which satisfies such requirements and discover its advantages in terms of observed strength over more academic ontologies.



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

Ans. Figuring importantly in language teaching and learning, figurative language has long been a subject of intense research activity. Teachers and learners similarly enjoy reading about figurative language as much as they enjoy retaining creatively said language in a display of activities and projects. This entry discovers figurative language and focuses utterly on figurative language techniques for instruction. Mutual figures of speech are presented alongside with some age-appropriate teaching recommendations 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 recommended here are designed to help students progress their reading/writing skills regardless of academic grade or language proficiency level.

In a world where over 6,000 languages are spoken, the variety between languages is worth examining (Kövecses, 2010). The differences and resemblances between languages can enlighten the topic of language a universal device that people in all parts of the earth develop. Each language is knotted to the culture of its speakers. In this arrangement of language and culture, there is controversy: is culture embedded in language, or is language rooted in culture? Culture seems to affect language, but language also seems to effect culture to exist in a particular way. It is

significant to study languages and cultures in order to gain an exact 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 encouraged to study culture especially as a complement to language studies.

Culture can provide directions for how to precise an idea, but culture does not create that idea. In other words, culture describes how to convey an idea, but not what the idea is. We know that from culture to culture, there are shared human know-hows that are conveyed through language. These know-hows 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 effects culture and thus created the Sapir-Whorf

Hypothesis. The two men hypothesized that language is strongly effective in shaping culture (Hussein, 2012).

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

Ans. Spelling is a difficult process requiring knowledge of language-specific sound-to-letter mappings and letter patterns. For some, spelling is a strenuous and difficult process whereas others spell words fluently. Individual differences in spelling skills have been linked to oral language and word reading abilities. Oral language impacts spelling via semantic-orthographic connections, while word

reading underwrites 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 reputes to difficulties when spelling words despite normal nonverbal cognitive abilities and adequate literacy instruction (Leonard, 1998; Lyon, Shaywitz, & Shaywitz, 2003).

Connectionist models of word reading (Seidenberg & McClelland, 1989; Strain et al., 1995; Plaut et al., 1996) deliver one way of examining how phonologic (spoken words), orthographic (printed words), and semantic (word meaning) illustrations interact and are amended for the purposes of spelling. These models suggest that during the early stages of literacy development children develop connections between phonologic and orthographic illustrations. However, as learning continues children become better readers and spellers and there is less dependency 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 demonstration. This delivers readers with a quicker and more well-organized way to read and spell words, in certain words with less expected or very irregular letter to sound correspondences, such as ‘yacht’ or ‘pint’.

Two groups of children, those with dyslexia and those with SLI, are hypothesized to disclose how the connections used to spell words within connectionist models develop because each group has known insufficiencies in one or more set of

representations. Phonologic-orthographic connections provide information about letter-sound associations. For example, a review of the literature by Velluntino, Fletcher, Snowling, and Scanlon (2004) showed that children with dyslexia have difficulty encrypting phonologic and orthographic information, therefore their word reading and spelling is reduced via deficient connections between phonologic and orthographic illustrations. Furthermore, the connection between semantic and orthographic representations offers a way to observe 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). Though, where a positive association between word reading and spelling is robust, the link between oral language insufficiencies and spelling is equivocal. Some studies show that children with SLI have poor spelling, whereas others do not. Four methodological issues may explain discrepant results.

First, SLI and dyslexia are highly co-morbid (Catts, Adlof, Hogan, & Ellis Weismer, 2005). If word reading and spelling skills are related more so than language and spelling skills, it follows that the range 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. Similarly, Larkin and Snowling (2008) found that those with language deficiency and a concurrent reading disability exhibited poor spelling. A study of spelling counting 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.

Observing spelling skills in dissociated groups also provides proof on the debate about the relation between SLI and dyslexia. On one hand, models characterize children with SLI as having both semantic and phonologic processing deficits on a continuum from severe to mild. According to this view, those with SLI and dyslexia have a phonological deficit, whereby those with an additional semantic deficit will have SLI and those without a semantic deficit will have dyslexia. Conversely, recent studies have questioned this view by showing that some children with SLI have good word reading and phonological processing even though they have semantic deficits. Studies of spelling provide a deeper

examination into the orthographic and phonologic skills of children with SLI and children with dyslexia because the written output can be examined in multiple ways. Whereas reading tasks may show that some individuals with SLI are able to accurately read words, spelling tasks have revealed phonologic and orthographic processing deficits in adults with compensated dyslexia (i.e. good word reading after intensive instruction/literacy experience; Bruck, 1993). Hence, it follows that an examination of spelling in children with SLI, dyslexia, or both can be a window into phonologic and orthographic processing that can add to the debate on the role of phonological processing in SLI and dyslexia.

Second, spelling differences in those with SLI across studies may be the result of task differences. Mackie and Dockrell (2004) examined spelling accuracy in written narratives generated by children with SLI. Although the number of spelling errors was not statistically different from their age-matched peers, the authors noted that during narrative writing participants with SLI frequently commented that because they did not know how to spell a specific word they chose to use a word they could spell correctly. Similarly, Puranik, Lombardino, and Altmann (2007) examined spelling accuracy in written narratives with children with language impairment and dyslexia compared to their age-matched peers. Results suggested that children with language impairment and dyslexia were poorer spellers compared to their typical peers. In both of these cases, the sample from which spelling comparisons were made likely impacted the study's results.

Analyzing written narratives may produce a biased sample of words for spelling analyses because those words were self-selected by the child. These self-selected words may include those words children spell more accurately than words they did not choose to spell. Noting this potential self-selection bias, many studies have examined the spelling skills of children with SLI or dyslexia using a spelling dictation task. A spelling dictation task containing words varying in difficulty (e.g. consistent versus less consistent spelling patterns) may better reveal true spelling differences, if present. Such a task would allow for the inspection of spelling error patterns that may reveal further connections between orthography, phonology, and semantics.

Third, spelling tasks yield written words that can be coded on a continuum coarsely as correct or incorrect or fine-grained by error type. For example Naucler (2004) showed that children with SLI spelled the same number of words correctly compared to their age-matched peers in a single word spelling task. However, error analyses revealed that misspelled words by children with SLI contained significantly more omissions. Coarse coding led to the conclusion that children with SLI had spelling skills in line with their typical peers, whereas fine-grained coding leads to the conclusion that their spellings were less mature than those of their typical peers whose errors contained mostly substitutions. Several studies examining the spelling differences in children with dyslexia have used coarse and fine-grain coding systems (Moats, 1983; Cassar et al., 2005). For example,

Caravolas and Volin (2001) used both a course and a fine-grained coding system to examine the phonological spelling differences in children with dyslexia compared to their age-matched and spelling-age matched peers who spoke Czech. Coarse coding found the children with dyslexia did not differ from their spelling-aged matched peers, but they scored significantly poorer than age-matched peers. Fine-grained measures revealed no phonological spelling difference between children with dyslexia compared to their spelling-matched younger peers; however children with dyslexia made significantly more phonological errors than their age-matched peers. Unlike studies of SLI, this study highlights the consistent finding that those with dyslexia have poor spelling revealed by both course and fine-grained coding systems. Openly, a study of spelling reveals more information about individual differences by including both coarse and fine-grade coding, as both coding schemes provide further detailed information about deficits within orthographic, phonologic, and semantic processing in children with SLI and/or dyslexia.

A final methodological issue that leads to equivocal results across studies involves the level of independent variable continuous or dichotomous - included in spelling analyses. Studies involving children with SLI have used group comparisons to determine spelling performance in relation to typical peers. Groups are selected based on predetermined criteria, for example a standard score less than 85 on a language assessment. Though, it is widely accepted that children with SLI are characterized by a range of language abilities from mild to severe. If a specific

sample of children with SLI contains many with mild impairments it could be that their spelling is also less severe and as such may appear to be in line with age-matched peers who also have language abilities on a continuum. The reverse is also plausible. Each scenario would lead to different conclusions: Either children with SLI have typical spelling abilities or they are poor spellers. Both types of analyses group differences and individual variations would provide a deeper appreciation of the link between oral language, word reading, and spelling.

We examine spelling abilities in children with SLI, dyslexia, or both compared to their grade-matched typically developing peers. We hypothesized that word reading, not oral language skills, would be associated with spelling abilities in these groups. As such, we predicted that those with SLI who have weaker language skills would spell like their typically developing peers, whereas those with dyslexia, regardless of language abilities, would spell more poorly than their typically developing peers and those with SLI. Building on past studies, we consider co-morbidity by selecting discrete groups using a double dissociation of word reading and oral language: SLI, dyslexia, SLI/dyslexia, and typically developing peers. Using double dissociation requires matching one pair of groups according to good language (typical peers and dyslexia) and another pair according to good word reading (typical peers and SLI). Further, one pair of sets matches on poor language (SLI and SLI/dyslexia) and another pair matches on poor word reading (dyslexia and SLI/dyslexia). Our task avoided selective spelling by

requiring each child to spell individual words that contained both consistent and less consistent letter-to-sound mappings. Spellings were coded coarsely as correct or incorrect followed by fine-grained coding of errors. Analyses were conducted at two levels to capture individual variations within and across groups: (a) using participant groups, (b) using word reading and oral language to predict spelling. Specifically we asked three research questions: First, do children with word reading problems (i.e. dyslexia and SLI/dyslexia) show spelling weaknesses compared to their peers with good word reading (i.e. SLI and typical peers)? Second, do individual differences in word reading predict spelling more so than oral language in children with variable word reading and oral language abilities? Third, do children with word reading problems.

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 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 trusted greatly on probing dialogue for his learning and teaching. Aristotle on the other hand published his works. He also established institutions of higher learning. He trusted upon lectures for the broadcasting 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 grounding. Many educationalists perceived as weak and unspecified field because it is too far from the practical applications. But they go back to Plato and Aristotle have given space much thought and importance, and

there is small doubt that their idea has helped frame 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 discusses to something which is of ceaseless significance.

2) It discusses to something which is quite unnecessary.

3) It discusses to something which is intangible and theoretical.

4) It discusses 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.

Still, 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, coordinating their beliefs.

Q4. Were Plato’s beliefs about education democratic?

Ans. 1) He believed that only the rich have the right to obtain education.
2) Yes. Plato’s beliefs about education democratic.
3) He believed that only a select few are meant to attend schools.
4) He believed that all pupils are not talented.

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 universal, including facts, skills, physical discipline, music and art. ... He anticipated 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) Evidences are not important.

2) Evidences do not lead to holistic education.

3) Evidences change with the changing times.

4) Evidences are frozen in time.