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Directorate of Distance Education

BA [English]

VI - Semester

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ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

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INTRODUCTION

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English is a widely spoken language today. It has often been referred to as ‘global language’, the lingua franca of the modern era and currently the language most often taught as a second language around the world. With the Information Technology revolution and most software and operating systems being developed in the English language, a new utility for written and oral communication in the English language has emerged. English language has the status of associate official language, but in fact it is one of the most important languages of India. After Hindi, it is the most commonly spoken language in India and probably the most read and written language in India.

The teaching of language comprises various principles and methods used for instruction. One of the most important steps a teacher takes is to understand the learner. Commonly used teaching methods may include class participation, demonstration, recitation, memorization, or combinations of these. The choice of an appropriate teaching method depends largely on the information or skill that is being taught. It is also influenced by the aptitude and enthusiasm of the students. The teaching of English involves important aspects like pronunciation, vocabulary, Grammar and its structures, reading comprehension, writing and poetry.

This book, *English Language Teaching*, has been designed keeping in mind the self-instruction mode (SIM) format and follows a simple pattern, wherein each unit of the book begins with the Introduction followed by the Objectives for the topic. The content is then presented in a simple and easy-to-understand manner and is interspersed with Check Your Progress questions to reinforce the student’s understanding of the topic. A list of Self-Assessment Questions and Exercises is also provided at the end of each unit. The Summary and Key Words further act as useful tools for students and are meant for effective recapitulation of the text.

BLOCK I
ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND ENGLISH TEACHER

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UNIT 1 ENGLISH IN INDIA

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- 1.1 Objectives
- 1.2 Present Position of English In India
- 1.3 English Language and School Curriculum
- 1.4 Aims and Objectives of Teaching English
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1.0 INTRODUCTION

English was first introduced in India by the British. Ever since, it has become the medium of education in the country that people associate with status and quality. This is due to its utility in government, business and educational functions. Internationally, it is the language of trade, commerce, politics, and so on. Owing to these factors, its significance cannot be ignored. It is an integral part of the Indian education system to provide students with ample opportunities at all stages in life. In this unit, the present position of English in India has been discussed in addition to the school curriculum of English language and the aims of teaching English.

1.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the present position of English in India
- Analyse the school curriculum of English Language
- Discuss the aims and objectives of teaching English

1.2 PRESENT POSITION OF ENGLISH IN INDIA

In the multilingual context, the English language has acquired a special position in India. It is no longer seen as a foreign language, rather it is the associate language in India and its acquisition is a matter of pride in the society.

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English Language was first introduced by the British in India with the sole purpose of making their administration of this country easier and efficient by harnessing the human resource available. The intentions as expressed by Macaulay were 'to prepare a class of people who will be Indian in their origin but English in their thought, belief and behaviour'.

After the attainment of independence, drastic change in the outlook of our thinkers and other stakeholders took place with regard to the place of English in the school curriculum. The government of India appointed several commissions, from time to time, to study the whole structure of education and suggest measures for its improvement. The issue of the place of English was of central concern in the reports of these commissions.

English has acquired a special position for itself in this part of the world, in India it enjoys the status of an associate language, and it is seen as a language of multiple opportunities. Its use has become a necessity by compulsion as reflected in the words of our first prime minister:

'If you push out English, does Hindi fully take its place? I hope it will, I am sure it will. But I wish to avoid the danger of one unifying factor being pushed out without another unifying factor fully taking its place. In that event there will be a gap, a hiatus. The creation of any such hiatus or gap must be avoided at all costs. It is very vital to do so in the interest of the unity of the country. It is this that leads me to the conclusion that English is likely to have an important place in the foreseeable future.' – Shri Jawaharlal Nehru

The associations of English in India and its future are reflected in the following lines:

'English is in India today, a symbol of people's aspirations for quality in education and a fuller participation in national and international life. Its colonial origins now forgotten or irrelevant, its initial role in independent India, tailored to higher education (as a 'library language', a 'window on the world'), now felt to be insufficiently inclusive socially and linguistically, the current status of English stems from its overwhelming presence on the world stage and the reflection of this in the national arena.

- *Position Paper on Teaching of English (Chapter 1, 'A Global Language in Multilingual Country page 1, 2006)*

Discussed below are some of the features of the English Language:

English is the Unifying Language - It Acts Both as a National and International Link Language

India with its multicultural and multilingual heritage has always faced the challenge of accepting any one language which would unify the people of different states. English language was accepted and promoted in various schools of our country. The idea of introducing English Language in the curriculum has been to promote 'additive bilingualism' rather than 'subtractive bilingualism'. Indians are able to link well with others states of the country and other countries of the world because of understanding the English Language.

English is the Language of International Politics, Trade, Commerce and Industry

Most of the communication happening around the world in the field of politics, trade, commerce and industry, takes place in English. Therefore, if somebody aspires to carve a success story in any of these areas, he/she must be proficient in English Language.

English is perceived to Open up Opportunities

In India, it is believed that if one is proficient in English, there will be ample opportunities for placement in big multinational companies (David Graddol, 2010).

English is believed to Aid Social Mobility at Global Level

Youths aspire to move to other parts of the world due to work or to settle down. In order to get placed abroad, people usually have to clear TOEFL and/or GRE with a decent score. Hence, it becomes crucial to learn English for social mobility.

English is a Library Language- The Key to the Storehouse of Knowledge

The English language has invariably acquired the status of being the library language in the world, as much of the literature in various disciplines is available in the English Language. Hence, in pursuit of knowledge and excellence in any discipline, lack of English Language skills are a major hindrance.

English is a Window to Understand the Rapid Progress of Technology and Scientific Knowledge Constantly taking Place in the World

Latest advancements in science and technology (Information Technology) are available in English language, thus, it becomes necessary for the IT savvy generation to be well versed in the use of English language.

English is the Lingua Franca of India

English has become the binding language in India.

English is seen as a Language of Change - 'Modernity'

The English language is seen as the language of advancement and social change. Hence, it becomes imperative for all those looking forward to social change, to acquire the English language. Reading English Literature and using English language becomes instrumental in changing one's mind-set.

English is linked with 'Quality'

The English medium schools in India are proliferating as they are associated with 'high' quality of teaching. It is assumed by many that these schools maintain high standards of quality. Commenting on the perception of Indian parents on ELT it was reported in a study:

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'English is seen not just as a useful skill, but as a symbol of a better life, a pathway out of poverty and oppression' (David Graddol, 2010)

This quote in itself truly reflects the role of English language among people in India.

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1.3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The Government of India appointed several commissions from time to time to study the entire structure of education and to suggest measures for its improvement. The issue of the place of English language in Indian schools was of central concern in the reports of these commissions.

The first important commission, after the attainment of freedom was appointed by the Government of India in 1948 under the chairmanship of Dr S Radhakrishnan. It was also popularly known as the University Education Commission. The commission was not in favour of abolishing English altogether from the curriculum, citing it as providing a window to the world of literature, culture, knowledge, and wisdom:

'English, however, must be continued to be studied. It is a language which is rich in literature—humanistic and technical. If under sentimental urges, we should give up English, we would cut ourselves off from the living stream of ever growing knowledge.'—(The University Education Commission, 1948-49).

The report further said that

'Our students who are undergoing training at schools which will admit them either to university or to a vocation must acquire sufficient mastery of English to give them access to the treasures of knowledge.'

In 1952, the Government of India appointed another commission with special focus on Secondary School Education in the country, particularly to make recommendations on the re-organization of the structure of Secondary Education.

This report also advocated for the study of English:

'It should be recognized that even in regard to many of the diversified courses in instruction as matters stand at present, a knowledge of English will be extremely useful for understanding the subject matter and for further study of the subject.'
-(Mudaliar Commission 1952-53)

This commission also recommended that study of English should be given an important position in secondary schools and facilities should be made available at the middle school for its study on optional basis. It recommended the following languages to be studied at the middle school stage:

- Mother-tongue or regional language
- Hindi for non-Hindi regions and a modern Indian language for Hindi regions
- English (optional)

At the secondary stage, the commission recommended the study of two languages to equalize the language load on pupils of both Hindi and Non-Hindi areas.

1. Mother-tongue or Regional language/or a composite course of mother tongue and classical language.
2. The second language to be chosen from among the following:
 - Hindi (for those whose mother-tongue is not Hindi)
 - Elementary English (for those who have not studied it in the middle stage)
 - Advanced English (who have studied it in middle stage)
 - A modern Indian language (other than Hindi).
 - A modern foreign language (other than English)
 - A classical language

In this formula, the English language was placed after the mother-tongue or the regional language. To put it simply, pupils from both Hindi and Non-Hindi regions of the country were free to study English as a second language as per their choice. This formula was the only possible solution that would result in not imposing Hindi as a compulsory language in Non-Hindi regions, this recommendation catapulted both Hindi and English as permanent official languages of the country.

In 1956, the Central Advisory Board of Education recommended a three language formula to resolve the complex status of Language Teaching in the country.

Two optional formulas were prepared in which English was proposed to be studied either as a second or a third language. While in formula No.1, English was to be studied in second or third place; in formula No.2, English was recommended to be studied as a second language. Upholding the need for uniformity in standards across the country, in both Hindi and Non-Hindi areas, pupils were expected to study English as a second language instead of a third language at the regional level. Hence, English language was not rejected out rightly, it was recognized that it should be 'one' of the languages studied by the students in schools.

In 1964, Dr D S Kothari was appointed as the Chairman of another education commission, popularly known as the Kothari Commission or National Education Commission. This commission also emphasized on the need for continuing the study of English as a foreign language:

'As English will, for a long time to come, continue to be needed as a library language in the field of higher education, a strong foundation in the language will have to be laid at the school stage.' (Kothari Commission, 1964-66)

The commission proposed a modified three language formula. One of the criteria it laid down for preparing its language formula is stated below:

'English continues and will continue to enjoy a high status so long as it occupies

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the principal place as the medium of instruction in the universities. Even after the regional language replaces English as the media of higher education in universities, a working knowledge of English will be valuable asset for all students and a reasonable proficiency in the language will be necessary for those who proceed to the university.'

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The curriculum prescribed by the commission was:

Lower Primary Level (1 to 4)

- One language (regional)
- Mathematical studies
- Environmental studies
- Creative studies
- Health studies
- Work experience

Higher Primary Level (5 to 8)

- Two languages (one regional and one national) and preferably a third language
- Mathematical studies
- Science studies
- Social studies
- Art
- Physical education
- Work experience
- Moral studies

Lower Secondary Level (IX and X)

- Three languages
- Mathematical studies
- Science studies
- Social studies
- Art
- Physical education
- Work experience
- Moral studies

Higher Secondary Level (XI and XII)

- Two languages (one modern Indian language and one classical or foreign language)

- Any three subjects from (a) one additional language, (b) History, (c) Economics, (d) Logic, (e) Geography, (f) Psychology, (g) Sociology, (h) Art, (i) Physics, (j) Chemistry, (k) Mathematics, (l) Biology, (m) Geology, (n) Home science.
- Art
- Physical education
- Work experience
- Moral studies

For the first time, English was recommended to be studied as a foreign language in schools. The National Policy on Education (1968, 1986) and the Programme of Action (1992) reinforced the commitment to the Three Language Formula as the best means to resolve the concerns related to language education in our country. It implied that all efforts should be made by the state government to implement the formula in letter and spirit. This further indicates that the medium of instruction in at least the primary classes, must be the mother tongue of the child. Unfortunately, it seldom happens due to the multilingual nature of our society. Each Indian state is rich with multi-cultural strands, besides displaying a great degree of multilingualism.

Language policy planning in India presents both collaborative/additive and competitive bi/multilingualism. While the policy statements and implementation strategies inform us that the collaborative bilingualism or multilingualism is advocated, the choice of people and demands indicate there is competitive bilingualism or multilingualism, i.e., individuals using the language of their choice. The All India Council for Secondary Education (AICSE) recommended the adoption of the Three Language Formula in Sept. 1956. According to this formula, every child has to learn the following:

- The mother tongue or the regional language
- The official language of the union or the associate official language of the Union so long as it exists (official language of the union is Hindi and its associate official language is English)
- Modern Indian language or a foreign language, not covered under (1) & (2) above and other than that used as the medium of instruction.

The First Language (L1)

The language that is spoken by the parents, in the neighbourhood, and which is generally the first one to be introduced to us in our childhood is known as our first language or L1. As we feel more at ease in using our first language in our day to day conversation, it was recommended by the government that the medium of instruction in primary school must be the first language of the child/ mother tongue. You might recollect your experiences at the primary stage, where most of the instruction takes place only through the regional language or through the learner's

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mother tongue. The learner in primary school gets exposed to ‘acquisition rich environment’ as most of the time it is the mother tongue, which is used for communication and for other purposes as well. The first language is often acquired naturally, through interaction with family members, community and peers without much formal instruction. However, despite this general competence in L1 – it has been observed that effective communication in the first language, is missing amongst most of the learners, they do not have complete knowledge of all the sounds and letters of the language or its grammar. Hence, formal instruction in the first language is important in the School.

The Second Language (L2)

One of the aims of education is to broaden the horizons of knowledge by multiple exposure. Language is a wonderful means for showing different ways of looking at things, perceptions, notions’ and values to the learner. Thus, in the interest of the learner’s holistic personality development, it is crucial for them to develop such ability which enables him/her to gain knowledge from every possible source. Therefore, the learner needs to learn a second language (L2), which in our country usually is either Hindi or English. The second language is learnt consciously and deliberately for a specific purpose, i.e., to gather information, acquire new knowledge about the culture, beliefs, values of the people, and gain wider perspectives on the culture of the native users of the language. The sounds, letters, and grammar of the second language require deliberate instructions by the teachers and conscious learning by the students. Under the three language formula, second language (L2) is taught at a later stage in the primary school curriculum, after the child has already learnt one language well, i.e., his/her L1. We use first language to communicate and to express our feelings and thoughts in our day-to-day life situations. On the other hand, second language is often used in situation other than personal.

The Third Language (L3)

The spirit of the three-language formula, thus provides Hindi, English, and Indian languages, preferably a south Indian language for the Hindi-speaking States, and a regional language, Hindi, and English for the non-Hindi-speaking States. The underlying merit of this formula in the promotion of multilingualism succinctly represents the multilingual character of the nation. (Kachru 1997; Krshnamurti 1998; Schiffman 1999; Sridhar 1996). However, many are of the opinion that ‘this formula has been observed more in the breach than in the observance’. The Hindi-speaking states function largely with Hindi, English, and Sanskrit, whereas the non-Hindi speaking states, such as Tamil Nadu, function through a two-language formula, that is, Tamil and English. However many states such as Orissa, West Bengal, and Maharashtra among others implemented the formula in true spirit. In north Indian states, except a few states like Gujarat, most of the other states have opted for English as a second language. The objective of learning English as a second language in school was more to develop comprehension skills rather than

literary language. However, it has its inherent challenges as there are states where English is taught as any other school subject, it is not the medium of instruction, hence, students get limited exposure to the language. The result is that the students lack proficiency in both receptive and productive skills of language. Regarding the position of language teaching in a multilingual and multicultural country like ours, the National Curriculum Framework–2005 has worked out some suggestions based on the findings of linguists and psychologists and associated discipline: English does not stand alone. It needs to find its place:

• **Along with other Indian languages**

- (i) In regional-medium schools: how can children's other languages strengthen English teaching/learning?
- (ii) In English-medium schools: how can other languages affect English.
- (iii) Can Indian languages be valorised, reducing the perceived hegemony of English?

- **In relation to other subjects:** A language across the curriculum perspective is perhaps of particular relevance to primary education. Language is best acquired through different meaning making contexts, and hence all teaching is in a sense language teaching. This perspective also captures the centrality of language in abstract thought in secondary education; whereas in the initial stages contextual meaning supports language use, at later stages meaning may be arrived at solely through language. The aim of English teaching is the creation of multilinguals who can enrich all our languages; this has been an abiding national vision. The multilingual perspective also addresses concerns of language and culture, and the pedagogical principle of moving from the known to the unknown.

(NCF-2005. *Position Paper on Teaching of English* pp 3-4)

This, clearly marks the significance of English Language in the school curriculum.

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

The significance attached to acquisition of English language in India lends itself to twin fold objectives in school education, which include development of:

- Literary appreciation (Different types of texts and genres) and
- Language proficiency (Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills)

The aspects of language to be focused on include:

- Semantics related to meaning making (Listening Skills)

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- Phonemic deals with sounds, spellings and pronunciation (Speaking Skills)
- Phonetics cum Graphic (Reading Skills)
- Graphic (Writing Skills)

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The National Curriculum Framework (NCF, 2005), Position paper on Teaching of English mentions the following on aims of teaching of English in schools:

A national curriculum can aim for:

- A cohesive curricular policy based on guiding principles for language teaching and acquisition, which allows for a variety of implementations suitable to local needs and resources, and which provides illustrative models for use.
- The aim of English teaching is the creation of multilinguals who can enrich all our languages; this has been an abiding national vision. The multilingual perspective also addresses concerns of language and culture, and the pedagogical principle of moving from the known to the unknown.

Amongst the objectives of teaching English as a Second Language in India, the NCF 2005 states-

- Second-language pedagogy, more than the teaching of any other curricular subject, must meet the most stringent criterion of universal success: the spontaneous and appropriate use of language for at least everyday purposes. (BICS – Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills)
- Language in education would ideally and ordinarily build on such naturally acquired language ability, enriching it through the development of literacy into an instrument for abstract thought and the acquisition of academic knowledge. We can then speak of a “cognitive academic linguistic proficiency” (cf. Cummins 1979) as language and thinking skills that build on the basis of a child’s spontaneous knowledge of language. This is a goal of language education, and education through language. (This discussion has most often been in the context of language education in the mother tongue.)
- Such cognitive and academic skills, moreover, are arguably transferable across languages, to a second language. (CALPS-Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency Skills)
- It is also reiterated in the position paper that ‘intelligibility’ should be the criteria for language learning.

Source: NCF-2005 (Position paper on Teaching of English, page 3-5)

Objectives of Teaching English at Secondary Level

In this section, we describe some of the objectives of teaching English at secondary level. This list is for reference only and it is not exhaustive, as a teacher you should study the content available to you and its scope for framing objectives of your

lesson plans. There are multiple aims and objectives of teaching English at the Secondary level, some of them are given below for your reference. While engaging in designing your lesson plan you must keep the following in your mind:

- Expand the vocabulary and lexical knowledge
- Demonstrate skilful use of grammar in writing texts of different types and genres
- Deliberate on various aspects of a text and critically appreciate it
- Deliberate upon the literary aspects of given texts
- Engage in active application of reference skills in the reading and writing
- Think imaginatively while composing a written piece of work as per the demands of the genre
- Develop study skills
- Appreciate the importance of acquiring proficiency in the use of various language skills for effective communication
- Reflect insightful learning in their performance on diverse language tasks
- Comprehend the texts (expository, informative, transformational)
- Create poems
- Listen to various discourses, comprehend them and adequately participate in them
- Engage in free compositions
- Adequately express their opinions, views in oral as well as written forms
- Express their arguments logically and coherently to others in oral as well as written form
- Develop their perspectives on various themes of contemporary relevance
- Shape their attitude positively and nurture appropriate values among them

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Characteristics of well framed objectives

While stating objectives keep the following points in perspective:

- Objectives must be stated in behavioural terms
- They must be specific
- They must be measurable
- They must be achievable
- They must be teachable

1.4.1 History of English Language Teaching in India and the World

In order to get a fair perspective on the teaching of English, this section is subdivided into two parts:

Historical Perspective on Teaching of English in India

The history of English language teaching in India is shown in Table 1.1

Table 1.1 *History of English Language Teaching in India*

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S. No.	Method of Teaching	Salient Features
1.	Michael West's Reading Method (1926)	West believed that the position of English language in India is basically that of Library Language hence the natives need to improve their skill of reading. Language learning is based around practical use. He suggested graded reading texts with strict vocabulary control.
2.	The MELT campaign (1952)	The MELT was planned by the state education departments jointly with the British Council, Madras.
3.	The Bridge Intensive Course (1960s)	This was initiated by the British Council, Madras. Brendan J. Carroll, then English Studies officer at the British Council, designed an intensive course to bridge the gap between what the college entrants knew and what they were expected to know. It was designed to enable learners to cope with undergraduate studies through the medium of English.
4.	The Bombay Project (1977)	First experiment at the undergraduate level; a skills based approach for Teaching English was adopted. No textbooks were prescribed and this prevented students from memorizing answers
5.	The Communicational Teaching Project or the Bangalore Project (1979-1984)	In reaction to the Structural Syllabus, Dr. N. S. Prabhu, and his colleagues evolved a new task oriented Procedural Syllabus for teaching English. The basic principle was 'acquisition through deployment'. According to Prabhu's argument language is best learnt when the focus is not on form but on meaning. This has become an internationally acclaimed project in English Language Teaching.
6.	The Loyola Experience (1980s)	The Loyola College, Madras experimented with a communicative syllabus at undergraduate level. This was the first introduction of Communicative language Teaching at the tertiary level in India.
7.	The UGC Curriculum Development Cell or CDC (1987)	The CDC analyzed the current ELT scenario in various parts of the country and arrived at a blueprint for English Curricula: General English, English major as well as postgraduate courses. The goals of learning were redefined on the basis of needs; a learner centered, interactive, skill oriented methodology was recommended. Different Syllabuses were suggested to meet the needs of learners with different levels of competence.
8.	The CBSE Interact English Project (1990s)	This was the joint effort of the British Council and Marjon's College, Plymouth. The CBSE, New Delhi selected teachers of English at the higher secondary level; they were trained in the UK and helped in the complete overhaul of the syllabuses for English in Classes 9 and 10. An interactive methodology was adopted for teaching of English.
9.	EFLU Innovative Practices	The English Language Teaching Institutes Support Scheme (ELTISS), a Government of India sponsored project, was launched in 1985 at the beginning of the seventh Five-Year Plan and has continued since. EFLU monitors the academic programmes of the 17 ELTIs, and provides academic support to them in the form of syllabus design, materials development and train-the-trainer courses
10.	CBSE - Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) in 2009	It has been mandatory for English teachers to attend capacity building and CCE workshops every year, having evaluation as their primary objective, focusing on merging teaching with testing

Historical Perspective on Teaching of English in the World

You must be aware that Latin was being studied as a foreign language all over Europe in the past, primarily because it was the only language of education, trade, commerce, religion and government function in the European world. However, in the 16th century, other foreign languages such as French, Italian, and English steadily gained importance because of the political changes in Europe, thereby gradually displacing Latin as a language of spoken and written communication.

For teaching the classical language Latin, grammar schools initiated the curious language learner into peculiar practices such as rote memorization of word list, verses and other such monotonous drills of the language structure.

The students were initially rigorously introduced to Latin grammar, which was taught through rote learning of grammar rules and structural pattern, study of conjugation and translation of written sentences and dialogues from one language to another. The fact that these activities are too challenging for the learner was brushed aside with the belief that being a divine language, Latin is not easy to master. It is challenging and the cumbersome exercises of the language learning process were helpful in taxing the mind and development of intellectual abilities.

The language textbooks in those times consisted of statements of abstract grammar rules, long lists of vocabulary, and all forms of complex sentences for translation. This was because, speaking a foreign language was never the goal of teaching, this was also the precise reason that the texts and dialogues picked up for translation were from some classical text with words, phrases no longer having contemporary value and usage.

By the beginning of the 19th century, this approach based on the study of classical languages such as Latin had become the standard way of studying foreign languages in most of the Grammar/Language schools. A typical textbook in those times consisted of texts which were organized around select grammar points. Each grammar point was listed explicitly, rules on its use were explained in detail, and it was illustrated by sample sentences. This was followed by tedious practice exercises of the application of the rule in context which had no real life connection.

Due to its strict adherence to grammatical structures, language forms, rules of conversion and exact translation, this approach to foreign language teaching was referred to as the Grammar-translation method.

In the mid and late 19th century, this method soon became unpopular as being impractical, in several European countries. The emerging demand for communication skills in the target language among the Europeans, demanded for oral proficiency in foreign languages. This shift resulted in an upsurge in deliberations on what is the best way to teach foreign languages and ideas were presented and discussed by different linguists having different perspectives on the issue.

The linguists shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign languages should be based. The principles based on

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natural language learning brought about the 'Direct Method'. This method was initially received whole heartedly but gradually lost its sheen as it focused more on teaching procedures rather than the complete methodological basis.

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Given below in the table (Table 1.2) is a brief description of the advent of fresh method/ approach to Language Teaching with their main features over the years to give you an overview of the history of development taking place in the world relating to the teaching of English Language.

Table 1.2 New Approaches to ELT

Approaches and methods	Brief description	Salient Features:
Grammar translation	Translation of grammar rules from the language familiar to the learners to the target language or vice versa.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning language through detailed analysis of grammar rules • Reading and writing are the major focus • Vocabulary selection is based on reading texts • Words are taught through dictionary study, memorisation and bilingual word lists • Translation is a central technique.
Direct Method	Teaching directly in the target language through the use of demonstrations and visual aids.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lessons begin with a brief dialogue • No translation is used. • Exercises are given in a target language • Grammar is taught inductively with rule explanation at the end. <p>It stems from the fact that language learning is like any other learning. It emphasizes vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations.</p>
Audio-lingual		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It involves habit formulation through repetition and memorization in order to avoid errors at all costs • It gives learners numerous opportunities to speak • Provides opportunity for quick reinforcement • Attends to structure and form more than meaning • Native-speaker-like pronunciation is sought • Linguistic competence is the desired goal • The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.
Cognitive Code	An approach to language teaching which stresses the learners' mastery of the rules of the target language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It refers to mental processes • It emphasizes linguistic competence and performance • Speaker learns language through mastery of its rules.
Situational Method	It is a method based on structural syllabus in which language is taught by association with characteristics of surrounding pictures, gestures, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It uses real life situations to provide meaning • Rule explanation is often given either at the beginning or end • It involves visual and linguistic situation.

Cognitive Code	An approach to language teaching which stresses the learners' mastery of the rules of the target language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It refers to mental processes • It emphasizes linguistic competence and performance • Speaker learns language through mastery of its rules.
Situational Method	It is a method based on structural syllabus in which language is taught by association with characteristics of surrounding pictures, gestures, etc.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • It uses real life situations to provide meaning • Rule explanation is often given either at the beginning or end • It involves visual and linguistic situation.
Communicative Language teaching	It means using procedures where learners work in pairs or groups employing language resources in problem solving tasks, Richards and Rodgers (1995:66).	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Meaning is paramount. • Contextualization is a basic premise • Comprehensive pronunciation is sought • Effective communication is sought • Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language • Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.
Humanistic Approach	Marks a shift from Behaviorist and Cognitivist approach to a more humanistic approach to language learning. Methods such as Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, Suggestopaedia	<p>Stevick identifies three dimensions of such an approach</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasize centrality of the learner - learner is more important than the content and teacher, one needs to be very clear of the purpose for which the learner is learning any particular language • Learner autonomy – the learner is an independent, autonomous being and cannot be subjected just any thing • Focus should be on the process of learning: 'learning to learn'

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1.4.2 Future Objectives of Teaching English with Futuristic Vision

With the advent of liberalization and globalization of the Indian economy, the demand in human resources with good command over language skills has increased tremendously. A report by British Council in 2012 noted that although English is widely perceived as a valuable life and employability skill among Indians, however, in the latest Education First survey, India ranked on the 25th position out of 63 nations. There are research surveys which have revealed that students who are fluent in English language earn 34 per cent more than those who speak other languages. Hence, there is a keen desire among students and parents to focus on proficiency in the English language.

English in India has acquired a coveted position, its role in India may be visualized in the following six ways:

- As a means of communication
- As a library language
- As an international language
- As a medium of instruction at higher level
- As a cultural language
- As a link language 'lingua franca'

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The objective of Teaching of English with a futuristic vision is to develop BICS and CALPS in the language learner, which has to be achieved by making them efficient bilinguals at the same time the focus is on 'communicative competence' (Hymes) and learner 'intelligibility' while using English language to communicate in real life contexts.

Check Your Progress

1. State the purpose of British for introducing English in India.
2. What has been the aim of introducing English language in the curriculum?
3. Under whose chairmanship was the first Commission on education appointed?
4. How is the first language acquired?
5. List the ways in which the role of English may be visualized.

1.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. English Language was first introduced by the British in India with the sole purpose of making their administration of this country easier and efficient by harnessing the human resource available.
2. The idea of introducing English Language in the curriculum has been to promote 'additive bilingualism' rather than 'subtractive bilingualism'.
3. The first important commission, after the attainment of freedom was appointed by the Government of India in 1948 under the chairmanship of Dr S Radhakrishnan.
4. The first language is often acquired naturally, through interaction with family members, community and peers without much formal instruction.
5. English in India has acquired a coveted position, its role in India may be visualized in the following six ways:
 - As a means of communication
 - As a library language
 - As an international language
 - As a medium of instruction at higher level
 - As a cultural language
 - As a link language 'lingua franca'

1.6 SUMMARY

- English Language was first introduced by the British in India with the sole purpose of making their administration of this country easier and efficient by harnessing the human resource available. The intentions as expressed by Macaulay were ‘to prepare a class of people who will be Indian in their origin but English in their thought, belief and behaviour’.
- The idea of introducing English Language in the curriculum has been to promote ‘additive bilingualism’ rather than ‘subtractive bilingualism’. Indians are able to link well with others states of the country and other countries of the world because of understanding the English Language.
- The English language has invariably acquired the status of being the library language in the world, as much of the literature in various disciplines is available in the English Language.
- The English language is seen as the language of advancement and social change. Hence, it becomes imperative for all those looking forward to social change, to acquire the English language.
- The first important commission, after the attainment of freedom was appointed by the Government of India in 1948 under the chairmanship of Dr S Radhakrishnan. It was also popularly known as the University Education Commission.
- In 1952, the Government of India appointed another commission with special focus on Secondary School Education in the country, particularly to make recommendations on the re-organization of the structure of Secondary Education.
- In 1956, the Central Advisory Board of Education recommended a three language formula to resolve the complex status of Language Teaching in the country.
- In 1964, Dr D S Kothari was appointed as the Chairman of another education commission, popularly known as the Kothari Commission or National Education Commission. This commission also emphasized on the need for continuing the study of English as a foreign language.
- The National Policy on Education (1968, 1986) and the Programme of Action (1992) reinforced the commitment to the Three Language Formula as the best means to resolve the concerns related to language education in our country. It implied that all efforts should be made by the state government to implement the formula in letter and spirit.
- The second language is learnt consciously and deliberately for a specific purpose, i.e., to gather information, acquire new knowledge about the culture,

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beliefs, values of the people, and gain wider perspectives on the culture of the native users of the language.

- The spirit of the three-language formula, thus provides Hindi, English, and Indian languages, preferably a south Indian language for the Hindi-speaking States, and a regional language, Hindi, and English for the non-Hindi-speaking States.
- The objective of learning English as a second language in school was more to develop comprehension skills rather than literary language.
- The significance attached to acquisition of English language in India lends itself to twin fold objectives in school education, which include development of:
 - o Literary appreciation (Different types of texts and genres) and
 - o Language proficiency (Listening, speaking, reading and writing skills)
- Second-language pedagogy, more than the teaching of any other curricular subject, must meet the most stringent criterion of universal success: the spontaneous and appropriate use of language for at least everyday purposes.
- For teaching the classical language Latin, grammar schools initiated the curious language learner into peculiar practices such as rote memorization of word list, verses and other such monotonous drills of the language structure.
- The linguists shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign languages should be based. The principles based on natural language learning brought about the 'Direct Method'.
- A report by British Council in 2012 noted that although English is widely perceived as a valuable life and employability skill among Indians, however, in the latest Education First survey, India ranked on the 25th position out of 63 nations.

1.7 KEY WORDS

- **First language (L1):** It is the language that is spoken by the parents, in the neighbourhood, and which is generally the first one to be introduced to us in our childhood.
- **Second Language (L2):** It is a *language* that is not the native language (first language or L1) of the speaker, but is learned later (usually as a foreign language, but it can be another language used in the speaker's home country).
- **CALPS-Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency Skills:** It refers to the student's formal academic learning. The CALP concept deals with skills essential to academics such as listening, reading, speaking, and how to write about the relevant subject matter.

1.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why are English medium schools in India proliferating?
2. Which languages did the Mudaliar Commission recommend to be studied at the middle school stage?
3. What is First Language?
4. What is the purpose of learning second language?
5. List the aspects of language that need to be focused upon.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the features of English language.
2. Analyze the curriculum prescribed by the Kothari Commission.
3. Explain the objectives of teaching English at the secondary level.

1.9 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 2 PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

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Structure

- 2.0 Introduction
- 2.1 Objectives
- 2.2 Qualities of a Good English Teacher
- 2.3 Principles of Language Teaching and Practice
 - 2.3.1 General Principles Motivation, Practice, Oral Work, Planning Etc
 - 2.3.2 Psychological Principles: Interest, Motivation, Immediate Correction, Reinforcement, Etc
 - 2.3.3 Grouping
 - 2.3.4 Grading and Testing
 - 2.3.5 Repetition
- 2.4 Using Mother Tongue
- 2.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 2.6 Summary
- 2.7 Key Words
- 2.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 2.9 Further Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

An English teacher should be in possession of certain attributes that help in making him/her a good teacher for effectively explaining the important concepts and nuances of the language to the learners. For the purpose of effective English teaching, a teacher should abide by the principles of teaching English which include the principles of motivation, principle of selection, principle of interest, principle of learning by doing among a host of several other principles. Some psychological principles that are intended to make the learning process effective are the principle of recreation, principle of remedial teaching, principle of motivation and interest, principle of sympathy and cooperation etc. By following these principles, teaching exercise becomes effective and conducive to learning as enables the creation of an environment that facilitates teaching as well as learning. This unit provides an analysis of the qualities of a good teacher, principles of language teaching and types of tests in English language teaching.

2.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyze the qualities of a good teacher
- Discuss the principles of Language Teaching
- Evaluate the types of tests in English Language Teaching
- Describe the dimensions of using the Mother Tongue

2.2 QUALITIES OF A GOOD ENGLISH TEACHER

A Good English Teacher must primarily be a ‘good teacher’, who is effective in teaching. The teacher effectiveness, thus, is directly proportionate to how ‘good’ a teacher is. Researchers have defined teacher effectiveness generally under two categories – personal and professional.

Thus, we can adjudge an English Language Teacher as ‘good’ based on the following attributes:

Personal Attributes

- (i) **Personality:** English language is seen as a language of modernity, new opportunities and freedom from conservative mind-sets. English language Teachers are expected to exude the same through their personality. They are looked up as smart, well turned out, open minded, straightforward with pleasing personality.
- (ii) **Talk:** The English language Teacher is expected to be soft spoken, expressive with a good repertoire of language skills and well versed in literature. His/Her talk inside and outside the classroom sets an exemplar behaviour to the students, who are often seen imitating the pronunciation, articulation of words, intonation pattern, choice of vocabulary, and phrases of their language teacher.
- (iii) **Imaginative:** The English Language Teacher is expected to be imaginative. One of the crucial functions of language is its ‘imaginative’ function. Language is used to talk about imaginative things and events which have not as yet happened but are likely to happen in future. In order to give adequate exposure to the students in this function of language the English language Teacher must demonstrate this function in class. He/She should spark the imagination of students and force them to talk aloud their imagination. For instance: What would be your classroom like in the futuristic times?
- (iv) **Creative:** The English language Teacher in order to be effective has to be on toes to keep lessons interesting so that he/she is able to engage the students of diverse needs hooked on to the tasks in class. They should have the creative streak to make lesson plan interesting, use creative ideas in designing worksheets and other ESL activities for students.
- (v) **Humour:** The challenge for an English Language Teacher in the classroom is to keep the students stay focused and motivated to participate in the activities planned by the teacher. For this the ‘low affective filter’ has to be maintained. Being humorous helps in assuring this, as the students enjoy participating in the activities.

He/She can practice the language skills of listening, speaking and reading using humour. In addition, the use of humour relaxes the classroom

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environment as the students ease themselves off the pressure of performing on the tasks set for them in the class.

Harmer (1984:39) described using of jokes in the classroom as a “...balanced activities approach”.

Medgyes (2002:5) listed some of the following reasons for its use:

- Becomes a good vehicle for authentic cultural information
- Helps building bridges of trust between cultures
- Offers opportunities for practicing language items in real life contexts
- Brings student community closer together
- Releases tension in the classroom environment
- Develops creative thinking
- Provides memorable chunks of language to the students
- Reinforces previously learned items
- Generates a happy and cheerful classroom promoting joyful learning
- Enhances motivation level of students
- Enriches textbook-based courses and makes them more interesting
- Introduces a refreshing change from routine language-learning procedures

However, the teacher must exercise the use of humour with great caution.

- Use of humour in classroom must be properly planned, it should flow as naturally as possible
 - Try something which fits your personality and should not unnecessarily put you in an awkward position
 - Be cautious in the use of private humour, it should not leave anybody embarrassed in class. It should be healthy
 - Be careful in the use of humour, you should not overuse it, otherwise it will lose its value and effect
- (vi) **Tolerant:** In the process of learning a new language, the students are bound to make many mistakes and errors. The English language teacher needs to be tolerant with the student. He/She should not create unnecessary pressure for the student to perform as the rate of each student varies. The teacher should rather seek to identify what he/she can do to aid the student in their learning process.
- (vii) **Patience:** Teaching is not an easy profession, it is a very challenging and tiring one, where only a teacher who exercises patience will be able to succeed. More so, for an English language Teacher, where students and their parents are too keen to see their child gain fluency in English Language. But due to the lack of acquisition rich environment the process gets delayed and it leads to demotivation, lack of interest. The teacher has to exercise

her patience, and keep the interest of the students in the language learning process and motivate them to participate in the activity.

- (viii) **Disciplined:** Learning a language is very challenging and teaching one is even more challenging. Hence, Language teachers are expected to be disciplined in their walk and talk. Their verbal behaviour is always under observation by many who are imitating the choice of word/ phrase, its pronunciation, style and others in their attempt to gain fluency in English language. Also as a language teacher the choice of tasks, preparation for the task, its execution and feedback, everything, requires a great deal of discipline on part of the teacher so that no session is wasted and students get to learn and practice something in each of their session.
- (ix) **Integrity:** A good teacher is a person with high integrity, and an English Language Teacher needs to be very cautious of the content and material he/ she uses in the classroom. When the teacher is taking something from a particular source, it should be duly acknowledged and proper permission must be sought before its use.
- (x) **Hardworking:** The English language Teacher must be hard working, genuinely interested in the language development of students. They should be prepared to work hard to plan great tasks ahead for the students, ensure their implementation meticulously and engage in error analysis, remediation, correction, and feedback to the individual student on their progress.

Professional Attributes

- (i) **Professionally qualified:** A professionally qualified teacher (Graduation / Post- Graduation in English Language / Literature with B Ed) is a prerequisite for effective teaching.
- (ii) **Trained in ELT:** The English Language Teaching is a specialized field and additional training is essential to become effective in English language Teaching. Courses offered by IGNOU such as Certificate course in Teaching of English, or the Post graduate Certificate of Teaching English , English and Foreign Language University, Hyderabad or other similar training offered by British Council.
- (iii) **Professional teaching skills:** It is essential for an effective English language Teacher to be skilled in the teaching skills such as:
- **Skill of blackboard writing:** handwriting must be neat, legible, evenly spaced, the layout of the board work should be appropriate for all students to see, judicious use of coloured chalks and marker must be made.
 - **Skill of stimulus variation:** the teacher must be competent in the selection of stimuli from the environment and vary them as per the age, interest and need of the student. There should be frequent aural-visual

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switching. For practicing listening and speaking skills, audio video clips must be used by the teacher.

- **Skill of reinforcement:** Learners use of 'inter language' and participation in various language activities must be adequately reinforced by praises, acknowledgement, assurance, and encouragement so that the affective filter is low enough for motivating maximum participation by the students in language games and activities.
- (iv) **Professional communication skills:** Learning a new language necessitates a good role model. A good English Language Teacher must have good command over the English language. Her fluency and accuracy of expression must be flawless to set a good model before the students.
- (v) **Pronunciation and articulation:** Also, the pronunciation, articulation, intonation must be of good quality of an English language Teacher. A language teacher who is not possessing good understanding of phonetics and vocabulary, will not be able to demand desirable performance on these aspects of language behaviour.
- (vi) **Knowledge of English language and literature:** A poor workman always blames its tool, similarly, a language teacher who is herself not well versed with her subject will always find some excuse in the environment for poor performance of the students. So, a good English language Teacher will be well versed with the knowledge of English language and Literature. While preparing worksheets and handouts they will make use of this knowledge to give the right kind of input to the students.
- (vii) **Awareness of latest development in ELT:** A lot has happened in the field of English Language Teaching with the advancements in technology. A good English Language Teacher is well aware of these advancements in technology, and knows how to adapt it to their local specific needs of the students and apply it for the maximum realization of course objectives. For instance, the application of language laboratory, computer assisted language learning (CALL) and recently web 2.0 technology has provided ample new opportunities to the Language Teachers.
- (viii) **Member of professional bodies active in the teaching learning of English Language Teaching in the country:** The English Language Teacher must be active in the professional arena
- (ix) **Integrate innovative practices in ELT in classroom:** A good teacher will always be keen to find innovative methods to practice in her class for addressing the diverse needs of her learners.
- (x) **Adapt curriculum and available resources to suit the needs and requirement of the students:** The Task Based Approach to language teaching of Prabhu is a live example of how a committed teacher seeks to adapt available curriculum resources as per the needs of the learners.

(xi) **Competent in assessing language skills:** One way to motivate a learner is to keep them informed of their progress in the language learning process. One size never fits all in the evaluation domain. Hence, the English language teacher is expected to be aware of the various tools and techniques available for individual assessment of the learners keeping the theory of multiple intelligences in perspective.

(xii) Actively engages in professional development through participation in seminars / conferences and workshops in the field of ELT and other means such as maintaining teaching portfolio.

Effective teaching entails active participation in professional forums, conferences and workshops as this exposure provides the teacher with fresh ideas and perspectives to look at things.

(xiii) Engages in Reflective Practices for improvization of existing content, material, processes and products.

Nobody except the teacher knows if her teaching has been successful or not. It is the responsibility of the English Teacher to engage in reflections for improvising her teaching. She should frequently engage in action research and make efforts to solve classroom problems.

2.3 PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING AND PRACTICE

According to Hughes and Hughes, ‘It has been said that “teaching” means “causing to learn”. Nothing has been given until it has been taken, nothing has been taught until it has been learnt. Teaching is more than the efficient delivery of thoroughly prepared lectures.’

For successful teaching, it is essential to know how the pupil learns and by which method he learns. As teaching methods are based on certain principles, it is essential for a teacher to follow these general or basic principles while teaching. This is necessary to control behaviour. Some of the important principles of language teacher include principles of practice, Oral work, attitude, interest, motivation, etc. They can be grouped in many ways. The following are two types of teaching principles:

- (i) General Principles of Teaching
- (ii) Psychological Principles of Teaching

Bear in mind, some of these principles overlap across categories.

2.3.1 General Principles: Motivation, Practice, Oral Work, Planning etc.

- **Principle of motivation:** Motivation is the method that creates a pupils’ interest in the content. Principle of motivation involves creating an interest among the pupils for acquiring knowledge. When a teacher motivates pupils

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to acquire knowledge, the process of teaching and learning goes on smoothly. In the absence of proper motivation, the pupil takes no interest in the contents. Hence, every teacher should follow the principle of motivation. He or she should use the pupils' innate tendencies. For instance, young people are very curious to know about new things in the environment. Therefore, the teacher should create situations in which curiosity is aroused in the pupils regarding the acquisition of the latest knowledge concerning the things of interest and their contents. For example, while teaching history, a curiosity can be aroused in the pupils regarding the knowledge of historical events concerning Taj Mahal by showing its model or picture. By going to art galleries and factories, curiosity can be aroused for art and science. The pupils can be motivated for learning poems by heart with the technique called 'Antakshari'.

- **Principle of activity or learning by doing:** The teacher should create two types of activity in each type of lesson—physical and mental. Physical activity is meant to produce activity in the body organs of the pupils. Psychologically, each pupil is temperamentally active. Activity is in accordance with his nature. According to McDougall, every child has inborn instinct of construction. As a result of this instinct, he remains busy all the time in doing some or the other activity. The more the activity of the pupil, the more would be the teaching-learning process.

The teacher should make use of the pupil's instincts of construction and senses to the maximum. This will make teaching most effective. Both physical and mental activities are inter-connected. A pupil becomes mentally active soon after birth and the mental facilities improve with age. Thus, there is more interest in learning something new.

- **Practice:** Froebel has indoctrinated the principle of 'learning by doing' in the kindergarten system. The principle of 'learning by doing' does not involve only the pupil but also the teacher in order to learn new things. For example, while learning history, pupils can learn the historical facts and incidents easily if these are shown in the form of slides and pictures by the teacher as compared to by rote learning.

Similarly, pupils can be led to study geography if it is taught by using models, charts and diagrams or by getting these prepared by the pupils themselves. The Montessori method, Kindergarten method, Heuristic method, Dalton method, Project method and Basis method use this principle.

The principle of learning by doing is very useful and should be implemented in all classes and in all school activities, including the school council, declamation contests, various societies, conferences, clubs and games. This principle helps to develop appreciable habits in pupils and they get proper and sufficient training of social service.

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- **Principle of interest:** This principle involves creating the interest of pupils in subject matter in order to make learning more useful and effective. This way the pupil acquires knowledge with ease and faces no difficulty while studying. There are various methods to initiate interest in pupils. For example, (1) Establishing curiosity by making the objective of the lesson clear; (2) Establishing relationship of contents with the pupils' activities and objectives; (3) Following the principles of learning by doing; (4) Linking teaching with day-to-day life the pupil. For example, if a pupil has no interest in learning a poem, he should be made to participate in 'Antakshari.' This way if the pupil observes his team getting defeated, he automatically develops an interest in learning poem.
- **Principle of linking with life:** All pupils have varied interests in different subjects and activities. This must be linked to their thought process and life. Only then will pupils show interest in learning. This way, they will learn rapidly and appropriately things that can be related to life.

This has been aptly described in the words of Ryburn, 'Life is a continuous experience. Everything we do is linked up with what has gone before and with what comes afterwards.' Therefore, it is necessary to relate new experiences with previous experiences. This way, all the experiences or knowledge gathered become a part of the pupil's life.
- **Principle of definite aim:** According to the principle, every lesson must have a definite aim or objective. In the absence of an objective, teaching becomes a rudderless boat that is thrown around by the wild waves in the sea. Therefore it is imperative that there must be definite, clear and completely defined objectives to make the lesson interesting and impressive. Objectives and the teaching methods are closely related. Every teaching method is based on some objective and implemented according to it. Hence, each method must have some objective and the pupils and the teachers must have full knowledge of it. This assists in teaching and sustaining the interest of pupils.
- **Principle of recognizing individual differences:** According to this principle, individual differences of pupils must be taken into consideration. Psychological researches have proved that pupils are not alike in intelligence, nature, ability, interest, potentialities and needs. A teacher should be considerate towards pupils with special needs and to those who belong to a different socio-economic background. Therefore, teachers should maximize the development of all pupils irrespective of individual differences.
- **Principle of selection:** There is a close relationship between the contents and objectives of education. Contents are selected based on objectives. Despite the vast body of knowledge that making processes the teacher must select only those facts which the pupils can understand in order to achieve some objectives. What to teach and how much to teach must also

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be determined. This benefits both the teacher and the pupils. The teacher develops the lesson successfully and the pupils acquire knowledge conveniently.

- **Principle of planning:** According to this principle, the teacher should ascertain the teaching sequence and the lesson plan should be prepared after proper planning. This solves all problems related to teaching easily. A teacher should decide how much cooperation can be sought from the pupils in order to solve problems prepare a lesson plans. In case of unforeseen problem, such a situation, a teacher should solve immediately it according to his ability. The lesson plan must be used as a guide only.
- **Principle of division:** It broadly states that the subject-matter should be divided into some units for presenting it in certain way. The division of the content should be followed by the presentation in such a way that each unit should seem to be complete in itself. One unit should create curiosity for other unit. By presenting the contents after dividing it into units, the lesson becomes easy for the pupils. They acquire knowledge easily without any difficulty. By not doing so, the lesson becomes complicated and the pupils fail to understand anything. Hence, the division of the lesson into an order of units or steps is necessary for a successful teaching.
- **Principle of revision:** As per this principle, the subject matter taught to the pupils should be revised by the pupils. Revision is an integral part of learning. Without experiments and revision, everything is forgotten. So therefore, the acquired knowledge should be revised by the pupils not only immediately, but also repeatedly. The frequency of the revisions depends upon the nature of the lesson. Hence, more the lesson is difficult, the more the number of revisions.
- **Principle of creation and recreation:** It means those activities carried over by the pupils which are recreational and which can develop the creative power of the pupils. This will create interest in the pupils regarding the teaching activity without any fear of the teacher and the school. They will try for new innovations and they will have numerous opportunities of expressing creative activities. Hence, the principle of recreation is very essential for successful teaching. Today so many teaching methods have been developed which are based on the principle of creation and recreation of learning by play way.
- **Principle of democratic dealing:** It means that the teacher should adopt a democratic attitude with the pupils. He should not have a dictatorial approach while imparting knowledge. In a democratic set-up, every pupil is considered valuable. Hence, he gets maximum opportunities for developing his self-thinking and independent expression which enables them to develop his or her personality. The teacher should adopt a democratic attitude towards the pupils. The democratic attitude means the development of the lesson

with the help and the cooperation of the pupils. This creates the habit of independent thinking in the pupils. By developing certain trends like self-confidence, self-esteem and self-respect, a pupil's personality can rise to the height.

2.3.2 Psychological Principles: Interest, Motivation, Immediate Correction, Reinforcement, etc.

The **psychological principles of teaching** are used for making the learning-process effective. These psychological principles can be broadly defined as the following:

- **Principle of motivation and interest.** It has been considered the most important aspect in teaching-learning. According to this principle, both the teacher and the learner are to work with interest and motivation.
- **Principle of recreation.** Sometimes, the pupil feels fatigued in the class due to a lengthy teaching task. It creates boredom in the pupil and he shows lack of interest. Hence, the principle of recreation should be followed in the lower classes.
- **Principle of repetition and exercise.** Everybody has come to know that the process of forgetting starts in the pupils due to the disuse of the acquired knowledge. Hence, repetition and exercise should be done in the class daily. The utility of this principle proves fruitful for smaller children.
- **Principle of encouraging creativity and self-expression.** It is the duty of the teacher to encourage creativity and self-expression. He should develop the habit of innovations in the pupils so that they may present their views and attitudes without being conscious of their surroundings and others.
- **Principle of remedial teaching or Immediate Correction.** Sometimes there are errors or a miscommunication in the pupils' understanding and the teaching activities. Hence, it is imperative for the teacher to identify these errors and provide remedy. This is known as remedial teaching. In this the teacher has to overcome many obstructions in order to fulfill their goal of effective learning among pupils.
- **Principle of sympathy and cooperation.** If a teacher exhibits sufficient consideration for pupils and contributes in overcoming their difficulties, he or she can be a good mentor to the pupils. Such teachers act as motivators for their pupils.
- **Principle of reinforcement:** The term '**reinforcement**' used in teaching-learning process is concerned with making the learning process effective. Reinforcement means the utilization of presentation or removal of such stimuli so that the possibilities of recurrence of some response increases. For example, if a teacher gives some reward to the pupils for correct answers, the possibilities of the similar behaviour for the pupils increases.

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•**Principle of imparting training to senses:** Proper development of the senses is very essential to encourage effective learning. All types of potentialities or capacities such as observation, identification, generalization and experiments are required for all the aspects of learning. These capacities or potentialities can be attained only through the sense organs.

2.3.3 Grouping

Group learning is where individual learners in a group work together to maximize not only their own but each other's learning. Through group learning, individual learners may seek outcomes that are beneficial to not only themselves but to all members of the learning group.

Group learning and its advantages

The advantages of group learning involve mostly the development of social skills. In group settings, the learners learn to follow rules, share things with each other including, follow schedules; and basically learn to get along with others. Another advantage from group learning is that the learners can learn by watching and observing one another. This is especially true in case of young children (preschool) who learn mostly by observation. Each child is good at something and not good at something else. The skill sets vary. A child who may be able to recognize colours may not be able to write his alphabets properly. But another child may be very good at writing his alphabets but be unable to recognize colours. These two children during their interaction as part of the group in the class may be able to teach each other.

However, a group setting for group learning may not always work. For very shy learners, the size of the group may be more intimidating. They will not be able to socialize like other extrovert learners in the class despite being part of a group. Again, group learning may not be the right approach for a child who is very aggressive or overstimulated. These children can only benefit from individual learning or an individual learning environment where the introduction to a group setting is slower.

2.3.4 Grading and Testing

Merriam webster dictionary defines 'examination' as an exercise designed to examine progress or test qualification or knowledge.

Measurement refers to the process by which the attributes or dimensions of some physical object are determined. It is quantitative in nature.

Evaluation, in literal terms means assigning "value" to something, so that we may make a judgement about a given situation as how good or how bad it is in a given context.

Assessment is a process by which information is obtained relative to some known objective or goal. It is a broad term that includes testing but the key difference

while testing we evaluate our performance, in assessment a third party comments on our performance.

‘Testing’ refers to ‘a formal test of a person’s knowledge or proficiency in a subject or skill’. It is usually said to be classroom bound, administered by a teacher / student, it may be formal as well as informal, it plays a pedagogic role as the teacher gets immediate feedback on the methods, materials, and other aspects of lesson planning.

Examination refers to an external party led assessment, conducted in a formal setting, under standardized conditions

Purpose of Testing

Testing serves several useful purposes in the process of teaching–learning in the classroom. Some of the purposes are listed below. Tests:

- Provide feedback on the effectiveness of different aspects of teaching: objectives, methods, materials, tasks
- Provide students a measure of the progress they are making in learning
- Informs students about their relative success in acquiring different concepts/ skills
- Clarify the expectations of the teachers from her students in a given area
- Help teachers in examining the appropriateness of general instructional goals and objectives associated with an individual lesson or unit plans;
- Help teachers to ascertain the gaps in learning and give them directions for planning remedial instruction
- Provide teacher data to engage in an action research for solving problems faced by her in the successful implementation of the plan.

Types of Tests in English Language Teaching

Now that you know the purpose of a test can you think of the different types of test used by the teacher of English Language in her classroom? Let us read further to know more about the different types of tests available to an English Language teacher.

(i) Objective Tests

These type of tests are set up in order to eliminate any differences in results due to variations in the judgment of one marker at different times and places.

- It derives its name from the objective nature of its scoring
- There is only one correct answer to such a test
- The possible answer is given along with the test in form of options
- The learner is simply required to indicate the correct answer with a tick

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- The scoring is in no way influenced by the subjective judgement of the evaluator
- These tests are highly reliable

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Some of the popular types of objective type tests are:

- Rearrangement type
- Multiple-choice type
- Matching type
- True-False type
- Yes/No answer type
- Completion type (Fill-in the blank type) and many more

(ii) Subjective Tests

A subjective test is open ended. It invites the evaluator to rate the examinee on the basis of her impressions of the test item and the response given by the examinee. The expectations of two examiners from a single test will vary considerably owing to their perception and understanding. This variance is 'subjectivity'. For instance when the examinee is asked to write an article on an issue, different examinee will visualize it differently. Similarly, different examiners will score it differently based on their expectations from the learners on such a question: content, style, choice of vocabulary, etc.

Some common types of subjective type tests are:

- Simple question type
- Short answer type
- Long answer type
- Problem solving
- Completion and others

(iii) Direct Tests

A test item is direct when the learner's response involves actually performing the communicative task using the desired language skill. It is commonly associated with the productive skill as in assessing the productive skills there's an observable output (speech/writing by the student) that can be heard/seen. Hence, in a direct test of writing, the learner would actually write (letter to editor) in the L2 with a communicative purpose.

(a) Objectivity in direct testing

- Create level playing field – do not presuppose background knowledge of the learners
- Avoid excessive demands on student general or specialist knowledge

- Replicate real-life interaction - More modern test writers now include tasks which attempt to replicate features of real life (discussions, simulations, role-plays, etc.). Reading & listening tests should also reflect real life, as much as possible (texts should be authentic or realistic, and so should be reading / listening tasks).

(b) Test items for direct testing

There are several types of items which can be used for direct testing, some of them are listed below:

- ‘Information - gap activities where one has to seek information either from an interlocutor or from another learners
- Comparison of pictures, learners given two sets of pictures, they have to find out the similarities and differences without looking at each other’s material
- Role-plays where learners perform tasks such as introducing self / partner, booking movie ticket, shopping, and so on
- MCQs to test comprehension of a text.
- An interview questioning candidates for a specified job
- Matching written descriptions with pictures
- Transferring written info to charts, graphs, maps, and other figures
- Decision-making’ activities, such as showing paired candidates photos of people and asking them to order them from best to worst dressed.
- Choosing the best summary / paraphrase of a paragraph
- Matching jumbled headings with paragraphs.
- Inserting sentences provided by the examiner in the correct place in the text.
- Writing compositions and stories based on guidelines provided
- ‘Transactional letters’ where candidates reply to a job ad, or write a complaint to a hotel based on information given in the test
- Reading information given in a brochure / leaflets about a place or educational institution in their own words
- Giving directions for reaching a particular destination / preparing a recipe
- Completing charts with facts & figures from a text.
- Writing an article in response to newspaper item
- Identifying which (out of 2 or 3 speakers) says what in a conversation
- Identifying whether speakers are enthusiastic, encouraging, in disagreement, or amused
- Following directions on a map & identifying the correct house, place, etc.
- Performing role play based on the cue sheet provided in the test
- Marking stress on words in accordance to the examiners accent in a speaking skill based test

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(iv) Indirect Tests

Indirect test items try to measure student's knowledge & ability by getting at what lies beneath their receptive & productive skills. For instance, grammatical knowledge contributes to writing ability, hence a grammar test may be used as an indirect test of writing.

Likewise, pronunciation is thought to be a component of speaking, so phonemic distinction tasks can be interpreted as indirect tests of speaking.

Problems with indirect testing

- How valid is indirect testing for assessing language skills?
- Can we say that good performance on indirect tests assure good writing skills as well?
- Is it possible to assess all skills and subskills through indirect testing?
- Negative washback. E.g.: if learners spend time studying bits of decontextualized grammar in preparation for an indirect test of writing, they may spend less time actually writing in the L2.

In short, while direct test items are based on real-language use in real life contexts, indirect items try to assess student language knowledge through more knowledge controlled items, such as multiple choice questions, or Grammar transformation items. These tend to be quicker to design & easier to grade, providing greater scorer reliability, however they need to be used judiciously and cautiously.

Types of indirect tests

There are different types of items used for indirect testing, some of these are discussed below: MCQ, Cloze, C Test.

(a) Multiple choice questions (MCQs)

Example: For testing writing skills learners are asked to complete headless/ tailless sentences by selecting an option from the choices given.

Look at the features of multiple choice question given below:

Features of MCQs

1. Number of alternatives - the ideal number of alternatives is 5 but teachers also make use of 4
2. Content / Skill Areas to be measured & number of items to be included for each area - It is essential for the test developer to chalk out the areas in which testing has to be undertaken, further number of item needs to be specified as per the weightage of marks allotted to each content/ skill area in the course.

3. Length- The test must be of adequate length, neither too lengthy nor too short. It should be a tedious experience for the learner nor so short that it goes unnoticed.
4. Context - Both linguistic & situational contexts are essential in test construction.
5. Each MC item should have only 1 answer.
6. This answer must be ABSOLUTELY CORRECT unless the instruction says “choose the best option”.
7. Avoid “all of the above” or “none of the above”
8. Avoid repeating the same words in all of the options by moving the words to the stem
9. Arrange options in logical order if possible
10. Avoid using specific language like “all,” “never,” or “always”
11. Keep options plausible for students who do not know the correct option
12. Options selected by very few students should be altered if the item is reused.
13. Only 1 feature at a time should be tested, since it’s less confusing. Also, it will reinforce only one teaching point. Normally, nobody tests grammar & vocabulary at the same time, but sometimes word order and sequence of tenses are tested simultaneously in a test, which creates ambiguity and such types of tests are called impure items.
14. All items should be at a level appropriate to the appropriate learner’s proficiency level.
15. The context should be at a lower level than the actual problem which the item is testing. E.g.: A vocabulary item should not contain more difficult semantic features in the stem than the area being tested.
16. MCQ should be very brief and clear (it is advisable to provide short contexts for grammar items).
17. Put items in rough order of increasing difficulty.

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Advantages of MCQs

- High diagnostic power if distractors are constructed to address common mistakes or misconceptions
- Student responses can be scored objectively
- Scope for statistical analysis ensuring impartial, reliable and valid diagnostic information about student learning

Challenges with Multiple Choice Questions

- Difficult and time-consuming to construct
- difficult to phrase so that all learners interpret them in the same way

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- Learners they focus on recognition, not recall
- Might encourage learners to engage in guess work
- These tests don't lend themselves to the testing of language as communication, as in real life we have to respond to different stimuli rather than selecting the response from limited options available in a multiple choice question.

Steps in constructing a MCQ test

The following steps are usually followed in preparing a multiple choice question based test:

- Write the stem first, followed by the correct answer and the distractors to match the correct answer in terms of length, complexity, phrasing, and style.
- Each item should be based on a learning outcome for the course
- Involve a peer to review items if possible
- Spend suitable time for editing and revising
- Write short stems so as to minimize the amount of reading required for each item
- Be sensitive to learner differences on account of socio cultural background, language, ethnicity, religion, gender
- Language structure and vocabulary must be consistent with student level of understanding
- Avoid longwinded stems and options
- Avoid language in the options and stems that gives lead for the correct answer

Writing effective multiple choice item stems

Keep the following points in mind while writing a stem:

- Clearly worded and concisely phrased
- Include most information in the stem so that the options can be short
- While writing incomplete statement as stem, ensure the options follow the stem in a grammatically correct manner
- Avoid using negatives in stems when possible

Multiple choice questions have multiple benefits for a language teacher if used with due care in its construction, administration and evaluation.

(b) Cloze tests

In a cloze test every nth word is deleted in a text. It is a test of Grammar, sentence connection, vocabulary, reading, etc., within a context, and therefore it tests the overall proficiency level of the learner. Look at the following sample of a cloze test item taken from sample papers of CBSE.

My brother and I used to fight a great deal as children. We did _____ of things together, not always in complete _____. In fact, on one occasion, he actually _____ my arm. I suppose he really did me a _____, as I missed the school exams _____ that year.

Process of preparing a cloze test

- The text has to be chosen keeping in mind the level of learners
- The construction of the cloze is purely mechanical: - every “nth” word is deleted;
- Deletion interval: generally every 5th & every 10th word. BUT, if every 7th word has been deleted in the first few sentences that is the interval that should be used for the rest of the text. - 5th, 6th, and 7th word intervals are the preferred, mainly as a shorter interval would make it very hard for the student to just understand the text, since there would not be enough context to make sense. There are 2 ways to mutilate a text:
 - (i) Rational deletion (or selected deletion.): test developer deletes words on the basis of some rational decision. E.g.: to test students’ knowledge of verb tenses, delete only verbs. (Some writers say this is not really a cloze test, but a completion test).
 - (ii) Fixed ratio or nth word deletion: regardless of its part of speech or the semantic load it bears within the text, every nth word is omitted.
 - o For students the former is easier than the later.
 - o More difficult than the latter.
- **Text selection:** The text selection must be done keeping in mind the following parameters:
 - Text length
 - Amount of time allowed to complete the task
 - Learner familiarity with vocab and syntax of the passage
 - Length and complexity of the sentences in the passage
 - Learner familiarity with topic
 - Learner familiarity with the discourse genre of text (content and formal schemata)

Scoring in a cloze test

1. **Exact word method:** Students get credit for a correct answer if and only if the word they write in any given blank is the exact word deleted from the original text. This approach is quick and, therefore, very practical, and also highly reliable. However, the exact word scoring method may be too rigid, as it does not reward creativity on the part of the test-taker.

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2. **Acceptable word method:** Any response that:

- Is grammatically correct
- Makes good sense in the context is given full credit as an acceptable answer.

This method may promote positive washback, as it could encourage learner's creativity in using their linguistic knowledge. The main problem with it is that it slows down the scoring process, also it could affect scoring reliability if scorers don't agree about the acceptability of some of the words supplied by the students.

(c) C- Test

This is a variation on the cloze test, in which the students read a brief paragraph in the target language. The first two sentences are left intact. Thereafter, every other word is printed intact, but for each alternate word, only the first half of the word is written, and the second half is indicated by a blank space representing each letter. The students' ability to fill in the blank space is thought to be a measure of their language proficiency.

Studies have proved that C-tests can be excellent teaching devices (apart from testing techniques) as they provoke creative reasoning among the students, especially if they do it in pairs or groups: student use language and focus on the language as content while filling up the missing portion ("that's not sounding right" for example, they might say, or "we need a predicate here", etc.). Look at the example given below:

Source: Katona and Dornyei (1993)

Advantages of C Test over Cloze

Source: Katona and Dornyei (1993)

The C Test can be used for placement, achievement in language areas such as grammar, assessing specialized knowledge of ESP group of learners, for reading comprehension and many more purposes by the language teacher.

(d) Transformation items

In such types of tests the learner is supposed to read the given statement and rewrite it as per the directions given.

(e) Reordering items

Look at the words given below and put them in order to make a correct sentence

Weather/ because/ but/ could/ not / I /bad / come/ of

Asking the learners to put words in the right order to make appropriate sentences lets the teacher know about the learner's underlying knowledge of syntax and lexico-grammatical elements and mechanisms of the target language. The

challenge is to ensure that there is only one correct order for the words to make a meaningful sentence.

(f) Discrete-point tests

Such type of tests focus on one element of language at a time. For example, the following multiple choice item tests only the learner's knowledge of the correct past form of the verb *sing*:

When I was a child I _____ in a choir

- a. sing b. singed c. song d. sung e. sang

These tests are practical to administer and objective to mark. These tests are usually indirect type of tests as they focus on one element / fact rather than demonstrating how the learner would use it in real life communication.

(g) Integrative tests

These types of test may be either direct or indirect. The use of the term integrative indicates that they test more than one skill and/or item of knowledge at a time.

For instance, dictation is an integrative test, as it involves listening skills, writing skills, knowledge of specific language items in order to distinguish whether / Yv/ should be written as have or of and so on. Dictation is still, however, an indirect test.

Many integrative tests, are often direct tests - they ask the learner to demonstrate their ability to perform on a specific communicative task. They therefore demonstrate the learner's ability to use the language in actual communication.

While discrete items attempt to test knowledge of language one aspect / element of language at a time, integrative tests intend to assess a learner's capacity to use several aspects / elements of language, all at the same time, applying their understanding of grammatical system of the target language

Another example of an integrative test which is also direct is an oral interview, where

- The learners have to listen and understand the examiner's questions
- Choose the relevant grammar and lexis to express their ideas
- Speak with intelligible/accurate pronunciation and intonation for performing the task

They demand that the learner integrates a variety of skills and items of linguistic knowledge to complete the test, and show how effectively they can use the language in communication. However, they have the disadvantage that they do not necessarily evidence knowledge of specific items - for instance, a learner might fail to produce a difficult structure by expressing the same concept in a different manner – e.g. 'I didn't know so I didn't go', rather than 'If I had known I would have gone'.

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In an integrative test it is impossible to know whether the learners avoid difficult structure consciously or whether it was just by chance that they chose to say one thing rather than another.

An indirect, discrete item test can, on the other hand, “push” the learner into demonstrating their level of understanding of selected structure, lexis etc.

For this reason, many test batteries use a mixture of indirect tests and direct tests - each can balance the deficiencies of the other.

(h) Achievement Test

The achievement test is usually conducted at the end of a semester or course work to assess the achievement of learning outcomes. They seek to provide information on the progress made by learners, as well as their weak areas so that remedial instruction may be planned.

(i) Proficiency Test

These types of tests are high stake tests, with the aim of establishing a test taker’s readiness for a particular communicative role in real life context. They measure a relatively ‘stable’ trait. They are used to make predictions about future language performance.

While testing learners on language what should we test?

- Knowledge of vocabulary – sound, meaning and spelling
- Knowledge of Grammar – language structure and functions
- Knowledge of sub-skills of reading and writing – skimming, scanning, cohesive writing, etc
- Proficiency in language skills – listening, speaking, reading, writing
- Performance in communicative tasks

Wigglesworth (2008) stated that:

“In the assessment of languages, tasks are designed to measure learners’ productive language skills through performances which allow candidates to demonstrate the kinds of language skills that may be required in a real world context.”

A proficiency test measures a learner’s level of language. Proficiency tests are not common within the classroom but they are essential for many job and higher studies in several countries such as Canada. Proficiency tests often have a significant backwash effect on the classroom, as learners’ focus narrows to preparing the test items which require performance. One way to make practice for exams more meaningful is by asking learners to prepare their own practice questions for the class. IELTS and TOEFL are examples of proficiency test in English language.

Essentials of a Good Test Item

Ingram (1974, 313) has discussed the following six essentials of a good test item.

- **Discrimination:** It is one of the most important requirements, which is necessary for a test. It means that a test must be designed in such a way that it can discriminate among the students—high proficiency level, low proficiency level, and so on.
- **Reliability:** Reliability refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument that is if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always be the same, regardless of who is giving and marking it.
- **Validity:** If a test of pronunciation tests only pronunciation and nothing else, it is a valid test of pronunciation. This test is valid because it measures only that for which it is set. To ensure validity of the test the teacher / paper setter needs to strictly adhere to the learning objectives of that particular course. For instance if listening comprehension in English is to be tested, it must test the learner on the subskills of listening only. For a test to be valid, reliability has to be ensured.
- **Scorability:** The test must have a well- developed scoring scheme, such that accuracy is ensured irrespective of who is scoring. The scoring of subjective tests is a little challenging as compared to objective tests.
- **Economy:** The test should keep in mind the economical usage of time, money and other resources. It should not be too lengthy that it becomes too expensive and demands too much time for the learner to attempt.
- **Administerability:** If a test requires electronic equipment and the service of highly trained technician, then such a test is not easy and viable to administer since these facilities are not available in most of the school and even most colleges and Universities. Hence the test setter must ensure that proper instructions are laid out for the people who will administer the test and too much complexity and technicality is avoided.

Principles of Testing

While designing a test, it would be helpful to keep in mind the following principles:

- Anything which can be defined can be tested
- Anything which cannot be defined cannot be tested
- What is being taught only that is to be tested
- You cannot test what you have not taught
- Testing should provide information that is credible and very useful
- Testing should be impartial and independent in its function
- It should always be against some identified standards
- It should offer reliable and valid results

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- It should not be taken as a hard duty to be performed by the learner, rather it should be a positive experience

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Testing Techniques for Language Skills and Aspects of language

Given below are some ideas which may be used for testing learner proficiency in English language skills.

Listening skill

- Complete the given worksheet based on audio script
- Chalk out a route for a particular destination after listening to radio script for avoiding heavy traffic
- Comment on the people involved in a discussion, their mannerism, viewpoints, and some more details about them

Speaking skill

- Extemporaneous speaking
- Picture completion
- Differentiate between two sets of pictures
- Information gap activities may be used
- Role play and group discussion
- Prediction based on given verbal and non-verbal cues

Reading Skill

- Reading comprehension
- Tell the students a story without the climax and the students may be asked to find out climax by reading the book.
- Write book reviews
- Prepare a character log or a reading log

Writing Skills

- Short narratives
- Transactional texts – letters, notice etc
- Composition – posters, stories, poem and so on
- Multiple choice test items to check grammatical accuracy and knowledge of sentence structure

For evaluation of subjective tests rubrics need to be prepared specifying criteria for each value point. For instance evaluation of Presentation may include:

1. Confidence 01 point
2. Fluency 02 points and so on

Current trends in Testing

The testing tools we use to test language skills should have validity, i.e. with how well test relate to real life situations and contexts, as opposed to reliability. Cyril Weir summarizes the current trends in testing as follows:

This communicative /real-life approach in testing might be said to be characterized by the following features

- Focus on meaning
- Contextualization
- Activity that has an acceptable purpose
- Use of genuine stimulus material
- Authentic real life-tasks on texts
- Performance under real psychological condition
- Judgements made on achievement of communicative purposes

The performance of the students can be assessed keeping in view of the above said norms. Besides this, the teacher should attempt to evaluate all criteria namely fluency, appropriateness, grammatical correctness, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

National benchmarks for language proficiency

The position paper on teaching of English (2005) expresses the need to evolve national benchmarks for English proficiency by first gathering reliable descriptive data in all these respects from representative all-India samples. 'Such benchmarking of national norms or averages is well known as a precursor to the adoption of support initiatives where necessary in the social sciences and education. It will also balance the curricular freedom that we suggest should be provided during the learning process, with the standardization of evaluation that certification ultimately requires.' (NCF 2005)

Further it is envisaged that the benchmarking should lead to a set of National English Language Tests, a bank of tests that learners and teachers can use for self-evaluation by opting to take them. These tests should allow for a much finer measure of proficiency than a broad overall grade or score (currently, scores on comprehension of unseen passages are conflated with scores on the recall of passages already studied, thus bundling even "proficiency" with "achievement"!). It is a robust teacher intuition that not all learners are equally at home in all the four skills; thus, good speakers may not be good writers, as there may be a trade-off between "accuracy" and "fluency" in the learning process. Neither are all skills equally important for all professions. Scores that reflect differential learner aptitudes and strengths will enhance employment potential, and have a washback effect on the curriculum.

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2.3.5 Repetition

Drilling has been extremely unfashionable in language teaching recently, and many English Language Training (ELT) practitioners do not consider it a valid language learning activity. Some of the criticisms levelled against it are that it is boring, does not lend itself to true communication, and it is far too easy for students (and teachers) to zone out and not think about what they are saying.

Drilling is a whole-class activity, so it brings the whole class together, possibly diminishing feelings of isolation with some students. Another positive feature of drilling is that it gives quieter students an opportunity to speak without feeling like they are in the spotlight. It can also help students to develop their pronunciation and notice intonation patterns. Also, it gives greater emphasis on the words and sentences that are being drilled, which might help students remember them better.

Types of drill

1. **Repetition drill:** The teacher reads a sentence and the students repeat. This is the type of drill most teachers are familiar with.
 - Teacher: The cat is under the table.
 - Students: The cat is under the table.
2. **Mumble drill:** The teacher reads a sentence and the students say or mumble it softly to themselves. This might lower students' anxiety about speaking out in class.
 - Teacher: The cat is under the table.
 - Students: MMMmmmmmmmm hmmmmmm mmmm
3. **Backward build-up drill (backchaining):** The teacher reads the last part of the sentence then works up to a full sentence. A nice variation of the traditional drill.
 - Teacher: table
 - Students: table
 - Teacher: the table
 - Students: the table
4. **Single-slot substitution drill:** The teacher reads a sentence and then calls out words that the students must fit into the sentence.
 - Teacher: The rat is under the table.
 - Students: The rat is under the table.
 - Teacher: Chair.
 - Students: The rat is under the chair.
 - Teacher: Monkey.
 - Students: The monkey is under the chair.

5. **Multiple-slot substitution drill:** Same as above, but the teacher reads two words that students must fit into the sentence.
- Teacher: The rat is under the table.
 - Students: The rat is under the table.
 - Teacher: Monkey, chair.
 - Students: The monkey is under the chair.
 - Teacher: Rabbit, sofa.
 - Students: The rabbit is under the sofa.
6. **Transformation drill:** The teacher reads a sentence and students must transform the sentence in some way specified by the teacher. This could be changing the verb tense, changing an affirmative sentence to a negative sentence, adding an adjective, switching words, or changing the register of a sentence.
- Teacher: The rat is under the table. NOT
 - Students: The rat is not under the table.
- OR
- Teacher: The rat is under the table. QUESTION
 - Students: Is the rat under the table?
7. **Completion drill:** The teacher reads the beginning of a sentence and students finish it. This gives the students an opportunity to use language spontaneously.
- Teacher: The rat is...
 - Students: under the table.
- OR
- Very tired.
- OR
- Thinking about lunch.
8. **Chain drill:** Students ask and answer questions in a highly structured exchange.
- Student 1: Where is the rat?
 - Student 2: The rat is under the table.
 - Student 2: Where is the rat?
 - Student 3: The rat is under the table.
9. **Mingle drill:** Same as above, but students walk around the classroom working with many other students.

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2.4 USING MOTHER TONGUE

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When teaching English as a second language, it is often thought that English should be taught in English language; but it becomes difficult in certain cases to do so as the learners in the initial stages of learning English as a second language are often not equipped with English to follow all the instructions in English. This leads teachers often to use the first language or the mother tongue as a medium of instruction. It may seem dichotomous that to use one language another language is used as a medium of instruction; but often this seems to be the case as the learners' needs and competence need to be kept in mind while teaching. Without the learners' perspective, it often becomes difficult to carry on with the actual process of teaching learning of the second language, especially English. In the theoretical terms of English Language Teaching, the Bilingual Method, developed by C. J. Dodson promotes the use of teaching and learning English Language through the use of Mother tongue. A brief detail of the Bilingual Method is being discussed underneath for you to understand how English language can be effectively taught through this method.

The Bilingual Method

Dr. C. J. Dodson developed the Bilingual method, which is also known as the Sandwich Method. In this method, both L1 (the mother tongue) and L2 (The second tongue, English in the case of English Language teaching) are used as medium of instruction. In this method, the teaching begins with a Bilingual approach and then gradually becomes monolingual at the end. In the sense, that the teacher uses both mother tongue (L1) and the target language (L2) in the classroom during the initial classes and then gradually uses less of L1 to focus on L2. It is to be understood that mother tongue or L1 is used in a more pronounced and detailed way as a medium of instruction in the initial stages of teaching learning and as one gradually progresses the L1 is withdrawn in a slow process to make the learners equipped with the second language.

There is a three-phase structure of presentation - practice – production model followed in the class room where the lesson starts out with the reproduction / performance of a basic dialogue, and then moves on to the variation and recombination of the basic sentences and ends up with an extended application. Dodson thought about the most direct form of access to meaning possible by using oral mother-tongue equivalents at sentence level to convey the meaning of unknown words or structures in the second language.

The following principles are followed in the Bilingual method:

- Second language is learnt with the help of L1.
- Mother tongue is not used as Translation but becomes one of the mediums initially for the teachers to begin the process of acquainting the learners with L2.

- Teacher only uses L1 in the classroom, whereas the students are not allowed to use their mother tongue.
- When the students achieve sufficient communicative proficiency, L1 is withdrawn by the teacher.
- Syntax is the unit of teaching

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Procedure/Steps in Teaching

1. The teacher begins by reading out a dialogue to the learner(s). The learners listen to the teacher with their books closed.
2. Next, the learners repeat the lines with the teacher with their books opened in the second reading.
3. The teacher gives sentence wise or meaningful parts wise L1 equivalents (meanings)
4. The teacher says each sentence of the dialogue twice with L1 version (meanings)

Disadvantages:

The primary disadvantages of the Bilingual Method are –

- One of the primary focus of the Bilingual method is the emphasis on grammatical structures but not on the day-to-day conversation
- If the teacher is not well conversant in both L1 and L2, then the whole method falls flat
- Learners to some extent become dependent on their mother tongue, thus making their process of picking up L2 slower.

Thus, like all methods of teaching, the Bilingual Method of English Language Teaching also has its own pros and cons and should be undertaken with caution seeing how effective it can be in the process of learning. Mother tongue is the language of our emotional connection, the second language usually is a language of our intellectual and professional world and therefore it is often seen that the process of second language acquisition is often slow. In this context, therefore it is necessary that the teachers bring in an emotional connect also with the second language so that the cultural aspects of the second language context can be fathomed and internalized by the learner. Bilingualism is a process and an ideal bilingual (usually thought to be an abstract concept) is one who has equivalent competence in both the languages where the syntactical and cultural aspects of both L1 and L2 gets contrapuntally juxtaposed to give rise to a consciousness leading on to become an expert in both the languages. To attain this, one needs to have a command also over the mother tongue.

Often it is seen that in the process acquiring the second language, the competence of first language or the mother tongue can be lost to some extent,

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especially in writing, if one uses second language too much and does not use the mother tongue for writing for years. It is therefore advisable that one keeps one's connection alive with one's mother tongue. When the teaching of L2 is done with the help of L1 sometimes, it can lead to a greater competence of both the languages, though it depends on the situation and the individual learners and the way the teachers approach language teaching. It is to be remembered that in spite of all the theoretical aspects of language teaching it is the charisma and competence of the teacher which is the most supreme when it comes to teaching a language.

Check Your Progress

1. List two reasons for the need to use jokes in the classroom.
2. State the methods for initiating interest in pupils.
3. What does the principle of division state?
4. List two features of MCQs.
5. What are some of the positive features of 'drilling'?
6. List some principles followed in the Bilingual Method.

2.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Two reasons for using jokes in the classroom are:
 - Helps building bridges of trust between cultures
 - Offers opportunities for practicing language items in real life contexts
2. There are various methods to initiate interest in pupils. For example, (1) Establishing curiosity by making the objective of the lesson clear; (2) Establishing relationship of contents with the pupils' activities and objectives; (3) Following the principles of learning by doing; (4) Linking teaching with day-to-day life of the pupil.
3. The principle of division broadly states that the subject-matter should be divided into some units for presenting it in certain way. The division of the content should be followed by the presentation in such a way that each unit should seem to be complete in itself.
4. The features of MCQs are:
 - Each MC item should have only 1 answer.
 - The answer must be ABSOLUTELY CORRECT unless the instruction says "choose the best option".
5. Drilling is a whole-class activity, so it brings the whole class together, possibly diminishing feelings of isolation with some students. Another positive feature of drilling is that it gives quieter students an opportunity to speak without

feeling like they are in the spotlight. It can also help students to develop their pronunciation and notice intonation patterns.

6. The principles followed in the bilingual method are:

- Second language is learnt with the help of L1.
- Mother tongue is not used as Translation but becomes one of the mediums initially for the teachers to begin the process of acquainting the learners with L2.
- Teacher only uses L1 in the classroom, whereas the students are not allowed to use their mother tongue.

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2.6 SUMMARY

- The English Language Teacher is expected to be imaginative. One of the crucial functions of language is its 'imaginative' function. Language is used to talk about imaginative things and events which have not as yet happened but are likely to happen in future.
- Learning a language is very challenging and teaching one is even more challenging. Hence, Language teachers are expected to be disciplined in their walk and talk.
- A professionally qualified teacher (Graduation / Post- Graduation in English Language / Literature with B.Ed) is a prerequisite for effective teaching.
- The application of language laboratory, computer assisted language learning (CALL) and recently web 2.0 technology has provided ample new opportunities to the Language Teachers.
- Motivation is the method that creates a pupils' interest in the content. Principle of motivation involves creating an interest among the pupils for acquiring knowledge.
- The teacher should create two types of activity in each type of lesson— physical and mental. Physical activity is meant to produce activity in the body organs of the pupils. Psychologically, each pupil is temperamentally active.
- Froebel has indoctrinated the principle of 'learning by doing' in the kindergarten system. The principle of 'learning by doing' does not involve only the pupil but also the teacher in order to learn new things.
- There is a close relationship between the contents and objectives of education. Contents are selected based on objectives.
- Principle of motivation and interest has been considered the most important aspect in teaching-learning. According to this principle, both the teacher and the learner are to work with interest and motivation.

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- Group learning is where individual learners in a group work together to maximize not only their own but each other's learning. Through group learning, individual learners may seek outcomes that are beneficial to not only themselves but to all members of the learning group.
- Some of the popular types of objective type tests are:
 - Rearrangement type
 - Multiple-choice type
 - Matching type
 - True-False type
 - Yes/No answer type
 - Completion type (Fill-in the blank type) and many more
- A test item is direct when the learner's response involves actually performing the communicative task using the desired language skill. It is commonly associated with the productive skill as in assessing the productive skills there's an observable output (speech/writing by the student) that can be heard/seen.
- In a cloze test every nth word is deleted in a text. It is a test of Grammar, sentence connection, vocabulary, reading, etc., within a context, and therefore it tests the overall proficiency level of the learner.
- In Rational deletion (or selected deletion.), test developer deletes words on the basis of some rational decision. E.g.: to test students' knowledge of verb tenses, delete only verbs. (Some writers say this is not really a cloze test, but a completion test).
- The C Test can be used for placement, achievement in language areas such as grammar, assessing specialized knowledge of ESP group of learners, for reading comprehension and many more purposes by the language teacher.
- A proficiency test measures a learner's level of language. Proficiency tests are not common within the classroom but they are essential for many job and higher studies in several countries such as Canada.
- Reliability refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument that is if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always be the same, regardless of who is giving and marking it.
- The testing tools we use to test language skills should have validity, i.e. with how well test relates to real life situations and contexts, as opposed to reliability.
- Drilling has been extremely unfashionable in language teaching recently, and many English Language Training (ELT) practitioners do not consider it a valid language learning activity. Some of the criticisms levelled against it are that it is boring, does not lend itself to true communication, and it is far too

easy for students (and teachers) to zone out and not think about what they are saying.

- Dr. C. J. Dodson developed the Bilingual method, which is also known as the Sandwich Method. In this method, both L1 (the mother tongue) and L2 (The second tongue, English in the case of English Language teaching) are used as medium of instruction.
- Mother tongue is the language of our emotional connection, the second language usually is a language of our intellectual and professional world and therefore it is often seen that the process of second language acquisition is often slow.

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2.7 KEY WORDS

- **Assessment:** It is a process by which information is obtained relative to some known objective or goal. In an assessment, a third-party comments on our performance.
- **Testing:** It refers to ‘a formal test of a person’s knowledge or proficiency in a subject or skill’. It is usually said to be classroom bound, administered by a teacher / student, it may be formal as well as informal, it plays a pedagogic role as the teacher gets immediate feedback on the methods, materials, and other aspects of lesson planning.
- **Discrete Point Testing:** It refers to the testing of one element at a time, item by item. This might involve, for example, a series of items each testing a particular grammatical structure.
- **Reliability:** It refers to the accuracy of a measuring instrument, that is, if a student is tested again and again the result or score must always be the same, regardless of who is giving and marking it.

2.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. List some points of caution for the use of humour in class.
2. Write a short note on the teaching skills required for an effective English language teacher.
3. Write a short note on principle of activity.
4. What purposes does testing serve?
5. List two essentials of a good test item.

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Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss some of the personal attributes of a good teacher.
2. Elaborate upon some of the professional attributes of a good teacher.
3. Explain some of the psychological principles of teaching.
4. Discuss the features and advantages of MCQs.

2.9 FURTHER READINGS

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**BLOCK II
METHODS AND APPROACHES OF ELT**

NOTES

**UNIT 3 METHODS OF
TEACHING ENGLISH**

Structure

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Objectives
- 3.2 Traditional Grammar
- 3.3 Grammar Translation Method
- 3.4 Direct Method
- 3.5 Audio-Lingual Method
- 3.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 3.7 Summary
- 3.8 Key Words
- 3.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 3.10 Further Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

English Language Teaching is important for the development of language skills and fluency in a learner. For the purpose of making teaching and learning effective, some techniques and methods are employed by English teachers. Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Direct Method, Audio-Lingual method and Drilling method have been discussed in this unit. GTM is concerned with the teaching of grammar, vocabulary and translation of native texts into the target language. Direct method is based on creating a context similar to that of the mother tongue acquisition i.e. thinking directly in the target language. The Audio-Lingual method is based on practical learning where a learner first listens to a dialect and then speaks as well as writes it. The selection of these methods depends on the level of the students and the judgement of the teacher with regard to the suitability of the method for the learners.

3.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the history and evolution of grammar studies
- Analyse the characteristics, principles and advantages of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

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- Discuss the characteristics, principles, advantages and disadvantages of the Direct Method
- Explain the structure and application of Audio-Lingual method and Drilling Method

3.2 TRADITIONAL GRAMMAR

Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning. In the more modern linguistic sense, grammar is the study of the entire interrelated system of structures—sounds, words, meanings, sentences—within a language.

Traditional grammar can be traced back over 2,000 years and includes grammars from the classical period of Greek, India, and Rome; the Middle Ages; the Renaissance; the 18th and 19th century; and more modern times. The grammars created in this tradition reflect the prescriptive view that one dialect or variety of a language is to be valued more highly than others and should be the norm for all speakers of the language. Traditional grammars include prescriptive rules that are to be followed and proscriptive rules of usage to be avoided. ‘When describing an emotion, use of an English word descended from Latin is preferred over an Anglo-Saxon word’ is an example of a prescriptive rule, and ‘Never split an infinitive’ is an example of a proscriptive rule.

The analytical study of language began around 500 BC in Greece and India. The work of Greek scholar Dionysius Thrax is the model for all grammars of European languages that follow. His *Tékhnē grammatikē* (c. 100 BC; The Art of Letters) was the first widely recognized text to provide a curriculum for learning proper Greek. His lessons included an introduction to the alphabet, lessons on how to join syllables together properly, and instruction in the appreciation of word arrangement (syntax). To Thrax, grammar was the technical knowledge necessary to produce the prestige language of poets, orators, and writers.

Around the same time, the Roman scholar Marcus Terentius Varro produced the 25 volumes of his *De lingua latina* (c. 100, about the Latin Language). Varro contrasted Latin with Greek, changed Greek grammatical terms into Latin, and formed his grammar of Latin by adapting Greek rules.

Other Latin grammars, influenced by the works of Thrax and Varro, were produced in the Middle Ages. Aelius Donatus published *Ars Grammatica* (c. fourth century, Art of Letters), and Donat Priscianus Caesariensis (Priscian) wrote *Institutiones grammaticae* (c. sixth century, Grammatical Foundations), which is the only complete surviving Latin grammar.

As printing became more widely available in the Renaissance, European grammarians began the mass production of grammars of their languages by mirroring

the Latin grammars of Varro, Donatus, and Priscian. These traditional grammarians presumed that the grammatical descriptions of Latin could be routinely applied to their own languages; this perception, however, was not accurate and resulted in many artificial prescriptive and proscriptive rules. Many of these false assumptions still carry over to attitudes about English today.

Continuing with this tradition, grammarians in the 18th century studied English, along with many other European languages by using the prescriptive approach in traditional grammar; during this time alone, over 270 grammars of English were published. During most of the 18th and 19th centuries, grammar was viewed as the art or science of correct language in both speech and writing. By pointing out common mistakes in usage, these early grammarians created grammars and dictionaries to help settle usage arguments and to encourage the improvement of English.

One of the most influential grammars of the 18th century was Lindley Murray's *English Grammar* (1794), which was updated in new editions for decades. Murray's rules were taught for many years throughout school systems in England and the United States and helped to create modern attitudes about the existence of a correct or standard variety of English. Murray's grammar represents a practice that continued to develop throughout the 19th century and was still dominant in the 1960s when linguistics began to focus more on generative and transformational grammar due to Noam Chomsky's groundbreaking and influential ideas.

Even though linguists today view traditional grammar as an unscientific way to study language and grammar, many of the basic Latin-based notions of grammar can still be found in all levels of the classroom and in textbooks and usage guides available to educators and the public. Traditional grammar books usually provide lists of grammatical terms, definitions of those terms, and advice on using so-called 'standard' grammar, including suggested correct usage of punctuation, spelling, and word choice. This advice is usually based on the prescriptive rules of prestige varieties of English, varieties often only able to be used by those in power either economically or politically.

Linguists, along with many English faculty, would rather have students study language with a descriptive approach that includes the analysis of real samples of a mixture of English dialect varieties, not just the prescribed, and sometimes inconsistent, prestige forms. Linguists or teachers using a descriptive approach say that it allows students to investigate language on a deeper level, enabling students to see the system at work, instead of teaching them isolated prescriptive and proscriptive rules based on Latin, a dead language no longer in flux as English constantly is.

Linguists also believe that the rules of traditional grammar are inadequate because many of the rules are oversimplified, inconsistent, or not consistently conformed to. The grammars of classical Greece and Rome were based on the best orators or poets of the day. However, the best poets or speakers of our day

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are lauded for their poetic use of language that breaks prescriptive rules. For example, a traditional grammar rule of modern English, often found in usage guides and student handbooks, forbids the use of fragment sentences like ‘The train running up the hill.’ However, E.E. Cummings or Maya Angelou could use this sentence for poetic effect without question.

Many teachers themselves want to be trained in traditional grammar, even though its inconsistencies may not help them when they have to explain grammatical points to their students. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) requires that teachers in training take linguistics or language courses to teach them to examine the differences between traditional grammar and more modern grammars. However, many English teachers view traditional grammar as necessary and newer grammars as little help to them. And even though more modern types of grammatical analysis exist, many students, future teachers, and the general public still believe grammar means the traditional Latin-based grammar of old.

Check Your Progress

1. What does traditional grammar refer to?
2. Name the first text to provide a curriculum for learning proper Greek.
3. How was grammar viewed in the 18th and 19th centuries?

3.3 GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

The Grammar Translation Method (also known as the classical method, the traditional method and the Prussian method) is a method of foreign language teaching in which the main focus is on the study of the target language grammar, vocabulary and finally the translation of native language texts or sentences into the target language.

Main Principles

The main principles of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) are as follows:

- Translation infers the words and phrases of the foreign languages in the best possible manner.
- The phraseology and the idiom of the target language can best be integrated in the process of interpretation.
- The structures of the foreign languages are best learned when compared and contrasted with those of the mother tongue.

Background

The GTM is supposedly the oldest and the most traditional method of foreign language teaching. Although the history of the GTM is not documented properly,

it is generally expected that the method emerged from the teaching methods of Latin and to a lesser extent from Greek. In the early fifteenth century, Latin was the major foreign language due to its widespread usage in the government, academic and business sectors. However, in the sixteenth century, due to political disturbances, the importance of Latin slowly deteriorated and some other languages, such as French, Italian and English gained importance. In the eighteenth century, these languages were included in the curriculum of educational institutions of Europe. The first country to adapt GTM was Germany, especially by Prussia. As a result, this method is also referred to as the Prussian Method. This teaching method was demonstrated after the same principles followed in the teaching of Latin; therefore, formerly it was also called the Classical Method. The method saw its prime days in the nineteenth century and came to be known as the Grammar Translation Method. However, its practice gradually ended after the Direct Method emerged.

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Major Characteristics

The significant attributes of the Grammar Translation Method according to Prator and Celce-Murcia (1979, p3) are as follows:

The critical traits of GTM are as follows:

1. Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
2. Much vocabulary is taught in the form of list of isolated words.
3. Long elaborate explanation is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
4. Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
5. Reading of classical texts is begun early.
6. Little attention is paid to the content of texts, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
7. Often the only drills are drills in translating disconnected sentences from the target language into the mother tongue.
8. Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

Approach, Design and Procedure of GMT

In spite of the fact that Richard and Rogers (1986, p5) guaranteed that the Grammar Translation Method has no hypothetical premise, it is conceivable to portray the strategy regarding standard levels of Approach, Design and Procedure.

Theory of language

The theory of language underlying the Grammar Translation Method is the Traditional approach to manage linguistics. The proponents of Traditional Linguistics mainly emphasized on the written form of language. Their attitude towards rules was authoritarian as they gave importance to the usage as compared to the use.

They held that only the languages used by the famous writers are the correct forms and any deviant variety was impure. They also maintained that the Latin models could be used to describe any languages of the world.

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Theory of Learning

The theory of learning underlying the GTM is Faculty Psychology, which asserts that the human mind has separate faculties to carry out different activities. Each faculty could be individually trained to achieve proficiency. Under the assumptions of Faculty Psychology, understanding and memorization of difficult grammatical rules of languages were considered to be an important criterion for the development of the human mind.

Objectives

The major objectives of GTM are as follows:

- Allowing the students to read, write, interpret and translate the target language literature.
- Making the students aware of their native language structure and vocabulary.
- Improving the students' reading, writing and translation skills through rote learning of vocabulary lists and grammar rules of the target language.
- Developing the students' general mental discipline.

The Syllabus

The Grammar Translation Method takes after a Structural Syllabus since the essential concentration is to ace the syntax guidelines and vocabulary of the objective dialect.

Teachers' Role

In GMT, the teacher is the main person in the classroom who controls and determines everything including the content, tasks, and so on. Moreover, the teacher also provides the students with correct answers/feedbacks when they make mistakes.

Students' Role

The students are passive receivers of knowledge as they blindly follow whatever the teacher instructs them to do. The students are hardly allowed to begin any interaction with the teacher. Whatever interaction takes place, it is generally initiated by the teacher.

The Role of Teaching/Learning Materials:

According to this method, the role of teaching/learning/instructional materials is to provide literary texts and motivate students to practice exercises on translation.

The texts also include vocabulary lists and grammar rules for the students to learn for developing reading, writing and translation skills, instead of listening and speaking.

Methods/Procedure

In the GTM, the classroom procedure comprises a presentation of a grammatical rule, which is followed by a list of vocabulary and, finally, translation exercises from selected texts. The activities and procedures can be as follows:

- To read comprehension questions about the text.
- To identify antonyms and synonyms from words in the text.
- To learn vocabulary chosen from the reading texts.
- To form sentences with the new words.
- To recognize and learn cognates and false cognates.
- To practice fill-in-the-blank exercises.
- To write compositions from a given topic.

Advantages

Although GTM has been strongly criticized under several grounds, it still continues to have some positive features. The advantages of GTM are as follows:

- As the classes are conducted in the mother tongue, teaching takes less effort and time, while the students can also learn much comfortably. Additionally, the teacher can evaluate whether the students understood the lessons or not.
- The focus on understanding of the target language literary texts increases the students' reading and writing skills.
- The translation exercises help the students to compare the native language with the target language, which, in turn, improve their ability to understand the meaning of words and complicated sentences. In this way, they can learn the target language grammar in a relatively easy way.
- The learning of grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language provides the students with good mental exercise which further helps to develop their mind.
- The emphasis on accuracy allows the students to learn the correct grammar of the target language.
- GTM chiefly emphasizes on developing reading and writing skills. As a result, the teacher does not necessarily need to be fluent in the target language.
- This method also allows students to understand the function of mother tongue to give them the capacity to communicate their thoughts.
- The study of target language literature helps the students to learn the best forms of language.

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Disadvantages

Regardless of its wide acknowledgment, the Grammar Translation Method has been censured for various weaknesses:

- The overemphasis on accuracy leads to repeated corrections of mistakes which obstruct the consistency of learning.
- This method overstates accuracy to fluency.
- Since the role of student is passive, it is a teacher-centred method.
- It ignores communicative competence as the objective of learning.
- Little or no stress is given on listening and writing skills.
- The students often fail to speak in real life situations since they are familiarized with the target language culture through reading passages rather than by direct interaction with the target language elements.
- Learning often gets dull and tedious since the students need to learn several vocabulary items and grammar rules.

Grammar Translation method, also known as the Classical Method or the Traditional Method, is clearly rooted in the formal teaching of Latin and Greek which prevailed in Europe for many centuries. Mackey says, 'This is simply a combination of the activities of Grammar and Translation' (153).

As its name suggests, 'This method emphasizes the teaching of the second language grammar; its principal practice, technique in translation from and into the target language' (Stern 453).

The Grammar Translation Method is based on three assumptions:

- Translation interprets the words and phrases of the foreign language and ensures comprehension of the vocabulary items, collocations and sentences.
- In the process of interpretation, the foreign phraseology is assimilated.
- The structure of the target language is best learnt when compared and contrasted with that of the mother tongue.

This strategy turned out to be extremely famous in the late eighteenth century and in the mid nineteenth century. It advocates the learning of the standards of language structure and consequently neglects to create familiarity of expression in students. Absence of hypothetical premise has not lessened the materialness of the strategy even today when a few etymologically solid techniques are accessible. This strategy is most suited in showing substantial classes with constrained assets, since students can be made to tune in, copy rule, work out activities and write them from the board. For this technique, the educator is not required to be exceptionally skilled in the objective dialect. He should simply take after the content precisely and talk about it utilizing the primary language wherever vital.

Basic English Grammar Rules

In any language, there are basic rules the speaker or would-be-learner needs to understand before moving on to harder skills. English itself has basic rules that people need to follow for it to make sense to hearers and readers. Here are some basic English grammar rules that are easy to understand and easy to learn:

- Only use capital letters for proper nouns and at the beginning of a sentence.
- For every sentence, there should be one noun and one verb. A sentence with more than one noun or verb is confusing to understand.
- When a sentence is complete, use appropriate punctuation. There is no need to have dual punctuation when ending a sentence.
- If an apostrophe is needed, make sure to use it to show ownership. An apostrophe is also used when words are abbreviated.
- Whenever writing multiple sentences about the same subject or line of thought, use paragraphs to divide long segments of writing.
- Should a line of thought require a list, make sure to separate each article by a comma.
- Make sure case and number of the subject and the verb match. If the noun is singular the verb should be singular as well.
- When connecting two lines of thought in a sentence, use a conjunction to make things make better sense.
- If you have two lines of thought that are similar, feel free to use a semicolon to combine them.
- Make sure to use the correct tense when writing or speaking English.
- Try not to end a sentence with a preposition.
- A conjunction word should not be used to start a sentence.
- Sentences should be complete thoughts and not fragments.
- Try not to use double negatives. Such as no not never.
- Make sure to use words correctly.
- Avoid repeating lines of thought in sentences.
- Make sure paragraphs are complete, having three to five sentences each.

Rules of English grammar can be hard to understand, but not impossible. By following English grammar rules, you will be proficient in writing and speech.

Translation was a significant part of ELT for a long time, and then a significant missing part for a long time also. With the arrival and then total dominance of communicative methodologies, translation was quickly consigned to the past, along with other 'traditional' tools, such as dictation, reading aloud and drills. However, these other abandoned activities are now a feature of many communicative

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classrooms and successful aids to learning, although the approach to using them has changed. As Duff (1989) says, teachers and students now use translation to learn, rather than learning translation. Modern translation activities usually move from L1 to L2 (although the opposite direction can also be seen in lessons with more specific aims), have clear communicative aims and real cognitive depth, show high motivation levels, and can produce impressive communicative results.

The History of Translation in ELT Methodologies

As mentioned above, translation was the basis of language teaching for a very long time, and then rejected as new methodologies started to appear. It was a key element of the Grammar Translation Method, which was derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin. This was not a positive learning experience for many: as well as learners memorizing huge lists of rules and vocabulary, this method involved translating whole literary or historic texts word for word. Unsurprisingly, new methodologies tried to improve on this. The Direct or Natural Method established in Germany and France around 1900 was a response to the obvious problems associated with the Grammar Translation Method. In the Direct Method, the teacher and learners avoid using the learners' native language and just use the target language. You will learn about this method in further sections of this unit.

Like the Direct Method, the later Audio-Lingual Method tried to teach the language directly, without using the L1 to explain new items. Subsequent 'humanistic' methodologies, such as the Silent Way and Total Physical Response and communicative approaches moved even further away from the L1, and from these arise the Grammar Translation Method, which was prevalent in foreign language classrooms from the mid-19th century to the mid-20th century. It was first introduced in Latin and ancient Greek classrooms in the early 19th century, replacing more communicatively-oriented methods as Latin ceased to be a spoken language. As there was no longer a strong justification for teaching oral skills in the classical languages, the Grammar Translation Method espoused the goal of developing the ability to read and translate classical texts. By the mid-19th century, the method had been adopted for teaching modern languages by German scholars such as Karl Plötz and Johann Seidenstücker, and it quickly spread to classrooms throughout Europe and the United States.

Throughout its history, the Grammar Translation Method was criticized by advocates of more 'direct' methods, who claimed that languages ought to be learned by actually speaking and listening to them rather than merely studying about them. One critic went so far as to claim that the Grammar Translation Method sought to 'know everything about something rather than the thing itself' (Rouse, 1925; quoted in Kelly, 1969, p. 53). However, the Grammar Translation Method continued to be one of the primary methods used in US classrooms, although it was partially supplanted in the 1930s by the so-called 'Reading Method', which replaced the classical texts of the Grammar Translation method with texts written

specifically for foreign language students based on word frequency studies, and encouraged students to avoid consciously translating what they were reading (Rivers, 1981).

During World War II, it became evident that neither the Grammar Translation Method nor the Reading Method was producing students capable of speaking foreign languages well enough to communicate with allies or to understand enemy communications. The US government, therefore, turned to methods that were grounded in the linguistic and psychological theories of the time, which were later adapted for use in public schools as the Audio-lingual Method. By the 1960s, the Audio-lingual Method had replaced the Grammar Translation Method for teaching foreign languages in most US classrooms. However, Grammar Translation techniques continue to be used throughout the world in teaching classical languages and occasionally modern languages, especially less commonly-taught languages.

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Classroom Activities

In accordance with the goal of developing a thorough understanding of grammar, each chapter of a grammar translation textbook focuses on one or more grammatical aspects, often accompanied by detailed exceptions to the rules. Each chapter also contains a list of vocabulary words designed to prepare students to translate specific sentences or texts; thus, the vocabulary is generally not clustered around any specific theme.

The lesson culminates in a series of exercises that require students to translate from their native language to the target language and vice-versa. The exercises may involve excerpts of literary texts, or they may simply consist of individual sentences designed to illustrate the grammar points at hand. Emphasis is placed on grammatical accuracy.

In as much as the primary emphasis is on the development of reading and translation skills, little attention is generally given to teaching speaking or listening, especially in the classical languages. In the case of modern languages, however, meticulous attention may be given to explaining phonological rules, particularly in textbooks published since the mid-20th century.

As is evident, Grammar Translation lessons are heavily centred on the textbook and follow its content quite closely. The teacher's role is to explain the material in the chapter and to correct students' translations. The language of instruction is generally the students' native language.

Teacher and Learner Roles

Grammar Translation method as a traditional method highly emphasizes the role of teacher. The teacher is considered as the primary source of knowledge, composer of knowledge and meaning. The teacher is responsible for determining the content of what to teach. The teacher remains as the authority in the class where the teacher provides deductive rules of grammar and vocabulary lists for the students

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to memorize so that it will be helpful for them in reading, writing and translating literary texts from native to target language and vice-versa. The teacher simply asks and instructs students to state the grammar rule. The primary goal of teacher who uses this method is to make students able to read literature in target language. The teacher also plays a role of initiator of interaction in the language classroom. The role of teacher also seems like a facilitator and guide as they check students and prevent them from making mistakes.

The role of a learner is that of a consumer of knowledge who does whatever his/her teacher instructs him/her to do. However, the seemingly passive learner has to memorize vocabulary lists, grammar rules required for reading, writing and translation skills actively. The learner has to learn about the form of target language. There is very little initiation of interaction from learner's part. The role of the learner is similar to a translation of language as he/she is supposed to have translated literary text from target language to his/her native language and sometimes vice-versa. Nevertheless, Grammar Translation method merely teaches students about the target language and native language translation but does not reasonably talk about the ways of using it. Since the learner does not concentrate on listening and speaking the role of learner simply becomes as mere participant, reader, writer, rote-learner and translator.

The teacher simply instructs students by initiating a task for the students to do reading, writing, and translation by rote memorization of vocabulary lists and deductive grammar rules. The role of teaching learning instructional materials according to this method is to provide literary texts and encourage students to do translation activity. The texts also incorporate vocabulary lists and grammar rules for the students to memorize necessary for developing reading, writing and translation skills rather than listening and speaking.

Procedure of Making Translation

Procedure refers to classroom techniques, practices and behaviours that operate in language teaching. The tactics and strategies used by teachers and learners in Grammar Translation method is typical. The teacher instructs students to read literary texts and after they have finished reading that they are asked it to translate into their native language. Then the teacher asks questions to the students in their native language if they have any questions. Similarly, the students (learners) do as per the teacher's instruction. The learners memorize grammar rules and vocabulary lists provided by the teacher and develop their reading, writing and translation skills. The teacher gives reading passage in the target language and suggests students to learn about new words, their synonyms and antonyms, their sound patterns. The teacher supplies correct answer if the students make errors or do not know an answer. The students are instructed to translate from one language to another. They memorize native-language equivalents for target language vocabulary words.

Check Your Progress

4. Why is GTM referred to as the Prussian Method?
5. List two critical traits of GTM.
6. State some activities and procedures followed under the GTM.
7. List the assumptions of GTM.

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3.4 DIRECT METHOD

Another important method of teaching second language is called the direct method. It is often referred to as the natural method. It evolved due to dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method. In the direct method, the attempt is to create a context similar to that of the mother tongue acquisition (hence, it is sometimes also named the natural method). It was based on the assumption that the learner of a foreign language should think directly in the target language. According to this method, for example, English is taught through English. The learner learns the target language through discussion, conversation and reading in the second language. As mentioned earlier, this method was established in Germany and France around 1900. In the US, it is known as Berlitz method. The main aim of this method is to help the students speak the target language (L2) fluently and correctly. In other words, the focus of this method is to make the learner get himself or herself equipped with the conversational aspect of the second language so that he or she becomes adept in using the second language in his or her day to day life. Thus it can be said that there is a complete shift of focus in the direct method from the grammar translation method as the former is more concerned with the spoken form of language and the latter with the written aspect.

Characteristic Features of the Direct Method

- Teaching of vocabulary is done through pantomiming real-life objects and other visual materials. The tedious process of memorizing vocabularies is prevalent in the grammar-translation method and does not become taxing for learners. It does not deter them from learning the second language. Thus, while not giving so much emphasis on memorizing and by making the students a part of the process of learning through real life objects, the direct method engages the learners with the second language and makes the learning process interesting and engaging.
- Teaching of grammar is done by using an inductive approach. Centrality of spoken language (including a native speaker like pronunciation), which makes the learner feel that he or she is growing up to be a part of the speech community of the target language. As discussed earlier, one of the main motivations of the second language learner is to learn the language so that he can be a part of the speech community of the second language.

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- The focus is on question–answer patterns.
- Teacher is the centre of learning.

Principles

- Instructions in classroom are given in the second language so that the learners get the second language from the beginning and gets into the habit of interacting in the second language.
- The focus is on the everyday vocabulary and sentences during the initial phase; grammar, reading and writing are introduced in intermediate phase.
- Oral teaching precedes any form of reading and writing as the primary emphasis is on the spoken form of language.
- Grammar is taught inductively.
- Pronunciation is taught systematically in accordance with the principles of phonetics and phonology of the second language so that the learner can be a part of the second language speech community also in terms of pronouncing the second language exactly in the same manner as the native speaker of the language.
- The meanings of words and forms are taught by means of object or natural context.
- Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by the association of ideas.
- Both speech and listening comprehensions are taught.
- The focus is on the learner; therefore, they speak at least eighty per cent of the time.
- Learners are taught from the beginning to ask questions as well as answer them.

Advantages

There are many advantages of the direct method. They are as follows:

- This method tries to teach the second language in the same way as one learns one's mother tongue. The language is taught through demonstration and conversation in context. Therefore, students are quick at understanding the spoken form. It is a natural method which has its benefits.
- The mother tongue is not used and the learner focuses not only on learning the second language but at the same time tries to grasp it to the fullest.
- This method is based on sound principles of education as it believes in introducing the particular before general, concrete before abstract and practice before theory.

Disadvantages

The disadvantages are as follows:

- Many educationists and scholars are of the view that the direct method does not take into account all aspects of language teaching. It emphasizes on the written form and neglects the written aspect of language. In other words, it can be said that this method is not comprehensive enough as language learning involves acquisition of skills—listening, speaking, reading and writing. The direct method concentrates on listening and speaking but not reading and writing. That is why many of those who have learned the second language through the direct method feel that they do not get adequate command over written language.
- Its procedures and techniques were difficult for the learner as the instruction from the beginning is given in the second language which makes the learner not grasp the instructions.
- Teachers had difficulty in explaining the difficult words as he or she is not able to use the mother tongue of the learner to explain difficult concepts and words.
- No selection and grading of vocabulary and structures.
- It was a success in private language schools but not in public secondary schools.
- There was less time and less opportunity available in the classroom.
- A comparison between the direct method and the grammar-translation method, we must take into account the following points:

Check Your Progress

8. What is the focus of the direct method?
9. How is concrete vocabulary taught in the direct method?
10. How does the direct method try to teach the second language?

3.5 AUDIO- LINGUAL METHOD

The Audio-lingual Method is a strategy for remote dialect presentation which emphasized the education of listening and talking before examining and composing. This technique is a mix between behavioural brain research and phonetic. It is likewise called 'Army Method' since this strategy is present since the World War II for the American armed forces who needed to learn dialect rapidly and seriously. The basic hypothesis of dialect constituted its backbone. Structural etymological view dialect is an arrangement of fundamentally related components for the declaration of importance. These components are phonemes, morphemes, words,

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structures and sentence sorts. The dialect showing theoreticians and methodologists is behavioural brain research which is an experimentally based way to deal with the investigation of human conduct. Behaviourism tries to clarify how an outer even (a boost) brought about an adjustment in the conduct of an individual (a reaction) without utilizing concepts like 'mind' or 'idea'.

In the Audio-lingual Method, the understudies first hear a dialect. Later, they speak the dialect and after that, they read and write in it. Primary language is debilitated in the classroom when this technique is utilized. The Audio-lingual Method does not learn several vocabulary. Or maybe, the educator drills talking and linguistic use in light of the fact that in this technique, sentence structure is most critical for the understudy. In other word the understudy must rehash syntax design after the educator.

The Audio-lingual Method was developed in the US during the Second World War. Around then, the US government discovered an urgent need to set up an exceptional dialect preparing project to supply the war with dialect staff. In this manner, the legislature set up American colleges to create remote dialect programme for military staff. In this manner, the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP) was built up in 1942. The goals of the armed force programme were for students to achieve conversational capability in an assortment of remote dialects. The strategy was known as the 'information method', since it used local speakers for the dialect, the source and a language specialist. The witness served as a wellspring of dialect for impersonation, and the etymologist directed the learning background. This framework embraced by the armed force accomplished great outcomes.

Linguistic and applied linguistic during this period were turning out to be progressively required in the teaching of English as an outside dialect. In 1941, the primary English Language establishment in the US was built up in the University of Michigan. The chief of the organization was Charles Fries who connected the standards of basic etymologists to dialect instructing. The outcome is an approach which pushed aural preparing to begin with, then articulation preparing, trailed by talking, examining and composing.

The development of the Audio-lingual Method came about because of the expanded thoughtfulness regarding remote dialect instructing in the US towards the end of the 1950s. The requirement for a radical change and re-evaluating of outside dialect showing philosophy made dialect showing pros start building up a technique that was appropriate to conditions in US school and college classrooms. They drew on the previous experience of the armed force programmes and the Aural-Oral or basic Approach created by Fries and his partners, including bits of knowledge taken from behaviourist brain research. This mix of auxiliary semantic hypothesis, aural-oral techniques, and behaviourist brain science prompted the Audio-lingual Method, which was generally received for instructing remote dialects in North American schools and colleges.

The Audio-Lingual technique for showing English as a moment dialect had its causes amid World War II when it got to be distinctly known as the Army strategy. It was produced as a response to the linguistic use interpretation technique for educating outside dialects. Syntax interpretation had been utilized to educate for several years, yet the technique was seen as taking too much headache for learners to have the capacity to talk in the objective dialect. The Audio-Lingual technique set out to accomplish open fitness through imaginative strategies. From around 1947–1967, the Audio-Lingual approach was the prevailing remote dialect showing technique in the United States.

The Audio-Lingual technique depends on the hypothesis that dialect learning is an issue of propensity development. It has its starting points in Skinner's standards of conduct hypothesis. Since learning is thought to be an issue of propensity development, mistakes are thought to be terrible and to be kept away from.

The Audio-Lingual technique addresses a requirement for individuals to learn remote dialects quickly. It is best to begin level English classes in an outside dialect setting. All guideline in the class are given in English. The educator requests that the class repeat every line of the exchange. Extension drills are utilized for difficult sentences. The instructor begins with the end of the sentence and the class repeats only two words.

One of the key standards of the Audio-Lingual technique is that the dialect educator ought to give understudies a local speaker-like model. By tuning in, understudies are relied upon to have the capacity to impersonate the model. Based upon contrastive investigations, understudies are penetrated in elocution of words that are most unique between the objective dialect and the primary dialect. Linguistic use is not educated specifically by govern retention, but rather by cases. The strategy presumes that second dialect learning is particularly similar to first dialect learning.

Method/Structure

The goal of the Audio-lingual technique is exact articulation and sentence structure, the capacity to react rapidly and precisely in discourse circumstances and information of adequate vocabulary to use with syntax designs. Specific accentuation was laid on acing the building pieces of dialect and taking in the standards for joining them. It was trusted that learning structure or sentence structure was the beginning stage for the understudy. Here are a few qualities of the technique:

- Language learning is propensity arrangement.
- Mistakes are awful and ought to be kept away from, as they are viewed as negative behaviour patterns.
- Language aptitudes are found out more adequately on the off chance that they are introduced verbally in the first place, then in composed frame.

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- Analogy is a superior establishment for dialect learning than examination.
- The implications of words can be adapted just in an etymological and social setting.

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The principle exercises of this technique incorporate examining. Key structures from the exchange serve as the reason for examples of various types. Lessons in the classroom concentrate on the right impersonation of the educator by the understudies. Not just are the understudies anticipated that would deliver the right yield, yet consideration is additionally paid to right articulation. Albeit redress syntax is normal in use, no unequivocal syntactic direction is given. It is educated inductively. Moreover, the objective dialect is the main dialect to be utilized as a part of the classroom.

Advantages

- It aims at developing listening and speaking skills which is a step away from the grammar translation method.
- The use of visual aids has proven its effectiveness in vocabulary teaching.

Disadvantages

- The method is based on false assumptions about language. The study of language does not amount to studying the 'parole', the observable data. Mastering a language relies on acquiring the rules underlying language performance. That is, the linguistic, sociolinguistic and discourse competences.
- The behaviourist approach to learning is now discredited. Many scholars have proven its weakness. Noam Chomsky (Chomsky, Noam, 1959, 'A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behaviour') has written a strong criticism of the principles of the theory.

Drilling

As you have learnt in the previous unit, drilling is a strategy that has been utilized as a part of remote dialect classrooms for a long time. It was a key component of sound lingual ways to deal with dialect showing which set accentuation on repeating auxiliary examples through verbal practice. In light of the Behaviourist view that figuring out how to talk an outside dialect was basically an issue of right propensity arrangement; it was felt that repeating phrases accurately several times would prompt to supremacy of the dialect.

How can drills be useful?

For the learners, drills can:

- Provide for an emphasis on exactness. Expanded precision (alongside expanded familiarity and many-sided quality) is one of the courses in which

a learner's dialect enhances, so there is a need to concentrate on the exactness at specific phases of the lesson or amid certain assignment sorts.

- Provide learners with serious practice in hearing and saying specific words or expressions. They can help learners get their tongues around difficult sounds or help them emulate inflection that might be fairly unique in relation to that of their first dialect.
- Provide a protected situation for learners to try different things with delivering the dialect. This may construct certainty, especially among learners who are not daring people.
- Help understudies see the right frame or articulation of a word or expression. Seeing or awareness raising of dialect is a vital stage in creating dialect capability.
- Provide an open door for learners to get prompt input on their precision regarding instructor or companion revision. Numerous learners need to be adjusted.
- Help memorisation and automization of normal dialect examples and dialect pieces. This might be especially valid for aural learners.
- Meet the needs of the understudies, i.e., they may think penetrating is a fundamental component of dialect classrooms.

For the teachers, drills can:

- Help as far as classroom administration, empowering them to shift the pace of the lesson or to get all learners included.
- Help them perceive if new dialect is bringing on issues as far as frame or elocution.

What should we use?

At all levels, we should infuse vocabulary in dialect teaching:

- At low levels, understudies are yet getting used to the hints of English and need a lot of chance to get their tongues around them; so it is likely that drilling will be utilized more.
 - o Sounds that either don't exist in their L1 or happen in an unexpected way.
 - o Consonant bunches and powerless structures may likewise bring about trouble, for instance, in words like vegetable, agreeable.
- At the expression level, sound, stretch and powerless structures frequently cause challenges for learners and at larger amounts, there may be issues with these parts of articulation. Expressions, for example, 'On the off chance that I'd known you were coming, I'd have remained at home' are hard to state.

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- Intonation designs that are urgent to importance may likewise be conveniently improved through drilling, for instance, label questions (which ask for confirmation or are genuine questions) or expressions like ‘You could have let me know it was his birthday!’ (as a rebuke).
- On the off chance that we trust that drilling helps our learners remember dialect, we ought to likewise include valuable and regular dialect groups. This would incorporate numerous regular expressions, for example,
 - Hello, how are you?
 - Can I have a ..?’
 - Have you got a ...’
 - If I were you I’d.. ‘

When should we drill?

For drills to be significant, learners need to comprehend what they are being requested to say. Tedious droning of decontextualized dialect is not helpful to anybody.

- This implies that work on the significance of the dialect must precede drilling.
- Drilling can be serenely and viably joined into many sorts of lessons, whether you utilize a PPP demonstrate or a task based approach, for instance.
- Drilling may take after a dialect centre stage, especially in the event that you are managing spoken dialect. It might be excessively, be that as it may, to anticipate that learners will hit the nail on the head instantly; so you might need to present penetrating later for therapeutic purposes. On the other hand, you may do it after a familiarity task as a redress technique.

At the point when learners are getting used to the hints of English, it might be less demanding for them not to see the dialect recorded before they work on saying it; so inspire them to listen to your model and after that rehash.

Ensure you give clear, characteristic sounding and steady models. Utilize hand developments to demonstrate inflection, utilize your clench hand to beat the anxiety, and join or separate fingers to show word limits and where connecting happens in expressions. This sort of signalling may specifically help visual learners since it helps them envision the dialect they are improving.

Back fastening helps learners concentrate on right articulation and sound. For instance, when you are demonstrating an expression, begin towards the end, getting the learners to repeat after every piece you give them.

For example: yesterday / get up yesterday/ did you get up yesterday / what time did you get up yesterday?

You can repeat the drill as far as who repeats - entire class, a large portion of the class, young men only, young ladies only or people.

Drill is not another or a trendy classroom method, but rather, utilized suitably as a part of the classroom; it can be of incredible esteem to learners.

Just penetrate dialect that will profit by being drilled (for instance, on the off chance that it causes articulation issues or in the event that it is a valuable lump of dialect to be retained).

As indicated by Prator and Celce-Murcia in Brown (2001), the attributes of the ALM strategy might be summed up in the following manner:

- New material is introduced in discourse frame.
- There is reliance on mimicry, retention of set expressions and over-learning.
- Structures are sequenced by method for contrastive investigation and showed one at the time.
- Structural examples are shown utilizing monotonous drills.
- There is almost no linguistic clarification. Sentence structure is instructed by inductive similarity instead of by deductive clarification.
- Vocabulary is entirely restricted and learned in the setting.
- There is much utilization of tapes, dialect labs, and visual guides.
- Great significance is connected to articulation.
- Very little utilization of the native language by instructors is allowed.
- Successful reactions are promptly fortified.
- There is an incredible push to inspire understudies to deliver mistake free expressions.

There is an inclination to control dialect and negligence content. In the Audio-Lingual technique, the classroom environment is the principle performing artist. Making a casual classroom, non-threatening learning environment is basic for accomplish the fruitful of learning procedure. The objective is that understudies will absorb the substance of the lessons without feeling any sort of stress or getting exhausted. Classrooms are structured with seating game plans and make into an agreeable to learn.

The Application of ALM in the Speaking Class

Ordinarily, the technique in an audio lingual course would be as follows:

- Students hear a model exchange.
- Students repeat every line of the discourse.
- Certain watchwords or expressions might be changed in the discourse.
- The students improve substitutions in the example drills.

Larsen-Freeman (2000, p.47-50) gives extended portrayals of some normal or average strategies intently connected with the Audio lingual Method: Dialogs

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remembrance, Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill), Repetition penetrate, Chain drill, Single-opening Substitution drill, Multiple-space Substitution drill, Transformation drill, Question and Answer drill, Use Minimal Pairs Analysis, Complete the exchange, and Grammar diversions. In any case, not everyone in the systems can be connected in the speaking class. The most strategy is utilized by the educator are Dialog remembrance, Repetition penetrate and Complete the exchange.

Dialog Memorization

Discourse or short discussion is generally utilized by the instructor during the time spent learning how to speak in the class. Exchanges or short discussions between two individuals are frequently used to start another lesson. Students retain the discourse through mimicry: students as a rule play the part of the individual in the exchange, and the instructor the other (Larsen-Freeman 2000). In this manner, discourse retention is the movement where the understudies are retained as the line of the exchange and afterwards, they assume the part of the trademark in the discourse, and after that, practice in front of class. In the discourse remembrance, it is important to retain the exchange and the specific sentence example and linguistic use point that is incorporated inside the discourse.

Conclusion

The acceptability of this theory mainly lies in its firm theoretical base. This is also the first language learning method to consider the learner's communicative competence to certain extent. Despite these positive traits, the theory is declined in practice for its dearth of scientific credibility. However, the theory exerted a major influence on the upcoming teaching methods and still continues to be used in language teaching methodology, although in limited scope.

Check Your Progress

11. Why is Audio-lingual method called the 'Army Method'?
12. What does the Audio-lingual method depend on?
13. What is the goal of the Audio-lingual technique?
14. Name some normal or average strategies intently connected with the Audio lingual Method.

3.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning.

2. *Tékhnē grammatikē* (c. 100 BC; The Art of Letters) was the first widely recognized text to provide a curriculum for learning proper Greek.
3. During most of the 18th and 19th centuries, grammar was viewed as the art or science of correct language in both speech and writing.
4. The first country to adapt GTM was Germany, especially by Prussia. As a result, this method is also referred to as the Prussian Method.
5. The critical traits of GTM are as follows:
 - (i) Classes are taught in the mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
 - (ii) Much vocabulary is taught in the form of list of isolated words.
6. The activities and procedures can be as follows:
 - (i) To read comprehension questions about the text.
 - (ii) To identify antonyms and synonyms from words in the text.
 - (iii) To learn vocabulary chosen from the reading texts.
7. The Grammar Translation Method is based on three assumptions:
 - a. Translation interprets the words and phrases of the foreign language and ensures comprehension of the vocabulary items, collocations and sentences.
 - b. In the process of interpretation, the foreign phraseology is assimilated.
 - c. The structure of the target language is best learnt when compared and contrasted with that of the mother tongue.
8. The focus of this method is to make the learner get himself or herself equipped with the conversational aspect of the second language so that he or she becomes adept in using the second language in his or her day to day life.
9. Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by the association of ideas.
10. The Direct Method tries to teach the second language in the same way as one learns one's mother tongue. The language is taught through demonstration and conversation in context. Therefore, students are quick at understanding the spoken form. It is a natural method which has its benefits.
11. Audio-Lingual Method is called 'Army Method' since this strategy is present since the World War II for the American armed forces who needed to learn dialect rapidly and seriously.
12. The Audio-Lingual technique depends on the hypothesis that dialect learning is an issue of propensity development.

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13. The goal of the Audio-lingual technique is exact articulation and sentence structure, the capacity to react rapidly and precisely in discourse circumstances and information of adequate vocabulary to use with syntax designs.
14. The strategies connected with audio-lingual method are: Dialogs remembrance, Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill), Repetition penetrate, Chain drill, Single-opening Substitution drill, Multiple-space Substitution drill, Transformation drill, Question and Answer drill, Use Minimal Pairs Analysis, Complete the exchange, and Grammar diversions.

3.7 SUMMARY

- Traditional grammar refers to the type of grammar study done prior to the beginnings of modern linguistics. Grammar, in this traditional sense, is the study of the structure and formation of words and sentences, usually without much reference to sound and meaning.
- The analytical study of language began around 500 BC in Greece and India. The work of Greek scholar Dionysius Thrax is the model for all grammars of European languages that follow.
- As printing became more widely available in the Renaissance, European grammarians began the mass production of grammars of their languages by mirroring the Latin grammars of Varro, Donatus, and Priscian.
- Murray's grammar represents a practice that continued to develop throughout the 19th century and was still dominant in the 1960s when linguistics began to focus more on generative and transformational grammar due to Noam Chomsky's groundbreaking and influential ideas.
- Grammar Translation Method (also known as the classical method, the traditional method and the Prussian method) is a method of foreign language teaching in which the main focus is on the study of the target language grammar, vocabulary and finally the translation of native language texts or sentences into the target language.
- GTM was demonstrated after the same principles followed in the teaching of Latin; therefore, formerly it was also called the Classical Method.
- The theory of language underlying the Grammar Translation Method is the Traditional approach to manage linguistics. The proponents of Traditional Linguistics mainly emphasized on the written form of language.
- According to GTM, the role of teaching/learning/instructional materials is to provide literary texts and motivate students to practice exercises on translation. The texts also include vocabulary lists and grammar rules for the students to learn for developing reading, writing and translation skills, instead of listening and speaking.

- The translation exercises help the students to compare the native language with the target language, which, in turn, improve their ability to understand the meaning of words and complicated sentences.
- Modern translation activities usually move from L1 to L2 (although the opposite direction can also be seen in lessons with more specific aims), have clear communicative aims and real cognitive depth, show high motivation levels, and can produce impressive communicative results.
- Subsequent 'humanistic' methodologies, such as the Silent Way and Total Physical Response and communicative approaches moved even further away from the L1, and from these arise the Grammar Translation Method, which was prevalent in foreign language classrooms from the mid-19th century to the mid-20th century.
- During World War II, it became evident that neither the Grammar Translation Method nor the Reading Method was producing students capable of speaking foreign languages well enough to communicate with allies or to understand enemy communications.
- Grammar Translation method as a traditional method highly emphasizes the role of teacher. The teacher is considered as the primary source of knowledge, composer of knowledge and meaning.
- Procedure refers to classroom techniques, practices and behaviours that operate in language teaching.
- According to the Direct Method, English is taught through English. The learner learns the target language through discussion, conversation and reading in the second language. This method was established in Germany and France around 1900.
- Teaching of vocabulary in the direct method is done through pantomiming real-life objects and other visual materials. The tedious process of memorizing vocabularies is prevalent in the grammar-translation method and does not become taxing for learners.
- Many educationists and scholars are of the view that the direct method does not take into account all aspects of language teaching. It emphasizes on the written form and neglects the written aspect of language.
- The Audio-lingual Method is a strategy for remote dialect presentation which emphasized the education of listening and talking before examining and composing. This technique is a mix between behavioural brain research and phonetic.
- In the Audio-lingual Method, the understudies first hear a dialect. Later, they speak the dialect and after that, they read and write in it. Primary language is debilitated in the classroom when this technique is utilized.

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- One of the key standards of the Audio-Lingual technique is that the dialect educator ought to give understudies a local speaker-like model. By tuning in, understudies are relied upon to have the capacity to impersonate the model.
- Drilling means listening to a model, given by the educator, or a tape or another understudy, and repeating what is listened. This is a reiteration, a strategy that is still utilized by numerous instructors while acquainting new dialect things with their understudies.
- Intonation designs that are urgent to importance may likewise be conveniently improved through drilling.
- In the Audio-Lingual technique, the classroom environment is the principle performing artist. Making a casual classroom, non-threatening learning environment is basic for accomplish the fruitful of learning procedure.
- Ordinarily, the technique in an audio lingual course would be as follows:
 - o Students hear a model exchange.
 - o Students repeat every line of the discourse.
 - o Certain watchwords or expressions might be changed in the discourse.
 - o The students improve substitutions in the example drills.

3.8 KEY WORDS

- **Grammar–Translation Method:** It is a method of foreign language teaching in which the main focus is on the study of the target language grammar, vocabulary and finally the translation of native language texts or sentences into the target language.
- **Procedure:** It refers to classroom techniques, practices and behaviours that operate in language teaching.
- **Pantomime:** A theatrical entertainment, mainly for children, which involves music, topical jokes, and slapstick comedy and is based on a fairy tale or a nursery story.
- **Phoneme:** In phonology and linguistics, a phoneme is a unit of sound that distinguishes one word from another in a particular language.
- **Drilling:** It means listening to a model, provided by the teacher, or a tape or another student, and repeating what is heard.
- **Audio-lingual Method:** It is a method of foreign language teaching which emphasizes the teaching of listening and speaking before reading and writing. It utilizes exchanges as the primary type of dialect presentation and drills as the principle preparing strategies.

3.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Give one example each of prescriptive and proscriptive rules.
2. Name two Latin grammars produced in the Middle Ages.
3. What does descriptive approach to grammar allow students to do?
4. List the main principles of Grammar Translation Method.
5. Write a short note on the Theory of Learning underlying the GTM.
6. List one characteristic feature of the direct method.
7. Write a short note on the development of the audio-lingual method.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the history and evolution of grammar studies.
2. Elaborate upon the background of Grammar Translation Method.
3. Examine the advantages of GTM.
4. Analyze the principles of the direct method.
5. Evaluate how drills are useful for learners.

3.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 4 APPROACHES OF TEACHING ENGLISH

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Structure

- 4.0 Introduction
- 4.1 Objectives
- 4.2 Structural Approach
- 4.3 Situational Approach
- 4.4 Oral Approach
- 4.5 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 4.6 Summary
- 4.7 Key Words
- 4.8 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 4.9 Further Readings

4.0 INTRODUCTION

A variety of approaches are adopted for teaching English, most remarkable of these are the structural approach, situational approach and the oral approach. Structural approach is based on the premise that the activity of students is more important than that of the teacher. Likewise, emphasis is laid on speech work and the development of correct language habits among the learners. According to the situational approach, language and words must be taught based on a real situation i.e. the language being taught should be realistic. The third approach i.e. the oral approach focuses on structures, speech and basic vocabulary teaching. In this unit, an analysis of these three approaches to teaching English has been provided.

4.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the principles, characteristics, advantages and disadvantages of Structural Approach of teaching English
- Evaluate the syllabi and background of Situational Approach of teaching English
- Discuss the Oral Approach of teaching English

4.2 STRUCTURAL APPROACH

Structural approach is basically an approach and not a strategy in that capacity. There is a degree for endless experimentation in inventive methods for applying

the Structural Approach in the classroom. Professor C. S. Bhandari has appropriately commented: 'It is not proper and correct to call the Structural Approach a method of teaching. It is not a method; it is an approach. Any method can be used with it.'

The different arrangement or pattern of words is called a structure. Languages have their own structures. There are 325 structures and more than 10,000,00 words in English—the bulkiest language. Structural approach expects the students to learn about 250 basic sentences pattern and 3,500 words at the ends of schooling. It has been found that 100 sentences in English have about 600 structural words.

The basic way to deal with English teaching is a procedure by which understudies are instructed to ace the example of sentences. In the expressions of Menon and Patel, the basic approach depends on the conviction that in the learning of a remote dialect, the dominance of structures is more essential than obtaining vocabulary. This approach utilizes the systems of the immediate strategy for educating. The basic approach is not a strategy in the strict feeling of the term. It is an approach, a procedure, a gadget which can be utilized to put into practice any strategy effectively. It is an approach to show English by utilizing the conventional techniques like linguistics use interpretation or direct strategy, and so forth. As indicated by Professor B. D. Srivastava, 'The basic approach is, indeed, the situational approach of dialect educating.'

According to language experts, Bloomfield and Skinner, the structural approach is established in behaviourism (Richards and Rodgers, 1995), a hypothesis which sees dialect learning as taking in an arrangement of propensities (Brown, 1987). In this approach, components in a dialect are seen as being directly delivered in an administered and represented manner. Dialect tests can be thoroughly depicted at all levels, for example, phonetic, phonemic and morphological. Phonetic levels are viewed as being pyramidically organized from phonemes to morphemes to expressions, provisions and sentences (Richards and Rodgers, 1995). The concentration of dialect educating in the Structural Approach is on discourse (Askes, 1978, Richards and Rodgers, 1995). Another critical fundamental of the approach is that concentration is on learning of the dialect, with the 'doing' being subservient to knowing (Widdowson 1991). The conviction is that language learning comes about by teaching learners to know the forms of the language as a medium and the meaning they incorporate (Widdowson, 1991: 160). Another element of the technique, as indicated by Richards and Rodgers (1995), is non-contextualization of the dialect utilized. Moreover, accentuation is on phonetic skill and exactness, as creation seems to be 'expected to be error free' (Krashen, 1995: 129). Aside from the weariness connected with the strategy, its other real shortcoming is that, as indicated by Yule (1999: 193), 'isolated practice in drilling language patterns bears no resemblance to the interactional nature of actual language use.' Additionally, the strategy is educator overwhelmed (Nunan, 1995).

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Principles of Structural Approach

The principles of structural approach are as follows:

- Speech is very important to fix these structure patterns or ground work in the mind of the learner.
- Activities of the learner are more significant, rather than those of the teacher.
- The student has to fix up habits of language patterns in English. He has to forget, for the time being, the patterns of his own language, that is, his mother tongue.
- The sentence patterns of English are to be picked up, practiced and fixed in mind.

Structure: The different types of structures are as follows:

- Sentence pattern, for example, S+V+O.
- Phrase pattern, for example, Humpty Dumpty sat on a wall (Phrase).
- Formulae and use of common language, such as ‘Good Morning’, ‘Thank You’, and so on.
- Idioms, for example, it was raining cats and dogs.

Selection of Structure: The selection of any structure to be taught in a particular class should be based on the following criteria:

- Usefulness
- Simplicity
- Teachability
- Gradation

The course of action of words in English is critical. The significance of an articulation changes with an adjustment in the word arrange. For example, there is a sentence ‘You are there’. Consider two different sentences made of two words yet put in various request: ‘Are you there?’ and ‘There you are’. The three sentences, albeit worked of a similar vocabulary things, give diverse significance as a result of an alternate route in which the words are organized. These distinctive plan or examples of words are called ‘structures’. Structures may comprise full expressions or they may fall on a part of an expansive example. Linguistic expert F. D. French has characterized a sentence design in these words: ‘The word “design” implies a model from which numerous things of a similar kind and shade can be made like house or shoes which appear to be identical. A sentence example is, along these lines, a model for sentences, which have a similar shade albeit made up of various words. For example, there is a sentence in English: “I composed a letter”. The recipe of this sentence is SVO (Subject – Verb – Object). We can outline innumerate sentences on this example.’

According to analysts in the field of dialect instructing in the UK and USA, it is more vital for the learner of the dialect to get authority over the structures than

on vocabulary. So far, we have focused more on the instructing of vocabulary than that of structures. A great deal of work has been done on the determination and degree of vocabulary; yet little work has been done on the choice and degree of structures. It is as imperative to figure out how to assemble words as it is to know their significance. Unless the learners get comfortable with the example of English, he will not have the capacity to utilize vocabulary. The strategy that is utilized is known as the Oral Method or the Audio-Lingual Method.

The structure approach just lays accentuation on drills. Since dialect is fundamentally talk, talking in a dialect implies capacity to talk the dialect. The structures, accordingly, are penetrated orally first before the learner can read or think of them. In addition, since dialect learning involves propensity arrangement, it requires reiteration so that the dialect propensities that are developed amid the learning procedure might be held. A class, which is educated a dialect through the basic approach, is more enthusiastic than different classes in which the educator just talks and the understudies are simple audience.

The determination of structures to be taught relies upon the normal capacity of the understudies, the designation of time and the accessibility of types of gear. The accompanying standards ought to be conceived as a top priority while selecting structures:

1. **Usefulness:** While selecting and grading structures, we should adopt frequency and utility. The structures, which are more frequent in use, should be introduced first.
2. **Productivity:** Some structures are productive; other structures can be built on them. For instance, we have two sentence patterns:
 - Mr. John is here
 - Here is Mr. John

The former pattern is productive because we can frame many sentence on the same pattern like: 'He is there', or 'She is there', and so on. We can frame many such sentences from the latter pattern as well.

3. **Simplicity:** The simplicity of structure depends on the form and meaning. The structure 'I am playing cricket' is far simpler in form and meaning than 'The patient had died before the doctor came'. The simpler structure should be preferred to the complicated one.
4. **Teachability:** Some structures can be taught more easily than others. For example, the structure 'I am writing' can be taught easily because the action, which it denotes, can be demonstrated in a realistic situation. To teach this structure, the teacher will say:
 - I played at 4 yesterday.
 - I played at 4 the day before yesterday.
 - I will play at 4 tomorrow.
 - I play at 4 every day.

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Gradation of Structure

Structures are to be graded in the order of difficulty. Simple structures should precede the more difficult ones. The following are some of the patterns that should be taught at early stages:

1. Two-part patterns: He / goes.
2. Three-part patterns: He / plays / cricket.
3. Four-part patterns: She / gave / me / a book.
4. Patterns beginning with 'there': There are twenty students in this class.
5. Patterns beginning with 'a question verb':
 - Is she coming?
 - Will he go?
 - Has he brought the book?
6. Patterns beginning with 'wh' type question:
 - How are you?
 - What does he do?
7. Patterns of command and request:
 - Sit down
 - Please come here

Of the seven sorts of examples specified here, the three section designs and the example starting with 'there' happen much of the time. Every example typifies an essential purpose of sentence structure and just a single importance of single word is instructed at once. In addition, the structures are evaluated in such a way, to the point, that a structure takes after the first one normally. Amid the learning of the structures, the children consequently learn linguistic use likewise (learns syntax, word arrange and the utilization of words or use). In this way, he stays away from basic mistakes in language structure and organization. This approach lays accentuation on the four aptitudes: tuning in, talking, perusing and composing.

Quick discourse examples are educated with the assistance of printed material. Children, consequently, begin communicating in English before they read or compose it. The British Council assumes an unmistakable part in advancing this approach for the educating of English in India. Consequently, the NCERT (National Council of Education Research and Training) presents the auxiliary syllabuses and gets ready books or showing materials in expounding with the Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages (CIEFL), Hyderabad. The books arranged by the NCERT have been embraced by the CBSE (Central Board of Secondary Education) furthermore by the different sheets of training in different conditions of India. At present, English is being instructed by auxiliary approach in the maximum number of schools in the country.

Major Characteristics

The major characteristics of the structural syllabus are as follows:

- **Theoretical Bases:** The underlying assumptions behind the Structural Syllabus are that:
 - Language is a system which consists of a set of grammatical rules; learning language means learning these rules and then applying them to practical language use.
 - The syllabus input is selected and graded according to grammatical notions of simplicity and complexity. These syllabuses introduce one item at a time and require mastery of that item before moving on to the next.
 - This type of syllabus maintains that it is easier for students to learn a language if they are exposed to one part of the grammatical system at a time.
- **Content:** The substance of the syllabus is controlled by giving top need to educating the syntax or structure of the objective dialect.

The Structural Syllabus by and large comprises two segments:

- (a) A rundown of semantic structures, that is, the linguistic use to be educated, and
- (b) A rundown of words, that is, the dictionary to be instructed.

Sequencing and Grading: Very frequently, the things on every rundown are orchestrated all together, indicating which are to be instructed in the primary course, and in the second, et cetera. The criteria for sequencing are different. The instructor respects the things from the perspective of levels or stages.

Objectives: Grammar makes up the centre of the syllabus. Whatever standards are taken after, taking in a dialect implies figuring out how to ace the sentence structure principles of the objective dialect. It is additionally expected that the understudies will learn sufficient essential vocabulary.

The educator, after taking in the syllabus, may utilize either Audio-Lingual Method or Grammar Translation Method, or a mix of the two or a mixed approach. Whichever he utilizes, the substance of the syllabus is controlled by giving top need to instructing the linguistic use or structure of the dialect.

Technique: In the underlying phase of educating, the etymological parts of the kind of execution coveted are dissected. Next, the dialect is separated into little syntactic parts and introduced in an entirely controlled arrangement. The succession is orchestrated as per expanding intricacy, from straightforward syntactic structure to more intricate linguistic structure. The instructor moves dynamically through the syllabus until, hypothetically, every one of the structures of the objective dialect have been educated. The learner's occupation is to re-integrate the dialect that has been dismantled and display it to him in little parts. This blend happens just in the last phase of inclining the supposed the propelled arrange.

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Advantages

Many learning standards certain in an auxiliary approach are sound. The benefits of a Structural Syllabus are as follows:

- (b) The learner moves from less complex to more mind boggling linguistic structures and may get to handle the syntactic framework more effectively.
- (c) Teaching and testing are generally basic, since educators manage discrete-point learning and aptitudes. The instructors require not be familiar with the dialect they educate, since linguistic clarifications and drills do not require an abnormal state of dialect capability.
- (d) It is especially useful to create composing aptitudes.
- (e) It improves the understudy's fundamental vocabulary.
- (f) Sequencing and choice of showing things is not as troublesome as it is with different syllabuses.

Disadvantages

In spite of its various points of interest, it has a couple of inadequacies as well. The downsides of a Structural Syllabus are as follows:

- The potential drawback of Structural Syllabus is that it over-accentuates dialect structure and dismisses open fitness. It does not address the prompt correspondence needs of the learner who is taking in a dialect inside the setting of a group where the dialect is talked. Truth be told, the sociolinguistic parts of open ability are not in the centre at all in an entirely auxiliary syllabus. It is, hence, more valuable in a setting where the dialect learner does not have quickly correspondence needs.
- It hampers the understudy's innovative sides since it limits him/her inside the dividers of some particular principles.
- Here the part of the understudy is latent, since the educator is choosing what to instruct. In this way, an educator rules the syllabus.

An Overall View

The structural approach as linguistic expert Kripa K. Gautam states 'depends on the conviction that dialect comprises "structures" and that the dominance of these structures is more essential than the procurement of vocabulary. Since structure is what is critical and one of a kind about a dialect, early practice ought to concentrate on dominance of phonological and linguistic structures as opposed to on authority of vocabulary'. This approach emphasizes the teaching and learning of the basic items or materials that constitute the framework of a language. The reason for the rise of this approach was that the broad research led on English dialect instructing as an outside dialect at the University of London organization of education. The types of this approach consider that dialect comprises 'structures' and structures

are more vital than the vocabulary. These structures are reviewed in terms of importance and shape.

The expression 'auxiliary', as indicated by Kripa K. Gautam, 'is alluded to the accompanying attributes:

- (a) Elements in a language are linearly produced in a rule governed way.
- (b) Language samples can be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonemic, morphological and syntactic).
- (c) Linguistic levels are thought of as a system-within-systems. These sub-systems are pyramidically structured-phonemic systems leading to morphemic systems, and those in turn lead to be higher level systems of phrases, clauses and sentences.

The two essential features of this approach are careful grading of structures and vocabulary control. J. B. Bruton in a working paper presented at the Nagpur Seminar in 1958 summarises the basic assumptions regarding the nature of language and the methods best suited for the presentation of linguistic items. He says:

- (a) Language is primarily a spoken thing and... therefore, our approach to a foreign language should in a first instance be through its spoken forms;
- (b) ...mastery over the signalling system of a language is more important than detailed knowledge of the forms of the language;
- (c) ...this mastery is best acquired by repetition of the various components of the system in varied forms;
- (d) ... since language arises from situation, the teacher's task is to create meaningful situations from which language will arise easily and naturally;
- (e) ... mastery over a given range of structures and confidence in their use are best imparted by concentrating on the teaching of one item at a time; and
- (f) ...each item must be firmly established orally before pupils encounter it in their textbooks'.

Yardi defines the term 'structures' as an 'internal ordering of linguistic items', and further adds that structures may be defined as 'devices that we use to make signals, to convey meanings, and indicate relationship'. Yardi additionally brings up that in spite of the fact that the terms 'structure' and 'patterns' are by and large utilized reciprocally by a few educators; they are not indistinguishable, as the previous has a semantic introduction, while the last has an educational introduction. Along these lines, the basic approach depends on structures which have been precisely chosen and reviewed. As per Dr (Mrs) Sharada V. Bhat, 'Choice of structure is made on four standards: handiness, profitability, straightforwardness, and assertiveness'.

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She additionally includes that, 'the basic approach recognizes two sorts of structures: beneficial structures and other structures.'

Beneficial structures, as Dr. Bhat opines, are those with which different structures can be manufactured. Normally, the profitable structures are given more significance, since after the dominance of those structures, the understudy can manufacture different structures without anyone else's input. A few structures can be instructed effortlessly with exhibition.

As per C. Paul Verghese, 'A language is best learnt through practice in real situations; this is because of the close relation that exists between experience and expression.' Verghese additionally includes that 'there are two sorts of circumstances: genuine and manufactured... Each structure must be experienced and drilled in a setting of circumstance'.

The concentrated practice in this approach gives numerous chances to the learner. In India, this approach has been discovered as compelling at lower levels, however, lacking at more elevated amounts.

Another restriction of this approach is that the concentrated monotony of structures may turn mechanical soon. Yardi discovers one fundamental insufficiency with this approach: 'they don't create "open fitness", and he additionally expresses that 'the basic approach may help in making right sentences; it flops in helping the learner to make remedy utterances'. Without making any overstated cases for this approach, we may state that it is very successful in the hands of prepared and committed educators.

The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach

This approach, famously known as the S-O-S approach, appeared as another option to the immediate technique. It is a result of the tests completed in the armed force camps during World War.

Dialect is seen as basically related components including phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence sorts. The hypothesis fundamental to this approach is that dialect exists in circumstances; it cannot be utilized as a part of vacuum. Dialect is utilized by requirements of the situation. In perspective of this, situational utilize of English is gone for in this approach.

Noticeable names connected with this approach are Charles Fries, Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby. Harold Palmer brings up that there are three procedures in taking in a dialect getting the information or materials, settling it in the memory by redundancy, and utilizing it in real practice until it turns into an individual aptitude. By utilizing important circumstances, the utilization of the first language can be kept away. In perspective of this, language expert Geetha Nagraj proposes that these dialect things ought to be given in important circumstances, which will help the learners to derive the significance and the setting from the circumstance in which it is used. Condensing the qualities of this approach, Geetha Nagraj says:

- Discourse is the premise of dialect instructing new dialect things and vocabulary things are exhibited orally before they are displayed in the composed frame.
- The dialect things which are regularly utilized by local speakers in their everyday dialect are chosen for instructing.
- The things are additionally reviewed by helpfulness, recurrence and openness to instruction.
- The dialect things chosen in this manner are introduced and drilled in important circumstances.
- Vocabulary things are chosen with reference to the general administration list.
- Perusing and composing depend on things which have as of now been presented and honed orally.

This approach was introduced in 1975 but soon, a few questions were likewise raised on its proficiency. In Prabhu's words, 'the S-O-S standards were progressively being addressed, predominantly on the grounds that learners rehearse circumstance didn't guarantee that they could make sentences accurately in different settings, and that, in spite of the fact that learners appear to take in their order of dialect structure at the end of a basically evaluated course, enduring quite a long while, was still exceptionally unacceptable, requires great arrangement of medicinal re-educating which, thus, prompted to also inadmissible results.'

Conclusion

Regardless of its downsides, structural approach is still the most acknowledged model for planning course arranges. Thus, we can neither reject nor segregate this kind of syllabus altogether. There is no presence of a flawless syllabus sort, and the Structural Syllabus is no exemption in this regard. In this way, it is astute to choose a joined or integrative syllabus, as opposed to a specific one. Furthermore, the Structural Syllabus is sufficiently qualified to give some vital rules to the joined syllabus. English in India is a universal language in a multilingual nation. The level of presentation of English is currently a matter of political reaction to individuals' desires as opposed to a scholarly or attainability issue.

Check Your Progress

1. How many structures and words are there in English?
2. List two principles of the structural approach.
3. What does the determination of structures to be educated rely upon?
4. List any three benefits of a structural syllabus.

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4.3 SITUATIONAL APPROACH

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Few dialect educators today know about the term Situational Language Teaching, which alludes to a way to deal with dialect instructing. It was created from the 1930s to the 1960s by British connected etymologists Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby, two of the most unmistakable figures in British twentieth-century dialect instructing. They endeavoured to build up a more 'informative' way to deal with dialect instructing. In the same way as other others, Palmer and Hornby believed that a linguistic or auxiliary syllabus was neither productive nor powerful for dialect learning since this model offers dialect tests outside their social settings, which make exchange of gaining from the classroom to this present reality very troublesome.

Hornby's *Guide to Patterns and Usage in English*, initially distributed in 1954, depends on a sequenced dialect syllabus together with techniques for presenting each new thing by connecting it to a specific classroom circumstance and along these lines, current ways to deal with situational syllabus plan, be that as it may, go past the classroom and present different 'genuine living' circumstances. Another dynamic advocate of the Situational Approach in the 1960s was Australian etymologist George Pittman. Pittman and his associates were in charge of building up a powerful arrangement of showing materials in view of the Situational Approach, which were broadly utilized in Australia, New Guinea and the Pacific regions.

Situational Syllabi

The primary concentration of a situational syllabus is on the utilization of dialect as a social medium. The etymological preface of this syllabus is that dialect is constantly utilized as a part of setting, never in confinement, and the decision of phonetic structures are limited by social circumstances. The instructive commence is that there ought to be an alternate syllabus for various learners, in view of the individual needs of the learners.

Rationale: The rationale behind a situational syllabus is that if the substance of dialect instructing is framed by a scope of genuine or fanciful behavioural or experiential circumstances in which a remote dialect is utilized, the situational syllabus accommodates solid settings inside which one can learn dialect structures. In this way, it becomes simpler for most learners to envision, and this, thus, helps in advancing the understudies' inspiration.

Syllabus Type: Since situational syllabi are composed as far as the reasons for which individuals are taking in the dialect and the sorts of dialect execution that are important to meet those reasons, situational syllabi are normally alluded to as an item arranged, diagnostic syllabi whereby learners are required to accomplish situational dialect precision.

Assumption: The creator of a situational syllabus endeavours to foresee those circumstances in which the learner will discover him/herself and utilize these

circumstances (e.g., an eatery, a plane, a mail station, and so on) as a reason for selecting and introducing dialect content. The fundamental presumption is that dialect is identified with the situational settings in which it happens.

Components: A situational syllabus will commonly incorporate the following components:

- The physical setting in which the dialect occasion happens (for example, finding a room, requesting a supper, purchasing stamps or getting around town).
- The channel of correspondence. Is it talked or composed?
- The dialect movement. Is it profitable or open?
- The number and the character of the members.
- The connections between the members and the kind of action.

Clearly, unique syllabuses will come about for various sorts of learners. The correct substance of a syllabus will be the aftereffect of a cautious behavioural forecast. It will comprise a stock of dialect circumstances and a portrayal of the semantic substance of each of these circumstances.

Types

There are three sorts of situational syllabi. These are as follows:

- **Concrete:** Situations are carried on to particular settings, utilizing particular examples.
- **Mythical:** Situations rely on anecdotal characters in an anecdotal place.
- **Limbo:** Specific setting of the circumstance is of practically no significance. What is critical is the specific dialect included.

The Effect of Situational Approach on Language Teaching

Dialect showing starts with the talked dialect. The material is educated orally before it is exhibited in a composed frame. Situational dialect educating receives an inductive way to deal with the instructing of linguistic use. Clarification is accordingly disheartened and the learner is relied upon to conclude the significance of a specific structure or vocabulary from the circumstance in which it is exhibited.

Stretching out structures and vocabulary to new circumstances happens by speculation. The learner is relied upon to apply the dialect learned in a classroom to circumstances outside the classroom.

Exactness in both elocution and linguistic use is viewed as pivotal and mistakes are to be avoided, no matter what. Programmed control of essential structures and sentence examples is major to perusing and composing aptitudes, and this is accomplished through discourse work.

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Honing strategies utilized regularly comprise guided redundancy and substitution exercises, including theme reiteration, correspondence, penetrates, and controlled oral-based perusing and composing assignments.

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An Evaluation of Situational Syllabi

The best qualities of the situational syllabus are as follows:

- Express consideration is paid to the impact of social variables on dialect decision, particularly to registeral variety (i.e., at the point when to be formal versus casual).
- It might rouse learners to see that what they are realizing is 'real living' language that really meets their most squeezing regular correspondence needs. The inadequacies of the situational syllabus, be that as it may, are many.

While certain dialect capacities will probably happen in certain physical situational settings, for example, 'At the Post Office' or 'In a Restaurant', this does not really imply that all the dialect frames that will be utilized can be anticipated. One may go into an eatery, not to arrange a dinner, but rather just to request headings to an adjacent exhibition hall. Henceforth, a situational syllabus will be restricted for understudies whose requirements are not included by the circumstances in the syllabus. Essentially said, dialect clients are genuine individuals and not just robots in circumstances.

The presence of artificial exchanges in many existing materials, which both outline repetitive linguistic examples and present handy expressions for a situational setting, frequently incorporate talk that could never be utilized as a part of common dialect. Consequently, dialect as honed in the classroom and dialect as talked in this present reality will frequently have little in like manner.

An Overall View

There is an extensive level headed discussion among etymologists and analysts with regards to the way of dialect. Dialect learning, specifically, is described by change; in the 1930s, for instance, it implied precise interpretation of readings; however, in the 1950s, it implied simple capacity in oral cognizance and oral generation. The birthplace of this change is fairly to be found in the hypothetical ideas which cause relating shifts in thoughts of acquiring, instruct or take in a dialect.

This leads us to the expression 'approach' which as per Edward M Anthony is 'a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language teaching and learning'. According to this definition, any approach is fundamentally a gathering of inherent convictions which serve as a structure to a particular attitude toward dialect. Now, we regularly understand that methodologies are in and out of style; that is, on the grounds that a few endeavours end up being more powerful than others amid a given period. An approach is 'in' when broadly utilized strategies and methods are made up as indicated by its standards; and, in the like manner, the effect might be followed in current classroom hones.

Created by British connected etymologists in the 1930s, the Situational Approach has survived, in this way, by finishing later methodologies and procedures, for example, Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, The Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, and so forth.

As per the Situational Approach, and to guarantee that the dialect that is being educated is reasonable, every word and sentence must be out of some genuine circumstance or envisioned genuine circumstance. Consequently, the significance of words are tied up with the circumstances in which they are utilized. The learners know the importance of ‘chalkboard’, not on account of what they have found it in a lexicon, but since they have taken in the word in circumstances; by listening to summons, for example, ‘Take a gander at the slate!’, ‘Clean the board!’, ‘Write on the writing board!’, and so on. This case focuses on the relationship between ‘board’ and the activity of ‘taking a gander at it’, ‘cleaning it’, or ‘composing’ on it. Regardless of the possibility that the classroom environment is constrained, the instructor’s creativity ought to be put into practice in the affectation of a circumstance grabbed from outside the classroom.

Since the reason for instructing a remote dialect is to empower the learners to utilize it, then it must be listened, talked, perused and written in appropriate practical circumstances. Neither interpretation nor mechanical drills can help on the off chance that they are not associated with reasonable life. The distinction between American structuralists, for example, Fries and the British connected language specialists, for example, Firth and Halliday, lies in the way that structures must be introduced in circumstances in which they could be utilized.

The situational environment ought to be exhibited in a manner that even the slowest learner gets included in what the educator or alternate learners do and say in the classroom. Making the learners collaborate with each other underlines the social touch of this approach. Learners are constantly energetic to partake in pretend circumstances, particularly when they accept parts and establish a circumstance before whatever remains of the class.

The theory backing up the Situational Approach includes the following principles:

- Language learning is habit formation.
- Mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits.
- Language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first and then in written form.
- Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis.
- The meaning of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context.

‘Method’ denotes a theoretically consistent set of teaching process that defines the best practice in language teaching. Methods give educators a nature of

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'language' and 'language learning' (approach), need based discoveries (design) and skills to implement (procedure) in imparting education. We can further say that each method has come out from an approach which has design (objective, syllabus, teacher and student's role, and instructional materials) to be implemented and method (techniques and instructional patterns) to be adopted in the class (Richards & Rodgers 2001: 3-35). One of those methods was the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching.

Background

The development of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching is extended crosswise over 1920s to 1960s. It rose as a change over the old Direct Method which was monolingual, inductive, and illustrative and elocution centred technique. In 1930s, the concentration range of English dialect examination was vocabulary for perusing capability and creating instructing materials.

The organizers of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching Method were Harold Palmer, A. S. Hornby, Michael West and other British connected etymologists. Amid his stay in Japan, Harold Palmer attempted to show syntax through oral approach. While attempting to base a more logical and particular technique, Harold Palmer (1917) developed a general rationale that was connected in all dialects of the world, and it was the instructors' obligation to comprehend and apply those in the class.

Michael West, while analyzing the part of English in India in 1920s, inferred that vocabulary was an imperative segment for perusing capability and remote dialect learning. These discoveries drove the researchers to propose the first ever 'standard of syllabus plan' in dialect educating. Hornby changed punctuation into structures of 'sentence design' (substitution table) which planned to help learners, disguising the grammatical rules.

Check Your Progress

5. What is the rationale behind a situational syllabus?
6. What do 'methods' in a situational approach give to educators?
7. Who were the organizers of Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching Method?

4.4 ORAL APPROACH

Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied language specialists from the 1920s ahead built up a way to deal with strategy that involved systematic standards of determination (the methodology by which lexical and syntactic content was picked), degree (standards by which the association and sequencing of substance were resolved), and presentation (strategies utilized for presentation and routine of things

in a course). Although all of Palmer, Hornby, and other English specialists and had diverse perspectives on the particular systems in showing English, their general standards were referred to as the Oral Approach to dialect learning. The oral approach or situational approach was the accepted British way to deal with English dialect instructing by 1950s.

An oral approach should not be mistaken for the out of date Direct Method, which implied just that the learner was dazed by a stream of ungraded discourse, enduring all troubles he would have experienced in grabbing the dialect in its ordinary surroundings and losing the vast majority of the remunerating advantages of better contextualization in those circumstances. (Pattison 1964:4).

A standout amongst the most active advocates of the oral approach was the Australian George Pittman. Pittman and his associates were in charge of building up a powerful arrangement of showing material in view of situational approach. These were distributed for worldwide use in 1965 as the arrangement Situational English. The principle attributes of the approach were:

- Language showing starts mind the talked dialect. Material is educated orally before it is displayed in composed frame.
- The target dialect is the dialect in the classroom.
- New dialect focuses are presented and polished situationally.
- Vocabulary selection methodology are taken after to ensure that a fundamental general administration vocabulary is secured.
- Items of grammar are evaluated taking after the rule that basic structures ought to be taught before complex ones.
- Reading and composing are presented once an adequate lexical and syntactic premise is set up.

Situational dialect instructing is a term not generally utilized today, but rather it is an approach created by British connected etymologists in the 1930s to the 1960s, and which affected dialect courses which make due in some as yet being utilized today (Richards and Rogers, 1986). This approach offers with the Direct Method the way that they are both oral methodologies aside from that the Situational Method is more orderly as far as the standards and strategies that could be connected and the determination of the substance of a dialect course. The concentration of this approach was for the most part on vocabulary and linguistic use control, and there was a propensity in the 1920s towards creating efficient standards of choice, degree and presentation of materials to dialect learners. In the sixties, there was an accentuation on the standard of presenting and rehearsing new dialect focuses situationally, and 'it was then that the term situational was utilized progressively to allude to the Oral Approach' (Richards and Rogers, 1986: 34).

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Approach, design and objectives

The Structural perspective of dialect is the view behind the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. Discourse was seen as the premise of dialect and structure as being at the heart of talking capacity. This was a view like American structuralists, for example, Fries, yet the thought of the British connected etymologists, for example, Firth and Halliday, that structures must be introduced in circumstances in which they could be utilized, gave its peculiarity to Situational dialect instructing.

The theory of learning underlying Situational Language Teaching is behaviourism, tending to increasingly the procedures, than the states of learning. It incorporates the accompanying standards:

- Language learning is habit-formation.
- Mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits.
- Language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form.
- Analogy is a better foundation for language learning than analysis.
- The meanings of words can be learned only in a linguistic and cultural context.
- Objectives of situational language teaching include the following:
- A practical command of the four basic skills of a language, through structure.
- Accuracy in both pronunciation and grammar.
- Ability to respond quickly and accurately in speech situations.
- Automatic control of basic structures and sentence patterns.

A typical procedure in situational language teaching is as follows:

- Procedures move from controlled to freer practice of structures.
- Procedures move from oral use of sentence patterns to their automatic use in speech, reading and writing.

Points of Criticism

1. Focus is fundamentally given to discourse which was viewed as the premise of dialect and structure was seen similar to the heart of talking capacity. This prompted to less significance to different capacities, for example, composing.
2. This technique has been reprimanded for being tedious. Its emphasis on giving the significance of words and structures through sensation, exhibit and relationship without depending on the native language has prompted to the utilizing of circuitous systems which are time squandering (Al-Mutawa and Kailani, 1989).

3. The learner is required to reason the significance of a specific structure or vocabulary thing from the circumstance in which it is exhibited which may prompt to disarray with respect to the learner and misconception.
4. The learner is relied upon to apply the dialect learned in the classroom to circumstances outside the classroom. The issue here is that it is not ensured that learners would apply what they have realized, and regardless of the possibility that they will do as such it is not ensured that they would have the capacity to do it particularly in nations where the dialect scholarly is not utilized much of the time.
5. Errors are not endured. This could bring about anxiety which may block the learning procedure.
6. Precision in both articulation and language structure are viewed as essential.
7. There is no specify to open capacity and appropriateness in this technique.

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Conclusion

Talking over both the focal points and the weaknesses of this way to deal with dialect educating, an equipped educator could make utilization of the prior and maintain a strategic distance from the later. It should be comprehended that, in dialect instructing, there is nobody consummate approach or technique. What could be fruitful is an approach that mixes diverse ways to deal with yield the professionals of each. Along these lines, this approach could be received, for instance, in showing elocution or vocabulary with learners and kept away from with regards to showing dialect for communicative purposes.

Check Your Progress

8. What were Pittman and his associates in charge of?
9. List three standards that behaviourism incorporates.

4.5 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. There are 325 structures and more than 10,000,00 words in English.
2. The principles of structural approach are as follows:
 - (i) Speech is very important to fix these structure patterns or ground work in the mind of the learner.
 - (ii) Activities of the learner are more significant, rather than those of the teacher.
3. The determination of structures to be educated relies on upon the normal capacity of the understudies, the designation of time and the accessibility of types of gear.

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4. The benefits of a Structural Syllabus are as follows:
 - It is especially useful to create composing aptitudes.
 - It improves the understudy's fundamental vocabulary.
 - Sequencing and choice of showing things is not as troublesome as it is with different syllabuses.
5. The rationale behind a situational syllabus is that if the substance of dialect instructing is framed by a scope of genuine or fanciful behavioural or experiential circumstances in which a remote dialect is utilized, the situational syllabus accommodates solid settings inside which one can learn dialect structures.
6. Methods give educators a nature of 'language' and 'language learning' (approach), need based discoveries (design) and skills to implement (procedure) in imparting education.
7. The organizers of the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching Method were Harold Palmer, A. S. Hornby, Michael West and other British connected etymologists.
8. Pittman and his associates were in charge of building up a powerful arrangement of showing material in view of situational approach.
9. Behaviourism incorporates the accompanying standards:
 - Language learning is habit-formation.
 - Mistakes are bad and should be avoided, as they make bad habits.
 - Language skills are learned more effectively if they are presented orally first, then in written form.

4.6 SUMMARY

- The different arrangement or pattern of words is called a structure. Languages have their own structures. There are 325 structures and more than 10,000,00 words in English—the bulkiest language.
- According to language experts, Bloomfield and Skinner, the structural approach is established in behaviourism, a hypothesis which sees dialect learning as taking in an arrangement of propensities. In this approach, components in a dialect are seen as being directly delivered in an administered and represented manner.
- A critical fundamental of the structural approach is that concentration is on learning of the dialect, with the 'doing' being subservient to knowing. The conviction is that language learning comes about by teaching learners to know the forms of the language as a medium and the meaning they incorporate.

- According to analysts in the field of dialect instructing in the UK and USA, it is more vital for the learner of the dialect to get authority over the structures than on vocabulary.
- The determination of structures to be taught relies on upon the normal capacity of the understudies, the designation of time and the accessibility of types of gear.
- Some structures can be taught more easily than others. For example, the structure 'I am writing' can be taught easily because the action, which it denotes, can be demonstrated in a realistic situation.
- Amid the learning of the structures, the children consequently learn linguistic use likewise (learns syntax, word arrange and the utilization of words or use). In this way, he stays away from basic mistakes in language structure and organization.
- Language is a system which consists of a set of grammatical rules; learning language means learning these rules and then applying them to practical language use.
- Grammar makes up the centre of the syllabus in the structural approach. Whatever standards are taken after, taking in a dialect implies figuring out how to ace the sentence structure principles of the objective dialect.
- The potential drawback of Structural Syllabus is that it over-accentuates dialect structure and dismisses open fitness. It does not address the prompt correspondence needs of the learner who is taking in a dialect inside the setting of a group where the dialect is talked.
- Since structure is what is critical and one of a kind about a dialect, early practice ought to concentrate on dominance of phonological and linguistic structures as opposed to on authority of vocabulary.
- Yardi defines the term 'structures' as an 'internal ordering of linguistic items', and further adds that structures may be defined as 'devices that we use to make signals, to convey meanings, and indicate relationship'.
- Dialect is seen as basically related components including phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence sorts. The hypothesis fundamental to the S-O-S approach is that dialect exists in circumstances; it cannot be utilized as a part of vacuum. Dialect is utilized by requirements of the situation.
- Few dialect educators today know about the term Situational Language Teaching, which alludes to a way to deal with dialect instructing. It was created from the 1930s to the 1960s by British connected etymologists Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby, two of the most unmistakable figures in British twentieth-century dialect instructing.

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- The primary concentration of a situational syllabus is on the utilization of dialect as a social medium. The etymological preface of this syllabus is that dialect is constantly utilized as a part of setting, never in confinement, and the decision of phonetic structures are limited by social circumstances.
- Honing strategies utilized regularly comprise guided redundancy and substitution exercises, including theme reiteration, correspondence, penetrates, and controlled oral-based perusing and composing assignments.
- Created by British connected etymologists in the 1930s, the Situational Approach has survived, in this way, by finishing later methodologies and procedures, for example, Audio-Lingual Method, Communicative Language Teaching, Total Physical Response, The Silent Way, Community Language Learning, The Natural Approach, Suggestopedia, and so forth.
- Michael West, while analyzing the part of English in India in 1920s, inferred that vocabulary was an imperative segment for perusing capability and remote dialect learning.
- Palmer, Hornby, and other British applied language specialists from the 1920s ahead built up a way to deal with strategy that involved systematic standards of determination (the methodology by which lexical and syntactic content was picked), degree (standards by which the association and sequencing of substance were resolved), and presentation (strategies utilized for presentation and routine of things in a course).
- The Structural perspective of dialect is the view behind the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching. Discourse was seen as the premise of dialect and structure as being at the heart of talking capacity.

4.7 KEY WORDS

- **Behaviourism:** It is an approach to psychology and learning that emphasizes observable measurable behaviour. The behaviourist theory of animal and human learning focuses only on objectively observable behaviours and discounts mental activities.
- **Phonetics:** It is a branch of linguistics that studies how humans make and perceive sounds, or in the case of sign languages, the equivalent aspects of sign.
- **Dialect:** It refers to a particular form of a language which is peculiar to a specific region or social group.
- **Structural Syllabus:** It is a product-oriented syllabus based on grammatical structures graded according to complexity.
- **Structural-Oral-Situational Approach (S-O-S approach):** It is the systematic presentation and practice of carefully selected and graded grammatical structures of English in effective and meaningful situations.

- **Elocution:** It is the skill of clear and expressive speech, especially of distinct pronunciation and articulation
- **Etymology:** It is the study of the history of words. By extension, the etymology of a word means its origin and development throughout history.

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4.8 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. List the different types of structures in the structural approach.
2. How has F.D. French characterized a sentence design?
3. State the two segments that the structural syllabus contains.
4. What are the two essential features of the structural approach?
5. What are the three types of situational syllabi?
6. What are the principal attributes of the oral approach?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the standards that ought to be conceived as a top priority while selecting structures.
2. Elaborate upon the major characteristics of structural design.
3. Evaluate the approach, design and objectives of Oral Approach.

4.9 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK III
SPOKEN ENGLISH

NOTES

**UNIT 5 SPEECH AND
SOUND SYSTEM**

Structure

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Objectives
- 5.2 The Organs of Speech
- 5.3 Production of Sounds
- 5.4 Description of Vowels and Diphthongs
- 5.5 Consonants
 - 5.5.1 Description of Consonants
- 5.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 5.7 Summary
- 5.8 Key Words
- 5.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 5.10 Further Readings

5.0 INTRODUCTION

The organs of speech are grouped into three categories namely, the respiratory system, phonatory system and the articulatory system. The respiratory system consists of the muscles of the chest and the windpipe, phonatory system comprises of the larynx in the throat and the articulatory system consists of a number of organs such as the pharynx, lips, teeth, uvula, etc. These organs are responsible for the production of speech and the articulation as well as the intonation varies according to the organ being used. Subsequently, depending on the sounds produced, words can be categorized into vowels and consonants, both of which are further categorized into other types such as plosives, affricates, fricatives and so on. This unit focuses on the organs of speech and the description of vowels as well as consonants.

5.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the various organs of speech
- Understand the production of sounds

- Examine the description of Vowels
- Analyze the description of Consonants

5.2 THE ORGANS OF SPEECH

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The air that we breathe out is modified in various ways. This results in various combinations of sounds such as consonants and vowels. Therefore, speech is also sometimes referred to as ‘modified breathing’. The organs of speech and their speech functions can be described with reference to three systems which are discussed as follows:

Respiratory System

The respiratory system comprises the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe (also known as trachea). The primary function of the lungs is to breathe or respire. The muscles of the chest expand and contract to let the air flow in and out. The function of the respiratory system is to let the air pass through the windpipe (trachea) towards the glottis so that it produces sounds.

Phonatory system

The phonatory system of human beings (Fig. 5.1) consists of the larynx in the throat. When the air comes out of the lungs, it is modified in the upper part of the trachea where the larynx is situated. The larynx is a muscular structure in the front part of the neck and is also known as the ‘Adam’s apple.’ It contains a pair of muscular bands or folds which are called vocal cords. They are placed horizontally from the front to the back, and are joined at the front but separated at the back. The space between the cords is called the glottis.

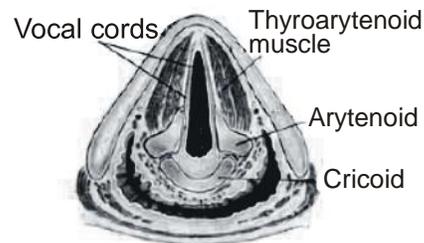


Fig. 5.1 *The Phonatory System*

As the vocal cords are separated at the back to let the air flow out, it can assume many positions. Based on the opening of the vocal cords, we can primarily talk about three important kinds of sounds that are produced:

Voiceless sounds: When the vocal cords are spread apart, the air from the lungs passes between them unimpeded, and the sounds produced is described as voiceless sounds. A few examples of voiceless sounds in English are sit, sheet, and fever, think.

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Voiced sounds: When the vocal cords are loosely held together, the air passes through them and causes vibration in the vocal chords. The sounds created in this manner are called voiced sounds. For example, the consonantal sounds in English such as veil, these, zoo, me, nose are all voiced sounds. It should be noted here that whereas all English vowels are voiced, some English consonants are voiced, some are voiceless.

Glottal stop: The vocal cords are tightly held together so that no air can escape from them. They are suddenly drawn apart and an explosive sound is created. This is known as glottal stop. The sounds in English such as aunt, end and apple are examples of glottal stop.

Articulatory system

The air that we breathe out passes through the vocal cords. It is modified further in different parts of the oral and nasal cavities to produce different sounds. The various articulators such as pharynx, lips, teeth, teeth ridge, hard palate, soft palate, uvula and tongue take different positions to make different sounds. This is represented in Figure 5.2.

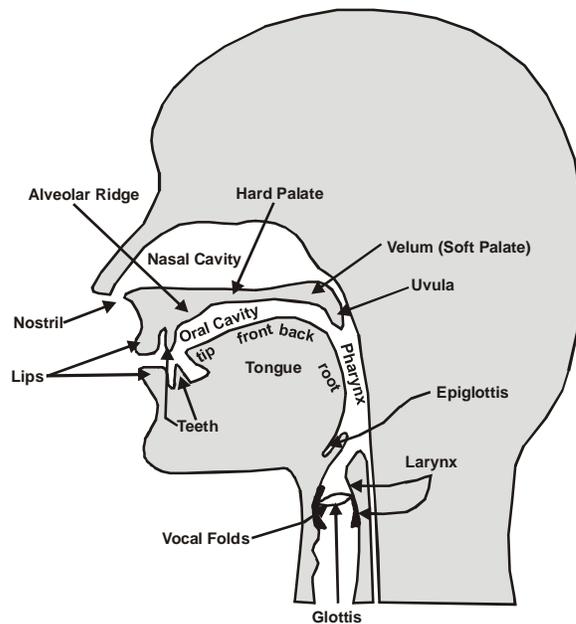


Fig. 5.2 The Articulatory System

Pharynx: The pharynx extends from the top of the larynx to the root of the tongue which lies opposite to it. The muscles of the pharynx modify the shape and size of the pharyngeal cavity by contracting and expanding. It can also be modified by the back of the tongue, by the position of the soft palate and by the raising and lowering of the larynx.

Lips: The lips also have an important role to play in the production of the speech sounds. For example, the consonant sounds such as 'p' and 'b' are produced by

closing of the lips tightly and then releasing the closure abruptly to let out the air built up behind the closure.

Teeth: Some consonants are produced with the help of teeth, such as ‘think and ‘that’ in English.

Teeth ridge: The teeth ridge is the alveolar ridge. It is the convex part of the roof of the mouth lying just behind the upper teeth. Sounds such as ‘top’ and ‘drill’ are a result of the alveolar ridge.

Hard palate: The hard bony surface in the alveolar ridge along the roof of the mouth is the hard palate.

Soft palate: In the alveolar ridge, where the bony structure ends, the roof of the mouth becomes soft and it is called soft palate or the velum.

Uvula: At the end of the soft palate, there is a small pendant like fleshy tongue which is known as uvula.

Tongue: The tongue is one of the most effective articulators as it is flexible and can take different shapes and positions which are significant in speech production.

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5.3 PRODUCTION OF SOUNDS

We will now discuss the concept of airstream speech mechanism which is the mechanism for production of sounds.

A Speech Event

A speech event comprises of a series of operations. An idea first emerges in the mind of the speaker and its linguistic codification is transmitted by the nerves to the speech organs, which are set in motion. The movements of these organs set up disturbances in the air, and the sound waves are received by the listener’s ear. The nervous system carries the message to the brain where it is interpreted in linguistic terms. It is necessary that the speaker and the listener must share the same linguistic code so that the communication takes place in an effective manner.

The Production of Speech

The energy for the production of speech is generally provided by the airstream coming out of the lungs. At the top of the wind-pipe or the trachea, is the larynx that consists of the vocal cords. The vocal cords can be brought together or kept apart and the opening between them is known as the glottis. When we cough, the glottis is tightly closed and the air from the lungs is held up beneath it and then suddenly released. When we breathe out, the glottis is held open. If the vocal cords are held sufficiently close together, they vibrate when the air from the lungs passes between them. This vibration produces voice. The speech sounds can be voiced or voiceless.

The airstream is also modified by the resonating cavities above the larynx- the pharynx, the mouth and the nasal cavity. The shape of the mouth cavity depends

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on the positions of the tongue and the lips. The mouth is divided into three parts: the alveolar ridge or teeth ridge just behind the upper teeth: the hard palate; and the soft palate or velum, the end of which is called the uvula. The soft palate can be lowered to let the air escape through the nose. This is the normal position in breathing. If the mouth passage is also open, a nasalized vowel, as in Hindi 'are' is produced. If no air escapes through the mouth, a nasal consonant is produced, e.g., English / m / and / n / in man and sing is produced.

The lips can be held close together or far apart. They can be spread, neutral, open or rounded.

The tongue can be considered as having three sections. The part opposite the teeth ridge is called the blade, its end being called the tip. The part opposite the hard palate is called the front and that opposite the soft palate is called the back. In the production of vowel sounds, the tip of the tongue is generally kept low, and some other part of the tongue – the front, the centre or the back is raised towards the roof of the mouth.

The various parts of the tongue can make a contact with, or be brought very near the roof of the mouth to produce different consonant sounds.

Speech Mechanism: The Airstream Mechanism

The air-mechanism helps in producing the airstream. There are three main airstream mechanisms which are as follows:

- **The Pulmonic air stream mechanism:** It consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. The walls of the lungs act as the initiator and the air from the lungs is pushed out.
- **Glottalic air stream mechanism:** The closed glottis acts as the initiator and pharynx helps in throwing the air in and out.
- **Velaric air stream mechanism:** The back of the tongue is the initiator. Sounds are produced with a velaric ingressive mechanism that exists in several African languages.

5.4 DESCRIPTION OF VOWELS AND DIPHTHONGS

Speech sounds are classified as vowels and consonants. Bloomfield defines a vowel as 'modifications of the voice-sound that involve no closure, friction or contact of the tongue or lips'. According to Daniel Jones, a vowel is 'a voiced sound in forming in which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction.' Thus, when a vowel sound is produced, the active articulator is raised towards the passive articulator in such a manner that there is a sufficient gap between the two for air to escape through the mouth without friction. For example,

while speaking the word 'art', air escapes freely and continuously without any friction while pronouncing the first sound /a: /.

From the definitions of a vowel, it can be concluded that the characteristic qualities of vowels depend on the shape of the open passage above the larynx which forms a resonance chamber modifying the quality of the sounds produced by the vibration of the vocal chords. Different shapes of the passage modify the quality in different ways, producing distinct vowel sounds. The chief organs concerned in modifying the shape of the passage are the tongue and the lips. Vowels are classified for linguistic purposes according to the position of the tongue. The tongue may be kept low in the mouth or raised in varying degrees in the front towards the hard palate or in the back towards the soft palate. These positions produce what are called open and closed vowels, with dependent variants, half open and half close. Different degrees of openness and closeness also depend on the extent of the opening between the upper and lower jaws. Open vowels may also be distinguished as front or back depending on the part of the tongue that is highest, but the latitude of variation when the tongue is low in the mouth is more restricted. The tongue may also produce central or neutral vowels, which are neither distinctively back nor front if it is raised centrally in the mouth. The lip features which distinguish vowel qualities may vary independently of the position and height of the tongue, though obviously the more open vowel positions give less scope for lip spreading and for strong lip rounding, because the jaw and mouth are wide open.

In phonetics, a vowel is a sound in spoken language, like English ah! or oh! which is pronounced with an open vocal tract so that there is no build-up of air pressure at any point above the glottis. This contrasts with consonants, like English sh! where there is a constriction or closure at some point along with the vocal tract. A vowel is also thought of to be syllabic: an equivalent open but non-syllabic sound is known as semi-vowel.

In all languages, vowels form the nucleus or peak of syllables, whereas consonants make the onset and (in languages that have them) coda.

Without reference to any particular language, eight vowel sounds, articulated at fixed positions of the tongue and lips, four front and four back, have been recorded as cardinal vowels and transcribed as [i], [e], [a], [o], [u].

There are twelve pure vowels in English and eight vowel glides or diphthongs. There is an argument between the phonetic definition of 'vowel' (a sound made with no constriction in the vocal tract) and the phonological definition (a sound that makes the peak of a syllable). The approximants [j] and [w] describe this conflict: both are made without any constriction in the vocal tract (so phonetically they seem to be vowel-like), but they occur on the edge of syllables, like at the beginning of the English words 'yet' and 'wet' (that suggests that phonologically they are consonants). The American linguist Kenneth Pike suggested the terms 'vocoid' for a phonetic vowel and 'vowel' for a phonological vowel, so by using this terminology, [j] and [w] are classified as vocoids but not as vowels.

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The word vowel comes from the Latin word *vocalis*, which means ‘speaking’, as in most languages words and so speech is not possible without vowels. In English, the word vowel is basically used to describe both vowel sounds and the written symbols that describe them.

Description of vowels

The phonetics of English is given in detail in books like Daniel Jones’ *Outline of English Phonetics*, Gimson’s *Introduction to the Pronunciation of English* and Ward’s *Phonetics of English*.

1. **Front vowels:** There are four front vowels in English. A front vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a front vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far in front as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Front vowels are sometimes also called bright vowels as they are perceived as sounding brighter than the back vowels.

- /i/: It is a short, front, unrounded vowel just above the half-close position. It can occur initially as in it, medially as in bit and finally as in city.
- /i:/: It is a long, front, close unrounded vowel which can occur initially as in yield, medially as in wheat and finally as in sea.
- /e/: It is a short, front, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open. It occurs initially as in elephant and medially as in met.
- //: It is a front, unrounded vowel just below the half-open position. It occurs initially as in ant and medially as in man.

2. **Back vowels:** A back vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a back vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far back as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant. Back vowels are sometimes also called dark vowels as they are perceived as sounding darker than the front vowels. There are five back vowels in English:

- /a/: It is a back, open, unrounded vowel, which occurs in all the three positions. For example, initially in art, medially in part and finally in papa.
- /o/: It is a short, back, rounded vowel just above the open position. It occurs initially as in on, and medially as in cot.
- /o:/: It is a long, back rounded vowel between half-open and half-close. It occurs in the initial position as in ought, medial position as in bought and finally as in law.
- /u/: It is a short, back, rounded vowel, a little centralized and just above the half-close position. It does not occur initially but medially in put /put/ and finally as in to /tu/.

- /u:/: It is a back, long, close rounded vowel. It occurs initially as in ooze /u:z/, medially in booze /bu:z/ and finally in too /tu:/.

3. Central vowels: A central vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a central vowel is that the tongue is positioned halfway between a front vowel and a back vowel. There are three central vowels in English:

- /u/: It is a central, unrounded vowel just above the open position. It occurs initially as in utter, and medially in butter.
- /o/: It is a central, unrounded vowel just below half-open. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in upon, medially in forget and finally in tailor.
- /e/: It is a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in earthly, medially in bird and finally in river.

When a vowel comes finally in a word, it is much longer than when it occurs initially. Similarly, if it occurs after a voiced sound, it will be longer. For example, as in bee /bi:/, bead /bi:d/, beat /bi:t/. Vowels may also be characterized by what in linguistic terms is called retro flexion or the slight upward turning of the tip of the tongue towards the centre of the hard palate. Retro flexion is one of the characteristics of the American accent. It also occurs in some dialects of British English in the pronunciation of words spelt with an ‘r’ after a vowel (as in hard, word, etc.). It is also possible to make all kinds of vowel sounds with nasalization, that is, with the soft palate lowered and with the air passing partly through the nasal cavity and nostrils as well as through the mouth.

Diphthongs

We know that a diphthong or vowel glide is a combination of two short vowels as already has been discussed in the previous unit. Generally, English vowels are characterized by lip-spreading in case of front vowels and lip-rounding in back vowels. In the pronunciation of long vowels, a relatively constant articulatory position is maintained but a temporary equivalent articulation may be made by moving from one vowel position to another through the intervening positions. In such a situation, it is necessary for the glide to take place within the same syllable. When the diphthong is lengthened, the first element is lengthened and the second element is very short. Therefore, this phenomenon is called falling diphthong.

- /ei/: It is the result of a glide from a front, unrounded vowel just below the half-close position to one just above half-close. It occurs initially in ate /eit/, medially in race /reis/ and finally in day.
- /ai/: It is a glide from a front, open, unrounded vowel to a centralized front, unrounded vowel just above half-close. It occurs initially in ice /ais/, medially in bite /bait/ and finally in bye.

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- /o/: This is a glide from a back, unrounded vowel between open and half-open to a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above the half-close position. In the beginning, the lips are rounded but as the glide moves towards RP, the lips are unrounded. It occurs in all the three positions – initially in oil, medially in boil and finally in boy.
- //or/: It is a glide from a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open to a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above the half-close position. Initially, it occurs in own, medially in boat and finally in go.
- /u/: The glide begins at the back, open unrounded position and moves in the direction of RP. It occurs initially in out, medially in shout and finally in how.
- /e/: It is a glide from a centralized, front, unrounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs initially in ear, medially in fierce and finally in fear.
- /a/: This is a glide from a front, half-open, unrounded vowel to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open positions. It occurs initially in aeroplane, medially in careful and finally in fair.
- /o/: It is glide from a centralized, back, rounded vowel just above half-close to a central, unrounded vowel between half-close and half-open. It can occur medially as in touring, and finally in tour.

Types of Diphthongs

We will now discuss the types of diphthongs.

- **Falling and rising:** Falling (or descending) diphthongs start with a vowel quality of higher prominence (higher pitch or volume) and end in a semivowel with less prominence, like [aj/] in eye, while rising (or ascending) diphthongs begin with a less prominent semivowel and end with a more prominent full vowel, similar to the [ja] in yard. (Note that ‘falling’ and ‘rising’ in this context do not refer to vowel height; the terms ‘opening’ and ‘closing’ are used instead. The less prominent component in the diphthong may also be transcribed as an approximant, thus [aj] in eye and [ja] in yard. However, when the diphthong is analyzed as a single phoneme, both elements are often transcribed with vowel letters (/aj//, /j/a/). Note also that semivowels and approximants are not equivalent in all treatments, and in the English and Italian languages, among others, many phoneticians do not consider rising combinations to be diphthongs, but rather sequences of approximant and vowel. There are many languages (such as Romanian) that contrast one or more rising diphthongs with similar sequences of a glide and a vowel in their phonetic inventory (see semivowel for examples).
- **Closing, opening, and centering:** In closing diphthongs, the second element is closer than the first (e.g. [ai]); in opening diphthongs, the second element is more open (e.g. [ia]). Closing diphthongs tend to be falling ([ai/]), and opening diphthongs are generally rising ([i/a]), as open vowels

are more sonorous and therefore tend to be more prominent. However, exceptions to this rule are not rare in the world's languages. In Finnish, for instance, the opening diphthongs /ie// and /uo// are true falling diphthongs, since they begin louder and with higher pitch and fall in prominence during the diphthong.

- **Height-harmonic diphthong:** This diphthong has both elements at the same vowel height. These were particularly characteristic of Old English, which had diphthongs such as /æQ//, /eo//.

A centering diphthong is one that begins with a more peripheral vowel and ends with a more central one, such as [jY/], [[Y/], and [ŠY/] in Received Pronunciation or [iY/] and [uY/] in Irish. Many centering diphthongs are also opening diphthongs ([iY/], [uY/]).

Diphthongs may contrast in how far they open or close. For example, Samoan contrasts low-to-mid with low-to-high diphthongs:

'ai [“ai/] ‘probably’

'ae [“ae/] ‘but’

'auro [“au/~o] ‘gold’

ao [ao/] ‘a cloud’

- **Length:** Languages differ in the length of diphthongs, measured in terms of morae. In languages with phonemically short and long vowels, diphthongs typically behave like long vowels, and are pronounced with a similar length. In languages with only one phonemic length for pure vowels, however, diphthongs may behave like pure vowels. For example, in Iceland, both monophthongs and diphthongs are pronounced long before single consonants and short before most consonant clusters.

Some languages contrast between short and long diphthongs. In some languages, such as Old English, these behave like short and long vowels, occupying one and two morae, respectively. In other languages, however, such as Ancient Greek, they occupy two and three morae, respectively, with the first element rather than the diphthong as a whole behaving as a short or long vowel. Languages that contrast three quantities in diphthongs are extremely rare, but not unheard of; Northern Sami is known to contrast long, short and ‘finally stressed’ diphthongs, the last of which are distinguished by a long second element.

Check Your Progress

1. Why is speech referred to as ‘modified breathing’?
2. In which three parts is the mouth divided?
3. What do the characteristic qualities of a vowel depend upon?
4. What is the defining characteristic of a back vowel?
5. What is a centering diphthong?

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5.5 CONSONANTS

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A consonant is defined as a speech sound that is produced when the air passage is obstructed, or the flow of air is stopped as a result of narrowing or a complete closure of the air passage. For example, while pronouncing the word 'pool' our lips try to stop air from passing through when the sound /p/ is produced. In the production of consonants, the voice or breath is partially hindered by the tongue, teeth, lips, or the other organs of speech. Thus, the production of the consonant sounds involves the action of some speech organ. Consonants include the following:

- All sounds which are not voiced
- All sounds in the production of which the air has an impeded passage through the mouth
- All sounds in the production of which the air does not pass through the mouth
- All sounds in which there is audible friction

Articulatory phonetics is, perhaps, the oldest and the best approach for the study of consonants. It believes that the characteristics of speech sounds are determined by their modes of formation. They may accordingly be described and classified by stating the position and action of the various speech organs.

Any description of the manner of forming consonants must be based on the following aspects:

- The place or places of articulation
- The state of the air passage at the place (or places) of articulation
- The position of the soft palate

Manner of articulation

The obstruction made by the organs may be total, intermittent or partial, or may merely constitute a narrowing sufficient to cause friction. Sibilants can be differentiated from each other fricatives by the tongue's shape and by the airflow that is directed over the teeth. Fricatives at coronal places of articulation can be sibilant or non-sibilant; although sibilants are more common.

Taps and flaps are identical to brief stops. However, their articulation and behaviour is different enough to be thought of in a separate manner, rather than just in the length form.

Trills include the vibration of one of the speech organs. As trilling is a different parameter from stricture, the two might be combined. Increasing the stricture of a basic trill leads to a trilled fricative. Nasal airflow might be added as an independent parameter towards any speech sound. It is quite commonly found in nasal stops and nasal vowels. You can also find nasal fricatives, nasal taps as well as nasal

approximants. When a sound is not nasal, it is termed oral. An oral stop is generally called a plosive, whereas a nasal stop is basically just termed as nasal.

Laterality is the release of airflow at the tongue's side. It can be combined together with other manners, leading to the following:

- Lateral approximants
- Lateral flaps
- Lateral fricatives and affricates

5.5.1 Description of Consonants

There are twenty-four different consonants in English (British Received Pronunciation). These can be classified. Indian English differs from British R.P. in respect of the following:

- (i) /t,d/ are sometimes retroflex /t, d/.
- (ii) /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /f/, /ʒ/ are articulated with the tongue tip down.
- (iii) /v/ and /w/ are replaced by one phoneme /v/ realised as a frictionless labio-dental /v/ or weakly rounded /w/.
- (iv) /è/, /ð/ are replaced by the plosives /t/ and /d/.

We have already discussed that the consonants can be classified according to their manner of articulation. We will now discuss that in detail.

Plosives

A plosive or stop consonant is produced by:

- A complete closure of the air passage in the mouth
- The holding of the closure and compression of the air coming from the lungs
- A sudden release of air with explosion

British R.P. has three pairs of plosive phonemes:

/p,b/ - bilabial ~

/t,d/ - alveolar (In Indian English these are often retroflex [t, d]).

/k, g/ - velar

/p,t,k/ are voiceless and comparatively strong and are known as fortis;

/b,d,g/ are voiced and comparatively weak - lenis.

In British R.P. /p,t,k,/ at the beginning of accented syllables are aspirated, that is, there is a strong puff of breath after the release of the plosive before the next vowel begins, for example,

[k^h], [p^h], [t^h]

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Such type of aspiration is not present in case of Indian English and its absence is a major cause that the Indian English is not considered as a correct form to the native speakers. It is therefore, necessary to have at least some aspiration in /p,t,k/ when they occur initially in accented syllables. It has also been observed that in case of R.P, the release of final plosives is at times almost inaudible.

When two stops come together, the first is not released; for example, in act/ækt/, /k/ is held and only /t/ is released. When a plosive is followed by a nasal consonant with the same place of articulation, the oral closure is retained and the compressed air is released through the nose by lowering the soft palate; e.g., in button /bʌtn/, /t/ is released through the nose. When /t/ or /d/ is followed by /l/, the plosive is released laterally, that is, by retaining the alveolar contact in the middle and lowering the sides of the tongue. For example, /t/ in bottle, /bTl/ has a lateral release.

Bilabial Plosives

For /p,b/ the air passage in the mouth is closed by the two lips, and the soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed, and when the lips are separated, it is released with explosion. The vocal cords are held apart for /p/, but vibrate for /b/.

In British R.P. /p/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables, as in pair, pin, port, point, pay, pray. It is unaspirated after /s/ as in spare, spin, sport, unaccented positions as in polite, presence. /b/ is never aspirated in English.

Spellings

The sound /p/ is represented by the letter p. In cupboard, and receipt, /p/ is silent. /b/ is represented by the letter b. In words like comb, limb, thumb and debt, b is silent. In Indian English /p/ is unaspirated in all positions. As it has already been pointed out, it is essential that one needs to aspirate it at the beginning of accented syllables while conversing with the native English speakers as lack of aspiration in this position is likely to cause confusion between pairs like pack and back.

Dental Plosives in Indian English

Dental plosives /t^o/ and /d/ are used in Indian English instead of the fricatives /t̪/, /d̪/ in words such as thank and then. For international intelligibility it is necessary to use the fricative sounds.

Alveolar Plosives

For /t,d/ the air passage in the mouth is closed by the tip of the tongue making a contact with the teeth-ridge and the rims of the tongue touching the upper side teeth. The soft palate is raised in order to close the nasal passage. The air from the lungs is compressed, and when the tip of the tongue is suddenly removed from the teeth ridge, the air escapes with explosion. The vocal held apart for /t/, but

vibrate for /d/. /t/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented as in team, tone, top, attack, between, train, tune. It is unaspirated after /s/, as in steam, stone, stop. In case of unaccented positions, as in 'better, 'enter, 'liberty, to 'morrow. /d/ is never aspirated in English.

In R.P. /t/ has a nasal release in words like button, cotton, eaten, and a lateral release in words like battle, little and settle.

Spellings

- (i) t
- (ii) tt as in settle
- (iii) ed in past and past participate forms, after voiceless consonants other than /t/, e.g.,
Talked /to:kt/
laughed /la:ft/
passed /pa:st/
/t/ is silent in castle and Christmas.
/d /d, dd

In Indian English /t/ and /d/ are often retroflex, that is, articulated by the tip of the tongue curled back and making a contact with the front of the hard palate. In Indian English, /t/ is unaspirated in all positions.

Velar Plosives

For /k, g/ the air passage in the mouth is closed completely by the back of the tongue making a contact the soft palate. The nasal passage is also closed by the soft palate. The air from the lungs is compressed when the tongue is suddenly removed from the soft palate, air escapes with explosion. The vocal cords are wide apart for /k/, but vibrate for /g/.

In British R.P., /k/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables as in cool, clean but is unaspirated after /s/, as in school scold, scorn, and in unaccented positions as in collect, packing, equal. /g/ is never aspirated in English. In Indian English /k/ is unaspirated in all positions. It is necessary to aspirate it at the beginning of accented syllables when talking to native English speakers otherwise it will create confusion in the sounds like cold and gold, cot and got.

Affricates

Affricates are produced by a complete closure of the air passage and a slow release causing friction. The English palato-alveolar affricates /tʃ/, /dʒ/ are treated as single phonemes and not sequences of two phonemes. In the production of it the air passage in the mouth is completely closed by a contact between the tip and blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge, the rims of the tongue making a contact with the upper side teeth. The front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage.

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When the air is released slowly, it escapes with friction between the front of the tongue and the hard palate and between the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge. The vocal cords are wide apart for /tʃ/, but vibrate for /dʒ/

In British R.P. /tʃ/, /dʒ/ are always released even when followed by another plosive or affricate, as in watch chain (tʃ + tʃ), orange juice (dʒ + dʒ). However, in case of Indian English, the first affricate is not released in such contexts.

Spellings

tʃ

- (i) ch, e.g., chair; such
- (ii) tch, e.g., catch, watch
- (iii) t + ure, e.g., furniture, nature, picture
- (iv) t + ion when preceded by s, for instance, suggestion, question

/dʒ/

- (i) j initial, e.g., join, jump
- (ii) g + e, e.g., general, gentle
- (iii) dg, e.g., bridge, edge, judge
- (iv) gg, e.g., suggest
- (v) di, e.g., soldier.

Fricatives

Such type of consonants are produced by bringing two organs near in such a way that the air stream has to pass through a narrow passage and comes out with audible friction. The following are the fricative phonemes in British R.P:

/f, v / labio-dental

// è/, / ð/ dental

/s, z / alveolar

/ʃ/, /ʒ / palato-alveolar

/h/ glottal

/f, è, s, ʃ, h / are fortis and voiceless; the others are lenis and voiced

Labio-dental Fricatives

For /f, v / the lower lip is brought in a close contact with the edge of the upper teeth, making a light contact with it. The soft palate is raised in order to close the nasal passage. The air comes out from the lower lip and the upper teeth with friction. The vocal cords are wide apart for /f/, but vibrate for /v/.

Spellings

/f/

- (i) f, e.g., face, defend, leaf
- (ii) ff, middle and final. e.g., afford, staff
- (iii) ph, as in photograph
- (iv) gh, as in cough, rough

/v/

- (i) v, e.g., vain, cover; brave
- (ii) ph in nephew

Some Indian speakers replace /f/ by a bi-labial plosive [p]. It is necessary to distinguish between the two sounds in order to avoid confusion between pairs like the following:

/f/ [ph]
fair pair
full pull
fear pier
feel peel
fine pine
fool pool

There should be no complete closure for /f/, which is a labio-dental fricative. Indian speakers use /f/ in place of /v/ as a result of which, of and off are not distinguished. In other words, they use a frictionless /u/, which is so soft that it can hardly be heard at times. It is essential that a fricative /v/ should be used while conversing with the native English speakers as the substitution of a weak /v/ for /v/ is a very frequent cause of unintelligibility. /v/ can be produced easily by placing the upper teeth on the lower lip and pushing the air out, at the same time producing voice. /v/ is the voiced counterpart of /f/, the lower lip and the upper teeth being in the same position for both. Some Bengali speakers replace /v/ by /b/.

Dental Fricatives

The tip of the tongue is brought close to the edge of the upper teeth to make a light contact and the soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The air passing between the tip and blade of the tongue and the upper teeth produces audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart for /ð/ but vibrate for /ð/. These two sounds are always spelt th. Indian speakers generally use an aspirated dental plosive [th] in place of /ð/. Malayalam speakers use an unaspirated dental plosive /t/.

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It is essential to use the dental fricative /ð/ when talking to native English speakers, because the substitution of a plosive leads to confusion between pairs which are enlisted:

/ð/ /t/

fourth fort

thank tank

thin tin

thinker tinker

thought taught

three tree

through true

A voiceless dental plosive /t/ or [t^h] is always heard by a native English speaker as /t/

/ð/ is always replaced in India by the dental plosive /d/ and it is necessary to use the fricative /ð/ when talking to native English speakers in order to avoid confusion between pairs like the following:

/ð/ /d/

breathe breed

there dare

then den

they day

though doe ~

Alveolar Fricatives

For /s, z/ the tip and the blade of the tongue are brought close to the teeth ridge and the air comes out through a narrow groove along the middle of the tongue with audible friction. The soft palate is raised to shut off the nasal passage. The vocal cords are wide apart for /s/ but vibrate for /z/

Spellings

/s/

(i) s, e.g., single, slope, just, purpose, books

(ii) ss, medial and final, e.g., essence, confess, pass

(iii) c, followed by e, i, e.g., parcel, face, difference, city

/s/ after voiceless consonants other

(iv) sc, initial, e.g., scene, science

(v) x, medial and final (pronounced /ks/), e.g., box, explain

/z/

- (i) s, medial and final, e.g., poison, easy, compose, praise, bags
- (ii) ss, e.g., scissors
- (iii) z, e.g., zoo, zero
- (iv) zz, e.g., puzzle
- (v) x, medial (pronounced /gz/), e.g., exact, ex'amine

The distribution of /s/ and /z/ in inflectional suffixes are in the plural and possessive forms of nouns and the present (simple) tense third person singular forms of verbs which is governed by the following rules:

The suffix, is spelt s or es, is pronounced.

/s/ after voiceless consonants other than /tʃ/, /f/, /s/

For example,

caps

cuts

books

takes

laughs

months

/z/ after vowels and voiced consonants other than /dʒ, z, ʒ/, for instance, eyes loves

hours waves

replies breathes

shows children

trees forms

years lines

robs runs

heads things

bags hills

In Indian English /z/ in inflectional suffixes is sometimes replaced by /s/ which results in confusion between certain pairs such as the following:

/z//s/

eyes ice

falls false

fears fierce

his hiss

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knees niece

peas peace

There are a few Hindi speakers who replace /z/ by /dʒ/.

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Palato-Alveolar Fricatives

For British R.P. // f/, /ʒ/, the tip and blade of the tongue are brought close to the teeth ridge, and the front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate. The air passes through the narrow passage with audible friction. The soft palate is raised to close the nasal passage. The vocal cords are wide apart for /f/, but vibrate for /ʒ/.

In Indian English /f/, /ʒ/ are articulated with the tongue tip down and the front of the tongue brought near the post-alveolar region.

/ʒ/ does not occur initially.

Spellings

/f/

- (i) sh, e.g., shade, shine, cushion, push.
- (ii) ch, e.g., machine.
- (iii) s + u, e.g., sure, sugar.
- (iv) -ti, e.g., nation, motion.
- (v), -sci, e.g., conscience.
- (vi) -ci, e.g., special, official.
- (vii) -ce, e.g., ocean.

/ʒ/

- (i) si, e.g., decision, confusion.
- (ii) s + u, e.g., measure, pleasure.
- (iii) -ge in French loan words e.g., barrage.

Some Assamese, Bihari Hindi and Griya speakers replace /f/ by /s/ with the result that there is confusion between the following pairs:

/f/, /s/

shave save

she see

sheet seat

shine sign

shore sore

short sort

Many Indian speakers do not use /ʒ/ but replace it by /z/ or /dʒ/.

Glottal Fricative

/h/ is produced by the air coming through a narrow glottis with audible friction; the sound can also be regarded as a voiceless beginning of the following vowel.

Nasals

For the production of nasal consonants, a complete closure is made in the mouth, but the soft palate is lowered and the air comes out from the nose. Nasals are in some ways vowel-like; they are frictionless continuants and can sometimes be syllabic, e.g., /n/ in button.

There are three nasal phonemes in English which are discussed as follows:

- **Bilabial Nasal /m/ :** For /m/ the mouth passage is completely closed by the lips. The soft palate is lowered and the air comes out through the nose. The vocal cords are in vibration.

Spellings

- (i) m, e.g., mad, among, come
- (ii) mm, medial, e.g., summer hammer
- (iii) mb, final, e.g., limb, thumb
- (iv) mn, final, e.g., autumn

- **Alveolar Nasal /n/ :** For /n/ the tip of the tongue makes a closure against the teeth ridge and the rims of the tongue are against the upper side teeth. The soft palate is lowered and the air comes out through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. /n/ can be syllabic in British R.P. as in cotton/ 'kɒtn/

Spellings

- (i) n, e.g., no, opinion, run
- (ii) nn, medial, e.g., manner, running
- (iii) kn, initial, e.g., known, knife
- (iv) gn, e.g., sign

In Indian English a syllabic /n/ is sometimes replaced by /Yn/ as in button / 'b Y t/ Yn/

- **Velar Nasal:** For /K/ the back of the tongue makes a closure with the soft palate, which is lowered so that the air escapes through the nose. The vocal cords vibrate. /K/ does not occur initially.

Spellings

- (i) ng, e.g., sing, singen song, long, hang
- (ii) n + /k/, e.g., think, monkey, unc/e

In British R.P. final ng is pronounced /K/, e.g., sing in derivatives from verbs ending in /n/ g/ is added after /K/, e.g., singer. In other words medial ng is pronounced /ng/, as in linger /liKgY/ Some Indian speakers add /g/ after /K/ in words like singer, things, writings.

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Lateral /l/

In case of a lateral consonant, there is a closure in the middle and the air comes out through the sides.

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For the English lateral phoneme /l/, the tip of the tongue makes a contact with the teeth ridge however, the sides of the tongue are lowered so that there is a free passage for the escape of air on the sides. The vocal cords are thus, in vibration.

In British R.P. two varieties of /l/ are used; a clear variety /l/, for which the front of the tongue is also raised towards the hard palate, is used before vowels and /j/.

/l/ is dental before /è/ / ð/ as in hearth, In R.P. /l/ is syllabic in words like bottle/ 'botl / and cattle

Spellings

(i) l, e.g., laugh, glad, oil

(ii) ll, e.g., yellow, kill is silent in words like walk, should, halt calm

Post-Alveolar Frictionless Continuant

The most common variety of R.P is when /r/ is produced by raising the tip of the tongue towards the back of the teeth ridge which can be referred to as a slight retro flexion. The air comes out through the mouth without any friction. Even though the sound is vowel-like, it is treated as a consonant because it takes the position associated with consonants, e.g., bat, cat, and rat.

In R.P. /r/ is used only before vowels; it does not occur before consonants.

e.g., better / 'betY /

However, when the next word begins with a vowel, a linking /r/ is inserted, e.g., Here it is. / hiY r it iz/

A voiced fricative /r/ is used after /d/ as in dry, draw. A voiceless fricative /r/ is used after accented /p,t,k/ as in pray, try, cream. An alveolar flap is also used between two vowels as in very and after /è/ as in three. In Indian English /r/ is often retained in all positions. It has been observed that some of the speakers generally use the flapped variety in most of the positions.

Semi-Vowels

A semi-vowel is a vowel glide that produces a more prominent sound in the same syllable. /j/ is a glide from /i:/ and /w/ is a glide from /u:/ Semi-vowels are treated as consonants because they take the positions normally associated with consonants, e.g., pet, get, set, yet, wet.

Unrounded Palatal Semi-Vowel /j/

For /j/ there is a quick tongue movement from a position between front close and half-close to the position of the following vowel.

Spellings

- (i) y, e.g. yes, yard, young, beyond
- (ii) u, eau, ue, ew, ieu, pronounced, / ju: /, e.g., union, pupil, tube, excuse, beauty, due, new, view, human

Labio-Velar Semi-Vowel / w /

For / w / the tongue moves quickly from a position between back close and half-close to the position for the following vowel. The lips are rounded in such a case.

Spellings

- (i) w, e.g., way, we, west
- (ii) wh., e.g., when, which, where
- (iii) q, g, + u, e.g., quick, queen, quality, language

Initial Clusters (2 or 3 consonants)

In Indian English, / w / is generally replaced by / v / Even when [w] occurs, it is a free variant of / v / It is necessary to acquire both / w / and / v / and make a distinction between pairs like the following:

/w/ /v/
while vile
west vest
why vie

The substitution of / v / for / w / is one of the most frequent causes of Indian English being unintelligible to native English speakers. / w / can be acquired easily by preparing to say / u: / and quickly moving to the next vowel.

List of Consonant Sounds

The following is a list of all the constant sounds:

/p/- pen
/b/-bun
/t/-tight
/d/-den
/k/-kill
/g/-gun
/f/-fun
/v/-van
/s/-sin
/z/-zoo

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/f/-shut
/ʒ/- version
/è/- thank
/ð/-then
/tʃ/-church
/dʒ/-judge
/j/-yes
/r/-rub
/l/-like
/w/-wet
/h/-hen
/m/-mouse
/n/-nib
/K/-sing

Check Your Progress

6. What is a plosive consonant produced by?
7. How are fricatives produced?
8. Why are semi-vowels treated as consonants?

5.6 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The air that we breathe out is modified in various ways. This results in various combination of sounds such as consonants and vowels. Therefore, speech is also sometimes referred to as 'modified breathing'.
2. The mouth is divided into three parts: the alveolar ridge or teeth ridge just behind the upper teeth: the hard palate; and the soft palate or velum, the end of which is called the uvula.
3. The characteristic qualities of vowels depend on the shape of the open passage above the larynx which forms a resonance chamber modifying the quality of the sounds produced by the vibration of the vocal chords.
4. The defining characteristic of a back vowel is that the tongue is positioned as far back as possible in the mouth without creating a constriction that would be classified as a consonant.
5. A centering diphthong is one that begins with a more peripheral vowel and ends with a more central one, such as [jY/], [[Y/], and [ŠY/] in Received Pronunciation or [iY/] and [uY/] in Irish.

6. A plosive or stop consonant is produced by:
 - A complete closure of the air passage in the mouth
 - The holding of the closure and compression of the air coming from the lungs
 - A sudden release of air with explosion
7. Fricatives are produced by bringing two organs near in such a way that the air stream has to pass through a narrow passage and comes out with audible friction.
8. Semi-vowels are treated as consonants because they take the positions normally associated with consonants, e.g., pet, get, set, yet, wet.

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5.7 SUMMARY

- The respiratory system comprises the lungs, the muscles of the chest and the windpipe (also known as trachea). The primary function of the lungs is to breathe or respire. The function of the respiratory system is to let the air pass through the windpipe (trachea) towards the glottis so that it produces sounds.
- The larynx is a muscular structure in the front part of the neck and is also known as the 'Adam's apple.' It contains a pair of muscular bands or folds which are called vocal cords.
- When the vocal cords are loosely held together, the air passes through them and causes vibration in the vocal chords. The sounds created in this manner are called voiced sounds.
- The pharynx extends from the top of the larynx to the root of the tongue which lies opposite to it. The muscles of the pharynx modify the shape and size of the pharyngeal cavity by contracting and expanding.
- In the alveolar ridge, where the bony structure ends, the roof of the mouth becomes soft and it is called soft palate or the velum.
- A speech event comprises of a series of operations. An idea first emerges in the mind of the speaker and its linguistic codification is transmitted by the nerves to the speech organs, which are set in motion.
- The energy for the production of speech is generally provided by the airstream coming out of the lungs.
- The airstream is also modified by the resonating cavities above the larynx- the pharynx, the mouth and the nasal cavity. The shape of the mouth cavity depends on the positions of the tongue and the lips.
- The tongue can be considered as having three sections. The part opposite the teeth ridge is called the blade, its end being called the tip. The part

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opposite the hard palate is called the front and that opposite the soft palate is called the back.

- The Pulmonic air stream mechanism consists of the lungs and the respiratory muscles. The walls of the lungs act as the initiator and the air from the lungs is pushed out.
- the characteristic qualities of vowels depend on the shape of the open passage above the larynx which forms a resonance chamber modifying the quality of the sounds produced by the vibration of the vocal chords. Different shapes of the passage modify the quality in different ways, producing distinct vowel sounds.
- Open vowels may also be distinguished as front or back depending on the part of the tongue that is highest, but the latitude of variation when the tongue is low in the mouth is more restricted.
- The word vowel comes from the Latin word *vocalis*, which means 'speaking', as in most languages words and so speech is not possible without vowels. In English, the word vowel is basically used to describe both vowel sounds and the written symbols that describe them.
- A front vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. Front vowels are sometimes also called bright vowels as they are perceived as sounding brighter than the back vowels.
- A central vowel is a type of vowel sound used in some spoken languages. The defining characteristic of a central vowel is that the tongue is positioned halfway between a front vowel and a back vowel.
- Vowels may also be characterized by what in linguistic terms is called retro flexion or the slight upward turning of the tip of the tongue towards the centre of the hard palate. Retro flexion is one of the characteristics of the American accent.
- In closing diphthongs, the second element is closer than the first (e.g. [ai]); in opening diphthongs, the second element is more open (e.g. [ia]). Closing diphthongs tend to be falling ([ai/]), and opening diphthongs are generally rising ([i/a]), as open vowels are more sonorous and therefore tend to be more prominent.
- In the production of consonants, the voice or breath is partially hindered by the tongue, teeth, lips, or the other organs of speech. Thus, the production of the consonant sounds involves the action of some speech organ.
- In British R.P. /p/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables, as in pair, pin, port, point, pay, pray. It is unaspirated_ after /s/ as in spare, spin, sport, unaccented positions as in polite, presence. /b/ is never aspirated in English.

- In British R.P., /k/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables as in cool, clean but is unaspirated after /s/, as in school scold, scorn, and in unaccented positions as in collect, packing, equal. /g/ is never aspirated in English. In Indian English /k/ is unaspirated in all positions.
- For /s, z/ the tip and the blade of the tongue are brought close to the teeth ridge and the air comes out through a narrow groove along the middle of the tongue with audible friction.
- A voiced fricative /r/ is used after /d/ as in dry, draw. A voiceless fricative /r/ is used after accented /p,t,k/ as in pray, try, cream. An alveolar flap is also used between two vowels as in very and after /è/ as in three.

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5.8 KEY WORDS

- **Vowel:** It is a voiced sound in forming in which the air issues in a continuous stream through the pharynx and mouth, there being no obstruction and no narrowing such as would cause audible friction.
- **Diphthong:** It is a combination of two adjacent vowel sounds within the same syllable.
- **Consonant:** It is defined as a speech sound that is produced when the air passage is obstructed, or the flow of air is stopped as a result of narrowing or a complete closure of the air passage.
- **Semi-Vowel:** It is a vowel glide that produces a more prominent sound in the same syllable.

5.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the three main airstream mechanisms.
2. What is the defining characteristic of a front vowel?
3. How do falling diphthongs start and end?
4. What should a description of the manner of forming consonants be based on?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Analyze the three kinds of sounds produced on the basis of the opening of vocal cords.
2. Describe the three types of vowels.
3. Elaborate upon dental fricatives and alveolar fricatives.

5.10 FURTHER READINGS

NOTES

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UNIT 6 PHONOLOGY, SYLLABLE, AND WORD STRESS

*Phonology, Syllable,
and Word Stress*

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Structure

- 6.0 Introduction
- 6.1 Objectives
- 6.2 Phoneme
- 6.3 Syllable
- 6.4 Word Stress
 - 6.4.1 Weak Forms
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 - 6.4.3 Intonation
- 6.5 Sentence Stress
- 6.6 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
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- 6.9 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 6.10 Further Readings

6.0 INTRODUCTION

Phonology is a branch of linguistics that studies how languages systematically produce sounds in addition to their patterns and relationships. Phonemes are studied in phonology which refer to a minimal unit of sound produced through speech. In this unit, concepts of phonology, syllable and word stress have been focused upon. A syllable refers to a collection of sounds with one vowel and one or more consonants. Not all the syllables are important therefore, sometimes more stress is laid on particular parts of a word by means of word stress and more muscular strain. Phonology focuses on these intricacies and lays emphasis on identifying and sorting sounds that cause differences in meanings.

6.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the characteristics of phonemes and syllables
- Analyse the concept of word stress
- Describe the nuances of sentence stress

6.2 PHONEME

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Phonology is used to sort out the sounds that are important for causing differences in meaning and those which are not, and to establish rules to account for the variations in sounds involved. It studies the different kinds of sounds that are found in a language, their patterns and relationships and is viewed as a subsidiary field to linguistics. It deals with the sound systems of languages.

Phonemes

The word 'phoneme' was used in the nineteenth century to refer to a unit of sound. The term largely remained under-developed until it was used by distinguished linguists like Saussure and Bloomfield. Leonard Bloomfield defined a phoneme thus, 'a minimal unit of distinctive sound-feature'. Each phoneme was said to possess a set of 'distinctive features' which was in clear opposition to other features in the data. Thus, there would be no point in talking about a /p/ phoneme as voiceless and tense as these features only make sense when considered in opposition to the /b/ phoneme, which is voiced, unaspirated and lax. So, phonemes are defined as the minimal contrastive units of sound in a language.

Phonemes can be divided into two categories – segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes. All the segmental sounds used in each language can be classed into a limited number of phonemes, and conversely the consonant and vowel phonemes exhaustively cover the entire consonant and vowel sounds so occurring. All consonant and vowel contrasts between distinct forms in a language can be referred to one or another of its component phonemes. Thus, the English word, 'man' /mæn/ contains three phonemes, contrasted at three points or places wherein a distinctively different sound unit may be substituted: man, pan; man, men; man, mad. These are called 'minimal pairs' or pairs of words differing by one phoneme. There are twelve vowel phonemes and twenty six consonant phonemes in the English language.

Suprasegmental phonemes consist of stresses, pitches and junctures (modes of transition from one segment to another).

Phonemes are contrastive in certain environments. They may or may not be contrastive in all environments. In the environments where they do not contrast, the contrast is said to be neutralized.

In English there are three nasal phonemes, /m, n, ŋ/, as shown by the minimal triplet,

These phonemes are not usually contrastive before plosives like /p, t, k/ within the same morpheme. Although all the three phones appear before plosives, like in limp, lint, link (limp/, /lint/, /liŋk/), only one of these might appear before each of the plosives, i.e., the /m, n, ŋ/ distinction is neutralized before each of the plosives /p, t, k/:

- Only /m/ occurs before /p/
- Only /n/ before /t/
- Only /K/ before /k/

Hence these phonemes are not contrastive in these environments, and according to some of the theorists, there is no assurance as to what the underlying representation may be. If anyone hypothesizes that they are dealing with just a single underlying nasal, there is no need to pick one of the three phonemes /m, n, K/ over the remaining two.

(In some of the languages there is just one phonemic nasal anywhere, and because of the obligatory assimilation, it surfaces as [m, n, K] in only these environments, so this is not as far-fetched an idea as it might seem at first glance.)

In some schools of phonology, such a neutralized distinction is termed as an archiphoneme (Nikolai Trubetzkoy of the Prague school is often associated with this analysis). Archiphonemes are usually notated with a capital letter. Following this convention, the neutralization of /m, n, K/ before /p, t, k/ could be notated as |N|, and limp, lint, link would be represented as |ljNp, ljNt, ljNk| (the |pipes| hint towards the underlying representation). Some other ways through which this archiphoneme could be represented are as follows:

- |m-n-K|
- {m, n, K}
- |n*|

One more example of phonology from American English is the neutralization of the plosives /t, d/ following a stressed syllable. Phonetically, both can be realized in this position as [~], a voiced alveolar flap. This can be heard by comparing betting with bedding.

So, it cannot be said whether the underlying representation of the intervocalic consonant in either word is /t/ or /d/ without looking at the un-suffixed form. This neutralization can be described as an archiphoneme |D|, in which case the underlying representation of betting or bedding could be |Èb[DjK]|.

One more way to describe about archiphonemes includes the concept of under specification. Phonemes can be thought of as fully specified segments while archiphonemes are underspecified segments. In a language known as Tuvan, phonemic vowels are specified along with the following articulatory features:

- Tongue
- Height
- Backness
- Lip rounding

The archiphoneme |U| is an underspecified high vowel where only the tongue height is mentioned.

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Whether [U] is pronounced as front or back and whether rounded or unrounded depends on vowel harmony. If [U] occurs follows a front unrounded vowel, it will be pronounced as the phoneme /i/; if following a back unrounded vowel, it will be pronounced as an /o/; and if following a back rounded vowel, it will be an /u/.

Minimal Contrastive Units in Sign Languages

In sign language, the basic elements of gesture and location were earlier known as cheremes (or cheiremes), but later on the general usage changed to phoneme. Tonic phonemes are usually known as tonemes, and timing phonemes are known as chronemes.

In sign languages, phonemes may be grouped as Tab (elements of location, from Latin *tabula*), Dez (the hand shape, from *designator*), Sig (the motion, from signation), and with some researchers, Ori (orientation).

Expressions of the face and mouth are also phonemic. There is one published set of phonemic symbols for sign language, the Stokoe notation, which is used for linguistic research and originally developed for American Sign Language. However, as they are not bound by phonology, they do not display any particular spelling for a sign. For example, the signwriting form would be different based on whether the signer is left or right-handed, irrespective of the fact that it makes no difference towards the meaning of the sign.

Allophones

While phoneme is the minimal unit of sound, there are many different versions of that unit of sound, which are produced in the actual speech. These different versions are called phones. A group of several phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, are referred to as allophones of that phoneme. The English words 'can' and scan' contain the phoneme /k/. A native speaker will not be able to identify the difference in the sound /k/ in the two words but for a linguist the phoneme /k/ does not sound alike. The /k/ in 'can' is an aspirated sound (followed by a 'puff of breath') while in 'scan' it is un-aspirated. Such variations in sound of the same phoneme are called allophones. Furthermore, if you take the phoneme 'p', a phonemic transcription will include three kinds of /p/ - [p], [p'], [p'] - ['] standing for aspiration and [p'] indicating no release by reopening the lips. All these varieties are called phones or allophones. Allophones have complementary distribution, i.e., they do not get into each other's ways. They tend to be restrictive- [p'] cannot appear at the beginning of a word and [p'] cannot occur at the end of the word. Therefore, allophones never collide and they complement one another in such a way that they take care of all the situations in which the phoneme occurs.

Each time a speech sound is produced for a given phoneme, it sounds a little different from the other utterances, even for the same speaker. This has led to some kind of debate over how real, and how universal, phonemes are in reality. Only some of the variation is important (i.e., detectable or perceivable) to the

speakers. There are two types of allophones, depending on whether a phoneme should be pronounced by using a specific allophone in a specific situation, or whether the speaker has freedom to (unconsciously) choose what allophone he or she will use.

Whenever a particular allophone (from a set of allophones that correspond to a phoneme) must be selected in a specific context (i.e., using a different allophone for a phoneme will cause confusion or make the speaker sound non-native), the allophones are thought to be complementary (i.e., the allophones complement each other, and one cannot be used in a situation where the usage of the other is standard). In the case of complementary allophones, every allophone is used in a particular phonetic context and it may be involved in a phonological process.

In the other cases, the speaker has been able to select freely from free variant allophones, depending upon personal habits and preferences.

Most linguists have identified allophones on the following basis:

Phonetic similarity: Linguists assume that if a phoneme is represented in two or more environments, there will be a high degree of similarity in the sounds produced among the allophones involved. In English, the phoneme /p/ is similar in both the initial and final positions as in *pin* (/ˈpin/) and *gap* (/gˈp/). Thus, both the sounds are phonetically similar. Phonetic similarity is used for comparing two data strings that might be spelled differently but will sound exactly the same. In master data management, phonetic similarity is used for data matching while comparing two sets of data that does not have a common exact key but it might be describing in the same real-world construct. Utilizing phonetic similarity in data quality improvement applies to both customer data quality as well as product data quality.

Complementary distribution: Every phoneme may have allophones. Sometimes, the allophones of a phoneme have a fixed place in different words. For example, the phoneme /p/ is aspirated and stressed in the initial position as in 'pan' but when used after 's' as in 'span', it becomes un-aspirated and unstressed. These variants of /p/ are said to be in complementary distribution. Complementary distribution in linguistics is the relationship amongst two elements, wherein one element is found in a specific environment and the other element is found in the opposite environment. It usually hints that two superficially different elements are in actuality one single linguistic unit at a deeper level. In some situations, more than two elements can be in complementary distribution with one another.

Complementary distribution is basically applied to phonology, when identical phones in complementary distribution are basically allophones of the same phoneme. For example, in English, [p] and [p^h] are allophones of the phoneme /p/ as they occur in complementary distribution. [p^h]

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always occurs when it is the syllable onset and is followed by a stressed vowel (as in the word **pin**). [p] occurs in all the other situations (as in the word *spin*).

There are various cases where elements are in complementary distribution, but are not considered allophones. For example in English [h] and [K] (engma, written with the digraph <-ng> in English) are in complementary distribution, as [h] only occurs at the beginning of a syllable and [K] only at the end. But they have so less in common in phonetic terms as they are still considered separate phonemes.

Symmetrical patterning: This can be explained by taking some consonant phonemes and pairing them on the basis of the similarity between them. For example, /p/ with /b/, /t/ with /d/ and /f/ with /v/. The phonemes /p/, /t/ and /k/ behave in a similar manner and each of them is aspirated when they occur in the initial position as in pill, till and kill. However, if /s/ comes before them, they become un-aspirated as in spill, still and skill. Here the above sounds are phonetically different. /p/ is a bilabial sound (articulated by the two lips), /t/ is a palatoalveolar (articulated by the blade of the tongue against the teeth ridge or hard palate) and /k/ is a velar (articulated by the back of the tongue against the central and forward part of the soft palate). If you select a set of six phonemes /p, t, k, b, d, g/, which contrast with each other on the same phonetic basis in both the environments initial and final, you find that their allophones differ from each other from one environment to the other in parallel ways, or the initial /p-/ differs from the initial /t-/ and /k-/ in that one is bilabial and the other two are palate alveolar and velar, respectively. The same differences can be found in the final /-p/, /-t/ and /-k/. The initial /b-, /d-, /g- and the final /-b/, /-d/, /-g/ also differ in the same way. This sort of parallelism is called symmetrical patterning.

Complementary and Contrastive Distribution and Suprasegmental Features

The word complementary refers to the fact that the contexts in which the allophones of a phoneme appear can never be the same and they cover the whole range of possible environments in which the sound can occur. For example, in a given situation or context X, only a certain allophone will occur whereas in another context of Y, another allophone is expected to occur and X and Y are the only contexts in which allophones occur. In example, in the context of pill-the voiceless plosive /p/ is followed by a stressed vowel, here it is aspirated allophone but on the other hand if /p/ comes in between of a word, it is not aspirated like in the word 'spill' - /spil/.

Thus, we can predict that if 'p' is not syllable initial and if it is preceded by another sound /s/, unaspirated variant of p will occur.

Pin	spin
[p [◦]],	[p]
Aspirated	unaspirated

The aspirated and unaspirated voiceless plosives are in complementary distribution with each other in English.

Thus [p[◦]] and [p] can be grouped together into one family and this family is called a phoneme. The words bead, deed, feed, seed, need, weed, all have three sounds each. The medial vowel and the final consonant is same in all and their substitution of the initial consonant will create a different word. So they do not belong to the same family or phonemes.

In vowels also as beat, bit, bet, but, bought, boot, bite, bout, initial and final consonants are same but vowels differ from each other. The substitution of vowels will also create a new word. So they also belong to different phonemes.

Two sounds are in contrastive distribution if they are not complementary. If two sounds distinguish a minimal Pair, they must be in contrastive distribution. A minimal pair is a set of two words which differ from each other in one sound.

Meat and neat

Seat and feet

Deed and need

Leave and love

Weed and need are minimal pairs because they differ from one another only in the initial consonant.

Sounds that are in contrastive distribution can distinguish words. If two sounds are in contrastive distribution, they must belong to different phonemes. [p[◦]], [t[◦]], [k[◦]] are in contrastive distribution with each other, so they must belong to three different phonemes.

Suprasegmental Features

Suprasegmental features are not what you say rather how you say. Thus, the manner (pitch, loudness, stress, intonation) of producing sounds come under suprasegmental features. Suprasegmental features operate over longer stretches of speech such as rhythm, voice quality as opposed to segmental features (vowels, consonants).

6.3 SYLLABLE

The parts or units into which words are divided while pronouncing them are called syllables. The vowel sounds in the word constitute the syllables while the consonantal sounds associate themselves with the preceding or following vowels or both. A syllable can thus, be defined as a group of sounds with one vowel and one or more

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than one consonant sounds. For example, let us take the word 'tree'. It has only one syllable, i.e. /i:/. The /t/ and /r/ sounds are consonantal sounds which precede the vowel sound /i:. Thus, words can be monosyllabic, disyllabic, trisyllabic, tetrasyllabic, so on and so forth depending on the number of vowel sounds they contain.

Stress or accent is the force of voice with which a syllable is pronounced. Stress denotes the pitch of voice and marks out the syllable or syllables that receive greater emphasis from the rest in a word. The stress generally falls on the root syllable and not on a prefix or a suffix. It is denoted by the mark (/) placed either on the vowel sound of the stressed syllable or at the end of it, as tree or tree.

Syllables that are stressed are also called accented and the unstressed are called unaccented. Generally, more important parts of speech like nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs receive greater stress. Longer words may have more than one prominent syllable. In such words, one syllable may have the main stress called primary stress, whereas the other syllable may have a weak stress called secondary stress. For example, in a word like photograph, there are three syllables, the primary stress being on the first syllable /fou/ and the secondary stress on the third syllable /gra:f/.

The word 'prosody' is taken from the Greek word *prosodia* which means a song put to music. It is defined as the science of versification and is the systematic study of the principles and practice of foot, metre, rhyme and stanza.

In terms of acoustics, the prosody of oral languages involve alteration in syllable length, loudness, pitch and the formant frequencies of speech sounds. In sign languages, prosody includes the rhythm, length, and tension of gestures, along with mouthing and facial expressions. Since it is typically absent in writing, prosody can occasionally result in reader misunderstanding. The typical marks or symbols that represent prosody include punctuation marks (commas, exclamation marks, question marks, scare quotes, and ellipses), and typographic styling for emphasis (italic, bold, and underlined text).

The prosody of a language depends upon its phonology. In a similar manner, prosodic pitch should not conceal tone in a tonal language if the result is to be comprehensible. Although tonal languages, such as Mandarin, have prosodic pitch variations in the course of a sentence, such alterations are long and smooth contours, on which the short and sharp lexical tones are superimposed. If pitch is compared to ocean waves, the swells that are created on the waves are prosody, and the wind-blown ripples on their surface are lexical tones, as with stress in English. The word 'dessert' has greater emphasis on the second syllable, compared to the noun 'desert' which has greater stress on the first syllable. This difference becomes relevant when the entire word is stressed by a child ordering 'Give me dessert!'

Prosodic features are suprasegmental. They are not restricted to any particular segment, but occur in some higher level of expression. These prosodic units are the real phonetic 'spurts' or chunks of speech. They need not correspond

to grammatical units such as phrases and clauses, though they may and these facts suggest ideas about how the brain processes speech. Prosodic units are marked by phonetic cues, such as a coherent pitch contour or the gradual decline in pitch and lengthening of vowels over the duration of the unit, until the pitch and speed are reorganized to begin the next unit.

Foot

A continuous reading of poetry does not create the desired effect. Poetry has a rhythm which occurs only when there is a regulated alternation of syllables, stressed and unstressed. Each regular combination or group of accented and unaccented syllables is called a *measure* or *foot*. In each foot, there must be at least one accented syllable and one or two unaccented syllables. Thus, the total number of syllables in an English foot is either two or three, but never more than three. For example:

*With ravished ears,
The monarch hears,
Assumes the god.
Affects to nod*

- Dryden

The above lines have two syllables in a foot.

There are many who say that a dog has his day

- Dylan Thomas

In the line, there are three syllables in a foot, two unstressed syllables followed by one stressed syllable.

Sometimes a strongly accented syllable is made to form an entire foot by itself for a special effect as in,

Break, break, break, -Tennyson

Metre

Metre is the succession of regularly accented groups of syllables called measures or feet in a recognized standard length. The number of feet in a poetic line determines the metre, i.e., if there are two feet, it is dimeter, three feet is trimeter and so on. Thus, a metric line is named according to the number of feet composing it, the following is the list of the metric line:

- Monometer-one foot
- Dimeter-two feet
- Trimeter-three feet
- Tetrameter-four feet
- Pentameter-five feet

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- Hexameter-six feet
- Heptameter-seven feet
- Octameter-eight feet
- Major Metrical Forms

The following are the different metrical forms used in English poetry:

Feet or Measures of Two Syllables

- **Iambic:** It consists of one unaccented syllable followed by one that is accented. It is the most common pattern in English poetry. For example,

*The curfew tolls the knell of parting day,
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea,
The ploughman homeward plods his weary way,
And leaves the world to darkness and to me.*

-Thomas Gray

- **Trochaic:** In this metrical form, the above order is reversed, i.e, the accented or stressed syllable precedes the unaccented syllable. For example,

Let her live to earn her dinner.

- J.M.Synge

Other disyllabic feet are also found in English prosody. They sometimes occur in irregular metres. Like Spondees in which both the syllables are accented – The long day wanes; the slow moon climbs; the deep (Tennyson) and Pyrrhics in which both the syllables are unaccented – My way is to begin with the beginning (Byron).

Feet or Measures of Three Syllables

- **Anapaestic:** In this form, two unaccented syllables are followed by an accented one. For example,

I am monarch of all I survey.

- Cowper

- **Dactylic:** It consists of an accented syllable followed by two unaccented ones. For example,

Take her up tenderly

- Hood

- **Amphibrachic:** In this metrical form, the accented syllable comes between the two unaccented ones. For example,

Most friendship is feigning.

Most loving mere folly.

- Shakespeare

Thus, the following are the principal metrical forms in English prosody:

- Iambic
- Trochaic

- Anapaestic
- Dactylic
- Amphibrachic

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Check Your Progress

1. Which categories can phonemes be divided in?
2. How are phonemes grouped in sign language?
3. When are allophones thought to be complementary?
4. What does 'stress' denote?
5. Write a short note on 'metre'.

6.4 WORD STRESS

One of the most important features of English is word accent. It has been observed that in the words that consist of more than one syllable, it is not necessary that each of the syllable is important. The syllables which are prominent have certain kind of accent on them. The dictionaries too indicates the location of word accent, and since there are only few rules related to this concept, it becomes necessary to understand the accentual pattern. The relative prominence of a syllable may be due to stress, that is, greater breath force, greater muscular effort, and greater amplitude of vibration of the vocal cords in the case of voiced sounds. However, in only a few instances, it happens that both the sound and the length contribute to prominence.

The syllable that has a pitch change effect on it is believed to have the tonic or primary accent. The other important syllables have secondary accent. The primary accent is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable to which it refers, whereas, secondary accent is marked with a bar below and in front of the syllable. A few examples of the accent on syllables are as follows:

Accent on the First Syllable

‘able, ‘baggage, ‘captain, ‘damage, ‘eager, ‘kidney, ‘dentist, ‘master, ‘package, ‘tackle.

Accent on the Second Syllable

a’bout, be’cause, ca’nal, de’ceive, ef’fect, en’rol, pos’sess, de’light, be’side, re’course.

Primary Accent on the First Syllable

‘accident, ‘bicycle, ‘calcu,late, ‘delicate, ‘edu, cate, ‘recog,nize, ‘recti,fy, ‘perme,ate, ‘foreigner, ‘quarrelsome.

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Primary Accent on the Second Syllable

ac 'custom, com' mittee, de' liver, e' lastic, ho' rizon, py' jama ,re' actor, fa' miliar, sul' phuric, des' cribing.

Primary Accent on the Third Syllable

,disap' point, ,entell tain, ,recom' mend, ,under' stand, super' sede, ,millio' naire, ,inhu' mane

Stress Shift

It is not necessary that the words from a certain group will have the primary or stress effect on the same syllable. However, the stress shift in vase of derivatives is usual, for instance, a' cademy, ,aca' demic, a, cademician , bac' teria, bac, teri' ology, bac, terio' logical, lindi' vidual, ,indi, vidu' ality, ,indil vldua listic, 'politics, po' litical, , poli' tician.

Historical Reasons

The reason that is responsible for the complexities which is present in the concept of word accent is in the history. The English language has been primarily drawn from two main sources which are Germanic and Romance. In case of Germanic influence, words generally have the accent at the beginning, whereas in case of the second influence, the last syllable was the most prominent. The intermingling of these two influences has resulted in the accentual patterns of modern English.

The words that consists of a combination of two or more words are known as compound words. The primary accent on such words, is usually only the first element.

A few instances of such words are as follows:

Primary Accent on the First Element

- 'anything
- 'backbone
- 'earthquake
- 'goldsmith

However, in a few cases, both the elements are accented, but the tonic accent is on the second element. This is shown by an oblique bar pointing downwards to indicate the tonic accent and a vertical bar to indicate the pre-tonic accent.

- 'after- noon
- 'half- hour
- ' long- lived
- 'middle- aged

‘north- west

In connected speech one of the two accents is dropped to suit the rhythm of the sentence.

Primary (Tonic) Accent on the Second Element

‘ hot- water- bottle

‘waste- paper- basket

Stress Change According to Function

In case of the two word syllables, the accentual pattern depends upon whether the word is a noun, an adjective, or a verb. This is so because, in the first syllable, the accent is on the first syllable if the word is an adjective or a noun, whereas in case it is a verb, then the accent is on the second syllable.

Examples

‘object (n.) ob’ ject (v.)

‘perfect (adj.) per’ fect (v.)

‘produce (n.) pro’ duce (v.)

‘progress (n.) pro’ gress(v.)

‘record (n.) re’ cord(v.)

‘import (n.) im’ port (v.)

‘subject (n.) sub’ ject(v.)

‘increase (n.) in’ crease (v.)

Word Accent in Indian English

In English, the patterns present in the word accent are not well organized as the patterns differ according to the usage in different countries. For example, the feature of change in accent according to the function of the word is not always found in Indian English. Similarly, an object is accented on the first syllable, both as a noun and a verb.

Let us now observe some of the examples that indicates that the accentual pattern of Indian English is different as compared to the Received Pronunciation. For instance, conduct (v.), develop, activity, already, correct, expect, hotel, industrial, mistake, occur and prefer are accented on the first syllable by some speakers instead of the second. Similarly, atmosphere, industry, minister, record (n.), refuge, written and yesterday are accented on the second syllable by some speakers instead of the first.

It is thus, essential that the correct patterns should be observed while conversing with the native English speakers. If consideration is not observed, then it will indicate the unintelligibility of Indian English.

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Rules for Accentual Patterns

The following are the rules that indicate the accentual pattern:

- All English words have either primary or secondary accent whether on the first or second syllable.
- Words with weak prefixes are accented on the root, and not the prefix, e.g., a' broad, a' cross, ad' mit, ad' vice, a'head, a' lone, aloud, a' mount, a' part, attend, below, be' tween, com' pose, cor' rect, de' velop, ex' pect, oc' cur, pre' fer, re' duce. The inflectional suffixes -es, -ing, -ed, and the following derivational suffixes do not affect the accent: -age, -dom, -en, -er, -ess, -ful, -fy, -less, -let, -ly, -ment, -ness, -or, -some, -ward.

For instance,

match ' matches

be' gin, be' ginning

want, ' wanted

break, ' breakage

free, ' freedom

bright, ' brighten

board, ' boarder

god, ' goddess

care, ' careful

class, ' classify

aim, ' aimless

book, ' booklet

bad, ' badly

ap' point, ap' pointment

' bitter, ' bittemess

' conquer, ' conqueror

fear ' fearsome ,

back ' backward

- Words ending in -ion observe the primary accent on the last syllable but one, e.g., ,appli' cation, ,civili' zation, ,compo' sition, ,conver' sation, ,culti' vation, de,termi' nation, ex,ami' nation, i,magi' nation. , intro duction,qualiti' cation.
- Words ending in -ic, -ical, -ically have the primary accent on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., a,polo' getic, e' lectric, ,scien' tific, ,sympa' thetic, ,sympa' theftically.

- Words ending in -ity, are 'accented on the syllable preceding the suffix, that is, on the third syllable from the end-the ante-penultimate syllable, e.g., ac'tivity, curi'osity, elec'tricity, e'quality, gene'rosity, mo'rality, ne'cessity, o,rigi'nality, ,possi'bility, ,proba'bility.
- Words ending in -ial, -ially have the primary accent on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., arti'ticial, cere'monial, ,conti'dential, ,conti'dentially, es'sential, es'sentially, in'dustrial, me'morial, of'ficial, ,presi'dential.'
- In words of more than two syllables ending in -ate, the primary accent is placed two syllables before the suffix, that is, on the third syllable from the end, e.g., 'compli,cate, 'culti,vate, 'edu,cate, 'fortunate, 'separate (adj.), 'sepa, rate (v.)
- Words ending in -ian are accented on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., elec'trician, li'brarian, mu'sician, poli'tician.
- Words ending in -ious are accented on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., 'anxious, in'dustrious, in'jurious, laborious. lu'xurious, re'bellious, vic'torious.
- The following suffixes take the primary accent on their first syllable:
 - aire ,millio'naire,
 - eer ca'reer,
 - ental ,funda' mental
 - ential ,exis'tential
 - esce ,acqui'esce
 - escence. ,effer'vescence
 - esque gro'tesque
 - ique phy'sique
 - iris neu'ritis

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6.4.1 WEAK FORMS

The feature that is related to the concept of stress is the 'weak forms'. The English language consist of a lot of words that are derived from either functional or grammatical words and they can be presented in either strong or weak forms. There are almost forty words of this kind and the following is a list of weak-form words:

- THE
- A
- AND

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- BUT
- THAT (as a conjunction of relative pronoun)
- THAN
- AT
- FOR
- FROM
- OF
- TO
- AS
- SOME
- CAN, COULD
- HAVE, HAS, HAD
- SHALL, SHOULD
- MUST
- DO, DOES
- AM, IS, ARE, WAS, WERE

In conclusion, one can state that the words have as many syllables as there are vowel sounds. In English language, depending on the number of vowel sounds, there can be only a single syllable which is referred to as a monosyllabic word, or a word consisting of two syllables is known as disyllabic (sometimes the syllable count can go up to seven).

6.4.2 Rhythm

When we form sentences by combining the words, it has been found that the accented syllables tend to recur at regular intervals of time. For example, in the sentence, 'That's not the book I wanted', the time intervals between the beginning of the strong syllables /not/, /'buk/ and /'wont/ will be approximately the same. It is thus, that provides English with its characteristic rhythm and if this feature, is not given importance, and it may suggest the lack of intelligibility.

The most important thing that should be observed from the point of view of the learner is the fact that a knowledge should be provided to him or her regarding the formation of accent in a sentence. The primary thing that should be kept in mind is the fact that the syllables of words which receive primary accent when the word is pronounced in isolation are potentially those which will receive the accent when the word occurs in a sentence. Thus, in case of the two-syllable word about /YÛ'baut/ the first syllable is unaccented and the second accented; when about is found in connected speech, the first syllable could not be accented and the second might or might not be, depending on the rhythmic balance of the sentence and the relative importance ascribed by the speaker to its different semantic constituents.

In the sentence ‘They’re coming about nine,’ the second syllable of about is not accented, as the most important parts of the sentence from the point of view of meaning are the fact that some people are coming, and the time at which they are coming. On the other hand, in the sentence ‘She doesn’t know what she’s about’, the second syllable of about receives the primary (or tonic) accent, because the word is semantically important and because it occupies a position in the sentence where, given the position of the other two strong syllables, another strong syllable would become necessary because of the rhythm of the sentence as a whole. Accent at the level of the sentence is therefore, much freer than in the word. However, certain kinds of words according to the nature of their function, are likely to be more important in conveying the meaning of the whole utterance or are more likely than others to receive accent in the sentence. Such kind of words can be nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs and demonstrative and interrogative pronouns. The following are the examples of such a case,

- He ‘came ‘late to the ñoffice.
- ‘Nobody ‘took any ñnotice of him.
- There’s ‘nothing to be ñdone about it.
- I’d ‘like to ‘know who ñbroke it.
- He’s ‘going to ‘meet us at the ñstation.

In these sentences, the tonic accent is indicated by an oblique bar that is pointed downwards. It has also been observed that the words that are normally accented in native English are sometimes left unaccented in case of Indian English. This is one of the primarily reason that the Indian English is sometimes unintelligible to native English speakers. This feature is particularly noticeable in noun phrases, where either the headword or one of the modifiers is sometimes left unaccented by Indian speakers. The said statement can be observed from the following examples:

- ‘several other things - other not accented; close juncture between several and other.
- ‘chemical engineering - engineering not accented
- ‘Indian Students’ – Students not accented.
- ‘Urban centres- centres not accented.
- ‘eighty-nine- nine not accented
- a ‘great need of - need not accented
- Bi’har State ‘Transport- State not accented.
- ‘East Godavari ‘District- Godavari not accented; close juncture between East and Godavari
- ‘Central Institute of- Institute not accented.
- ‘Arts College- College not accented

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6.4.3 Intonation

If we listen to someone who is speaking, one can distinguish the continued variations in the levels at which the voice is pitched. According to this view, the voice is similar to the voice that is observed when someone sings. These patterns are known as intonation patterns, however, they are different according to the different languages, but, as the use of the word 'pattern' perhaps indicates, changes in vocal pitch are not haphazard. The factors that help in determining a certain pattern are both objective and subjective. They are objective in the type of utterance (statement vs. question. command vs. request, even simple vs. complex sentence) and subjective according to the mood or the attitude of the speaker. Thus, significant intonation can be used with great subtlety, sometimes to convey information that is not overtly expressed by the words themselves. Therefore, if a speaker says 'She's very beautiful' with a falling intonation, then it may mean that they meant that in a precise manner or if one says it in the manner of falling-rising intonation, it will probably mean that although the lady in question may be beautiful, her character is defective in some or the other way.

It has been concluded that stress and intonation are linked phenomena as they work together in order to provide the effect of 'prominence' or accent. Accented syllables can be said with level pitch, high or low, or with a change in pitch. An accented syllable that is said on a level pitch is said to have a static tone, on the other hand, an accented syllable on which a pitch change takes place has a kinetic tone. The syllable which initiates a kinetic tone is called the nucleus and has the primary, nuclear, or tonic accent. For example, 'They 'came at ñight' according to the British English will have a static tone on the word 'came' which is accompanied by a falling nucleus, or with falling kinetic tone, on the word 'on night'.

The other most important factor that affects intonation is the speaker's emotions and the degree of intensity he brings to bear on what he is saying. Generally speaking, the more a speaker is involved with what he is saying, by way-of anger, grief, excitement, self-importance and so on, the greater will be the range of pitch and the amount of pitch change he uses; on the other hand, everyday speech, on the other hand, with little emotional content or even fatigued speech (tiredness acting as an emotional suppressive) is said within a more limited pitch range. It has also been concluded that the system of intonation patterns used by a native speaker of English, as of any other language, is complex. A foreign learner of the language would need years of study and practice before he could use the total system with the same facility as one born to it. It is possible, however, to learn and use a simplified system which will be completely intelligible and enable the learner to avoid conveying false impressions.

The Tones

We will now discuss the types of tones.

Level (Static) ‘

The following are the examples of the types of level tones:

- A high level tone will be marked with a symbol above and in front of the syllable to which it refers:

‘Those

‘Have

- A low level tone will be marked with a symbol, below and in front of the syllable to which it refers:

,Now

,Then

This mark is also used to indicate stressed syllables after a rising nucleus.

Moving (Kinetic)

The following are the examples of the types of kinetic tones:

- A falling tone will be marked with a symbol \ in front of the syllable to which it refers. The symbol will be above the line for a high falling tone and below the line for a low falling tone.

\Then \Look

\Do \Tell

- A rising tone will be marked with a symbol / in front of the syllable to which it refers. The symbol will be above the line for a high rising tone and below the line for a low rising tone.

/Yours ,/Car

/Three ,/These

Falling-Rising Tone

This type of tone will be marked with a symbol “above and in front of the syllable to which it refers. The following are its examples,

‘Try

‘Soft

‘Sleep

The Uses of the Tones

Let us now discuss the uses of the various types of tones.

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Falling

A falling tone is used as follows:

- In ordinary statements made without emotional implications:
It's 'seven o' \clock.
I have a 'lot of \students.
The 'house is \empty.
The 'water's \warm.
- In questions beginning with a question word such as what, why or how, (whose interrogative nature is therefore clear), which are said in a neutral and sometimes unfriendly way. The following are its examples:
'Why did you \do that?
'When are they \coming?
'How will they \get here?
'What are they \muttering about?
- In commands:
'Do as I \say.
'Come \here.

In British R.P. the typical intonation contour of a 'tune' in which a falling tone occurs is that the first accented syllable of the group is said on a high level note and each successive accented syllable on a slightly lower note, until the fall on the last accented syllable, which has the nuclear tone. Unaccented syllables, before the first accented syllable and after a falling nuclear tone are normally said on a low note. Whether the nuclear tone takes a high or a low fall usually depends on the degree of intensity which the speaker imparts to his utterance.

Rising

The rising tone is used as follows:

- In incomplete utterances, very often as the first clause of a sentence:
It's 'seven o', clock (but she hasn't got up yet).
I have a 'lot of, students (and some are quite bright).
The 'house is, empty (and has been for years).
The 'water's, warm (so why don't you come in).
- In questions which demand an answer yes or no:
'Are they /coming?
'Will you /do it?
Has the 'lecture, started yet?
Have you 'seen my 'younger, brother?

- In questions which begin with a question word such as what, why or how, and which are said in a warm friendly manner:

‘How’s your /mother?’

‘Why didn’t you ‘come and, see me?’

- In polite requests:

‘Would you ‘open the, window?’

‘Please sit, down.’

As one may observe that in these sentences, that whenever a choice is there between a rising and a falling tone, a rising tone indicates involvement as opposed to neutrality, friendliness as opposed to hostility. The beginning of the intonation contour in a ‘tune’ in which a rising tone occurs is the same as for a falling tone, in that the first accented syllable is said on a high-level note and any following accented syllable on successively lower notes. The last accented syllable, having the nuclear tone, is said on a rising note, any following accented syllables continuing the rise. Whether a rising tone goes up to mid or high pitch is again largely a matter of the degree of emotional intensity involved.

Falling-Rising (f’)

The falling-rising tone is typically used for special implications, and it tends to give an impression to the listener that he or she should understand more than the literal interpretation of the words. Its use in statements that can be contrasted with that of a falling tone, where nothing extra is meant to be read into the remarks that have been uttered. The term ‘special implication’ consists of a lot of varieties such as insinuation, veiled insult, apology, unpleasant news, happiness, reassurance, or doubt on the part of the speaker as to the validity of his remark. It has also been observed that the fall-rise may take place on one syllable, or it may be spread over several, in that case it is known as ‘divided’ tone. The examples of such cases are,

- I’m ‘going there this [f’]evening. (Even though you may have expected me to go earlier, this is the best I can do.)
- I ‘didn’t see you at the [f’]theatre. (I saw you somewhere else, and you didn’t realise it.)
- The [f’]houses are nice. (but perhaps the people in them aren’t so pleasant.)
- His [f’]brother will come. (which is just as good for our purposes, so don’t worry.)
- He’s [f’]not as stupid as i [f’]thought (which, even though he’s still quite stupid, is a good thing.)
- ‘Do it at /once.\ (I know that a person of your type won’t do it unless I tell him to.)

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Check Your Progress

6. How are words ending in -ian accented?
7. When is a rising tone used?
8. What does the term 'special implication' consist of?

6.5 SENTENCE STRESS

The words we choose to utter during any communication matter in producing the intended meaning to the listeners, but it is also true that the way in which the words are used is equally important as depending on how we speak the word and where the stress is given on the word and the sentence the meaning of our utterances change. Depending on how we utter the words, the intention of the speaker can be gauged. In written communication, one just reads the words; but in case of oral communication, one does not only listen to the words being spoken but also is attentive to the ways in which they are spoken. The intention of the speaker becomes clear when one listens to the stress in the communication. Thus, while listening or speaking, one should be very effective in using the correct stresses as on the right stress at the right place in the right words and phrases, that the signification of our communication depends. In this unit, we will be discussing about stress in general and about the stress in sentence in particular to understand how the stress decides the meaning of a sentence; and how we can effectively use that in our communicative needs and practices.

Some Definitions of Stress

- **Stress** is the force used in speaking. (Palmer)
- **Stress** is the relative degree of force with which a syllable is uttered. (Daniel Jones)
- **Stress** is the degree of loudness or intensity upon some syllable which makes it louder and more prominent than unstressed syllables (Bloch & Trager)

Stress is usually studied from two points of view: production and perception. The production of stressed syllables is said to imply a greater **muscular energy** than the production of unstressed syllables. That is to say that when there is more than one syllable in a word, the speaker of the word gives more prominence to one syllable than the other(s). From the perceptive point of view, stressed syllables are **prominent**. There are several factors responsible for such prominence or word stress, they are –

- (a) Loudness: When one speaks one is breathing out and in the process the syllables where the speaker provides greater muscular energy, it is heard with greater loudness or stress. For example, in the word

“calculation” there is four syllables – ‘cal’, ‘cu’, ‘la’, ‘tion’. Amongst these four syllables, “la” receives usually the loudest followed by “cal”, while ‘cu’ and ‘tion’ are unstressed syllables.

- (b) Pitch Change: The pattern of accent in a word also becomes clearer when the prominent syllable of the word is associated with a pitch change. For example, in the two-syllabic word “insult” the first syllable is not only louder, but at the same time; there is a pitch change in the first syllable from high to low, resulting in more emphasis on the first syllable.
- (c) Quality of the vowel: The prominence of a syllable in a word also depends on the quality of the vowel the syllable contains in comparison to the vowels of the neighbouring syllables. The syllable which will have a strong vowel sound will be more stressed than the rest.
- (d) Quantity: Sometimes the quantity or the length of the syllable decides the stress of a syllable in a word.

Thus, word stress depends on primarily these four factors – loudness, pitch, quality and quantity.

Some Rules for Placement of Primary Stress on words: Degrees of Stress:

It is true that the stress is unpredictable, and more so in English. Yet some general rules can be framed based on certain regularities that are found in providing stress in words, though it can never be said that these rules are always true in every case. Yet they are significant so as to make us understand that there are certain patterns of stress in English.

- (a) The first rule can be exemplified as that all English words more or less have some stress (whether primary or secondary) in the first or second syllable. For example, in the word “calculation” which has four syllables, the primary stress is in the third syllable but the first syllable has got the secondary stress.
- Two-syllable words are normally stressed on the first syllable: **foreign**, **mountain**, **legal**
- Three-syllable words are normally stressed on the first syllable: **character**, **family**
- Words of more than three syllables are normally stressed on the antepenultimate: **original**, **curiosity**
- (b) The inflectional morphemes or suffixes are not stressed and do not affect the stress in a word. “mistake” becomes “mistaken by adding an inflectional morpheme but that does not affect the stress in the word.
- (c) The following derivational morphemes or suffixes are not stressed and do not affect stress. They are –

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Derivational morpheme	Example
-age	Postage, breakage
-ance	Appearance, governance
-en	Soften, brighten
-ence	Subsistence
-er	Doer, keeper
-ess	Lioness, goddess
-ful	Dutiful, faithful
-fy	Beautify, classify
-hood	Childhood, manhood
-ice	Cowardice
-ish	Childish, foolish
-ive	Creative, Attractive
-less	Aimless, careless
-ly	Faithfully, happily
-ment	Government, postponement
-ness	Boldness, heaviness
-or	Governor
-ship	Scholarship
-ter	Laughter
-ure	Enclosure, failure
-y	Bloody, woolly
-zen	citizen

- (d) Some derivational suffixes receive stress and some others affect word stress. That is to say, that in case of these suffixes, the stress is shifted when the suffix is added to the stem. For example, in the word “employ” the primary stress is in the second syllable “-ploy”, but when we add the suffix “-ee” to the stem “employ” the new word “employee” is formed where there are three syllables and the primary stress shifts to the third syllable.

Another important feature related to stress is the “weak forms”. There are a number of words in English, mostly functional or grammatical words, which can be pronounced in two different ways, a strong and a weak form. There are about forty such words.

The most common weak-form words are:

- THE
- A
- AND
- BUT
- THAT (as a conjunction of relative pronoun)

- THAN
- AT
- FOR
- FROM
- OF
- TO
- AS
- SOME
- CAN, COULD
- HAVE, HAS, HAD
- SHALL, SHOULD
- MUST
- DO, DOES
- AM, IS, ARE, WAS, WERE

Some Stress Rules of English Language when used in sentence:

The basic rules of sentence stress are:

- **Content words** are usually **stressed**

Content words include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Negative words such as not or never also get stressed because they affect the meaning of the sentence. Modals, too, can change the meaning of a sentence. Here is a list of words to stress in an English sentence:

- o nouns (people, places, things)
- o verbs (actions, states)
- o adjectives (words that modify nouns)
- o adverbs (words that modify verbs, adjectives, other adverbs, or entire sentences)
- o negative words (not, never, neither, etc.)
- o modals (should, could, might, etc., but not will or can)
- o yes, no, and auxiliary verbs in short answers (e.g., Yes, she does.)
- o quantifiers (some, many, no, all, one, two, three, etc.)
- o Wh-Question words (what, where, when, why, how, etc.—note that what is often unstressed when speaking quickly because it's so common)

- **Structure words** are usually **unstressed**

Some words don't carry a lot of importance in an English sentence. Short words such as articles, prepositions, and conjunctions don't take stress. Pronouns don't usually get stressed either because the context often makes

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it clear who we're talking about. The Be verb and all auxiliary verbs don't carry much meaning—only the main verb does. Here is a list of words that shouldn't be stressed in an English sentence:

- o articles (a, an, the)
- o prepositions (to, in, at, on, for, from, etc.)
- o conjunctions (and, or, so, but, etc.)
- o personal pronouns (I, you, he, she, etc.)
- o possessive adjectives (my, your, his, her, etc.)
- o Be verb (am, is, are, was, were, etc.)
- o auxiliary verbs (be, have, do in two-part verbs or questions)
- o the modals will and be going to (because they're common, and the future tense is often clear from context) the modal can (because it's so common)

Based on the Stress in sentences, we have the musical effect in the way we speak. Based on stress, one usually finds the metrical pattern of sentence which is usually used in poetry. But even in our everyday use we can be lyrical and musical in our speech and conversation if we know the stress in a proper manner. Moreover, Stress in sentence can also change the meaning of a sentence. When we speak, the meaning is not there only in the words spoken but the way in which we stress on a particular word of a sentence. For example, a boss of an office came to the Research Laboratory hurriedly with a draft of a periodic report to be sent to a Client and loudly said "Is this how you work?" This sentence could be spoken in various ways –

1. Is **this** how you work?
2. Is this **how** you work?
3. Is this how **you** work?
4. Is this how you **work**? (the bold words are stressed)

In the first instance, the boss was pointing towards the draft report and probably commenting on the shabbiness of the work done. In the second instance, probably she or he was probably referring to the way in which the work had been done. In the third instance, s/he would have been referring to the people who have done the work shabbily and in the fourth instance she was referring to the work itself. Thus, the shift in stress changes the meaning of the words.

Stress Shift:

Shifting of Stress can lead to a change of meaning in English language as the way in which we stress on a part of the word makes it get the intended meaning. It is usually seen that the following two things happen in case of Stress Shift.

1. Those which keep the same general meaning, but which change from noun to verb when the stress moves from the first to the second syllable.

2. Those which change their meaning completely — most of them change from noun to verb, but a few changes to an adjective.

For example, “John is a drug ADD-ict.” (Here Addict is a noun) and “If you keep playing that game, you will get add-ICT-ed to it!” (Here addict is a verb)

For example, the word “IN-val-id” with stress on “In” suggests disability (Noun) as in “after the accident, he was invalid for a year”; whereas the word “In-VAL-ID” with stress on “VAL” suggests ‘cant be used’ – as an adjective –for example, “an invalid passport.”

Exercise.

Try to find the stressed syllables in the following sentences.

- The kids are playing.
- Do you have any sisters?
- Why aren’t you doing your homework?
- He bought a red car for his daughter.
- I am an Indian.
- The athlete ran quickly and won the competition.
- She does not know the answer.
- I don’t know the answer, either.
- We aren’t sure.
- I’ve never heard of that before, but it makes sense.
- They’ll ask the teacher for help.
- Some people prefer Macs, but many others prefer PCs.
- She is going to study tonight.
- I can speak Marathi.
- I can’t speak Chinese.
- Yes, I can. / No, I can’t.

Check Your Progress

9. State some words to be stressed in an English sentence.
10. List the things that happen in case of Stress Shift.

6.6 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. Phonemes can be divided into two categories – segmental phonemes and suprasegmental phonemes.

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2. In sign languages, phonemes may be grouped as Tab (elements of location, from Latin *tabula*), Dez (the hand shape, from *designator*), Sig (the motion, from signation), and with some researchers, Ori (orientation).
3. Whenever a particular allophone (from a set of allophones that correspond to a phoneme) must be selected in a specific context (i.e., using a different allophone for a phoneme will cause confusion or make the speaker sound non-native), the allophones are thought to be complementary (i.e., the allophones complement each other, and one cannot be used in a situation where the usage of the other is standard).
4. Stress denotes the pitch of voice and marks out the syllable or syllables that receive greater emphasis from the rest in a word. The stress generally falls on the root syllable and not on a prefix or a suffix.
5. Metre is the succession of regularly accented groups of syllables called measures or feet in a recognized standard length. The number of feet in a poetic line determines the metre, i.e., if there are two feet, it is diameters, three feet is trimeter and so on.
6. Words ending in -ian are accented on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., elec'trician, li'brarian, mu'sician, poli'tician.
7. The rising tone is used as follows:
 - (i) In incomplete utterances, very often as the first clause of a sentence
 - (ii) In questions which demand an answer yes or no
 - (iii) In questions which begin with a question word such as what, why or how, and which are said in a warm friendly manner
 - (iv) In polite requests
8. The term 'special implication' consists of a lot of varieties such as insinuation, veiled insult, apology, unpleasant news, happiness, reassurance, or doubt on the part of the speaker as to the validity of his remark.
9. Words to stress in an English sentence are:
 - a. nouns (people, places, things)
 - b. verbs (actions, states)
 - c. adjectives (words that modify nouns)
10. The following two things happen in case of Stress Shift.
 - (i) Those which keep the same general meaning, but which change from noun to verb when the stress moves from the first to the second syllable.
 - (ii) Those which change their meaning completely — most of them change from noun to verb, but a few changes to an adjective.

6.7 SUMMARY

- The word ‘phoneme’ was used in the nineteenth century to refer to a unit of sound. The term largely remained under-developed until it was used by distinguished linguists like Saussure and Bloomfield.
- All the segmental sounds used in each language can be classed into a limited number of phonemes, and conversely the consonant and vowel phonemes exhaustively cover the entire consonant and vowel sounds so occurring.
- An example of phonology from American English is the neutralization of the plosives /t, d/ following a stressed syllable. Phonetically, both can be realized in this position as [~], a voiced alveolar flap. This can be heard by comparing *betting* with *bedding*.
- In sign language, the basic elements of gesture and location were earlier known as *cheremes* (or *cheiremes*), but later on the general usage changed to *phoneme*. Tonic phonemes are usually known as *tonemes*, and timing phonemes are known as *chronemes*.
- While phoneme is the minimal unit of sound, there are many different versions of that unit of sound, which are produced in the actual speech. These different versions are called *phones*. A group of several phones, all of which are versions of one phoneme, are referred to as *allophones* of that phoneme.
- There are two types of allophones, depending on whether a phoneme should be pronounced by using a specific allophone in a specific situation, or whether the speaker has freedom to (unconsciously) choose what allophone he or she will use.
- Linguists assume that if a phoneme is represented in two or more environments, there will be a high degree of similarity in the sounds produced among the allophones involved. In English, the phoneme /p/ is similar in both the initial and final positions as in *pin* (/‘pin/) and *gap* (/g ‘p/).
- The word *complementary* refers to the fact that the contexts in which the allophones of a phoneme appear can never be the same and they cover the whole range of possible environments in which the sound can occur.
- Two sounds are in *contrastive distribution* if they are not complementary. If two sounds distinguish a minimal Pair, they must be in contrastive distribution. A minimal pair is a set of two words which differ from each other in one sound.
- The word ‘*prosody*’ is taken from the Greek word *prosodia* which means a song put to music. It is defined as the science of versification and is the systematic study of the principles and practice of foot, metre, rhyme and stanza.

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- The syllable that has a pitch change effect on it is believed to have the tonic or primary accent. The other important syllables have secondary accent. The primary accent is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable to which it refers, whereas, secondary accent is marked with a bar below and in front of the syllable.
- Words ending in -ial, -ially have the primary accent on the syllable preceding the suffix, e.g., arti'ticial, cere'monial, ,conti'dential, ,conti'dentially, es'sential, es'sentially, in'dustrial, me'morial, of'ficial, ,presi'dential.'
- The factors that help in determining a certain pattern in intonation are both objective and subjective. They are objective in the type of utterance (statement vs. question. command vs. request, even simple vs. complex sentence) and subjective according to the mood or the attitude of the speaker.
- In British R.P. the typical intonation contour of a 'tune' in which a falling tone occurs is that the first accented syllable of the group is said on a high-level note and each successive accented syllable on a slightly lower note, until the fall on the last accented syllable, which has the nuclear tone.
- The falling-rising tone is typically used for special implications, and it tends to give an impression to the listener that he or she should understand more than the literal interpretation of the words.
- Depending on how we utter the words, the intention of the speaker can be gauged. In written communication, one just reads the words; but in case of oral communication, one does not only listen to the words being spoken but also is attentive to the ways in which they are spoken.
- when there is more than one syllable in a word, the speaker of the word gives more prominence to one syllable than the other(s). From the perceptive point of view, stressed syllables are prominent.
- The inflectional morphemes or suffixes are not stressed and do not affect the stress in a word. "mistake" becomes "mistaken by adding an inflectional morpheme but that does not affect the stress in the word.
- Content words include nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Negative words such as not or never also get stressed because they affect the meaning of the sentence. Modals, too, can change the meaning of a sentence.
- Shifting of Stress can lead to a change of meaning in English language as the way in which we stress on a part of the word makes it get the intended meaning.

6.8 KEY WORDS

- **Phonology:** It is the branch of linguistics that deals with systems of sounds (including or excluding phonetics), within a language or between different languages.

- **Archiphoneme:** It is a phonological unit which expresses the common features of two or more phonemes which are involved in a neutralization.
- **Allophone:** It is one of a set of multiple possible spoken sounds, or phones, or signs used to pronounce a single phoneme in a particular language
- **Toneme:** It refers to any of the phonemes of the tone language by which tone conveys differences in lexical meaning.
- **Chereme:** It refers to any of a small set of elements, analogous to phonemes in speech, proposed as the basic structural units by which the signs of a sign language are represented, and including the handshape, hand movements, and locations of the hands in relation to the body as used in a particular sign language.
- **Intonation:** It refers to the variation in spoken pitch used, not for distinguishing words as sememes (a concept known as tone), but, rather, for a range of other functions such as indicating the attitudes and emotions of the speaker.

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6.9 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What do suprasegmental phonemes consist of?
2. What are allophones?
3. Write a short note on suprasegmental features.
4. What are the typical marks that include prosody?
5. List some words that should not be stressed in an English sentence.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the bases on which allophones have been identified by most linguists.
2. Elaborate upon the rules that indicate accentual patterns.
3. Analyze the different types of tones.
4. Examine the factors responsible for prominence of stressed syllables.

6.10 FURTHER READINGS

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UNIT 7 ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

NOTES

Structure

- 7.0 Introduction
- 7.1 Objectives
- 7.2 Teaching of English Pronunciation: Objectives, Causes, Reasons and Methods
- 7.3 Answers To Check Your Progress Questions
- 7.4 Summary
- 7.5 Key Words
- 7.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 7.7 Further Readings

7.0 INTRODUCTION

Pronunciation of words is extremely important for gaining command over the language and for sending across one's message correctly to the receiver. Some factors act as impediments in the acquisition of skills regarding correct pronunciation. Some of the factors are incompetence of the teacher, resources available at school and the duration of the lesson. Two approaches are adopted for teaching pronunciation: context free situation and context embedded situation. Context free situation uses techniques such as imitation, explanation, mimicry, contrastive analysis of phonological elements and use of simple face diagram. Context embedded situation relies on teaching through real life experiences of the learners. Apart from these techniques, the teacher should facilitate learning by planning activities and providing feedback of performance.

7.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the objectives and causes of teaching English pronunciation
- Analyze the reasons and methods of teaching English pronunciation

7.2 TEACHING OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION: OBJECTIVES, CAUSES, REASONS AND METHODS

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The aspiration of English as a second language (ESL) learner is to gain competence in the spoken skills, they are intrinsically motivated to produce the sounds with requisite stress and speak meaningful sentences in real life contexts with appropriate rhythm and intonation.

Objectives of Teaching English Pronunciation

The following are some of the objectives of teaching English pronunciation:

- To improve intelligibility of the language
- To help the recognition, identification and production of different key sounds in English
- To help increase self-confidence while speaking the language
- To assist in development skills for monitoring the language by listening
- To achieve the native level of pronunciation of the language
- in a single document.

However, due to many reasons, they are not successful in this endeavour.

These factors may be categorized as:

- Direct
- Indirect

Direct factors are those factors which are directly related to the teacher as well as the student, such as professional commitment, and competence of the teacher, while the Indirect factor refers to those factors which have an indirect impact on the teaching and learning process, such as resources available in the school, size of classrooms and others.

You must have recalled direct factors as the competence and proficiency of the language teacher, for indirect factor we may have time and duration of the session, availability of infrastructural resources and so on.

Methods of Teaching English Pronunciation

There are two approaches to teaching of Pronunciation:

- Context free situation
- Context embedded situation

1. Context free situation

There have been a variety of techniques suggested to help the students master the correct pronunciation of the target language.

- **Imitation** (some may call it modelling) is believed to play a significant role in learning the English sound system.
- **Explanation** of the distinction between sounds
- **Use of simple face diagram** in which the various “organs of speech” are shown. Using pictures, drawings, objects, etc., the teacher attempts to teach the place and manner of articulation of difficult sounds.
- **Contrastive analysis of phonological elements** of the students’ native language (L1) and English (L2).
- **Mimicry- memorization** techniques, the student repeats a word, a phrase, and/or a short sentence several times in order that the sound segment(s) of the word, phrase, or sentence become memorized and established in his/her mind.

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2. Context embedded situation

This method focuses on the use of different situations related to real life or to the students’ experience. One is to tell the students a brief story in which the teacher can insert difficult sounds in the form of minimal pairs.

However some criterions need to be observed for contextualization of minimal pairs. They are as follows (as suggested by Bowen, 1972, p.92):

- Meaningful
- Pictureable
- Balanced
- If possible, relevant to the experience and/or interest of the students

For instance a short passage conveying a certain situation in which words such as WISE-RISE, MIND-KIND, HATE-FATE, and so on are used.

Role of Teachers

The teacher plays a significant role in teaching pronunciation. Listed below are some efforts teacher must make if she aspires her learners to be able to speak appropriately.

• Facilitate students’ hearing

The first step in teaching pronunciation is to helping learners hear and register the sounds and its features. Learners need sufficient exposure in order to perceive the sounds and their features. Learners need training in discrimination of sounds so that they are able to produce the same. Just as we help a child to acquire the schema of an apple by showing a picture and asking him to hold an apple in hand to register its shape, colour, and taste, similarly, language learners need training in listening the English sound and registering its features, how it sounds, what is its symbol, what is the place of its articulation, what distinguishes it from other similar

sounds. For instance /p/ and /b/ both are plosive sounds, articulated by closing the lips, yet they are different as one of them is voiced and other one is voiceless.

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Given below are the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) symbols for English sounds. They are usually represented in parentheses. Teachers need to ensure that learners are able to perceive the difference in each sound.

British English Phonemic Chart

ɪ	ɪ	ʊ	u:	ɪə	eɪ	ɪ	ɔ
e	ə	ɜ:	ɔ:	ʊə	ɔɪ	əʊ	ʊ
æ	ʌ	ɑ:	ɒ	eə	aɪ	aʊ	
p	b	t	d	tʃ	dʒ	k	g
f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ
m	n	ŋ	h	l	r	w	j

American English Phonemic Chart

iy	ɪ	ʊ	uw				
ey	ə ^(r)	ow	ay				
ɛ	ɜ ^r	ɔ	aw				
æ	ʌ	ɑ	ɔy				
p	b	t	d	tʃ	dʒ	k	g
f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ
m	n	ŋ	h	l	r	w	y

Fig. 7.1 British and American English IPA Symbols

Source: Google image

• Generate situations for production of sounds

Once students are given sufficient exposure to the sounds and conversation in English, they are supposedly ready to use/ utter it themselves. The teachers' presence is desirable at this stage as the learner looks up to the teacher after each production / performance for reinforcement and feedback and suggestion on what and how of the sounds. They help the learner in identifying the distinctive features of the sounds, word stress and intonation pattern.

• Feedback on Performance

Time bound feedback is required for reinforcing correct production and improvising wrong production. This exercise works best in a language laboratory. Often it happens that they end up with miscommunication due to misplaced stress and intonation. The English Teacher's role is to tell the learner what is required, what they are doing and how is it getting 'wrong'. The caution the learner needs to exercise in the production of certain sounds (accent- if it is not leading to intelligent communication), the rhythm, intonation, and word stress can be highlighted by the teacher during her feedback to the learners during practice sessions.

• Setting up of priorities

Learners are curious and in a hurry to use the target language fluently, they however do not have the expertise knowledge, understanding and competence to priorities

what to learn? What order should they follow? The teacher acts as a guide to show them the way to gain fluency and accuracy in the target language.

- **Planning relevant activities**

English Teachers are in the best position to decide which activities need to be planned to suit the level and context of the learner. Age appropriate activities need to be selected, prepared and organized for the learner to provide them an adequate and appropriate exposure to the target language.

- **Monitoring learner progress through continuous scheduled assessment**

Another very significant role of a teacher is to keep an eye on the progress of the learner. They should keep assessing the success of the learner after a specified number of sessions. It gives an idea to the learner where he stands, how much more he has to work hard and in which direction, besides motivating them and kindling their interest in the process. For the language teacher, assessment helps them know the success of the method, material and techniques used by her to meet the objectives of her session.

- **Role of students**

The success of learning pronunciation depends immensely on the learner's attitude, diligence and ownership. Unless and until the learner is motivated to learn, nothing can be assured. The learner must enjoy the process of learning the pronunciation through active participation in various tasks during the practice session. The learner must be observant enough to pick up the features of sound highlighted by the teacher. The learner should be all attention when stress and intonation is being discussed, for observation and concentration is mandatory for appropriate imitation.

Causes and Reasons Affecting Teaching-learning of Pronunciation

- **The mother tongue / L1**

There are research findings indicating that the distinctive features of the sound system of the mother tongue has considerable impact on the acquisition of English pronunciation. This is the reason behind the distinct accent of individuals hailing from different parts of the world. However, there are cases where the individual is able to overcome this 'accent'. Hence, whether this factor impacts the acquisition of the pronunciation is debatable and differs with individual cases.

- **Age of the learner**

On surface, it appears that the young child is a better language learner as compared to an adult. There are sufficient studies to prove this fact, however, contradictory findings have been revealed by researches stating that the adults have exquisite abilities of analyzing distinctive features of sounds unlike young children.

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There are studies on 'sensitive window' hypothesis highlighting the initial years of child development as being the most productive and fertile phase for language acquisition. If this was the case, all learners should be able to master the second language given similar conditions of learning, but it seldom happens. Thus, we cannot rely on this fact blindly.

• Degree of exposure/ input rich environment

Invariably, the quality of exposure to the target language should result in better acquisition of pronunciation. But, then why is it that people living in the target language country sometimes fail to acquire the native like proficiency in the target language? This conveys the significance of input rich environment in the immediate environment of the individual. If the individual lives in a country with native speakers of the language, but the family environment uses the mother tongue of the individual, it results in an acquisition poor environment.

• Phonetic sense

There are studies supporting the significance of this factor in the process of second language acquisition. Language learners differ on account of their phonetic sense. Those who have an advanced phonetic sense, acquisition process will be relatively smooth for them. However, this is not a key determinant factor, as there are cases pointing towards learners with high phonetic sense but poor language proficiency.

• Attitude towards the target language and target language community and Identity with the culture of target language community

It is said that one man can force a horse to move to the source of water but hundred men cannot force it to drink water. Similarly a language learner who carries a negative attitude towards the target language, believes that that learning the target language is a belittling experience, he will never be successful. Similarly, if a learner understands the culture, values and traditions of the target language community, he will be in a better position to acquire the new language. Thus, it is important for the language teacher to orient the learners to the target language community, its culture, values, and traditions.

• Motivation and conscience for good pronunciation

Learning a second language is not an easy process, it is a challenging process, motivated learners are able to achieve the goals, whereas the not so motivated often give up in between. It is the task of a teacher to ensure that the learners stay motivated throughout.

Also, unless and until, the learner gets involved in the process, the teacher will find it difficult to manage the teaching-learning process. It is the responsibility of the teacher to be conscious of the use of the target language by the learners, aim for accuracy and encourage learners to develop this conscience within themselves, so that they keep asking others and themselves if their pronunciation is good/ bad.

Thus, we may conclude that of all the factors mentioned above the last one is the most important one and in control of the teacher.

Check Your Progress

1. What are direct factors?
2. List some criteria that need to be observed for contextualization of minimal pairs.
3. How do language learners differ on account of phonetic sense?

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7.3 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS’

1. Direct factors are those factors which are directly related to the teacher as well as the student, such as professional commitment, and competence of the teacher.
2. Some criteria that need to be observed for contextualization of minimal pairs are:
 - Meaningful
 - Pictureable
 - Balanced
 - If possible, relevant to the experience and/or interest of the students
3. Language learners differ on account of their phonetic sense. Those who have an advanced phonetic sense, acquisition process will be relatively smooth for them. However, this is not a key determinant factor, as there are cases pointing towards learners with high phonetic sense but poor language proficiency.

7.4 SUMMARY

- The aspiration of English as a second language (ESL) learner is to gain competence in the spoken skills, they are intrinsically motivated to produce the sounds with requisite stress and speak meaningful sentences in real life contexts with appropriate rhythm and intonation.
- The Indirect factor refers to those factors which have an indirect impact on the teaching and learning process, such as resources available in the school, size of classrooms and others.
- Imitation (some may call it modelling) is believed to play a significant role in learning the English sound system.
- An awareness of the organs of speech, the mechanism and points of articulation is mandatory for mastering the sound system of English Language. The articulators are movable and points of articulation are stationary.

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- The first step in teaching pronunciation is to helping learners hear and register the sounds and its features. Learners need sufficient exposure in order to perceive the sounds and their features. Learners need training in discrimination of sounds so that they are able to produce the same.
- Once students are given sufficient exposure to the sounds and conversation in English, they are supposedly ready to use/ utter it themselves. The teachers' presence is desirable at this stage as the learner looks up to the teacher after each production / performance for reinforcement and feedback and suggestion on what and how of the sounds.
- Time bound feedback is required for reinforcing correct production and improvising wrong production. This exercise works best in a language laboratory. Often it happens that they end up with miscommunication due to misplaced stress and intonation.
- Another very significant role of a teacher is to keep an eye on the progress of the learner. They should keep assessing the success of the learner after a specified number of sessions.
- There are research findings indicating that the distinctive features of the sound system of the mother tongue has considerable impact on the acquisition of English pronunciation. This is the reason behind the distinct accent of individuals hailing from different parts of the world.
- A language learner who carries a negative attitude towards the target language, believes that that learning the target language is a belittling experience, he will never be successful. Similarly, if a learner understands the culture, values and traditions of the target language community, he will be in a better position to acquire the new language.

7.5 KEY WORDS

- **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)** is an alphabetic system of phonetic notation based primarily on the Latin script. It was devised by the International Phonetic Association in the late 19th century as a standardized representation of speech sounds in written form.
- **Sensitive Window Hypothesis:** It claims that there is an ideal time window to acquire language in a linguistically rich environment, after which further language acquisition becomes much more difficult and effortful. ... If language input does not occur until after this time, the individual will never achieve a full command of language.

7.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What are the two approaches to teaching pronunciation?
2. What is the reason behind the distinct accent of individuals hailing from different parts of the world?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the techniques suggested to help the students master the correct pronunciation of the target language.
 2. Elaborate upon the role of teachers in teaching pronunciation.
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7.7 FURTHER READINGS

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BLOCK IV
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING STRATEGIES

**UNIT 8 TEACHING OF ENGLISH
VOCABULARY**

Structure

- 8.0 Introduction
- 8.1 Objectives
- 8.2 English Vocabulary Teaching: Definition, Meaning and Procedures
- 8.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 8.4 Summary
- 8.5 Key Words
- 8.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 8.7 Further Readings

8.0 INTRODUCTION

A good knowledge of vocabulary is a prerequisite for mastering a new language. A number of ways can be used to improve one's vocabulary. These include looking up words in the dictionary, writing definitions, memorizing and so on. A variety of techniques are employed by teachers for imparting a good knowledge of words and their meanings by focusing on etymology, synonyms, homophones, antonyms, charts, pictures, morphological analysis etc. An analysis of the techniques used for teaching vocabulary has been provided in this unit.

8.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the meaning and definition of teaching English vocabulary
- Analyze the procedures used for teaching English vocabulary

**8.2 ENGLISH VOCABULARY TEACHING:
DEFINITION, MEANING AND PROCEDURES**

“Without grammar very little can be conveyed...but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”

– Wilkins (p.111, quotes in Lewis, 2000).

In order to express our thoughts and feeling in any form and mode, we need to study vocabulary particularly while learning a new language. English being a second language or foreign language, one needs to learn vocabulary in the systematic way.

Vocabulary refers to the words used in a language. It may also be defined as the word stock or words used by a group of people speaking a particular language.

Vocabulary is intricately linked with all the language skills be it listening, speaking, reading or writing. Hence adequate store of vocabulary is essential for developing these language skills.

Vocabulary instructions have traditionally been concerned with:

- Having students look words up in the dictionary
- Write definitions
- Use words in sentences
- Prepare word lists
- Discussion
- Memorization
- Use of vocabulary books, and
- Vocabulary quizzes

However, latest studies and theories have revealed that these strategies do not empower the learner to use the new vocabulary appropriately in new contexts.

What does vocabulary instruction involve?

Richards (1976) lists the following aspects the teacher must get familiar with before introducing it to the learner:

- The meaning(s) of the word
- Its spoken and written forms
- What “word parts” it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and “root” form)
- Its grammatical behaviour (e.g., its word class, typical grammatical patterns it occurs in)
- Its collocations
- Its register
- What associations it has (e.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning)
- What connotations it has
- Its frequency

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Procedures or Activities for Teaching Vocabulary

This section will present before you a plethora of activities compiled from various sources to increase your activity bank for vocabulary instructions:

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- Combining vocabulary with reading and writing activities, providing the students with different lexical information about the words under study.
- **By showing actual objects and showing models:** This is a very useful technique to teach vocabulary to the beginners, as it gives real experience and sense to the learners. The words like pen, chalk, table, chair, football, flowers, tomato, etc. can be taught in the classroom.
- **Real objects or models of real objects:** These are very effective and meaningful in showing meanings but in handling of real objects, a teacher must be practical and should not be superfluous. It is neither possible nor necessary to bring all the things in the classroom. Therefore, some words are to be taught by showing models. They are easily available in the market. They are inexpensive too. Hence, teacher should make frequent use of such models to teach vocabulary. For example, the words like tiger, brain, elephant, airplane, etc. can be shown to the learner.
- **Using demonstrations and showing pictures:** Teacher can perform some words. It can be fun and frolic. It makes the class student-centered. Teacher can act and learners try to imitate it. For example, the words like jump, smile, cry, nap, sleep, and dance can be demonstrated.
- **Miming works well with younger students:** You can mime out emotions and everyday activities to teach new words. This method can be practiced at ease. It can win the favour of the students as learners like dramatizations and can easily learn through them. Many situations can be dramatized or demonstrated. This works well with young students or students studying a foreign language to help introduce them to new concepts. After explaining new vocabulary, you can then ask the students to perform the actions.
- **Charts, pictures and maps:** These can be used to develop students' understanding of a particular concept or word. There are some good picture dictionaries available in the market. Teacher should make use of such dictionaries. For instance, using a picture of a 'fish', words related to the fish, such as gills, eyes, backbone, cold-blooded, water, big, small etc. can be taught. Zebrowska (1975:452) rightly says, 'Learners remember better the material that has been presented by means of visual aids'. Some words work well with pictures, particularly nouns. This can also be a good way to introduce blocks of related words, which is often utilized in foreign language classes, such as nouns and verbs related to the classroom or the house.
- **Pictures:** Pictures can also be used in printable worksheets and flashcards, where pictures are matched to the word they represent.

- **Teaching vocabulary in context:** Words taught in isolation are generally not retained. In addition, in order to grasp the full meaning of a word or phrase, students must be aware of the linguistic environment in which the word or phrase appears. Setting a good context which is interesting, plausible, vivid and has relevance to the lives of the learners, is an essential prerequisite for vocabulary teaching as it helps in both engaging the attention of the learners and naturally generating the target vocabulary. Maintaining the context and making sure the language surrounding the context is easy to comprehend, the teacher should start eliciting the target vocabulary. Therefore, in selection of vocabulary, the teacher must be sure that the words or phrases chosen can be immediately incorporated into the students' linguistic range. Stahl (2005) stated, "Vocabulary knowledge is knowledge; the knowledge of a word not only implies a definition, but also implies how that word fits into the world."
- **Etymology:** Every word has its origin and its story of how it gets its current meanings. Because of its physical and meaningful origin, the etymology of a word is often found much easier to be comprehended than the bare linguistic symbol and its present semantic meanings. So, whenever we teach an English word that is completely strange, we can ask students to look it up in a dictionary or other reference books, and or surf on the internet to find its origin. The interesting stories behind a word's birth can be a very good reminder for students to remember the particular word. Thus, learning the etymology of a word will certainly promote students' comprehension of new words.
- **By drawing pictures:** It is an easy and quick technique of introducing vocabulary to the learners. For students, drawing can be a fun medium to explain vocabulary. It is not necessary that teacher must be an expert in drawing pictures accurately. He can draw rough sketches to make an idea clear. Basic sketches will often work well. You can even have students do their own drawings, which further reinforces their understanding of the vocabulary.
- **Comparative words and prepositions** can be made clear by simple sketches. Pictures of many types and colours can be used successfully to show the meaning of words and sentence.
- **Drawings** can be used to explain the meaning of things, actions, qualities, and relations.
- **Associated vocabulary:** If one topic consists of number of words, it is easy to teach these entire words altogether. For example, it is easier to teach words like orange, banana, grapes, lemon, pineapple, mango, and watermelon together in the context of 'fruits' than to teach anyone of these words in isolation. Examples of lexical fields: Parts of the Face as: (a) parts of the face- forehead, brow, temples, nose, nostrils, bridge/tip of the nose,

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septum, mouth, lips, eyes, eyebrows, eyelids, eyelashes, chin, cheeks, jaw, and jowls.

- **Using morphological analysis of words:** Morphology is the study of words in different terms, showing how words are broken down into smaller units, and how such units are recognized. That is to say, by using the analysis of morphemes of words, we can find out the meaning of words, even some of unfamiliar English words. It is estimated that there are over 600,000 English words concerned with the roots and affixes. But the roots and affixes are limited in numbers and simple in meaning. And the most commonly used roots and affixes are only 600-800 in number. By using the analysis of roots, affixes, and word structure, we can teach thousands of English words. For example: “hand/handle/handful/handicap/handsome/beforehand...”.
- **Dictionary:** It is an important tool in the teaching and learning of vocabulary. Teacher should encourage students to search words in dictionaries. Therefore, the habit of its use should be inculcated right from the beginning. Gonzalez (1999) found that dictionary work was laborious but necessary, and that ESL college students need to be taught practical use of the dictionary. Exploring dictionary entries can be one important and effective component of understanding a word deeply. The entries can also help students determine the precise meaning of a word. Allen (1983:82) perceives, ‘Dictionaries are passport to independence and see them as one of the student - centered learning activities’. The following are some current recommended English - English dictionaries:
 - Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary,
 - Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,
 - Cambridge International Dictionary of English,
 - Oxford Picture Dictionary.
- **Collocation:** It’s a widely accepted idea that collocations are very important part of knowledge and they are essential to non-native speakers of English in order to speak or write fluently. Nattinger (1980) in Carter and MacCarthy (1988), “It teaches students expectations about which sorts of words go with which ones. Students will not go about reconstructing the language each time they want to say something” The term collocation generally refers to the way in which two or more words are typically used together. For example, we talk about heavy rain but not heavy sun, or we say that we make or come to a decision, but we don’t do a decision. So, heavy rain and make a decision are often referred to as collocations and we say that heavy collocates with rain. Collocations include: [1] Verb + Noun (e.g. break a code, lift a blockade) [2] Verb + Adverb (e.g. affect deeply, appreciate sincerely) [3] Noun + Verb (e.g. water freezes, clock ticks) [4] Adjective + Noun (e.g. strong tea, best wishes) [5] Adverb + Adjective (e.g. deeply absorbed, closely related)

- **Synonyms:** A synonym may be used to help the student to understand the different shades of meaning, if the synonym is better known than the word being taught. Synonyms help to enrich a student's vocabulary bank and provide alternative words instantly. These can be effective since they build on words and phrases that students already recognize. Use caution that you do not imply that all the words have exactly the same meaning, since different words often are used for different connotations or to imply different meanings. The same procedure can be used to elicit synonyms. The teacher needs to highlight the fact that "true" synonyms are relatively rare and the answers will often be "near" synonyms. The students could make crosswords, word snakes or other puzzles for each other using these synonyms.
- **Play way method:** Students were asked to bring daily five new words which were not familiar to them from the text-book. At the end of each session, they were asked to tell the word, its spelling and its meaning in English. They were banned to see the notebook where these words were written. If they were not able to give the correct word its spelling and meaning, they were asked to bring new ten words next day. Such an exercise was fruitful for the learner.
- **Antonyms:** The students were asked to make lists of opposite words. Two groups were made; one group gave one word while the other group asked to give an opposite word to it. For example, sharp/blunt, rude/polite, flexible/rigid, generous/mean etc. One group gave word 'sharp' and the other group gave opposite word for it as 'blunt'. Marks were written on the board. They found it very interesting and memorized more words in order to win the contest. Thus, by play way method they can learn new words.
- **Words often confused:** The long list of often-confused words was made in the class and students were asked to use them in sentences from the brackets. Teacher should provide the meaning of such words, if necessary. For examples: adopt: adapt, beside: besides, principal: principle etc.
- **Homonyms / Homophones:** These are words of the same language that are pronounced alike even if they differ in spelling, meaning, or origin, such as "pair" and "pear". Homophones may also be spelled alike, as in "bear" (the animal) and "bear" (to carry). But this list consists only of homophones that are not spelled alike. ant/aunt eye/I ate/eight fare/fair bear/bare sea/see son/sun stationary/stationery steal/steal threw/through throne/thrown be/bee blew/blue by/bye/buy beach/beechn cell/sell cent/scent/sent census/senses cereal/serial die/dye etc.
- **Word Map:** Students work in small groups to learn connections among words by brainstorming and organizing words according to a map that they design or a blank one that is provided by the teacher. An example might be a key-concept word in the center of the page with rays connecting related words. For example, when asked to give words they thought of when they

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heard the word “faithfulness”, low-intermediate ESL students generated sixteen words or phrases: cat, friend, family, reliance, trust, dishonest, unfaithfulness, believe in friendships, bonds, obey, dog, friendly, sexual unfaithful, gossiping, marriage, love.

- **Thesaurus:** A kind of dictionary where the words of similar meanings, or synonyms / antonyms are arranged in similar groups. The main purpose of such reference works is to help the user “to find the word, or words, by which [an] idea may be most fitly and aptly expressed” – to quote Peter Mark Roget, architect of the best known thesaurus in the English language. Unlike a dictionary, thesaurus does not provide meanings or definitions of the words searched.
- **Teaching idioms:** An idiom is a phrase or expression in which the entire meaning is different from the usual meanings of the individual words within it. Idioms are fun to work with because they are part of everyday vocabulary. Students enjoy working with figurative meanings. They also enjoy finding out about the origins of idiomatic expressions, some of which are very old. Point out to students that idioms are often used in writing or speech to make expression more colourful and that some of the most colourful English idioms make use of animals or animal comparisons.
- **Phrasal verbs:** Teachers should include phrasal verbs in their classroom language as much as possible – and draw attention to these from time to time. There are many phrasal verbs in the English language and they are used in normal, everyday speech and writing. Phrasal verbs means words consisting of a verb and a particle (preposition or adverb). The meaning of a phrasal verb is different from the meaning of each word if it was considered separately. Common classroom expressions incorporating phrasal verbs are: sit down, put your hand up, turn your papers over, write this down, cover the page up, look it up, hurry up and calm down!
- **Crossword puzzle:** Crossword puzzles offer an entertaining way of reviewing vocabulary. Students can do the puzzles in class in pairs, as a race with other students, or at home as homework.
- The teacher can also design a “**Word Puzzle**,” which is also called a “Word Cross”, asking the students to cooperate in groups to find and circle the words that the puzzle contains. The teacher might also place several versions of the word in the puzzle, with only one of them being the correct spelling. The students must circle only the word with the correct spelling.
- **Word formation:** Teacher should encourage students to enrich and expand their vocabulary. There are different ways to expand the vocabulary of the students. By studying the morphology, we know that it not only concerns with the morphemes of words, but also the word-formation. In English classes, teachers should help students to get to know the processes of word-formation.

- **Morphological rules:** These reveal the relations between words and provide the means in formation of new words. That is to say, these rules determine how morphemes are combined to form words. Nowadays, teachers in colleges have paid much more attention to the teaching of the morphological rules of English word formation in their classes. But still we have a lot of work to do. The expansion of vocabulary in modern English depends chiefly on word-formation. According to Pyles and Algeo (1982), words produced through affixation constitute 30% to 40% of the total number of new words; compounding yields 28% to 30% of all the new words; words that come from shortening including clipping and acronym, amounting to 8% to 10%, together with 1% to 5% of words born out of blending and other means. So by analyzing the processes of English word formation, we can infer word-meanings and learn more new English words.
- **Reading the word:** Reading words aloud is also very beneficial. It makes a learner familiar with the word and also improves pronunciations of the learners. Sound can be an easy way to illustrate words that describe sounds, such as whistle, scratching, and tinkling. You can make the sounds yourself, or bring in tapes or CDs for students to listen to and write down the words that they hear. The situation can be made easy and interesting, if the teacher of English selects the vocabulary, grades the vocabulary and uses different techniques in the classroom. Teachers should focus on vocabulary, as it is the most essential aspect in any language and means of communication. We cannot express our feelings without words. Wallace (1982) states, 'Not being able to find the word you need to express yourself is the most frustrating experience in speaking another language' (p.9). Series, scales, systems. The meaning of words such as the months of the year, the days of the week, the parts of the day, seasons of the year, ordinal numbers, cardinal numbers, etc. that form part of well-known series can be made clear by placing them in their natural order in the series. If you have several gradable words to introduce at the same, you can introduce them together on a scale. For instance, you can use frequency, such as always-often-occasionally or emotions in this way, with cheerful-happy-joyous-ecstatic.
- **Role play:** Role-play is used to create the presence of a real life situation in the classroom. It is important in the classroom communication because it gives students an opportunity to practice communicatively in different social contexts and in different social roles. The language applied in this activity is varied according to the student's status, attitudes, mood, and different situations. Blachowicz, et al., (2006) speaks, "Teachers can introduce some of the words which provide both definitional and contextual information about the words to be learned by making up a dialogue for students so that students can understand a further meaning and usage of the words."
- **Use video to produce target vocabulary:** Select a video segment that contains a series of actions or visual detail. Provide the learners with a list of

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target vocabulary words and ask them to construct a paragraph that incorporates as many of the words as possible. This activity is best done after the learners have seen the video. As they learn how to use more vocabulary properly, you will see an improvement in their writing and speaking. Teacher can also show a short film without sound and asking pupils to discuss what dialogue they would expect to hear. Showing a scene from a film without sound and asking pupils to use the facial expression to determine emotion.

Corder (1973:223) rightly observes, 'The more words one knows, the easier it is to 'learn' new words, because one has more associative link available'. There is no sure fire remedy or method to enhance vocabulary in a day or two.

A student's vocabulary bank can be enriched on a gradual basis and one should always show keen interest and enthusiasm in finding, learning and understanding new words. Teaching vocabulary through incidental, intentional, and independent approaches requires teachers to plan a wide variety of activities and exercises.

Richards said, "When vocabulary items are being taught to pupils, teachers need to consider how to teach these words to pupils based on the levels of ages, educational background and field of interest. The teacher also ought to recognize such sociolinguistic variables in which the words will be used"

Check Your Progress

1. List the aspects that a teacher must get familiar with before introducing vocabulary to the learner.
2. Why is setting a good context a prerequisite for vocabulary teaching?
3. How are synonyms helpful in learning vocabulary?
4. What is the main purpose of reference works?
5. Why is role play important in classroom communication?

8.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. The aspects that a teacher must get familiar with before introducing vocabulary to the learner are:
 - The meaning(s) of the word
 - Its spoken and written forms
 - What "word parts" it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form)
2. Setting a good context which is interesting, plausible, vivid and has relevance to the lives of the learners, is an essential prerequisite for vocabulary teaching

- as it helps in both engaging the attention of the learners and naturally generating the target vocabulary.
3. Synonyms help to enrich a student's vocabulary bank and provide alternative words instantly. These can be effective since they build on words and phrases that students already recognize.
 4. The main purpose of reference works is to help the user "to find the word, or words, by which [an] idea may be most fitly and aptly expressed".
 5. It is important in the classroom communication because it gives students an opportunity to practice communicatively in different social contexts and in different social roles.

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8.4 SUMMARY

- Vocabulary is intricately linked with all the language skills be it listening, speaking, reading or writing. Hence adequate store of vocabulary is essential for developing these language skills.
- Real objects or models of real objects are very effective and meaningful in showing meanings but in handling of real objects, a teacher must be practical and should not be superfluous.
- Words taught in isolation are generally not retained. In addition, in order to grasp the full meaning of a word or phrase, students must be aware of the linguistic environment in which the word or phrase appears.
- Every word has its origin and its story of how it gets its current meanings. Because of its physical and meaningful origin, the etymology of a word is often found much easier to be comprehended than the bare linguistic symbol and its present semantic meanings.
- If one topic consists of number of words, it is easy to teach these entire words altogether. For example, it is easier to teach words like orange, banana, grapes, lemon, pineapple, mango, and watermelon together in the context of 'fruits' than to teach anyone of these words in isolation.
- By using the analysis of morphemes of words, we can find out the meaning of words, even some of unfamiliar English words. It is estimated that there are over 600,000 English words concerned with the roots and affixes. But the roots and affixes are limited in numbers and simple in meaning.
- The term collocation generally refers to the way in which two or more words are typically used together. For example, we talk about heavy rain but not heavy sun, or we say that we make or come to a decision, but we don't do a decision. So, heavy rain and make a decision are often referred to as collocations and we say that heavy collocates with rain.
- These are words of the same language that are pronounced alike even if they differ in spelling, meaning, or origin, such as "pair" and "pear".

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Homophones may also be spelled alike, as in “bear” (the animal) and “bear” (to carry).

- An idiom is a phrase or expression in which the entire meaning is different from the usual meanings of the individual words within it. Idioms are fun to work with because they are part of everyday vocabulary.
- A student’s vocabulary bank can be enriched on a gradual basis and one should always show keen interest and enthusiasm in finding, learning and understanding new words. Teaching vocabulary through incidental, intentional, and independent approaches requires teachers to plan a wide variety of activities and exercises.

8.5 KEY WORDS

- **Morphology:** It is the study of words in different terms, showing how words are broken down into smaller units, and how such units are recognized.
- **Collocation:** It is a series of words or terms that co-occur more often than would be expected by chance.
- **Homonym:** These are words of the same language that are pronounced alike even if they differ in spelling, meaning, or origin, such as “pair” and “pear”.
- **Register:** It often refers to the degree of formality of language, but in a more general sense, it means the language used by a group of people who share similar work or interests, such as doctors or lawyers.
- **Etymology:** It is the study of the history of words. By extension, the etymology of a word means its origin and development throughout history.
- **Phrasal Verb:** It is the combination of two or three words from different grammatical categories — a verb and a particle, such as an adverb or a preposition — to form a single semantic unit on a lexical or syntactic level.

8.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What have vocabulary instructions been traditionally concerned with?
2. How can charts, pictures and maps be used to develop students’ understanding of a particular concept or word?
3. Name some currently recommended English dictionaries.
4. What are some common classroom expressions incorporating phrasal verbs?
5. What do Pyles and Algeo say with regard to constitution of new words?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss some activities that increase activity bank for vocabulary instructions.
2. Elaborate upon the concept of collocation.

8.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
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UNIT 9 TEACHING OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Structure

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Objectives
- 9.2 English Grammar Teaching: Characteristics, Objectives, Methods and Principles
- 9.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 9.4 Summary
- 9.5 Key Words
- 9.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 9.7 Further Readings

9.0 INTRODUCTION

Teaching of English grammar holds paramount importance as grammar forms the basis of learning a language and lays down rules for correct writing and speaking. Inductive and deductive approaches are used for teaching grammar. In the deductive approach, students are first introduced to the grammatical rules along with some examples of the application of those rules. In the inductive approach, on the other hand, examples are first given to the learners and they are asked to find the rules based on those examples. In this unit, reasons for teaching grammar and an analysis of the aforementioned approaches have been provided.

9.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the characteristics and objectives of teaching English grammar
- Discuss the principles and methods used for teaching English grammar

9.2 ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEACHING: CHARACTERISTICS, OBJECTIVES, METHODS AND PRINCIPLES

“Grammar is the business of taking a language to pieces, to see how it works.”

(David Crystal)

What does the word ‘Grammar’ convey to you? The characteristics of grammar can be understood through the following points:

- Language user’s subconscious internal system

- Linguists' attempt to organize, codify or describe that system
- Sounds of language: Phonology
- Structure and form of words: Morphology
- Arrangement of words into larger units: Syntax
- Meanings of language: Semantics
- Functions of language and its use in context: Pragmatics
- Grammar is the system of a language. The "Grammar" is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.
- Grammar acts as a prism which conveys the different shades inherent in the text

The kinds of meanings realized by Grammar are said to be principally:

- **Representational** - that is, Grammar enables us to use language to describe the world in terms of how, when and where things happen. For instance: The sun rises in the east. The milkman is at the door.
- **Interpersonal** - that is, Grammar facilitates the way we interact with other people when, for example, we need to get things done using language. For instance there is a difference between:
 - o Open the door!
 - o Can you open the door?
 - o Why don't you open the door?
 - o Do you mind opening the door?
 - o You have to open the door.
 - o Door open.

Do you see the difference in each of the abovementioned statements?

Objectives of Teaching English Grammar

Practitioners and linguists over a period of time have put forth numerous reasons for making teaching of Grammar an essential school activity in the process of second language acquisition. Some of them are presented hereunder as it is:

1. The sentence-machine argument

The process of language learning can be seen as a dual process: Item-learning — that is the memorization of individual items such as sounds, words, phrases, and basic structures. However, there is a limit to the number of items a person can both retain and retrieve. So there is a need to acquire the skill of making sentences which can happen only through grammar, grammar is a kind of 'sentence-making machine'. It follows that the teaching of grammar offers the learner the means for potentially limitless linguistic creativity. The number of possible new sentences is constrained only by the vocabulary at the learner's command and his or her creativity.

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2. The fine-tuning argument

The purpose of grammar seems to be to allow for accuracy of meaning in language use, which is otherwise not possible through lexical items. While it is possible to get a lot of communicative mileage out of simply stringing words and phrases together, there comes a point where 'baby on chair' type of primitive language output fails to deliver, both in terms of intelligibility and in terms of appropriateness. The teaching of grammar, it is argued, serves as a corrective against the kind of ambiguity represented in this example.

3. The fossilization argument

Highly motivated learners with a special aptitude for languages may be capable of achieving high levels of proficiency without any formal study. But those learners who pick up language during class session, it is difficult as their linguistic competence fossilizes over a period of time. Research suggests that learners who receive no instruction seem to be at risk of fossilising sooner than those who do receive instruction.

4. The advance-organizer argument

Grammar instruction might also have a delayed effect. As evident in the work of researcher Richard Schmidt who kept a diary of his experience learning Portuguese in Brazil. He concluded that formal instruction in grammar made him more observant and conscious of language use. It had acted as a kind of advance organiser for his later acquisition of the language.

5. The discrete item argument

The practice of teaching grammar enables the learner to organize facts related to language use in definite categories, thus helping him to systematizing the abstract and limitless nature of the target language.

(A discrete item is any unit of the grammar system that is sufficiently narrowly defined to form the focus of a lesson or an exercise: e.g. the present continuous, the definite article, possessive pronouns).

6. The rule-of-law argument

It follows from the discrete-item argument that, since grammar is a system of learnable rules, it lends itself to the effective transmission of knowledge of the target language. It is believed that grammar offers the teacher a structured system that can be taught and tested in methodical steps.

7. The learner expectations argument

Language learners are often not able to pick up the target language despite input rich environment. They feel frustrated and are on the verge of getting demotivated and giving up. Such learners when they join a language class, they expect that will be taught the language in a systematic manner, somebody will analyze the structure

of the target language and make it more comprehensible and systematic for them which is generally not possible in classes where experience in the use of the target language is given.

Methods of Teaching English Grammar

The different approaches to teaching of grammar are discussed in the sections given below:

1. The deductive approach – rule followed by examples

A deductive methods or approaches starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The grammar rule is presented and the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples.

Advantages of a deductive approach

- It gets straight to the point, hence it is time-saving.
- Rules of form are better explained than elicited from examples. Thus giving more time for practice and application.
- It respects the intelligence and maturity of learners, especially adult learners
- It acknowledges the role of cognitive processes (learner strategies) in language acquisition.
- It caters to learning styles of learners such as those with analytical learning style.
- It allows the teacher to deal with language points as they come, rather than demanding advance preparation.

Disadvantages of a deductive approach

- Young learners may get put off with the teaching of rules at the start
- They may not have sufficient metalanguage (i.e. language used to talk about language such as grammar terminology).
- They may not be able to understand the related concepts involved.
- It encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom;
- Student involvement and interaction is reduced to a significant level
- Explanation is not always as involving as other methods such as demonstration, exploration, and inquiry.
- It encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rules.

What is a rule?

It appears that learning a language involves a fair understanding of the rules of that language. In the Longman Activity Dictionary “rule” is defined as:

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- **A principle or order which guides behaviour, says how things are to be done (Prescriptive rule)**

Examples of prescriptive rules:

- (i) Never end a sentence with a preposition.

- **The usual way that something happens (Descriptive rule).**

Descriptive rules are more practical and primarily concerned with generalizations about what speakers of the language actually do and say than what they should do.

Examples of descriptive rules:

- (i) Auxiliary verbs come before the subject in questions.

- **Provide learners with the means and confidence to generate language with a reasonable chance of success. (Pedagogic rules)**

Pedagogic rules can be categorized as- rules of form and rules of use.

For example:

Rule of Use

‘The’ definite article is used in a definite and particular sense e.g.

- The earth moves around the sun. (i.e. ‘obvious earth and obvious sun’)
- The cats that Maya keeps are not for sale.

Rule of Form

To form the past simple of regular verbs, add –ed to the infinitive.

The criteria for a **good rule** is that it is easy to **understand, remember and apply**.

Pedagogic Grammar

Pedagogic Grammars is characterized by:

- Assumptions about how learners learn
- Follow certain linguistic theories in their descriptions
- Are written for a specific target audience
- Is generally prescriptive
- Often includes or is accompanied by a set of complementary exercises.

What qualifies a rule a good rule?

Michael Swan, offers the following criteria:

- **Truth:** Rules should be true. The rule must bear some resemblance to the reality it is describing.
- **Limitation:** Rules should show clearly what the limits are on the use of a given form. For example, to say simply that we use ‘will’ to talk about the

future is of little help to the learner since it doesn't show how 'will' is different from other ways of talking about the future (e.g. going to).

- **Clarity:** Rules should be clear otherwise it will result in ambiguity or obscure terminology.
- **Simplicity:** Rules should be simple. There is a limit to the amount of exceptions a learner can remember.
- **Familiarity:** An explanation should try to make use of concepts already familiar to the learner.
- **Relevance:** A rule should answer only those questions that the student needs answered. These questions may vary according to the mother tongue of the learner.

How to present a rule?

An effective rule presentation will include the following steps:

- It will be illustrated by an example
- It will be short and precisely stated
- Students' understanding will be checked
- Students will have an opportunity to internalize and personalize the rule.

2. The inductive approach – the rule-discovery path

In this approach to teaching, language starts with examples and asks learners to find rules.

Advantages

- Discover for rules on their own, this way it is likely to fit their existing mental structures. This will make the rules more meaningful and usable.
- Cognitive processing of the examples in the process of identifying the rules aids greater memorability and development of cognitive learner strategies
- Plays an active role hence it guarantees attention and concentration
- Engages in problem solving and critical thinking
- Is involved in collaborative interaction with the peers teacher thus availing the benefit of extra language practice
- Gains greater self-reliance and this fits with communicative approach and learner autonomy and self-directed learning.

Disadvantages

- The form might take precedence rather than the practical application of these rules in real life situation.
- Too much time is lost in unravelling the underlying rule which may well be devoted to practice.

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- Wrong rule / hypothesis might be created by the learner which may lead to serious problem if not tested and checked by the teacher.
- The task of teachers is increased as she has to compile data which is intelligible and appropriate in order to allow students generalize the rule.
- Many language areas such as aspect and modality resist easy rule formulation.
- frustrates students owing to their personal learning style.

3. Functional-notional approach (teaching of structure and functions)

This method of language teaching stresses a means of organizing a language syllabus by breaking down the global concept of language into units of analysis in terms of communicative situations in which they are used. This approach comes under the communicative approach to language teaching. This approach was an offshoot of Wilkins' publication in 1972. In 1976, he concretized his idea in the form of Notional Syllabuses. Here, he categorized language under categories/ notions such as quantity, location and time, and functions such as placing order, booking tickets making requests, making offers, and apologizing, requesting and so on.

The council of Europe also prepared course book on the basis of these syllabus. Such course books generally begin with the function of 'introducing oneself', perhaps followed by the function of 'making requests', with typical exponents being:

'Can I?', 'Could you?', 'Is it alright if I?' and so on.

These structures and functions were further practiced in the form of communicative exercises involving pair work, group work and role plays. In contrast to typical grammatical syllabus, where, structures using the word 'would' tend to appear in later stages of the syllabus, owing to their relative complexity. In a functional syllabus, 'would' is introduced at a very early stage due to its communicative significance in exponents such as 'Would you like?', which is extremely common and of great communicative value even to beginners.

Explanation of specific terms:

A notion is a concept, or idea, which may be quite specific, or may be very general – such as time, size, emotion, movement. It may be time past, may include past tenses, phrases like a month ago, in 1990, last week, and utterances using temporal clauses beginning with when....., before....., after....and so on.

A **function** is some kind of communicative act. It is the use of language to achieve a purpose, usually involving interaction at least between two people. Examples would be suggesting, promising, apologizing, greeting, inviting.

"Inviting" may include phrases like "Would you mind....? I prefer...., What about...? Excuse..."

Activity 1

Look at the items listed below. Can you categorize them into separate lists of notions and functions?

appeal	Proposition	Request
remorse	Promise	Time relations
Advise	the future	Drinks
appeal	Crime	supervision
apology	the body	remind

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Another significant aspect of this kind of syllabus is situation. The place where a dialogue takes place brings variations of language such as use of dialects, formal/informal nature of the language and the mode of expression. Situation includes the following elements:

- Who is taking part in the speech act?
- Where does the conversation occur?
- What time does the speech act takes place?
- What is being discussed?

Exponents are the language utterances or statements that stem from the function, the situation and the topic.

Functional categories of language

The functional categories mentioned by Mary Finocchiaro under five headings are listed below: personal, interpersonal, directive, referential, and imaginative.

• Personal

Clarifying or arranging one's ideas: expressing one's thoughts or feelings: love, joy, pleasure, happiness, surprise, likes, satisfaction, dislikes, disappointment, distress, moral, intellectual and social concerns; and the everyday feelings of hunger, thirst, fatigue, sleepiness, cold, or warmth.

• Interpersonal

Enabling us to establish and maintain desirable social and working relationships, greetings and leave takings, introducing people to others, identifying oneself to others, expressing joy at another's success, expressing concern for other people's welfare extending and accepting invitations, and so on...

• Directive

Attempting to influence the actions of others; accepting or refusing direction, making suggestions in which the speaker is included: making requests; making suggestions, refusing to accept a suggestion or a request but offering an alternative; persuading someone to change his point of view, requesting and granting permission, asking for help, and responding to a plea for help forbidding someone to do something; issuing a command, giving and responding to instructions, and others.

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• Referential

Talking or reporting about things, actions, events, or people in the environment in the past or in the future, talking about language (what is termed the metalinguistic function: = talking or reporting about things, actions, events, or people in the environment in the past or in the future, identifying items or people in the classroom, the school the home, the community asking for a description of someone or something, defining something or a language item or asking for a definition, paraphrasing, summarizing, or translating (L1 to L2 or vice versa) explaining or asking for explanations of how something works, comparing or contrasting things and others.

• Imaginative

Discussions involving elements of creativity and artistic expression, discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, a play, a painting, a film, a TV program, etc. expanding ideas suggested by other, or by a piece of literature, or reading material, creating rhymes, poetry, stories, or plays, recombining familiar dialogs, or passages, creatively suggesting original beginnings or endings to dialogs or stories solving problems or mysteries.

4. Teaching grammar through stories

Stories can be an interesting means for both eliciting and illustrating grammar points. If used appropriately, the story telling technique can prove to be a versatile one due to the following benefits:

- Holds students' attention
- They enjoy it most
- Good for context based teaching of points

Sample 1: Teaching Grammar through Stories

Who is she? What did she do? What happened?

Last week, Beth baked a cake for Lilly's birthday party. Lilly wanted a strawberry cake with pink frosting. Beth was happy to bake the cake.

First, Beth mixed the ingredients in a big bowl. Next, she poured the cake batter into four round baking pans. She put the pans in the oven. Finally, she baked the cakes for 20 minutes.

Then, Beth prepared the pink frosting. After the cakes cooled, Beth stacked them and covered them with frosting. Beth wrote Lilly's name on top with white frosting. She put seven candles in the cake.

On Sunday, Beth surprised Lilly with the strawberry cake. Lilly loved her cake! Lilly had many gifts for her birthday. But Lilly said her cake was the best gift of them all!

Source: <http://www.really-learn-english.com/english-grammar-tenses.html>

The above mentioned story can be used for teaching past tenses. Look at sample 2, it is suitable for teaching present tense.

Sample 2: Teaching Grammar through Stories

«It never gets you anywhere»

Andrew Smodley *is* a natural worrier. It *is* something he has inherited from his father — the king of all worriers. But then there are those who are never happy unless they *have* a problem to solve. Andrew worried about the weather, the state of the pound, his health, the cost of living and once he even worried because he thought he wasn't worrying enough. But *that* was in the past. Things have changed because something *happened* to him exactly two years ago.

It was in the spring when leaves *appear* on trees and nature *prepares* herself for renewal. Other things *happen* too — people often *fall* in love. Now Andrew *doesn't have* a romantic disposition. He never *looks* up at the leaves starting to grow, *sighs* and *says*: «Ah here *comes* the spring!» He simply *thinks* to himself: «I *live* in a small village by a little stream and around this time of year lots of creatures *start* to wake up and *make* a lot of noise.» In London, which *stands* on the River Thames, people *make* a lot of noise all the time.»

I *apologize* for the simplicity of these statements but I *want to* illustrate the unimaginative nature which Andrew possesses. Towards the end of this story I *give* examples to show the extent of the change that he underwent.

The other character in this anecdote *is* a young woman called Sally Fairweather. She too *lives* in this tiny and remote village where Andrew *has* his cottage. Now Sally *is* an entirely different kettle of fish. Her philosophy *runs* as follows: «Worrying never *gets* you anywhere and life *is* too short to waste time imagining the worst.»

In a word she *is* the complete opposite in temperament of Andrew. Here *comes* another cliché: Opposites attract. But you *must remember* that two years ago the two main characters hadn't met, which was surprising when you *consider* the proximity of Andrew's cottage and Sally's flat. If you *take* the first left after the post office, you *come* to Sally's place and if you *take* the second turning to the right after that you *come* to the cottage where Andrew *lives*.

The next participant in this village drama *is* the weather, which *plays* a very significant part in English life. It was late April and the sun had disappeared behind dark heavy rain clouds but Andrew had already set off for the local pub. Naturally he had his umbrella with him and a heavy coat following that aphorism his mother always used: «Never cast a clout (remove an article of clothing) before May *is out*.»

Fortunately he made it to the pub before the storm broke. The moment he crossed the doorstep an old schoolfriend *comes* up to Andrew, *offers* to buy him a drink and *tells* him not to look so worried. Andrew showed him the newspaper headlines: «Petrol prices *rise* again.» — «But you *haven't got* a car» said his friend. — «I *know*», retorted Andrew, «still it *means* everything else will go up in price, too.»

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Everyone in the pub *looks* suitably depressed at this remark and begins to think of all the price increases that will follow. The gloom *is* palpable. Then suddenly the door *bursts* open and in *walks* our heroine, Sally looking like a drowned rat. Most people in the pub *think* to themselves: «What a pretty girl!» Andrew *sees* her as someone who *is drenched* and needs help. He *walks* over to her and *asks* if she is all right. For probably the first time in his life Andrew actually transferred his worry from himself to someone else and he *mixes* her a special drink to protect her from a possible cold. The conversation went as follows: «I *hear* you *live* in this village, too» — «How *do* you *know*?» asked Andrew.

But Sally changed the subject. «This drink *tastes* delicious. How did you make it?» — «I *put* a drop of ginger ale and a piece of lemon in the alcohol and then *stir* thoroughly. I always *keep* those two ingredients with me when I *go out* at night.» Suddenly Sally looked at her watch: «I *must fly*. My train *leaves* in ten minutes.» — «*Don't forget* to take those tablets I suggested and *let* me know how you *are*.» — «I'll let you know as soon as I *come* back from London.» And then she went.

Immediately Andrew started to worry. He didn't know her name, he didn't know her address and he felt strange. He *checks* his pulse. He *tests* his mental faculties: «Two and two *make* four.» It was a different sort of worry that was almost a concern. He *wants* to see her again. Within seconds he rushed out of the pub leaving his coat behind, ran into the pouring rain with no umbrella. What was happening to him? He saw Sally standing on the platform getting into the train and the train leaving the station. He *jumps* down from the platform onto the track and *waves* at the train driver to stop. The train *stops* and Andrew *gets* onto it.

Six weeks after this extraordinary episode Sally got married. Andrew *doesn't worry* any more now. He *stays* calm. The obvious time when people expected him to start worrying was during the wedding ceremony in the village church just over two years ago. As he *says*, «I *know* what everyone was thinking. They thought I would go to pieces. But I was perfectly relaxed and I *owe* it all to Sally. She *is* certainly a wonderful wife. She smiled at me when we were standing at the altar and I stopped worrying from that moment on. You *can* see me looking relaxed in the newspaper pictures especially that one with the caption:

ANDREW SMODLEY *HANDS* THE RING TO SALLY FAIRWEATHER'S FUTURE HUSBAND.»

Source: <http://www.e4thai.com/e4e/images/pdf/English-Grammar-through-Stories-English-Team-Blog.pdf>

5. Teaching grammar through songs

It is a great idea to teach English Grammar through songs as:

- Songs are enchanting and culturally rich resources
- Offer a change from routine classroom activities
- Help develop students' abilities in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

- Lend themselves to varied use of language items such as sentence patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation, rhythm, adjectives, and adverbs.
- Are catchy and re-usable
- Provides a non-threatening atmosphere for students
- Give new insights into the target culture
- Prove to be excellent memory aids
- Take care of different learning styles of learners
- Provides for learners with different intelligences
- Excellent means to present cultural themes effectively.
- The authentic nature of songs motivates the learners
- The use of prosodic features such as stress, rhythm, intonation makes it easier to analyze language into a series of structural points which becomes a whole again.
- Songs are highly memorable and motivating.
- Through the use of traditional folk songs, the foundation of learners' knowledge of the target culture can be strengthened.
- Songs inspire creativity and use of imagination in the learners
- Involving learners in the selection of the songs is also motivating, and will make learners self-reliant, feel involved and share ownership of the learning process.
- Scope for integrated teaching learning process
- Fostering skill of critical thinking through reflections
- Help in confidence building

The key elements in using a song for teaching Grammar

- Age of learners
- Proficiency level
- Interest
- Grammar points to be studied
- Song
- Teacher motivation
- Creativity of teachers

Songs may be used for developing the following activities:

- Focus questions
- Information Gap
- Sequencing

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- Discuss and describe
- Opinion based tasks

For instance, for present tense 'Let It Be' by the Beatles can be considered.

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Sample 1: Teaching Grammar through Songs

Let It Be

*When I find myself in times of trouble
Mother Mary comes to me
Speaking words of wisdom, let it be
And in my hour of darkness
She is standing right in front of me
Speaking words of wisdom, let it be*

*Let it be, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Whisper words of wisdom, let it be*

*And when the broken-hearted people
Living in the world agree
There will be an answer, let it be
For though they may be parted
There is still a chance that they will see
There will be an answer, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Yeah, there will be an answer, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Whisper words of wisdom, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Ah, let it be, yeah, let it be
Whisper words of wisdom, let it be*

*And when the night is cloudy
There is still a light that shines on me
Shine on until tomorrow, let it be
I wake up to the sound of music,
Mother Mary comes to me
Speaking words of wisdom, let it be*

*Let it be, let it be
Let it be, yeah, let it be
Oh, there will be an answer, let it be
Let it be, let it be
Let it be, yeah, let it be
Whisper words of wisdom, let it*

Source: <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/beatles/letitbe.html>

For past tense 'Yesterday' by the Beatles can be considered.

Sample 2: Teaching Grammar through Songs

Yesterday

*Yesterday all my troubles seemed so far away.
Now it looks as though they're here to stay.
Oh, I believe in yesterday.*

*Suddenly I'm not half the man I used to be.
There's a shadow hanging over me.
Oh, yesterday came suddenly.
Why she had to go, I don't know, she wouldn't say.
I said something wrong, now I long for yesterday.*

*Yesterday love was such an easy game to play.
Now I need a place to hide away.
Oh, I believe in yesterday.
Why she had to go, I don't know, she wouldn't say.
I said something wrong, now I long for yesterday.*

*Yesterday love was such an easy game to play.
Now I need a place to hide away.
Oh, I believe in yesterday.*

Mm mm mm mm mm mm mm

Source: <http://www.azlyrics.com/lyrics/beatles/yesterday.html>

Sample 3: Teaching Grammar through Songs

Source: http://songsforteaching.com/brainchildren/grammar_s/02henrykingofprepositions.pdf

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6. Teaching of grammar through poems

In a similar way poems can also be used for teaching grammar concepts.

For instance:

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Daffodils

*I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.*

*Continuous as the stars that shine
And twinkle on the milky way,
They stretched in never-ending line
Along the margin of a bay:
Ten thousand saw I at a glance,
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.*

*The waves beside them danced; but they
Out-did the sparkling waves in glee:
A poet could not but be gay,
In such a jocund company:
I gazed—and gazed—but little thought
What wealth the show to me had brought:*

*For oft, when on my couch I lie
In vacant or in pensive mood,
They flash upon that inward eye
Which is the bliss of solitude;
And then my heart with pleasure fills,
And dances with the daffodils.*

– William Wordsworth

The above mentioned poem can be used for teaching framing questions using Wh questions, passive form of verbs and so on.

Principles of Teaching Grammar

Now that you have learnt the methods of teaching English grammar, the following principles should be kept in mind to make the most of it:

- It should be **contextualized**
- It should be **useful / applicable**

Teach grammar to provide opportunities for learners to improve communication skills.

- **It should be economical**

Too much time need not be devoted to teaching of grammar points, instead more time should be used for practicing in context.

- **It should have relevance**

It is a good idea to know the problem areas of the learners, concepts they are not comfortable with, in which they have application difficulty. Only those concepts should be picked up by the teacher for teaching grammar.

- **It should be in a learning - friendly environment**

Besides the role of teacher, instructional methods and materials, the learning environment also plays a significant role in the teaching of grammar. The teacher should make efforts to provide a more supportive environment.

- **It should be learner friendly**

It may sound a little difficult to cater to the diversity in learners in terms of their level, needs, interests, expectations and learning styles, it's very much desirable for your success as a language teacher, material developer and task setter. Hence, teaching should aim to cater these individual learner needs.

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Check Your Progress

1. Why is grammar referred to as a 'sentence-making machine'?
2. How does a deductive approach start?
3. List the steps included in an effective rule presentation.
4. How has Wilkins categorized language in his book Notional Syllabus?
5. Why is it a great idea to teach grammar through songs?

9.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Grammar is referred to as a 'sentence-making machine' as the teaching of grammar offers the learner the means for potentially limitless linguistic creativity. The number of possible new sentences is constrained only by the vocabulary at the learner's command and his or her creativity.
2. A deductive approach starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The grammar rule is presented and the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples.
3. An effective rule presentation will include the following steps:
 - It will be illustrated by an example

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- It will be short and precisely stated
 - Students' understanding will be checked
 - Students will have an opportunity to internalize and personalize the rule.
4. Wilkins has categorized language under categories/ notions such as quantity, location and time, and functions such as placing order, booking tickets, making requests, making offers, and apologizing, requesting and so on.
5. It is a great idea to teach English Grammar through songs as:
- Songs are enchanting and culturally rich resources
 - Offer a change from routine classroom activities
 - Help develop students' abilities in listening, speaking, reading, and writing.

9.4 SUMMARY

- Grammar is the system of a language. The “Grammar” is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time.
- Grammar acts as a prism which conveys the different shades inherent in the text
- Practitioners and linguists over a period of time have put forth numerous reasons for making teaching of Grammar an essential school activity in the process of second language acquisition.
- Grammar instruction might also have a delayed effect. As evident in the work of researcher Richard Schmidt who kept a diary of his experience learning Portuguese in Brazil. He concluded that formal instruction in grammar made him more observant and conscious of language use. It had acted as a kind of advance organiser for his later acquisition of the language.
- A deductive approach starts with the presentation of a rule and is followed by examples in which the rule is applied. The grammar rule is presented and the learner engages with it through the study and manipulation of examples.
- A rule is defined in the Longman Activity Dictionary as ‘A principle or order which guides behaviour, says how things are to be done’ (Prescriptive rule). Example of prescriptive rule: Never end a sentence with a preposition.
- Rules should show clearly what the limits are on the use of a given form. For example, to say simply that we use ‘will’ to talk about the future is of little help to the learner since it doesn’t show how ‘will’ is different from other ways of talking about the future (e.g. going to).
- Discussions involving elements of creativity and artistic expression, discussing a poem, a story, a piece of music, a play, a painting, a film, a TV program, etc. expanding ideas suggested by other, or by a piece of literature, or

reading material, creating rhymes, poetry, stories, or plays, recombining familiar dialogs, or passages, creatively suggesting original beginnings or endings to dialogs or stories solving problems or mysteries.

- In the inductive approach, the form might take precedence rather than the practical application of these rules in real life situation.
- Through the use of traditional folk songs, the foundation of learners' knowledge of the target culture can be strengthened.
- Songs may be used for developing the following activities:
 - Focus questions
 - Information Gap
 - Sequencing
 - Discuss and describe
 - Opinion based tasks
- Besides the role of teacher, instructional methods and materials, the learning environment also plays a significant role in the teaching of grammar. The teacher should make efforts to provide a more supportive environment.

NOTES

9.5 KEY WORDS

- **Discrete Item:** It is any unit of the grammar system that is sufficiently narrowly defined to form the focus of a lesson or an exercise: e.g. the present continuous, the definite article, possessive pronouns.
- **Metalanguage:** It is a language used to describe another language, often called the object language.
- **Notion:** It is a concept, or idea, which may be quite specific, or may be very general – such as time, size, emotion, movement.
- **Exponents:** These are the language utterances or statements that stem from the function, the situation and the topic.

9.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. What does the word 'grammar' refer to?
2. List three advantages of deductive approach.
3. What is pedagogic grammar characterized by?
4. List five essentials of teaching grammar.

NOTES

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the principal meanings realized by grammar.
2. Analyze the criteria used for qualifying a rule as a good rule.
3. Elaborate upon the functional categories of language mentioned by Mary Finocchiaro.

9.7 FURTHER READINGS

Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Richards, Jack C. and Theorde S.Rodgers. 2006. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Baruah, T.C. 1991. *The English Teacher's Handbook*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.

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UNIT 10 TEACHING OF SPELLING

Structure

- 10.0 Introduction
- 10.1 Objectives
- 10.2 Teaching Spellings: Importance, Characteristics, Methods and Rules
Importance – Characteristics – Methods –Rules
- 10.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Equations
- 10.4 Summary
- 10.5 Key Words
- 10.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 10.7 Further Readings

NOTES

10.0 INTRODUCTION

A knowledge of correct spellings is extremely important when one aims to convey his/her ideas to readers. Sometimes, discrepancies arise in writing due to a difference in the pronunciation and spelling of a word. To ward off such errors, an awareness of these discrepancies and practice of spellings through writing is essential. Basic spelling rules, suffix and inflection rules are taught by teachers to develop in the students, the skill of writing correctly and effectively.

10.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Discuss the importance, characteristics and rules of teaching spelling
- Analyse the methods used by teachers for teaching spelling

10.2 TEACHING SPELLINGS: IMPORTANCE, CHARACTERISTICS, METHODS AND RULES IMPORTANCE – CHARACTERISTICS – METHODS –RULES

When one learns language, one needs to learn various facets of the language as it is what makes us effective communicators. In case of written communication, it is necessary that we write with correct spelling. In case of oral communication, it does not matter what the spelling is, till the time we can pronounce it properly and be understandable to the listeners. But if one writes without the correct spelling, then it becomes a major impediment to the readers as he or she may find the writing to be too non-serious to give it a proper reading. One needs to write not just in correct spelling, but moreover follow some form of spelling norms that are

NOTES

prevalent in a particular language. As English is a language which developed in different parts of the world in different periods in different ways, there are major differences in its usages. Nowhere is English used in a similar manner – there is no single way of using English and yet there is a standard English whose norms we need to follow to make our communication fathomable to the readers/ listeners. It is for this purpose that the standard spelling practices need to be followed, though at the same time, it should be kept in mind that the British and the American English have different spelling norms which we should be aware of.

In this Unit, the different facets of Spelling are being talked about to figure out how spellings and learning them is so important in learning English. The Unit especially focuses on the ways in which English language can be acquired with the acquisition of right norms of spelling.

Importance of Spelling

Knowing how to spell correctly when we write is a basic prerequisite of competence in English. Without knowing how to use correct spelling, we cannot aspire to become better writers. If we are not able to correctly spell words, we are not taken to be serious writers. Often in good writing, good and effective ideas lose their sharpness in writing if the words are not properly spelt. Moreover, missing one alphabet or misplacing one alphabet in a word can lead to a greater change in meaning. It may also lead to complete misreading of the writing than what is originally intended by the writer.

For example, if we take the word “memento” which comes from the Latin origin which means “remember”, it is used to mean a small thing which is gifted to someone on special occasion which makes him or her remember that moment. As it is done on a particular moment, therefore people think it is about ‘moment’ and therefore the spelling is “momento” which is an incorrect spelling. There are thousands of such words in English which are commonly misspelt and one needs to be careful while using them.

Problems of English Spelling

Though spelling a word should not be a problem in usual cases as the pronunciation of the sounds in the word often determines the spelling. This happens in most cases where the pronunciation helps us in remembering the spelling of the word, but in many cases in English language, pronunciation is not the right indicator of spellings as often silent alphabets are used in English spelling which are not pronounced. Therefore, in these kinds of cases, one needs to remember the spellings to write them correctly. For example, in the word “pneumonia” the letter “p” is silent, and this makes for a lot of confusion. One cannot take the pronunciation of word “pneumonia” for its spelling. And there are a whole lot of words like this in English which need to be remembered. Let us therefore delve into the discrepancy between English spelling and pronunciation to understand the ways of English language.

Characteristics and Discrepancy between English Spelling and Pronunciation

English spellings and their pronunciation are not often coordinated in a manner in which it should be leading to a lot of confusion in terms of uttering the words and also in writing them. If one is not aware of these discrepancies, then there are chances that one will continue making mistakes. Therefore, it is essential that one learns a few of the essential discrepancies between English Spelling and Pronunciation. Some of the prominent ones are –

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- (a) **Silent letters** – Some letters are silent in spoken form, whereas they are used in written language, such as
- the sound “P” in “pneumonia”
 - the sound **D** in sandwich, Wednesday
 - the sound **G** in sign, foreign
 - the sound **GH** in daughter, light, right
 - the sound **H** in why, honest, hour
 - the sound **K** in know, knight, knob
 - the sound **L** in should, walk, half
 - the sound **P** in cupboard, psychology
 - the sound **S** in island
 - the sound **T** in whistle, listen, fasten
 - the sound **U** in guess, guitar
 - the sound **W** in who, write, wrong
- (b) **Orthographic Abbreviations** – Some words are pronounced full, but when they are written, they are abbreviated usually, such as, Dr., Prof., Mr., Mrs., etc.
- (c) Some other pronunciations which are different from their spellings, such as –
- Tough - *pronounced - tuf* (the ‘u’ sounding as in ‘cup’)
 - Through - *pronounced – throo*
 - Dough - *pronounced - doe* (long ‘o’)
 - Bought - *pronounced – bawt*
- (d) There are some three syllabic words which are pronounced as Two Syllables.
- Aspirin - *pronounced – asprin*

NOTES

- Different - *pronounced – different*
 - Every - *pronounced – evry*
- (e) There are some four syllabic words which are pronounced as Three Syllables
- Comfortable - *pronounced – comfortable*
 - Temperature - *pronounced – temperature*
 - Vegetable - *pronounced – vegetable*
- (f) There are homophones – sounds which are similar even though they are written differently and have different meanings, such as
- two, to, too - *pronounced – too*
 - knew, new - *pronounced – niew*
 - through, threw - *pronounced – throo*
 - not, knot, naught - *pronounced – not*
- (g) Some unusual letter combinations in English language which can help in understanding the difference between pronunciation and spelling are
- **GH = ‘F’**: cough, laugh, enough, rough
 - **CH = ‘K’**: chemistry, headache, Christmas, stomach
 - **EA = ‘EH’**: breakfast, head, bread, instead
 - **EA = ‘EI’**: steak, break
 - **EA = ‘EE’**: weak, streak
 - **OU = ‘UH’**: country, double, enough

How to remember spellings?

The above discussion may have put you in a fix about what to do with English spellings. Don't be disheartened. In most cases, the discrepancy between pronunciation and spelling is not the case. Therefore, one can easily write. Some of the discrepancies are provided in the earlier section, try to remember them. And once or twice, if you use them, then you will see that they are naturally coming to you in your writing flow. One has to remember that in most cases, it is with writing and continuous practice of writing that one can develop one's spelling. The more you write, the more you get accustomed to spelling. So, the best way to learn spelling is to write more and more. The more you will write, the more are the chances that spelling of most difficult words (in terms of spelling) will come naturally to you and you will be able to handle spelling mistakes and minimize your mistakes.

A List of Words with Confusing Spellings

A <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • acceptable • accidentally • accommodate • acquire • acquit • a lot • amateur • apparent • argument • atheist 	B <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • believe • bellwether 	C <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • calendar • category • cemetery • changeable • collectible • column • committed • conscience • conscientious • conscious • consensus 	D <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • definitely • discipline • drunkenness • dumbbell
E <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • embarrassment • equipment • exhilarate • exceed • existence • experience 	F <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • fiery • foreign 	G <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • gauge • grateful • guarantee 	H <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • harass • height • hierarchy • humorous
I <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ignorance • immediate • independent • indispensable • inoculate • intelligence 	J <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • jewellery • judgment 	K <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • kernel 	L <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • leisure • liaison • library • license
M <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • maintenance • manoeuvre • medieval • memento • millennium • miniature • minuscule • mischievous • misspell 	N <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • neighbour • noticeable 	O <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • occasionally • occurrence 	P <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pastime • perseverance • personnel • playwright • possession • precede • principal • privilege • pronunciation • publicly
Q <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • questionnaire 	R <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • receipt • recommend • referred • reference • relevant • rhyme • rhythm 	S <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • schedule • separate • sergeant • supersede 	T <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • their/they're/there • threshold • twelfth • tyranny
U <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • until 	V <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • vacuum 	W <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • weather • weird 	

NOTES

Basic Spelling Rules

(The following section on Spelling Rules is based on <https://www.dictionary.com/e/spelling-rules/>)

- **Short-Vowel Rule:** When one-syllable words have a vowel in the middle, the vowel usually has a short sound.
Examples: *cat, dog, man, hat, mom, dad, got*. If the letter after the vowel is *f, l, or s*, this letter is often doubled. Examples: *staff, ball, pass*.
- **Two-Vowels Together:** When two vowels are next to each other, the first vowel is usually long (the sound is the same as the sound of the letter) and the second vowel is silent.

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Examples: *meat, seat, plain, rain, goat, road, lie, pie.*

- **Vowel-Consonant-e Pattern:** When a short word, or the last syllable of a longer word, ends in this pattern vowel-consonant-e, then the first vowel is usually long and the *e* is silent. Examples: *place, cake, mice, vote, mute.*

- **Y as a long I:** The letter *y* makes the long sound of *i* when it comes at the end of a short word that has no other vowel.

Examples: *cry, try, my, fly, by, hi.*

- **Y as a long E:** When *y* or *ey* ends a word in an unaccented syllable, the *y* has the long sound of *e*. Examples: *money, honey, many, key, funny.*

- **I before E:** Write *i* before *e* when the sound is long *e* except after the letter *c*.

Examples: *relieve, relief, reprieve.* When there is a *c* preceding, then it is *ei*: *receipt, receive, ceiling, deceive, conceive.*

- **E before I:** Write *e* before *i* when the sound is long *a*.

Examples: *weight, freight, reign.* Another way to remember this is: “*I* before *e* except after *c*, or when sounding like *a* as in *neighbor* and *weigh*.” When the *ie/ei* combination is not pronounced *ee*, it is usually spelled *ei*.

- **Oi or Oy:** Use *oi* in the middle of a word and use *oy* at the end of a word. Examples: *boil, soil, toil, boy, toy.*

- **Ou or Ow:** Use *ou* in the middle of a word and use *ow* at the end of words other than those that end in *n* or *d*.

Examples: *mouse, house, found, mount, borrow, row, throw, crow.*

- **Double Consonants:** When *b, d, g, m, n,* or *p* appear after a short vowel in a word with two syllables, double the consonant.

Examples: *rabbit, manner, dagger, banner, drummer.*

- **The ch sound:** At the beginning of a word, use *ch*. At the end of a word, use *tch*. When the *ch* sound is followed by *ure* or *ion*, use *t*. Examples: *choose, champ, watch, catch, picture, rapture.*

Suffix and Inflection Rules

- Words ending with a silent *e*: Drop the *e* before adding a suffix which begins with a vowel: *state, stating; like, liking.*
- Keep the *e* when the suffix begins with a consonant: *state, statement; use, useful.*
- When *y* is the last letter in a word and the *y* is preceded by a consonant, change the *y* to *i* before adding any suffix except those beginning with *y*: *beauty, beautiful; fry, fries; lady, ladies.*

- When forming the plural of a word which ends with a *y* that is preceded by a vowel, add *s*: *toy, toys; monkey, monkeys*.
- When a one-syllable word ends in a consonant preceded by one vowel, double the final consonant before adding a suffix which begins with a vowel. This is also called the 1-1-1 rule, i.e., one syllable, one consonant, one vowel! Example: *bat, batted, batting, batter*.
- When a multi-syllable word ends in a consonant preceded by one vowel, and the final syllable is accented, the same rule holds true—double the final consonant. Examples: *control, controlled; begin, beginning*.
- When the final syllable does not have the end-accent, it is preferred, and in some cases required, that you NOT double the consonant. Examples: *focus, focused; worship, worshiped*.

NOTES

American Versus British Spelling

As told in the introduction of the Unit, there are some differences between American and British English in terms of Spelling as they spell few words in a different fashion. We need to know this difference as whichever English, we follow, whether American or British in writing words, we need to be cautious that we should choose one category and use it throughout. We should not mix British and American spellings alternatively in a single document.

(The following section is based on words taken from <https://www.lexico.com/grammar/british-and-spelling>)

<p>Words ending in -re British English words that end in <i>-re</i> often end in <i>-er</i> in American English:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>centre</td> <td>center</td> </tr> <tr> <td>fibre</td> <td>fiber</td> </tr> <tr> <td>litre</td> <td>liter</td> </tr> <tr> <td>theatre</td> <td>theater or theatre</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	British	US	centre	center	fibre	fiber	litre	liter	theatre	theater or theatre	<p>Words ending in -our British English words ending in <i>-our</i> usually end in <i>-or</i> in American English:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>colour</td> <td>color</td> </tr> <tr> <td>flavour</td> <td>flavor</td> </tr> <tr> <td>humour</td> <td>humor</td> </tr> <tr> <td>labour</td> <td>labor</td> </tr> <tr> <td>neighbour</td> <td>neighbor</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	British	US	colour	color	flavour	flavor	humour	humor	labour	labor	neighbour	neighbor
British	US																						
centre	center																						
fibre	fiber																						
litre	liter																						
theatre	theater or theatre																						
British	US																						
colour	color																						
flavour	flavor																						
humour	humor																						
labour	labor																						
neighbour	neighbor																						
<p>Words ending in -ize or -ise Verbs in British English that can be spelled with either <i>-ize</i> or <i>-ise</i> at the end are always spelled with <i>-ize</i> at the end in American English:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>apologize or apologise</td> <td>apologize</td> </tr> <tr> <td>organize or organise</td> <td>organize</td> </tr> <tr> <td>recognize or recognise</td> <td>recognize</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	British	US	apologize or apologise	apologize	organize or organise	organize	recognize or recognise	recognize	<p>Words ending in -yse Verbs in British English that end in <i>-yse</i> are always spelled <i>-yze</i> in American English:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>analyse</td> <td>analyze</td> </tr> <tr> <td>breathalyse</td> <td>breathalyze</td> </tr> <tr> <td>paralyse</td> <td>paralyze</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	British	US	analyse	analyze	breathalyse	breathalyze	paralyse	paralyze						
British	US																						
apologize or apologise	apologize																						
organize or organise	organize																						
recognize or recognise	recognize																						
British	US																						
analyse	analyze																						
breathalyse	breathalyze																						
paralyse	paralyze																						

NOTES

<p>Words ending in a vowel plus l In British spelling, verbs ending in a vowel plus <i>l</i> double the <i>l</i> when adding endings that begin with a vowel. In American English, the <i>l</i> is not doubled:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>travel</td> <td>travel</td> </tr> <tr> <td>travelled</td> <td>traveled</td> </tr> <tr> <td>travelling</td> <td>traveling</td> </tr> <tr> <td>traveller</td> <td>traveler</td> </tr> <tr> <td>fuel</td> <td>fuel</td> </tr> <tr> <td>fuelled</td> <td>fueled fuelling fueling</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	British	US	travel	travel	travelled	traveled	travelling	traveling	traveller	traveler	fuel	fuel	fuelled	fueled fuelling fueling	<p>Words spelled with double vowels British English words that are spelled with the double vowels <i>ae</i> or <i>oe</i> are just spelled with an <i>i</i> in American English:</p> <table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th>British</th> <th>US</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>leukaemia</td> <td>leukemia</td> </tr> <tr> <td>manoeuvre</td> <td>maneuver</td> </tr> <tr> <td>oestrogen</td> <td>estrogen</td> </tr> <tr> <td>paediatric</td> <td>pediatric</td> </tr> </tbody> </table> <p>Note that in American English, certain terms, such as archaeology, keep the <i>ae</i> spelling as standard, although the spelling with just the <i>i</i> (i.e. archeology) is usually acceptable as well.</p>	British	US	leukaemia	leukemia	manoeuvre	maneuver	oestrogen	estrogen	paediatric	pediatric
British	US																								
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analogue	analog or analogue																								
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Source: <https://www.lexico.com/grammar/british-and-spelling>

Methods of Teaching Spelling

All languages are rule bound, though there are exceptions and these exceptions need to be remembered. The students should be made to learn the rules of English Spelling as well as the difference between British and American English, but when students are overburdened with rules, it often becomes an impediment to their learning process, especially when one is dealing with kids. For the adult learners stating the rules often work. So, it is advisable that when one is teaching English spelling rules, one should make the students practice more and more as that leads to a better learning than just merely asking them to mug up rules. It should be remembered that dictation, sentence making and with such other language games and practices one can make students learn spellings much faster than when one is asked to memorize spelling rules and spellings. One needs to be creative and innovative while teaching English spellings as that is the surest way by which competence of English spellings can be gained in the long run.

There are many methods which spellings may be taught:

- Use activities like jumble words
- Create songs, raps or rhymes related to the word
- Use games like crossword
- Use pictures to associate spellings of the word
- Inculcate activities like word train

- Use spelling tests
- Encourage reading for learning new words
- Print or display spellings of the difficult words

NOTES

Check Your Progress

1. What happens if one writes without the correct spelling?
2. List some three syllabic words which are pronounced as two syllables.
3. What is the Vowel-Consonant-e Pattern rule?

10.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS EQUATIONS

1. If one writes without the correct spelling, then it becomes a major impediment to the readers as he or she may find the writing to be too non-serious to give it a proper reading.
2. Some three syllabic words which are pronounced as Two Syllables are:
 - Aspirin - *pronounced – asprin*
 - Different - *pronounced – different*
 - Every - *pronounced – evry*
3. **Vowel-Consonant-e Pattern:** When a short word, or the last syllable of a longer word, ends in this pattern vowel-consonant-e, then the first vowel is usually long and the *e* is silent. Examples: *place, cake, mice, vote, mute.*

10.4 SUMMARY

- When one learns language, one needs to learn various facets of the language as it is what makes us effective communicators. In case of written communication, it is necessary that we write with correct spelling.
- As English is a language which developed in different parts of the world in different periods in different ways, there are major differences in its usages. Nowhere is English used in a similar manner.
- Often in good writing, good and effective ideas lose their sharpness in writing if the words are not properly spelt. Moreover, missing one alphabet or misplacing one alphabet in a word can lead to a greater change in meaning.
- If one is not aware of the discrepancies between English spellings and pronunciations, then there are chances that one will continue making mistakes. Therefore, it is essential that one learns a few of the essential discrepancies between English Spelling and Pronunciation.

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- Some words are pronounced full, but when they are written, they are abbreviated usually, such as, Dr., Prof., Mr., Mrs., etc.
- There are some three syllabic words which are pronounced as Two Syllables. These are:
 - ¢ Aspirin - *pronounced – asprin*
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 - ∅ Every - *pronounced – evry*
- One has to remember that in most cases, it is with writing and continuous practice of writing that one can develop one's spelling. The more you write, the more you get accustomed to spelling.
- When two vowels are next to each other, the first vowel is usually long (the sound is the same as the sound of the letter) and the second vowel is silent. Examples: *meat, seat, plain, rain, goat, road, lie, pie.*
- When *b, d, g, m, n, or p* appear after a short vowel in a word with two syllables, double the consonant. Examples: *rabbit, manner, dagger, banner, drummer.*
- It should be remembered that dictation, sentence making and with such other language games and practices one can make students learn spellings much faster than when one is asked to memorize spelling rules and spellings.

10.5 KEY WORDS

- **Orthography:** It is a set of conventions for writing a language. It includes norms of spelling, hyphenation, capitalization, word breaks, emphasis, and punctuation.
- **Inflection:** It refers to a change in the form of a word (typically the ending) to express a grammatical function or attribute such as tense, mood, person, number, case, and gender.

10.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Why does English have different usage in different parts of the world?
2. Write a short note on any two essential discrepancies between English Spelling and Pronunciation.
3. State three examples of homophones.

4. What is the 1-1 rule?
5. Write a short note on the pronunciation of words ending in -ize or -ise.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the problems of English spelling.
2. Describe suffix and inflection rules.
3. Elaborate upon the pronunciation of words ending in -our, -vse and -ogue.

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10.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theorde S.Rodgers. 2006. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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UNIT 11 TEACHING OF WRITING: ASPECTS AND CHARACTERISTICS

Structure

- 11.0 Introduction
- 11.1 Objectives
- 11.2 Teaching of Composition: Meaning, Characteristics, Objectives and Principles
- 11.3 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 11.4 Summary
- 11.5 Key Words
- 11.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 11.7 Further Readings

11.0 INTRODUCTION

Writing is a three-stage process that includes pre-writing, while-writing (draft) and post-writing. The first stage includes the conception of an idea, brainstorming, and gaining knowledge about the topic among a number of other tasks. The second stage involves creating a draft and the final stage is concerned with editing work. These three steps ought to be followed in a proper manner to create a good piece of writing. In this unit, the activities involved in these three stages have been explained.

11.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the product and process approach of writing
- Discuss the three stages of writing namely, pre-writing, while writing and post-writing
- Analyze the concept of creative writing
- Examine the activities for developing writing habits

11.2 TEACHING OF COMPOSITION: MEANING, CHARACTERISTICS, OBJECTIVES AND PRINCIPLES

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Composition is just another word for writing. It just refers to the process of logically collecting, arranging and presenting thoughts, ideas and opinions on a particular subject for different purposes like simply stating facts, expressing opinions, persuading others, dictating terms or any thing else.

Composition can be oral or written, but in this section, we will refer to the written composition only. Written composition can be in the form of narrative composition, descriptive composition, essays, story, literature, etc.

Characteristics of Composition

There are some common features of composition no matter its type:

- The title should be appropriate
- It should have a good opening
- The ideas should be presented in a logical sequence
- The words used should be simple and succinct
- Paragraphs must be divided in order to make comprehension easier
- There should be good flow of language
- There should a good conclusion

Objectives of Teaching of Composition

- To help the children develop their writing skills
- To assist with teaching logical presentation of ideas
- To promote the expression of student's ideas in an organized form
- To help them become competent communicators
- To assist them in efficiently using vocabulary suitable to different forms of composition

'It is perfectly okay to write garbage—as long as you edit brilliantly.'

– C. J. Cherryh

The skill of writing is a productive language skill which is essential for success in academic as well as personal life. In the words of Murray, instead of teaching learners to write perfectly, we should engage them in the process of writing, write the draft and improvise it step by step till the finished product. This is the process approach to writing, where means is important than the end. Product approach to writing, on the other hand, focuses on the finished product – the end.

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Writing skills play an essential role in present society, but form an extremely challenging process where the writer has to make a considerable number of choices at different levels of cognitive processing which requires more than linguistic competence. It is a non-linear exploratory process.

Since 1945, newer methods have emerged for teaching of writing. These methods revolved around different focus points: product, person, process, context, audience, and many others.

The Product and Process approach to writing gained considerable popularity amongst practitioners.

The **product approach** to writing is evident in the controlled and guided composition writing. This approach is based on the assumption that language involves mastering of speech and the process of learning nothing more than habit formation, herein much of the input is already given to the reader he has to apply structures he has already learnt and editing is done by the language teacher.

However, **process approach** to teaching writing skills has received more credibility amongst language teachers across the world. The main aim of process writing according to Hedge (2000) is to acquire mastery over the use of cognitive strategies for composing. The key features of this approach include:

- An environment offering low anxiety
- Writers engaged in the process of writing with little or no constraint of time
- Reader/teacher focus is on the content, idea and negotiation of meaning
- Lots of scope is given to the writer to improvise before submitting the final draft

Principles of Composition Writing/Teaching Writing

The principle of teaching of composition can be better understood by learning about the process of writing. The process of writing follows three stages: pre writing, while writing and post writing:



Fig. 11.1 The Writing Process

As is evident from the above figure the post writing phase is the longest, challenging and crucial for teaching writing skills. It involves editing the draft, revising it, re-writing it before publishing it / saving as the final copy.

Pre-writing

Prewriting is everything you do before you begin to draft the paper. To initiate thinking and generate possible writing topics, it is important for students to explore ideas for writing. A variety of pre-writing strategies, such as the following can be discussed with learners for creating an idea bank to prepare them for the next stage of writing:

- Brainstorming
- Constructing thought webs and graphic organizers
- Interviewing a person knowledgeable about the topic
- Engaging in peer or teacher-student discussions and conferences
- Listening to music
- Reading about and researching the topic
- Free writing or timed free writing about the topic
- Viewing media such as pictures, movies, and television
- Listing and categorizing information
- Reflecting upon personal experience
- Examining writing models
- Responding to literature
- Role playing and other drama techniques
- Asking the 5 Ws—who, what, where, when and why.

Given below is brief description of how to go about with these strategies for creating a personal idea bank. You can ask your learners to maintain an old diary/register/notebook as their idea bank. When they are given a topic to write on, they can refer to this bank and create a unique piece of writing to impress considerably, their readers.

- **Brainstorming about people, places, and feelings:** Write down or tell a partner the names of people you could describe, then quickly and briefly describe each one. Name several places you have visited and list descriptive words for each place. List and describe some memorable feelings you have had, and explain the situation in which they occurred.
- **Talking and listening in pairs or groups:** Take turns telling about an interesting person, thing, incident, or object. Encourage the listeners to ask questions and add ideas. Record possible writing topics or ideas as they arise during the discussion.

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- **Looking at art:** Study paintings, photographs, drawings, or sculpture in magazines or art books. It may even be useful to take a trip to a local museum or art gallery. Jot down notes and questions about the artwork, the artist and the subject, and any topic ideas that come to mind during the observation. It may help to talk over your information and ideas with a partner or small group. Explain to a partner the stories in the art works.
- **Listening to music:** Listen to music you like best or a variety of new and unfamiliar music. Listen to tape recordings or to the radio, closing your eyes and letting the music paint pictures in your mind. Record these images as you listen, or turn off the music and quickly record your ideas. It may be helpful to tell the story you have imagined to a partner or group.
- **Role playing:** Pretend to be any character, ask peers to act as other characters, and dramatize an event or incident, and what happened as a result of that incident or event. Record your experience in your bank.
- **Observing, with all senses alert and engaged:** Be aware of all that is happening around you, in the classroom, at home, in restaurants, in malls, and wherever you go. Listen closely to conversations of the people you observe, and try to capture the details of their manners and dress. Observe for issues, problems, or achievements in your community. Jot down ideas and notes as you observe them or as soon as possible after your observations.
- **Listing ideas and information:** List such things as the activities that interest you, the sports you play, the clubs that you belong to, and the community and world issues that you know about from the media.
- Reading such things as nonfiction books, novels, magazines, stories, newspapers, and poems. Jot down ideas that occur to you as you read and list questions you might investigate further. Keep track of interesting vocabulary, story plots, and characters.
- **Newspaper searches:** Read the stories and captions that catch your interest. Jot down ideas for writing a newspaper article or ideas that can be developed into other kinds of writing.
- Make an outline keeping the audience in mind before beginning to write: For whom: their age, gender, culture, socioeconomic background, values, politics and for what purpose: notice, formal/informal letter, article, speech, are you writing.

While writing (draft)

While writing is the stage of drafting when you begin to put your ideas in a paragraph form.

Given below are a few writing strategies:

1. **Clarity of purpose:** At the end of your introduction, write a one-sentence statement that is the basis for your entire written work.

2. **Sequence:** The paragraphs that follow should support this statement, and each paragraph should focus on one of the possible aspect of the main theme.
3. **Topic sentences:** Each paragraph should begin with a topic sentence that states the main idea of that paragraph. Just like the thesis statement, the topic sentence lets you know what the paragraph contains.
4. **Sufficient support:** In order to make your written work credible sufficient support needs to be provided in the text. Support comes in many different forms:
 - Newspaper reports
 - Researched information
 - Observations
 - Descriptions
 - Case studies
 - Interviews
 - Personal experience
 - Hypothetical situations
 - Definitions from dictionaries
 - Newspaper reports
 - Real life experiences, etc.

The rule is that the more specific the information, the more interesting the paragraph and in turn, better would be the written piece of work.

- **Coherence of expression:** It gives beauty and strength to the written.
- **Transitional words and phrases:** These help to create bridges between sentences, words such as: moreover, however, for example, in other words, in contrast, nevertheless, in fact, as soon as, while and so on.
- **Unity of idea:** Stay on the path. Make sure all sentences relate to the topic sentence and all paragraphs relate to the theme.
- **Accuracy of expression:** It is mandatory that appropriate words and expressions are used to make the work interesting and meaningful.
- **Brevity of expression:** A good writer strives to use the minimum words to express the thoughts and emotions appropriately.
- **Fluency of expression:** The hallmark of a good written work is the fluency of ideas evident in the work.
- **Format:** Appropriate format must be followed.

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Post writing (revise – edit- publish)

This phase is majorly editorial work wherein the learner is asked to edit the first draft and rewrite it. The learner individually or in pair learns-

- To revise the text for: spelling, accuracy, clarity, brevity, comprehensiveness, appropriateness, format etc.
- To engage in conferencing with the language teacher for her inputs
- To rewrite a second draft
- Proof reading – spellings, grammar, punctuation, format, presentation
- Marking - Teachers

The process of writing is often perceived as a ‘wheel’ where the writers are free to move around the circumference of the wheel and across the spokes.

Activity: Look at the list of activities given below, state which stage of writing process does it happen-

1. Check language use (Grammar, vocabulary, linkers)
2. Check punctuation (layout)
3. Check your spelling
4. Check your writing for unnecessary repetition of words and /or information
5. Decide on the information for each paragraph and the order the paragraphs should go
6. Note down various ideas
7. Select the best ideas for inclusion
8. Write a clean copy of the corrected version
9. Write out a rough version

Creative Writing

English Language teachers are using the creative writing tasks for developing writing skills of their learners. Gaffield-Vile (1998) defines creative writing as ‘a journey of self-discovery, and self-discovery promotes effective learning’.

Creative writing refers to imaginative work such as poem, short story, one act play, and others. Such pieces of work are held in high esteem by the writers and others as well. The writer takes pride in his creation. Due to personal touch of such kind of tasks, the learners are more intrinsically motivated to work hard on coming up with a good piece of work. Such creative work by learners need to be acknowledged:

- Devote a special corner on the soft board for creative works
- Contribute such work in the school magazine / newspaper

- Read aloud such works in the class
- Encourage learners to prepare anthology and give it to someone special as a gift

Developing Writing Habit in Students

As a teacher you may initiate some of the activities listed below to develop the habit of writing in the learners:

- make writing tasks more interesting
- Encourage creative writing in class
- Encourage them to maintain a diary / reflective journal
- Motivate learners to read a lot and write freely on any topic
- Expose learners to different genres, discourses to orient them to different writing styles.
- Provide good models to scan
- Use instant writing: give an incomplete statement ask them to complete it
- Build a story asking each member to contribute one sentence in writing
- Cooperative writing practice may be done: learners are given a theme, they have to write a piece in group.
- Make use of writing games, story circles etc. to make the task easier and less cumbersome
- Provide constructive feedback at the opportune time.

Check Your Progress

1. What do the newer methods for teaching of writing revolve around?
2. List the key features of the process approach to teaching writing.
3. How do transitional words and phrases help in writing?

11.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Newer methods for teaching of writing revolve around different focus points: product, person, process, context, audience, and many others.
2. The key features of the process approach to teaching writing include:
 - An environment offering low anxiety
 - Writers engaged in the process of writing with little or no constraint of time
 - Reader/teacher focus is on the content, idea and negotiation of meaning

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- Lots of scope is given to the writer to improvise before submitting the final draft
3. Transitional words and phrases help to create bridges between sentences, words such as: moreover, however, for example, in other words, in contrast, nevertheless, in fact, as soon as, while and so on.

11.4 SUMMARY

- In the words of Murray, instead of teaching learners to write perfectly, we should engage them in the process of writing, write the draft and improvise it step by step till the finished product.
- Since 1945, newer methods have emerged for teaching of writing. These methods revolved around different focus points: product, person, process, context, audience, and many others.
- The process approach to teaching writing skills has received more credibility amongst language teachers across the world. The main aim of process writing according to Hedge (2000) is to acquire mastery over the use of cognitive strategies for composing.
- Prewriting is everything you do before you begin to draft the paper. To initiate thinking and generate possible writing topics, it is important for students to explore ideas for writing.
- For improving writing skills, be aware of all that is happening around you, in the classroom, at home, in restaurants, in malls, and wherever you go. Listen closely to conversations of the people you observe, and try to capture the details of their manners and dress.
- While writing a draft, at the end of your introduction, write a one-sentence statement that is the basis for your entire written work.
- Each paragraph should begin with a topic sentence that states the main idea of that paragraph. Just like the thesis statement, the topic sentence lets you know what the paragraph contains.
- The hallmark of a good written work is the fluency of ideas evident in the work.
- This post-writing phase is majorly editorial work wherein the learner is asked to edit the first draft and rewrite it.
- The process of writing is often perceived as a 'wheel' where the writers are free to move around the circumference of the wheel and across the spokes.
- Creative writing refers to imaginative work such as poem, short story, one act play, and others. Such pieces of work are held in high esteem by the writers and others as well. The writer takes pride in his creation. Due to personal touch of such kind of tasks, the learners are more intrinsically motivated to work hard on coming up with a good piece of work.

11.5 KEY WORDS

- **Product Writing:** It is an approach to teaching writing that focuses on students' final production, that is, the text they are asked to produce. There is enhanced importance in the end product and this affects the way a product writing lesson is staged.
- **Creative writing:** It is any writing that goes outside the bounds of normal professional, journalistic, academic, or technical forms of literature, typically identified by an emphasis on narrative craft, character development, and the use of literary tropes or with various traditions of poetry and poetics

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11.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. Write a short note on the product approach to writing.
2. State a few writing strategies.
3. What does the learner learn in the post-writing stage?
4. List some activities that teachers may initiate to develop the habit of writing in learners.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Elaborate upon the pre-writing stage of the writing process.
2. Discuss some strategies for creating a personal idea bank.

11.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theorde S.Rodgers. 2006. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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- Varghese, Paul. 1990. *Teaching English as a Second Language*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.
- Harris, David. P. 1969. *Testing English as Second Language*. New York: McGraw Hill.

UNIT 12 TEACHING OF ENGLISH PROSE

NOTES

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 Prose Teaching Definition, Characteristics and Procedures
- 12.3 Answers to 'Check Your Progress Questions
- 12.4 Summary
- 12.5 Key Words
- 12.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.7 Further Readings

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Prose teaching is done to help students increase their vocabulary and understand easily the thought, ideas and feelings expressed by the authors. Therefore, teaching of prose, is very much connected to reading and improving reading and comprehension skills. Reading is a skill that is concerned with understanding the meaning and context of a text. In order to develop reading skills, an individual may make use of some sub-skills such as scanning, skimming, intensive reading and extensive reading. Skimming refers to the process of going through a text in a rough manner to get an idea of its content. Scanning is concerned with locating a specific information from a particular text. Intensive reading includes reading a text to understand its literal meaning, rhetorical relationships etc. to arrive at an in-depth analysis of the text. Extensive reading, on the other hand, involves reading extensively to improve reading skills rather than conducting an in-depth analysis. In this unit, the aforementioned concepts will be discussed.

12.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Analyze the various types of sub-skills for reading
- Discuss the process and uses of scanning, skimming, intensive reading and extensive reading

12.2 PROSE TEACHING DEFINITION, CHARACTERISTICS AND PROCEDURES

Prose is intended for studying a language. Prose teaching implies teaching reading with comprehension. Prose teaching helps students to comprehend the passage,

read fluently, enrich their vocabulary and enjoy reading and writing. This encourages students to expand their knowledge of vocabulary and structures and to become more proficient in language skills. It improves the ability to speak English correctly and fluently.

The following are the objectives of teaching prose

- To help students comprehend the ideas expressed in different passages.
- To make sure that the students can read prose with correction pronunciation, pause, etc.
- To assist students in expressing or relaying the ideas given in any passage in oral and written forms
- To help students increase their vocabulary
- To improve writing skills of students
- To help students inculcate reading habits, etc.

Prose refers to the type of writing with no formal or rigid structure. It models on the natural flow of speech and follow general grammar rules. It can be fictional like novels, or non-fictional like essays or biographies. They can also be in the form of legends or also be used in writing poetry.

Characteristics of prose include:

- Uses simple everyday-use language
- Uses paragraphs and full sentences
- There is continuation of ideas and thoughts across several lines and paragraphs
- Follows no structured metres

“To learn to read is to light a fire; every syllable that is spelled out is a spark.”

— Victor Hugo, *Les Miserables*

“When I say to a parent, “read to a child”, I don’t want it to sound like medicine. I want it to sound like chocolate.”

— Mem Fox

This section will focus on the significant skill of reading. As they say reading makes a man perfect, developing reading skills among learners is the primary goal of language education in our country.

It is believed that if the reading skills are developed, the learner will acquire other related language skills, will become a self-directed, autonomous learner who will be competent to chart his own success story.

The teaching of reading skills lesson is generally executed in three small steps:

Pre-reading: The learner is exposed to some thoughts, ideas, case studies, reports or perspective on the theme of the reading text. This creates a frame of

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reference for the learner. The teacher may even engage the learners in small discussion / brainstorming session to prepare them for reading the text.

While-reading : While reading, the learner has to stay focused to gauge the meaning of the text and comprehend fully what the text is about , some task sheet on vocabulary – word attack, etc. may be used, they might be asked to underline the theme statement, its supporting details, etc.

Post-reading: After the reading is over, the interpretation of the learner may be shared in the class. So that there is an exchange of thoughts and perspective. Learners may be asked to write a letter to the characters of the text, they may tell the story giving it a different ending.

Sub-skills of reading

In our real life we often engage in reading one text or the other, we encounter a wide variety of texts, which we generally read for two purposes:

- For information, or
- For pleasure

These reading texts differ on account of their:

- Content
- Style
- Purpose
- Density

While reading these varied texts we use different types of sub-skills of reading. They include:

- Skimming
- Scanning
- Intensive Reading
- Extensive Reading

1. Skimming

When we read a text quickly to get an overall idea of the contents, in order to get a gist, we engage in the process of skimming. For instance, when we go through the blurb of a book, we read quickly so that we may make a decision whether or not to pick it up for reading, if it is relevant to your coursework / whether it is of your interest area or not.

Activity 1

List the different types of things you read.

1. _____
2. _____

3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____

Now, that your list is ready, can you specify a reason / purpose for which you read them?

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____

Does your reading speed depend on the type of the text you are reading?

Reading speed

Our reading speed varies for different types of texts, for instance, while reading a novel, we do not read each and every word slowly, rather our reading speed is fast. This speed comes due to the process of ‘chunking’.

‘Chunking’ refers to the technique of taking words in ‘chunks’ - that is instead of taking single word at a time, the reader picks up a ‘chunk’ - words that make a sensible unit, such as phrases, clauses, or complete sentence.

Process of skimming

Reading for gist or overall idea involves:

- Reading the text quickly for general information (**skimming**),
- Mentally summarizing the information for later use, and
- Remembering only keywords and not details

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Activities for practicing skimming

- Read the title, subtitles and subheading to find out what the text is about.
- Look at the illustrations to give you further information about the topic.
- Read the first and last sentence of each paragraph.
- Don't read every word or every sentence. Let your eyes skim over the text, taking in key words.
- Continue to think about the meaning of the text.

When to use skimming?

- To know the overall sense or the main ideas of a text.
- Large amounts of reading and limited time to review it in detail.
- For seeking specific information rather than reading for comprehension or pleasure.
- To make decision, such as - should the book be read at all, or in more detail.
- To know if a text may be of interest in one's research.

2. Scanning

This sub-skill requires learners to read through the given text quickly for a specific piece of information or a given word. For instance, looking for a telephone number in the telephone directory, consulting dictionary for a specific word and so on. We specifically look for key words by moving our eyes a bit quickly.

Scanning is a distinct reading strategy involving rapid but focused reading of text, in order to locate specific information, e.g. looking for particular details such as dates, names, or certain types of words. It is processing print at a high speed while looking for answers to specific questions. When you scan, you must begin with a specific question which has a specific answer. Scanning for information in this way should be both fast and accurate. We usually scan the following material in our daily life:

- **Simple:** lists, dictionaries, thesaurus, railway-timetable, tables, signs, classified ads
- **Less simple:** yellow pages, reference works, tables of contents, indices (indexes), web pages
- **Complex:** continuous prose - documents, articles, books, long description

Process of scanning

- Start at the beginning of the passage.

- Move your eyes quickly over the lines, looking for key words related to the information you want to find.
- Stop scanning and begin reading as soon as you find any of the key words you're looking for.
- Use clues on the page, such as headings and titles, to help you. Such as: In a dictionary or phone book, use the 'header' words to help you scan.

When to use it

- To find a particular or specific piece of information.
- To extract specific details from a text.
- To save time in while reading a book or article and knowing what it contains
- For example:
 - Ø The Editorial section of your newspaper.
 - Ø A train / airplane schedule
 - Ø A seminar brochure

Activities for practicing scanning

1. Locate the name and address of dentist in the yellow pages
2. Look up a favourite recipe in the index of a cookbook
3. Search for the contact number of physiotherapist clinic in your area from the telephone directory
4. Scan web pages on the Internet to find specific information.

3. Intensive and extensive reading

While reading a text silently, the reader uses two sub-skills:

- (a) Intensive Reading, and
- (b) Extensive Reading

The following sections will discuss the what, when, and how of these sub-skills of reading.

(a) Intensive reading

Brown (1989) draws the analogy of 'zoom lens' for intensive reading. In his words: this type of reading 'calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like.'

It is sometimes referred to as 'narrow reading'.

Aspects of intensive reading

- Generally confined to a classroom

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- Reader is intensely involved in looking inside the text
- Reader focuses on linguistic or semantic details of a reading
- Reader focuses on surface structure details such as grammar and discourse markers
- Reader identifies key vocabulary
- Readers may engage in concept mapping strategy to help them in analyzing the text (such as in problem solving)
- Texts are read carefully and thoroughly, repeatedly
- The purpose is to gain language knowledge rather than simply practice the skill of reading
- It is more commonly used than extensive reading in classrooms

Materials appropriate for intensive reading

- Very short texts - not more than 500 words in length
- According learner's level of difficulty text is selected by the teacher/ content developer
- Focus on types of reading and skills that the teacher wants to cover in the course for that specific group of learners

What does it involve?

- (i) Practice in reading the text rapidly
- (ii) Interpreting text by using:
 - Word attack skills: guessing the meaning of a word from context
 - Text attack skills – understanding the sentence syntax, for instance – ‘I am happy is a statement’, and ‘Am I happy?’ is a question.
 - Non-text information: utilizing non text information such as punctuation, for comprehension.
 - Recognizing and interpreting cohesive devices such as- moreover, however, but, and so on: She was ill **yet** she went to school/ She was ill **but** she attended school.
 - Interpreting discourse markers
 - Tracing and interpreting rhetorical organizations: Politicians are liars. They keep fooling the common man (exemplification).
 - Recognizing pre supposition underlying a statement: I can't believe the teacher has not considered your case. (Presupposition – teacher is empathetic)
 - Recognizing implications and making inferences: All that glitters is not gold. (inference-one should not be beguiled by appearances)

- Prediction ‘Tatas dump Cyrus Mistry as chairman, recall Ratan’ – we expect the news to shed light on the whole episode – what, why, how.

Activities for developing intensive reading skills

Intensive reading exercises may include:

- Looking at main ideas versus details
- Understanding what is implied versus stated
- Making inferences
- Looking at the order of information and how it effects the message
- Identifying words that connect one idea to another
- Identifying words that indicate change from one section to another

Munby (1979) suggests four categories of questions that may be used in intensive reading. These include:

- Plain Sense - to understand the factual, exact surface meanings in the text
- Implications - to make inferences and become sensitive to emotional tone and figurative language
- Relationships of thought - between sentences or paragraphs
- Projective - requiring the integration of information from the text to one's own background information

Assessment of intensive reading

It generally takes the form of reading tests and quizzes. Multiple-choice and free-response questions generally used. The focus is more on knowing whether they have understood the text or not.

Purpose of intensive reading

Practice in intensive reading is done in order to understand the

- Logical argument in the text
- Rhetorical pattern of text
- Emotional, symbolic or social attitudes conveyed in the text
- Purposes of the author
- Linguistic means to an end
- Complex nature of texts in academic reading

Role of the teacher

- The teacher selects a suitable text.
- The teacher designs tasks and activities to develop skills.
- The teacher sets the stage, gives direction before, during and after reading.

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- The teacher prepares students technically and mentally to work on their own.
- The teacher “gets out of the way”.
- The teacher motivates students to read and perform the tasks through prompts, without giving answers.

Advantages

- It provides a base to study structure, vocabulary, idioms and other aspects of language.
- It provides the teacher an opportunity to focus on specific aspects of language and train learners in word attack, text attack strategies.
- It provides opportunities for students to develop a greater control of language
- It provides teachers and learners themselves an opportunity to ascertain the degree of comprehension of the text.

The success of intensive reading depends on:

- **The Teacher:** her competence, repertoire of ideas for activities
- **The Text:** its level, interesting aspect, complexity
- **The learner:** motivation, competence to read and comprehend

(b) Extensive reading

“The best way to improve your knowledge of a foreign language is to go and live among the speakers. The next best way is to read extensively.”

Nuttall (1982)

In the words of Long and Richards (1971) extensive reading occurs “when students read large amounts of high interest material, usually out of class, concentrating on meaning, “reading for gist” and skipping unknown words.”

Purpose of extensive reading

- Build reader confidence and enjoyment
- For the comprehension of main ideas, not for specific details.

Historical perspective

Harold Palmer (1917) in Britain and Michael West (1926) in India were pioneers in the application of extensive reading in foreign language teaching, particularly for developing reading skills. Palmer chose the term “extensive reading” to distinguish it from “intensive reading”. It involved:

- Learners reading in second language without any conscious effort to translate.

- developing independent silent reading and
- increasing reading speed of individual students
- preparation of graded readers based on frequency word counts

Theoretical basis for extensive reading programmes

Extensive reading has a strong theoretical base:

Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982) stated that the dominant mode of language learning is in *acquisition*, the largely subconscious "picking up of the language" in informal settings and which is similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language. He suggested that the learner must be exposed to large amounts of second language input. This input must be:

- Meaningful
- Interesting
- Relevant
- Not grammatically sequenced and
- In a low anxiety setting

It is felt that extensive reading programs provide such an environment.

Rumelhart (1980) also proposed an "**interactive model**" of the reading process. According to him, reading is a complex task of simultaneously combining "bottom-up" processes (in which the reader analyzes text in small pieces and builds meaning from these) and "top-down" processes (in which the reader makes "guesses" about the content of a passage). It is believed that extensive reading programs provide the quantities of reading practice necessary for the automaticity of the "bottom-up" (word recognition) process.

Extensive reading programme in ESL class

Extensive reading may appear as any of the following:

- A complement to an intensive reading program
- An extra-curricular activity where students read out of class
- The main focus of a reading course (termed an Extensive Reading Program) - where students work with a class set of books:
 - (i) Individual reading of material, of their own choice
 - (ii) With follow-up activities such as reading logs, reading journals, book reports or projects.

Characteristics of a successful extensive reading program

- Lots of opportunities for learners to read as much as possible
- Availability of a variety of materials on a range of topics
- Learners exercise their choice on what they want to read

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- The purposes of reading are generally related to pleasure, information and general understanding
- Reading is its own reward
- Reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar
- Individual and silent reading are practiced
- A relatively fast reading speed is emphasized
- Learners are briefed about the objectives of the program in advance
- The teacher acts as a role model of a reader for the students

Some ideas for selection of texts for extensive reading

- Select graded readers available with major publishers (CUP, OUP, Penguin and others)
- Texts on the same subject topic
- Provide varied exposure- it is believed that reading more than one text on the same topic allows students to bring more background knowledge to each new text read.
- Make use of Authentic materials such as newspapers, magazines, reports that are related to the second language culture
- The style should include repetition, interest
- New vocabulary and structures should not occur at the same place
- Long texts should be divided into section
- Texts with less complex structure and less extensive vocabulary range should be selected
- The subject matter should be of real interest to the students and suitable for their age level

Rivers (1981) suggests the subject matter should be as close as possible to the type of material the students would read in their first language.

Materials should be chosen that are **at or below the reading ability** of the student. They are usually at a lower level of difficulty than those chosen for intensive reading. This is for several reasons:

- It builds automatic recognition of words
- It allows the reader to see words in “chunks” of language, allowing for faster reading.

Activities for extensive reading

- Reading followed by speaking: after reading learners may interview each other about their reading/ initiate a group discussion

- Reading followed by writing: after reading the newspaper, students may be asked to write a report or an essay on the topic
- Learners may be engaged in book reviews

After reading learners may be asked to do any of the following:

Maintain a reading log – it is a reading journal (reflections on the text read). It may take the following format:

- Date, title of book and author
- The type of the book if known by the student
- A brief paragraph on what is the theme of the book
- A summary of each part as it is read
- Student's reactions to each part followed by response of the teacher

Extensive reading programs ought to be more 'pleasurable' than 'tedious'. Exercises are meant to be an aid in comprehension and not to test the reading ability of the learners.

Assessment of extensive reading

- No examination / test based on the extensive reading is required
- Progress may be made on the basis of reading reports, reading journals, book reports and projects submitted by the learners
- Feedback on progress should be given timely and completely

Role of teacher

- Makes recommendations on selection of reading materials, based on learner's interests.
- Selects appropriate levels of material, beginning with easy books.
- Guides in choosing a variety of materials of their interest.
- Guides students in setting specific goals for amounts read.
- Provides modeling, the teacher also reads at the same time.
- Intervenes less in the learner's process of reading.
- Leads pre-reading activities to motivate and arouse interest in the learner through activities related to the characters, places, themes, and actions.

Role of student

- Takes ownership for developing reading ability.
- Reads independently without the use of a dictionary.
- Selects reading material as per their interest and moves along at their own pace.

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Advantages

The advantages of an extensive reading program are manifold the learners may:

- Develop a ‘reading habit’
- Gain more confidence in reading
- Improve their attitude towards reading
- Become more motivated to read
- Feel more autonomous over their own learning
- More likely to take more initiative
- Become more ‘independent readers’
- Acquire requisite skills to read for different purposes
- Gain awareness of different reading strategies such as word attack skills / text attack skills available for comprehending different kinds of texts
- Expand sight vocabulary
- Acquire “incidental” grammatical competence - that is, it may be acquired even though it was not directly taught
- Build background knowledge / schemas related to diverse fields, interests, style and taste
- Increase reading comprehension
- Improve overall language competence
- Gained in academic reading and writing skills due to extensive and varied exposure.

Check Your Progress

1. How does prose teaching help students?
2. What does reading for gist or overall idea involve?
3. What does intensive reading call attention to?
4. What does Rumelhart say about reading?

12.3 ANSWERS TO ‘CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Prose teaching helps students to comprehend the passage, read fluently, enrich their vocabulary and enjoy reading and writing. This encourages students to expand their knowledge of vocabulary and structures and to become more proficient in language skills. It improves the ability to speak English correctly and fluently.

2. Reading for gist or overall idea involves:
 - Reading the text quickly for general information (skimming),
 - Mentally summarizing the information for later use, and
 - Remembering only keywords and not details
3. Intensive reading' calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like.'
4. Rumelhart says that reading is a complex task of simultaneously combining "bottom-up" processes (in which the reader analyzes text in small pieces and builds meaning from these) and "top-down" processes (in which the reader makes "guesses" about the content of a passage).

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12.4 SUMMARY

- Prose teaching implies teaching reading with comprehension. Prose teaching helps students to comprehend the passage, read fluently, enrich their vocabulary and enjoy reading and writing.
- While reading, the learner has to stay focused to gauge the meaning of the text and comprehend fully what the text is about, some task sheet on vocabulary – word attack, etc. may be used, they might be asked to underline the theme statement, its supporting details, etc.
- When we read a text quickly to get an overall idea of the contents, in order to get a gist, we engage in the process of skimming.
- Our reading speed varies for different types of texts, for instance, while reading a novel, we do not read each and every word slowly, rather our reading speed is fast. This speed comes due to the process of 'chunking'.
- Scanning requires learners to read through the given text quickly for a specific piece of information or a given word. For instance, looking for a telephone number in the telephone directory, consulting dictionary for a specific word and so on. We specifically look for key words by moving our eyes a bit quickly.
- While reading a text silently, the reader uses two sub-skills:
 - Ø Intensive Reading, and
 - Ø Extensive Reading
- Brown (1989) draws the analogy of 'zoom lens' for intensive reading. In his words: this type of reading' calls attention to grammatical forms, discourse markers, and other surface structure details for the purpose of understanding literal meaning, implications, rhetorical relationships, and the like.'

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- Intensive reading involves tracing and interpreting rhetorical organizations: Politicians are liars. They keep fooling the common man (exemplification).
- Intensive reading ideas may include:
 - (i) Looking at main ideas versus details
 - (ii) Understanding what is implied versus stated
 - (ii) Making inferences
 - (iv) Looking at the order of information and how it effects the message
- Harold Palmer (1917) in Britain and Michael West (1926) in India were pioneers in the application of extensive reading in foreign language teaching, particularly for developing reading skills. Palmer chose the term “extensive reading” to distinguish it from “intensive reading”.
- **Krashen’s Input Hypothesis** (1982) stated that the dominant mode of language learning is in *acquisition*, the largely subconscious “picking up of the language” in informal settings and which is similar, if not identical, to the way children develop ability in their first language.
- In an extensive reading program, reading materials are well within the linguistic competence of the students in terms of vocabulary and grammar
- Rivers (1981) suggests the subject matter should be as close as possible to the type of material the students would read in their first language. Materials should be chosen that are **at or below the reading ability** of the student. They are usually at a lower level of difficulty than those chosen for intensive reading.
- Extensive reading programs ought to be more ‘pleasurable’ than ‘tedious’. Exercises are meant to be an aid in comprehension and not to test the reading ability of the learners.

12.5 KEY WORDS

- **Chunking:** It refers to the technique of taking words in ‘chunks’ - that is instead of taking single word at a time, the reader picks up a ‘chunk’ - words that make a sensible unit, such as phrases, clauses, or complete sentence.
- **Skimming:** It is a reading technique meant to look for main or general ideas in a text, without going into detailed and exhaustive reading.
- **Scanning:** It is a distinct reading strategy involving rapid but focused reading of text, in order to locate specific information, e.g. looking for particular details such as dates, names, or certain types of words.

12.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. On what account do reading texts differ?
2. Define scanning.
3. What materials do we usually scan during our daily life?
4. State the four categories of questions that may be used in intensive reading.
5. List the characteristics of a successful extensive reading program.

Long-Answer Questions

1. Discuss the three steps included in teaching reading skills.
2. Analyze the concept, process and activities of scanning.
3. Examine the advantages of an extensive reading program.

12.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theorde S.Rodgers. 2006. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Baruah, T.C. 1991. *The English Teacher's Handbook*. New Delhi: Sterling Publishers.
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UNIT 13 TEACHING OF ENGLISH POETRY

NOTES

Structure

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Objectives
- 12.2 English Poetry Teaching: Definition, Characteristics and Procedures
- 12.3 Answers to 'Check Your Progress Questions
- 12.4 Summary
- 12.5 Key Words
- 12.6 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 12.7 Further Readings

13.0 INTRODUCTION

Poetry makes use of aesthetic and rhyming elements to convey an idea or message. It awakens one to a new perspective and way of looking at the mundane and ordinary things. Teaching of poetry includes a number of steps such as reading the poem aloud, providing an introduction to the poem, highlighting the theme, tone and style of the poem and explaining it through the means of visual and other aids.

13.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Describe the features of Poetry
- Discuss the steps involved in the process of teaching English Poetry

13.2 ENGLISH POETRY TEACHING: DEFINITION, CHARACTERISTICS AND PROCEDURES

One of the objectives of teaching English Language to learners is to enable them to acquire a sense of literary texts and the skill of appreciating literary texts of different genres. The use of language in essays, stories, drama, speech, poems differ considerably and the learner needs to be aware of this difference. Hence, poetry is very much essential to develop learner's aesthetic appreciation of the 'unusual' way the language is used in all of these cases.

Characteristics

The beauty of poetry lies in the features discussed below:

1. Versatile

There are different types and forms of poetry that eventually, each learner is bound to get spell bound. Thus we have sonnets, dramatic monologue, ballads, odes, and many more.

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TYPES OF POEMS			
<p>Acrostic A poem in which the first letters of each line spell out a word or phrase (vertically).</p>	<p>ABC Each line in an ABC poem begins with the letters of the alphabet. A B C D E F...</p>	<p>Autobiographical A poem written about oneself. Often called auto-bio poems.</p>	<p>Ballad A poem written to tell a story, often about a major event.</p>
<p>Cinquain A five-line poem. The first and last lines have only two syllables. It often tells a story.</p>	<p>Color A poem that uses color to express feelings.</p>	<p>Diamond An unrhymed seven-line poem in a diamond shape. The first and last lines are the shortest.</p>	<p>Haiku A three-line poem with a total of 17 syllables. The first and last lines have 5, Middle line has 7.</p>
<p>Limerick A humorous five-line poem with an AABBA rhyme scheme.</p>	<p>Rhyming A poem that uses rhyme. Couplets: 2 rhyming lines. Quatrains: 4 rhyming lines.</p>	<p>Shape A poem that describes an object, written in the shape of the object.</p>	<p>Ode An emotional lyric poem, often about a specific place or person.</p>

Fig. 13.1 Types of Poem

Source: Google image

2. Aspects and elements of language

Poems can be a wonderful means to introduce or practice new vocabulary, language structures, and rhyming devices and elements of poetry.

ELEMENTS OF POETRY		
Line Break:	Where each line of text ends in the poem.	
Stanza:	A group of lines within the poem.	
Rhythm & Rhyme:	A pattern of stressed syllables or rhyming words.	
Repetition:	Lines or words that are repeated in a poem usually to show importance!	
Imagery:	Alliteration:	Onomatopoeia:
Using words to paint a picture using the five senses.	Using the same sound or letter at the beginning of words or lines.	Words that make a sound. POW! ZAP!

Fig. 13.2 Elements of Poetry

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3. Target Language Culture

Poetry opens an interesting historical and cultural window, and students may already be quite knowledgeable about the poets and poems that are an important part of their heritage.

Procedures for Teaching English Poetry

The following strategies can be used for teaching poetry.

- Draw on students' background knowledge
- Talk about the differences between stories and poems.
- Give students a chance to illustrate poems.
- Read a variety of poems out loud. It will help learners notice different rhythms, rhymes, and feelings represented, as well as understand how the language creates an image or mood.
- Selection of poems should be wise: age specific, interesting, simple and beautiful.
- Discuss the vocabulary used in different poems.
- Encourage oral recitation of the poems in class by learners
- Integrated poetry teaching with some other skill / subject
- Use graphic organizers. (Especially for language structure, rhyme scheme etc.)
- Encourage students to share their personal interpretations – arrive at their interpretation of meaning
- Make the class learner centered for the appreciation of text to occur

Steps in Teaching Poetry

Step 1- Give a very brief introduction to the poet. Do not waste time on giving detailed factual information about the poem. Make it interesting so that students want to read the poem.

Step 2- Read the poem aloud and help learners to enjoy the experience- through visual, auditory, tactile, intellectual, or emotional mode (a picture/ recording, natural setting etc. may be used to stimulate the learners imagination). Learners just listen and not read the poem. Teachers must practice and gain competence in reciting the poem appropriately with correct pronunciation, articulation, enunciation and expression. She may even use an audio/video recording of the poem

Step3- Learners' perception of poem is discussed by the teacher to highlight the theme, tone, style, and rhythm of the poem. The teacher builds on the initial perception of the learners and their responses, adding to them or helping them to re-visualize it.

Step 4- Learners read the poem accompanied by the loud recital of the poem. At this stage, the teacher discusses with the learners the meaning, theme, new language structures in the poem if any, logical structure of the poem, use of poetic devices such as imagery, metaphors, simile.

The teacher may now ask the learners to go back to the poem again and answer questions such as:

1. Which words in the poem convey that the poet is conveying...?
2. In which line the metaphor of _____ is used?

The focus in asking such questions should not be only on what the poet is saying but also attention has to be drawn on 'how' is the poet conveying a message.

Step 5- Summing up: Once the teacher is satisfied that the learners have enjoyed the poem, its style, beauty of expression, and its meaning, the teacher should summarize all the elements focused in the session.

As a teacher you must enjoy the poem yourself in order to pass on that excitement, interest to your learners.

Check Your Progress

1. What is one of the objectives of teaching English language?
2. What is done in step 3 of the process of teaching poetry?

13.3 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. One of the objectives of teaching English Language to learners is to enable them to acquire a sense of literary texts and the skill of appreciating literary texts of different genres.
2. In step 3 of the process of teaching poetry, learners' perception of poem is discussed by the teacher to highlight the theme, tone, style, and rhythm of the poem. The teacher builds on the initial perception of the learners and their responses, adding to them or helping them to re-visualize it.

13.4 SUMMARY

- One of the objectives of teaching English Language to learners is to enable them to acquire a sense of literary texts and the skill of appreciating literary texts of different genres.
- There are different types and forms of poetry that eventually, each learner is bound to get spell bound. Thus we have sonnets, dramatic monologue, ballads, odes, and many more.

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- Reading a variety of poems out loud by the teacher will help learners notice different rhythms, rhymes, and feelings represented, as well as understand how the language creates an image or mood.
- Learners' perception of poem is discussed by the teacher to highlight the theme, tone, style, and rhythm of the poem. The teacher builds on the initial perception of the learners and their responses, adding to them or helping them to re-visualize it.
- In step 4 of teaching poetry, learners read the poem accompanied by the loud recital of the poem. At this stage, the teacher discusses with the learners the meaning, theme, new language structures in the poem if any, logical structure of the poem, use of poetic devices such as imagery, metaphors, simile.
- Once the teacher is satisfied that the learners have enjoyed the poem, its style, beauty of expression, and its meaning, the teacher should summarize all the elements focused in the session.

13.5 KEY WORDS

- **Target Language:** It is a language that someone is learning, or a language into which a text has to be translated. An example of a target language is Italian for a native born German who is just moving to Italy.
- **Sonnet:** It is a fourteen line poem with a fixed rhyme scheme. Often, sonnets use iambic pentameter: five sets of unstressed syllables followed by stressed syllables for a ten-syllable line.
- **Dramatic Monologue:** It is a poem in the form of a speech or narrative by an imagined person, in which the speaker inadvertently reveals aspects of their character while describing a particular situation or series of events.

13.6 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

Short-Answer Questions

1. List any five strategies of teaching poetry.
2. What is done in step 2 of the poetry teaching process?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Analyze the features of poetry.
2. Discuss the steps involved in teaching poetry.

13.7 FURTHER READINGS

- Majumdar, A. 2019. *Teaching English as a Second language: Theory and Praxis*. New Delhi: Sage Publications.
- Richards, Jack C. and Theorde S.Rodgers. 2006. *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
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UNIT 14 AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

NOTES

Structure

- 14.0 Introduction
- 14.1 Objectives
- 14.2 Audio – Visual Aids: Definition and Types
- 14.3 Advantages of Audio-Visual Aids
- 14.4 Answers to Check Your Progress Questions
- 14.5 Summary
- 14.6 Key Words
- 14.7 Self Assessment Questions and Exercises
- 14.8 Further Readings

14.0 INTRODUCTION

Audio-visual aids help make the learning process informative, creative and effective so that students can acquire knowledge in an easy and recreational way. These aids stimulate the senses and develop an interest of the students in studies in addition to improving students' critical and analytical thinking. Some important audio-visual teaching aids are: chalk boards, projectors, maps, charts, graphs, globes, models and so on. A variety of audio-visual aids, their uses and advantages have been discussed in this unit.

14.1 OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to:

- Understand the uses of Audio-Visual teaching aids such as chalk board, film strips, graphs, map study, epidiascope etc.
- Discuss the purposes, uses and types of charts
- Analyze the types of projectors and the uses of three-dimensional aids
- Examine the advantages of Audio-Visual aids

14.2 AUDIO – VISUAL AIDS: DEFINITION AND TYPES

The following are some popular definitions of audio – visual aids:

Burton: Audio-visual aids are those sensory objects or images which initiate or stimulate and reinforce learning.

Carter V. Good: Audio-visual aids are those aids which help in completing the triangular process of learning i.e., motivation, classification and stimulation.

Edgar Dale: Audio-visual aids are those devices by the use of which communication of ideas between persons and groups in various teaching and training situations is helped. These are also termed as multi-sensory materials.

Good's Dictionary of Education: Audio-visual aids are anything by means of which learning process may be encouraged or carried on through the sense of hearing or sense of sight.

Kinder S. James: Audio-visual aids are any devices which can be used to make the learning experience more concrete, more realistic and more dynamic.

Mckown and Roberts: Audio-visual aids are supplementary devices by which the teacher, through the utilization of more than one sensory channels, is able to clarify, establish and correlate concepts, interpretations and appreciations.

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Nature of the use of Teaching Aids

1. They should be meaningful and purposeful.
2. They should be accurate in every respect.
3. They should be simple.
4. They should be cheap.
5. As far as possible, they should be improvised.
6. They should be large enough to be properly seen by the students for whom they are meant.
7. They should be up to date.
8. They should be easily portable.
9. They should be in accordance with the mental level of the students.
10. They should motivate the learners.

Types of Audio-Visual Teaching Aids

The following are some types of audio – visual teaching aids:

(a) Chalk Board

The chalk board is a unique device which in spite of newer and better devices in vogue, is irreplaceable as well as indispensable. It is the oldest and the best friend of a teacher. It is a mirror through which students visualize what is in the teacher's mind that needs to be conveyed, his way of explaining, illustrating and teaching as a whole. It is the cheapest and the most valuable teaching device and continues to be the 'sine qua non' of our educational system. Now the chalk board is universally called the blackboard. It is the most universally used aid. Writing on sand and clay was the ancient form of blackboard writing.

The use of the chalk board in class teaching creates an informal atmosphere and motivates learning. Teaching is no longer confined to any one instructional device. It helps in 'planning', in 'crystallizing' main points and 'summarizing' and

'reviewing' results. Being a simple means of dealing with the whole class as a unit, the chalk board is extensively used during the course of a lesson.

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The following are the uses of the chalk board:

1. The teacher can illustrate his lesson on the blackboard and draw the attention of the class to the salient features in the lesson.
2. The lesson can be phased and summarized in the right manner. Abstract statements can be clarified in the exposition stage and a summary containing the important points can be given in the recapitulatory stage.
3. Questions and problems when planning class work or approaching a new subject can be listed by the teacher on the blackboard.
4. Pupils' interest in class work can be stimulated by blackboard writings and drawings.
5. It can be put to wide and varied uses. A teacher can use it for graphs, maps, graphic statistics, sketches and various types of drawings.
6. It provides a lot of space for decorative and creative work.
7. The teacher can erase writings and drawings and start afresh.
8. It helps the teacher to focus the attention of his students on the lesson. It takes heed of varying capacities and rates of grasp of the students.
9. A teacher can review the whole lesson for the benefit of the class with the help of the blackboard.

Types of blackboards

1. **Fixed blackboard.** This is fixed in the wall facing the class and is normally made of wood or concrete cement.
2. **Blackboard on easel.** A portable and adjustable blackboard put on a wooden easel can be taken out of the classroom while taking classes in the open.
3. **Roller blackboard.** Made of thick canvas wrapped on a roller mostly used for teaching higher classes.
4. **Graphic board.** It has graphic lines and is used for teaching mathematics, science and statistics.
5. **Magna board.** A board which enables teachers to make three-dimensional demonstrations with objects on a vertical surface. Small magnets are used to hold suitable objects fixed wherever they are put on this vertical surface.

Chalk boards can have different types of surfaces:

1. Paint-coated pressed wood
2. Dull finished plastic surface
3. Vitreous-coated steel surface
4. Ground glass board

Table 14.1 Chalk Boards of Different Colours and Colour Chalks

Colour of the chalk board	Colour of the chalk
1. Green chalk board	White or yellow chalk
2. Grey board	Yellow
3. Red chalk board	Green, yellow
4. Orange chalk board	Blue or light green
5. Yellow chalk board	Blue
6. Rose chalk board	Purple, dark blue
7. Black chalk board	Any colour

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The Effective use of the Chalk Board

The following points may be kept in view while using the chalk board:

1. The chalk board should be kept clean so that writing on it could be easily read by the students from all parts of the room.
2. The writing on the chalk board should be legible.
3. Letters and drawings should be large enough to be seen from all parts of the room.
4. The writing should be started from the top left corner.
5. The writing should be in straight rows.
6. The extreme lower corners of the chalk board should not be made use of as the writing on it cannot be seen easily.
7. The material on the chalk board should not be covered by standing in front of it.
8. Only the salient points of the subject-matter should be written on the blackboard.
9. Diagrammatic visual presentations involving many processes should be prepared before the beginning of the lesson.
10. It should be ensured that the chalk board is well-lit by natural or artificial means.
11. Everything needed for the chalk board—chalk, ruler, T-square, compass, projector, and so on—should be brought together before the class begins.
12. While writing on the chalk board, the teacher should ensure that the class is attentive.
13. A duster and should be used to clean the chalk board, not hand or handkerchief.
14. Occasionally students may be asked to write or draw diagram on the chalk board.
15. Teachers should develop the ability to draw freely on the chalk board. The map or chart or diagram that grows before the very eyes of the students is much more useful and valuable than a well-finished map, chart or diagram.
16. It should be ensured that the chalk board is periodically serviced.

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(b) Charts

A chart is a combination of pictorial, graphic, numerical or vertical material which presents a clear visual summary. The most commonly used types of charts include outline charts, tabular charts, flow charts and organization charts. The other types of charts are technical diagrams and process diagrams. Flip charts and flow charts are also being used. Ready-made charts are available for use in teaching in almost all areas in all subjects. But charts prepared by a teacher himself incorporating his own ideas and lines of approach of the specific topic are more useful.

Purposes of Charts

Charts serve the following purposes:

1. To show relationships by means of facts, figures and statistics
2. To present material symbolically
3. To summarize information
4. To show continuity in process
5. To present abstract ideas in visual form
6. To show development of structure
7. To create problems and stimulating thinking
8. To encourage the utilization of other media of communication.
9. To motivate the students.

The effective use of Charts

1. Charts are effective when they are made by the teacher.
2. Students should be involved in the preparation of charts.
3. Charts should be so large that every detail depicted should be visible to every pupil in the class wherever the pupil is sitting.
4. Charts should display information only about one specific area in a subject.
5. A chart should not contain too much written material.
6. A chart should not contain too many details.
7. A chart should have a neat appearance.
8. When a chart is to be used in the classroom, the teacher should make sure that there is provision for hanging the chart at a vantage point.
9. The teacher should have a pointer to point out specific facts in the chart.
10. Straight pins, staples, pegboard clips, gummed hangers, paper-clips, folded masking tapes may all be used for fastening charts without damaging them.
11. Charts should be carefully stored and preserved for use in future.

Types of Charts

The following is a list of the basic types of charts classified in terms of arrangements and the kinds of ideas they may express:

1. The narrative chart, an extended left-to-right arrangement of facts and ideas for expressing: (a) The events in a process such as shoe making, oil cracking, and the like; (b) The events in the development of a significant issue to its point of resolution or to the present status (sometimes a time limit), for example, the events leading to the separation of the Bangladesh from Pakistan, the events leading to the establishment of the idea that an individual should be free and that he should have a voice in his own government and the events leading to increased regulation of business by government; and (c) Technological improvement over a period of years such as improvement in transportation, communication, and manufacturing.
2. The tabulation chart, a left-to-right, top-to-bottom arrangement of facts and ideas for expression: (a) Numerical data for making comparisons; and (b) Lists of products, mountains, rivers, and the like, in selected areas.
3. The cause and effect chart, usually a limited left-to-right arrangement of facts and ideas for expressing: (a) The relationship between standard of living and such factors as economic system, availability of natural resources, level of technological advancement; (b) The relationship between a culture and neighbouring cultures; (c) The relationship between rights and responsibilities; (d) The relationship between a complex of conditions and change or conflict; (e) The relationship between the elected and the electors; and (f) The relationship between community workers and the community which supports them.
4. The chain chart, which is a circular or semi-circular arrangement of facts and ideas for expressing: (a) Transitions, such as the transition from raw materials to useful products, (b) Cycles, such as the water cycle.
5. The evolution chart, a left-to-right arrangement of facts and ideas for expressing: (a) Changes in specific items from beginning to date, perhaps with projections into the future, for example, the origin of the automobile and its subsequent development, early basic homes and changes in basic homes to date; (b) Change in standard in food consumption, length of work, weak purchasing power of a rupee, the like.

(c) Epidiascope

The epidiascope is an instrument which can project images or printed matter or small opaque objects on a screen, or it can project images of a 4" × 4" slide. With the help of an epidiascope, any chart, diagram, map, photograph and picture can be projected on the screen without tearing it off from the book. No slide is needed for this purpose. An epidiascope serves two purposes. It works either as an

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epidiascope when it is used to project an opaque object or as a diascope when it is used to project slides (by operating a lever). It works on the principle of horizontal straight line projection with a lamp, plane mirror and projection lens. A strong light from the lamp falls on the opaque object. A plane mirror placed at an angle of 45 degrees over the project, reflects the light so that it passes through the projection lens forming a magnified image on the screen.

(d) Film Strip

A film strip is 35 mm wide and has a series of twelve to forty-eight picture frames arranged in a sequence so that they develop a theme. A film strip can be prepared by taking a series of photographs using a 35 mm camera and then by taking a positive print of the negative film on another 35 mm film.

(e) Globe

One cannot understand maps without having an understanding of the globe—the true map. It is the true representative of the earth's physical personality.

The globe gives the true picture of the total environment at a glance in a classroom situation. It is through the globe that a child can understand the concepts of time, space, wind's planetary relations and book or opaque object proportion. Hence, every school shall have globes. Four types of globes may be kept in every school: (1) Political globes, (2) Physical globes, (3) Washable projection globes, (4) Celestial globes.

(f) Graphs

Graphs are flat pictures which employ dots, lines or pictures to visualize numerical and statistical data to show relationships or statistics.

Graphs are of several types:

- 1. Line graph:** In a line graph, data is represented with the help of simple lines drawn horizontally or vertically. In order to increase the interest and readability of concepts, pictorial illustrations and cartoons are occasionally used on the line graph.
- 2. Bar graph:** A bar graph consists of bars arranged horizontally or vertically from a 'zero' base. The colour, length and size of the bars represent different values
- 3. Circle graph:** Data may be presented in a circle graph

(g) Magic Lantern

Magic lantern is the earliest invention in the history of audio-visual aids used for projecting pictures from a transparency (slide) on a wall or screen. When the figure or illustration is very small and is required to be shown to the entire class, a transparent slide of the small figure is prepared. Then, this slide is placed into the

slide carrier part of the magic lantern. This magic lantern device projects it on the screen by enlarging its dimension and making the vision more clear and sharp.

(h) Map Study

In several subjects, especially social studies, the learning of many geographical, historical and economic concepts remains unreal, inadequate and incomplete without map media. By motivating his pupils a resourceful teacher will turn the fear of map into the genuine love for them. This, however, presupposes the invariable uses of maps at every possible opportunity by the teacher in the classroom, and the possession of individual atlases by the pupils. Every student should also know certain elementary aspects of map preparation such as copying, enlarging and reducing, symbolizing, colouring, and preparation of key. Most of the students develop an aversion to maps because they do not know the skills relating to map preparation.

A map is an accurate representation on plain surface in the form of a diagram drawn to scale, of the details of boundaries of continents, countries, and so on. Geographical details like location of mountains, rivers, altitude of a place, contours of the earth surface and important locations can also be represented accurately with reference to a convenient scale with suitable colour scheme.

The various aspects of map study

1. Understanding and interpreting the key of index.
2. Understanding the lines—boundary lines, lines of communication, lines indicating the rivers, contours, meridians and parallels.
3. Understanding the colours, tints, shadows, symbols in a map or globe.
4. North being the direction of the northern pole and not the top of the map.
5. Distinction between the various types of maps such as relief, political and distribution maps.
6. Understanding the position of the earth in the universe. Many students suffer from the notion that in June the earth leans towards the sun northwards and in December southwards and thus the seasons are formed. The earth never dances that way. The student shall understand that the inclination of earth is constant and the learning effect changes due to its rotation around the sun.

Various types of maps

1. Relief maps (regional and the world). This requires the knowledge of colours, contours, symbols and the other connected ethics of map making.
2. Historical maps. Maps in history reveal the changing times and the growth and decline of various kingdoms. Knowledge of lines of boundaries and other symbols is necessary.

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3. Distribution maps. Generally, the student shall associate with the following types of distribution maps: (1) Vegetation maps, (2) Population maps, (3) Economic maps, (4) Statistical maps, (5) Dot maps, (6) Pictorial maps, (7) Language, race and other human division maps, and so on.
4. Geographical maps. Contour maps, weather maps, seismological maps, archaeological maps, rainfall maps, geological maps, and so on.

(i) Microfilm

The microfilm and microfiche are used widely for the storage and retrieval of information. Microfilms contain photographed reading material on 35 mm film, each frame being the reduced photograph of a printed page. Thus the printed matter of a book can be stored in a small loop of 35 mm film. When the microfilm is passed through a microfilm reader, an enlarged image approximately of the size of the printed page is formed on a ground glass (rear-view) screen and the observer can read the matter. By moving the film through the microfilm reader, images of different pages can be obtained and read.

(j) Models

Models are substitutes for real things. A model is a three-dimensional representation of a real thing. Models are concrete objects to explain clearly the structure or functions of real things. A model is a replica of the original. Models enable students to have a correct concept of the object.

Being three dimensional, models evoke great interest and are able to simplify the concept. Models enable us to reduce or enlarge objects to an observable size. It may not be possible or even practicable to make students see the whole of a large industrial unit or even a large machine unit, but a model will give the correct perspective. The preparation of models could form a topic for project work. It is essential to create in students an interest in creative activity.

Models can be working as well as static. A working model will secure immediate attention and serve as a source of motivation to learn.

Models can be prepared with several kinds of materials like cardboard, plastic, plaster of paris, wood, clay, and thermocol.

(k) Projector

Micro-projector: The micro-projector, a combination of a microscope and a slide projector, is an instrument used to see very minute parts of objects by magnifying the same object hundreds of times. The minute part usually of a plant or an animal is put on a glass slide and a magnified image formed by a combination of lenses in a microscope which can be seen by an individual through the naked eye. The micro-projector attachment consists of a projection lens, a plane mirror fixed at 45 degrees to the vertical plane and a vertical ground glass screen. It is very useful in teaching science

Overhead projector (OHP): The overhead projector is a device that can project a chart, a diagram, a map, a table or for that matter, anything written on transparent plates, upon a screen or the white wall before students in a class. This makes teaching illuminative, illustrative and impressive. It also saves a great deal of the teachers time used in drawing or writing them. These transparencies can also be preserved by the teacher for future display while taking up the same topic. It is very simple to prepare such transparencies. All that a teacher has to do is to draw or write, as the case may be, upon transparent plates with a fibre-tipped pen and any dark ink. Any material meant for display before the class while teaching can also be typed on such transparencies using a good carbon paper. In case transparencies are to be washed out for use, washable water colour can also be used for writing on the transparencies (Figure 6.5).

Slide projector: With a slide projector, photographic slides can be projected on the screen or the wall before the class. Photographs of relevant matter meant for teaching in the class can be developed on celluloid slides and displayed with the help of such a projector. The teacher's lesson can also be recorded on an audio cassette and played with a tape recorder suitably synchronizing with the slides by manipulating a remote control switch. Such an arrangement is called a tape-slide sequence. In case there are several slides to be shown in quick succession, the tape-slide sequence can bring as interesting an effect on the viewers as do movie films.

An ordinary slide projector has a frame containing two slits into which slides are put for focusing. They are manually and continuously replaced by other slides one after another.

An improved type of a slide projector consists of a circular disc with more slits where even a hundred or more slides can be inserted in a sequential order which can be projected on the screen with the help of a remote control switch to be suitably manipulated by the teacher as he delivers the lesson.

(l) Reprographic Equipment

Reprography is a branch of technology dealing with methods of duplication or reproduction. Duplication involves making a number of identical copies of the original. Reproduction enables the preparation of one or more identical copies of the original, of the same size or of different size in monochrome or colour. The equipment and processes included are duplicators, reflex printing and photography.

(m) Record Player

Record players are a means of audio playback. This is an older kind of hardware using records of discs for the needed playback. Four sizes of records—7", 10", 12" and 16"—are in common use. There are also high speed records played with standard stylus. The record players now in use are equipped with speed changer mechanisms permitting the playing of the slower long-playing 45, 33 and 16 r.p.m. records played by a microgroove stylus. The use of recorded pieces in education

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has great value in language learning, appreciation of poetry and literature and presentations of brief dramatized episodes from history from the development of musical knowledge and discrimination. Long-playing records with 20 minutes of recorded information per side provide several diverse selections inscribed on each side and are very suitable for classroom instructional purposes. The needed selection for a particular learning situation can be easily identified by the specific microgroove ring it occupies on the record. 'Talking books' for the blind also consist of recordings of essential literature for the visually handicapped. The place of the older, manually wound spring powered gramophone has now been taken up by electrically-powered multi-speed record players and changers with built-in amplifying units or linked to separate amplifying units and speakers. Likewise, the older mechanical recording has given place to electrical imprinting involving greater clarity.

Tape-recorder: A tape-recorder can be very effective for classroom instruction. Pre-recorded tapes consisting of lessons by eminent teachers on any subject can be played in the class. Such instructions become impressive not only because of the novelty but also because of their being well-thought out and planned.

The tape-recorder has proved to be a boon in teaching foreign languages like English. Pre-recorded tapes on English lessons can be played in the classroom to teach not only the contents of the lesson but also proper accent, pronunciation and intonation which an average English teacher very much lacks.

Video Tapes: Pre-recorded video tapes can be played through a TV in the classroom. Video films on educational topics shown through the TV in the classroom have the same effect on the students as the ordinary cinematic educational films do. Video films have an added advantage over ordinary films in that the arrangement is compact and requires little space and time for manipulation. It is the most convenient of all audio-visual teaching-learning materials.

(n) Video Cassettes

The potential advantage of video cassette lies in the fact that control over the equipment and the learning process is placed in the hands of the learner through control over the mechanics of the machine, that is, stopping, starting, timing, reviewing and previewing, and consequently the capacity to order the sequence of events. This controls the rate of learning, and facilitates practice sequences.

This kind of audio-visual aid helps in the learning of a wide range of motor, intellectual and cognitive and interpersonal skills, as well as affective aspects. These important aspects, which printed materials cannot deal with adequately, can be transmitted to field workers to improve farming techniques. Mid-career retraining can also be catered for using this technique.

In some countries, as a way of regionalizing a centrally produced programme, video cassette programmes are being built round the study centre concept, a location where several video machines are available to which students bring their study notes. The students run the programmes as individuals. Sometimes study

centres provide for group sessions during which video cassettes are played. Unless some supplementary teaching is provided, this technique can become another version of broadcast technology.

In other countries, some institutions assume that students can gain access to such equipment and make programmes which will be used on an individual basis either as supplementary learning material or as an integral part of the teaching programme.

The problems associated with video cassettes are of two kinds: (i) cost; and (ii) production of programmes.

(i) Equipment costs cannot always be kept down by using lower quality equipment. Cheaper equipment formats do not enable technical material such as animal or plant tissue to be represented adequately or tapes to be reproduced in quantity without loss of fidelity. (ii) Video production for educational purposes calls for new techniques that are different from the entertainment modes. Producers, directors, and scriptwriters need to be knowledgeable about teaching and learning. Many of the old techniques of film and television will no longer be of use. For example, the very basic concept that programmes must have a beginning, a middle, and an end will no longer apply since a cassette could just as easily consist of a series of short video events which sets a problem, teaches a technique, or brings together a range of visual material to make concepts or principles clear.

(o) Three-Dimensional Aids

Three-dimensional aids serve as good substitutes for the real objects. There is no doubt that an encounter with real objects serves as an unmatched source of learning. But on account of several reasons, it may not be possible to bring the real objects in the classroom. The real objects may be too large to move or store in the classroom. It may be too small to be seen by a group of students. It can be too complicated in real form to be understood. It may be too rapid in its operations to be understood. Its movements may be too slow to be studied completely. It can be too expensive to be purchased by an educational institution. Being handicapped in such situations a teacher has to search for some good alternatives.

Model, diagrams, mock-ups and specimens are the important three dimensional aids.

Models: As explained earlier, models are replicas or copies of real objects. Models are usually of three types: solid, cross-sectional and working. They are concrete objects, some considerably larger than the real object. Sectional models explain clearly the structure or functions of the original. In some cases, working models of the original are used where the specific function of the original is duplicated and could be explained easily.

The important functions of models are as follows:

1. Models simplify reality.
2. Models concretize abstract concepts.

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3. Models enable us to reduce or enlarge objects to an observable size.
4. A model provides the correct concept of an industrial unit or a bridge or a dam.
5. A working model explains the various processes of objects and machines.
6. The preparation of models could form a topic for project work. This is very helpful to create interest in creative activity in pupils.
7. Cardboard, plastic, plaster of Paris, wood, thermocol, and metal can be used in the preparation of a model.

Mock-ups: A mock-up refers to a specialized model or a working replica of the object being depicted. In a mock-up, a certain element of the original reality is emphasized or highlighted to make it more meaningful for the purpose of instruction. While a model is a recognizable imitation of an object (though larger or smaller than the original one), a mock-up may or may not be similar in appearance. Mock-ups of aeroplanes, automobile engines, bridges, ships and tunnels, may be demonstrated for explaining their structure and actual working. Mock-ups are often used in technical institutions for training purposes.

Dioramas: A diorama is a three-dimensional scene incorporating a group of modelled objects and figures in a natural setting. The diorama scene is set up on a small stage with a group of modelled objects kept on the foreground which is blended into a painted realistic background. Dioramas are very effective in the teaching of biological and social sciences.

Source of three-dimensional objects

1. The objects may be borrowed from audio-visual aid centres, libraries and museums.
2. They may be purchased from concerned commercial establishments.
3. They may be prepared by the teachers and the students themselves.

Selection and use of three-dimensional objects

1. Three-dimensional aids may be selected, keeping in view the instructional needs and requirements.
2. As far as possible, they should be a true representative of the actual objects.
3. The complexity of the aids should match the level of maturity of the students.
4. The aids should make an appeal to as many of the five senses as possible.
5. As far as possible, the aids should be prepared by the students under the proper supervision of teacher.
6. Every possible effort should be made to prepare students educationally as well as psychologically to receive the instructions or messages conveyed by the use of these aids.
7. Aids should be inexpensive.

8. Aids should be prepared with locally available material as far as possible.
9. Necessary instructions should be given to students to handle aids with care.
10. The necessary clarifications should be given by the teacher at the presentation of these objects in the class.
11. Necessary demonstration of the use of these aids should be given to students.
12. Students' comprehension should be properly tested at the end of the use of aids.
13. Adequate storage arrangement should be made for their safe custody.

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14.3 ADVANTAGES OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS

Some of the reasons for the importance of audio-visual aids are given below:

1. **Best motivators:** They are the best motivators. The students work with more interest and zeal. They are more attentive.
2. **Antidote to the disease of verbal instruction:** They help to reduce verbalism. They help in giving clear concepts and thus help to bring accuracy in learning.

As observed by Raymond Wyman (1957):

We (teacher) tell students, and we provide them with written material so much of the time. Words are wonderful. They are easily produced, reproduced, stored and transported. But the overuse or excessive use of words can result in serious problems, chiefly, the problem of verbalism (using or adopting words or phrases without considering what they mean) and forgetting.

3. **Clear images:** Clear images are formed when we see, hear, touch, taste and smell as our experiences are direct, concrete and more or less permanent. Learning through the senses becomes the most natural and consequently the easiest.
4. **Vicarious experience:** It is beyond doubt that first-hand experience is the best type of educative experience. But it is neither practicable nor desirable to provide all such experiences to pupils, Substituted experiences may be provided under such conditions. There are many inaccessible objects and phenomena. For example, it is not possible for the pupils living in India to see the Eskimo. Similarly, it is not possible for an average man to climb the Mount Everest. There are innumerable such things to which it is not possible to have direct access. So, in all such cases, these aids help us.
5. **Variety:** 'Mere chalk and talk' do not help. Audio-visual aids give variety and provide different tools in the hands of the teacher.
6. **Freedom:** When audio-visual aids are employed, there is great scope for children to move about, talk, laugh and comment upon. Under such an

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atmosphere, the students work because they want to work and not because the teacher wants them to work.

7. **Opportunities to handle and manipulate:** Many visual aids offer opportunities to students to handle and manipulate things.
8. **Retentivity:** Audio-visual aids contribute to increased retentivity as they stimulate response of the whole organism to the situation in which learning takes place.
9. **Based on maxims of teaching.** The use of audio-visual aids enables the teacher to follow the maxims of teaching like 'concrete to abstract', 'known to unknown' and 'learning by doing'.
10. **Helpful in attracting attention.** Attention is the true actor in any process of teaching and learning. Audio-visual aids help the teacher in providing proper environment for capturing as well as sustaining the attention and interest of the students in the classroom work.
11. **Helpful in fixing new learning.** What is gained in terms of learning, needs to be fixed in the minds of students. Audio-visual aids help in achieving this objective by providing several activities, experiences and stimuli to the learners.
12. **Saving of energy and time.** A good deal of energy and time of both the teachers and students can be saved on account of the use of audio-visual aids as most of the concepts and phenomena may be easily clarified, understood and assimilated through their use.
13. **Realism.** The use of audio-visual aids provides a touch of reality to the 'learning situation. By seeing a film which showed the life of the people of the Tundra region, students learn it more effectively in about two hours than by spending weeks reading.
14. **Vividness.** Audio-visual aids give vividness to the learning situation. A film on Buddha provides a vivid picture of his life and teachings.
15. **Meeting individual differences.** There are wide individual differences among learners. Some are ear-oriented, some can be helped through visual demonstrations, while others learn better by doing. The use of a variety of audio-visual aids helps in meeting the needs of different types of students.
16. **Encouragement to healthy classroom interaction.** Audio-visual aids, through their wide variety of stimuli, provision of active participation of the students, and vicarious experiences encourage healthy classroom interaction for the effective realization of the teaching-learning objectives.
17. **Spread of education on a mass scale.** Audio-visual aids like radio and television help in providing opportunities for education to people living in remote areas. They also help in promoting adult education.
18. **Promotion of scientific temper.** In place of listening to facts, students observe demonstrations and phenomena and thus cultivate scientific temper.

19. **Development of higher faculties.** Verbalism promotes memorization. The use of audio-visual aids stirs the imagination, thinking process and reasoning power of the students, and calls for creativity, inventiveness and other higher mental activities on the parts of students and thus helps the development of higher faculties among the students.
20. **Reinforcement to learners.** Audio-visual aids prove effective reinforcers by increasing the probability of reoccurrence of the responses associated with them and thus render valuable help in the teaching–learning process.
21. **Positive transfer of learning and training.** The use of audio-visual aids helps in learning other concepts and principles, as well as in solving the real problems of life by making possible the appropriate positive transfer of learning and training received in the classroom.
22. **Positive environment for creative discipline.** A balanced, rational and scientific use of audio-visual aids develops motivation, attracts the attention and interests of the students and provides a variety of creative outlets for the utilization of their tremendous energy and thus keeps them busy in the classroom work. In this way, the overall classroom environment becomes conducive to relative discipline.

Check Your Progress

1. How does Edgar Dale define audio-visual aids?
2. How is the use of a chalk board helpful in class teaching?
3. Which are the most commonly used charts?
4. List two aspects of map study.
5. What does an improved type of slide projector consist of?

14.4 ANSWERS TO CHECK YOUR PROGRESS QUESTIONS

1. Edgar Dale defines visual aids as: Audio-visual aids are those devices by the use of which communication of ideas between persons and groups in various teaching and training situations is helped. These are also termed as multi-sensory materials.
2. The use of the chalk board in class teaching creates an informal atmosphere and motivates learning. Teaching is no longer confined to any one instructional device. It helps in ‘planning’, in ‘crystallizing’ main points and ‘summarizing’ and ‘reviewing’ results.
3. The most commonly used types of charts include outline charts, tabular charts, flow charts and organization charts.

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4. The aspects of map study are:
 - (i) Understanding and interpreting the key of index.
 - (ii) Understanding the lines—boundary lines, lines of communication, lines indicating the rivers, contours, meridians and parallels.
5. An improved type of a slide projector consists of a circular disc with more slits where even a hundred or more slides can be inserted in a sequential order which can be projected on the screen with the help of a remote control switch to be suitably manipulated by the teacher as he delivers the lesson.

14.5 SUMMARY

- Audio-visual aids are anything by means of which learning process may be encouraged or carried on through the sense of hearing or sense of sight.
- The chalk board is a unique device which in spite of newer and better devices in vogue, is irreplaceable as well as indispensable. It is a mirror through which students visualize what is in the teacher's mind that needs to be conveyed, his way of explaining, illustrating and teaching as a whole.
- A chalk board can be put to wide and varied uses. A teacher can use it for graphs, maps, graphic statistics, sketches and various types of drawings.
- Chalk boards can have different types of surfaces:
 1. Paint-coated pressed wood
 2. Dull finished plastic surface
 3. Vitreous-coated steel surface
 4. Ground glass board
- Ready-made charts are available for use in teaching in almost all areas in all subjects. But charts prepared by a teacher himself incorporating his own ideas and lines of approach of the specific topic are more useful.
- The narrative chart, an extended left-to-right arrangement of facts and ideas for expressing: (a) The events in a process such as shoe making, oil cracking, and the like; (b) The events in the development of a significant issue to its point of resolution or to the present status.
- With the help of an epidiascope, any chart, diagram, map, photograph and picture can be projected on the screen without tearing it off from the book. No slide is needed for this purpose. An epidiascope serves two purposes. It works either as an epidiascope when it is used to project an opaque object or as a diascope when it is used to project slides (by operating a lever).
- A map is an accurate representation on plain surface in the form of a diagram drawn to scale, of the details of boundaries of continents, countries, and so on. Geographical details like location of mountains, rivers, altitude of a place,

- contours of the earth surface and important locations can also be represented accurately with reference to a convenient scale with suitable colour scheme.
- Being three dimensional, models evoke great interest and are able to simplify the concept. Models enable us to reduce or enlarge objects to an observable size.
 - The micro-projector, a combination of a microscope and a slide projector, is an instrument used to see very minute parts of objects by magnifying the same object hundreds of times. The minute part usually of a plant or an animal is put on a glass slide and a magnified image formed by a combination of lenses in a microscope which can be seen by an individual through the naked eye.
 - Video cassettes help in the learning of a wide range of motor, intellectual and cognitive and interpersonal skills, as well as affective aspects. These important aspects, which printed materials cannot deal with adequately, can be transmitted to field workers to improve farming techniques. Mid-career retraining can also be catered for using this technique.
 - A mock-up refers to a specialized model or a working replica of the object being depicted. In a mock-up, a certain element of the original reality is emphasized or highlighted to make it more meaningful for the purpose of instruction.
 - Clear images are formed when we see, hear, touch, taste and smell as our experiences are direct, concrete and more or less permanent. Learning through the senses becomes the most natural and consequently the easiest.
 - The use of audio-visual aids helps in learning other concepts and principles, as well as in solving the real problems of life by making possible the appropriate positive transfer of learning and training received in the classroom.

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14.6 KEY WORDS

- **Chart:** It is a combination of pictorial, graphic, numerical or vertical material which presents a clear visual summary.
- **Epidiascope:** It is an instrument which can project images or printed matter or small opaque objects on a screen, or it can project images of a 4" × 4" slide. With the help of an epidiascope, any chart, diagram, map, photograph and picture can be projected on the screen without tearing it off from the book.
- **Reprography:** It is a branch of technology dealing with methods of duplication or reproduction. Duplication involves making a number of identical copies of the original.
- **Diorama:** It is a three-dimensional scene incorporating a group of modelled objects and figures in a natural setting.

14.7 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS AND EXERCISES

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Short-Answer Questions

1. List three uses of the chalk board.
2. Write a short note on the types of black boards.
3. State the purposes of a chart.
4. Write a short note on overhead projector (OHP).
5. What is the potential advantage of video cassettes?

Long-Answer Questions

1. Analyze the nature of the use of teaching aids.
2. Discuss the points to be kept in view while using the chalk board.
3. Elaborate upon the basic types of charts.
4. Discuss some advantages of audio-visual aids.

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