Vardhman Mahaveer Open University
Kota (Rajasthan)

Teaching of English

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Unit I

Structure of content area, History, Basic Conceptual Scheme and Future Perspective.

Structure of the unit

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1.0   About the unit:

The unit aims at giving you an idea of the linguistic (language) content to be included in the teaching of English as a second language, its selection and grading for using it to develop the learner's communicating competence and also enable him to acquire the four fundamental language skills and their related sub-skills. It also focuses your attention to look at the past trends and methods in a historical perspective and helps you in understanding the existing scenario that has emerged from the changes that have taken place in the fields of linguistics, psychology, sociology, pedagogy, etc. Furthermore, it provides you with the conceptual framework and the resultant basic scheme and future perspective to visualize, envision and envisage the trends and methods likely to be followed in view of them.

1.1   Differing content areas for physical and social sciences and languages

To teach a subject, we need to work on the area of content, the subject matter that is meant to be taught. In content subjects like physical sciences and social sciences the facts and ideas are to be taught and therefore they comprise the content area for them and in that case our focus obviously is on imparting information and knowledge of the ideational content included. So as far as teaching of languages is concerned the content area is not 'ideational'; it is 'linguistic' (lexis, grammar, etc.). Ideas in language teaching serve as a means and the end is to enable the learner to develop language competence and skills through the material. We, therefore, borrow ideas, facts etc. from other disciplines (subjects)and use them in such a way that they contribute towards the development of the skills of listening, speaking, reading and

writing and help learners to acquire the language skills for communication for social interactions.

The ideas, no doubt are important, but they are not end in themselves as in the case of physical and social sciences. Unfortunately this confusion about them is wide spread and is to be avoided. Therefore, it should be made clear at the outset that in the teaching of languages the focus is on linguistic competence and language skills and not on ideas. Generally, teachers teach both the subjects the same way which defeats the very purpose and renders the teaching of language meaningless. As in most cases, a teacher is supposed to teach both social sciences and languages (In B.Ed. generally the prospective teachers have to teach two subjects), he has to be conscious and careful about the differing content meant for different disciplines and not confuse them e.g. the content meant in a lesson on 'Akbar' or for that matter any other topic, would be different in social studies and in English. In social studies the focus would naturally be on ideas, the ideational content but in English it would be on linguistic content (structures and vocabulary) to develop the language skills.

The content area in a subject is selected and graded in view of the intention of the curriculum developers and the formulation of objectives to be attained and of course, keeping in mind the level of attainment, maturation of the learner it is meant for. Unlike physical sciences and social sciences i.e. content subjects, in language teaching the language material (structural items and lexis) is selected and graded and put in such a way through the textbooks as to enable the learners to develop language skills. Obviously, the syllabus has to be in tune with the curriculum which provides detailed guidance about what to teach, why to teach it, and also how to teach it in view of the importance that is attached to the subject

for the need of the individuals and the society. Therefore, implications of the current trends in sociology, psychology, linguistics and pedagogy (science and art of teaching) also find reflection in it.

The changed scenario that has emerged after independence of the country has been responsible for a lot of concomitant changes in the teaching of English as a second language because the pride of place has gone to Hindi, one of the federal official languages, of the country and English which used to be the national language has been relegated to a secondary position. English is to be taught as a second language as lingua franca as a link language for communication within the country, a readily available principal tool for inter connection, interaction and integration in a multilingual state of affairs.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   Language is for communication only.

(ii)   English is not a skill subject.

(iii)   English is a second language in India.

(iv)   A teacher of English is primarily supposed to teach English, not about it.

(v)   Language textbooks should focus on ideas only.

1.2   Historical Perspective of the Trends, Approaches and Methods

So far as the content of teaching English is concerned a lot of confusion prevailed up to the eighteenth century. In Grammar Translation Method the focus was on translating sentences from L1 to L2 and grammar was taught in terms of the grammar of the mother tongue.

The inadequacy of Grammar Translation Method became evident and it was discredited because it neither demonstrated nor developed the

four fundamental language skills. Translation is a highly sophisticated skill and presupposes the mastery of the two languages. It can of course be developed as a valuable skill in its own right but it cannot serve as a means to teach language skills. Then the Direct Method came into vogue. It focused upon the learning of the target language, a second language the way the mother tongue is learnt i.e. without recourse to L1. English was taught through English. The Direct Method did overcome the two major faults of the Grammar Translation Method by substituting language content for grammar recitation and language use for translation. Of course, the method did emphasize how to teach it but it was silent about what to teach. Although in a casual way it had focused on vocabulary and was, therefore, vocabulary - oriented, the lexical items, however, were not selected and graded in a systematic way.

Nevertheless, there seemed to be a shift from formal grammar to teaching grammar in use. But the situation did not improve until the advent of Structural Approach which gave us structural syllabus, what to teach, a list of structures and words selected and graded according to certain criteria (frequency, teach ability, etc.) This indeed was a substantial contribution to making language content available. Obviously, the structural syllabus formed the content for teaching English as a second language and books were written and materials were produced involving it. Teachers taught in the class keeping in mind the principles of behaviorist school of psychology and drills etc. were used to enable the learners to assimilate them at the threshold of consciousness as a habit and learn the language through plentiful repetition and reinforcement in a mechanical way, almost to the extent of rote learning. But with the introduction of Communicative Approach, the approach which is in vogue today, the shortcomings of Structural Approach came to light. The Structural Approach was considered inadequate and rote learning

ineffective because language learning is something mental, not mechanical. The syllabus therefore, has been revised in view of notions and functions the language performs. The learner has to keep in mind the communicative value of the language and use it to get and give information in appropriate context of situations, interact socially and operate as a good human being and a useful citizen of the country and the world.

The historical prospective should give us an idea that methods are not antagonistic, one method does not entirely replace the methods that preceded it. They in fact co-exist with the earlier modes and in the process of complementing, supplementing and modifying the old method, removing its inadequacies in such a way as to improve upon it.

1.3   Basic Conceptual Scheme

There was a time when Structural Approach to the teaching of English was considered monolithic, to be the last word. But the ELT (English Language Teaching) has been revolutionized because of the research done in the fields of sociology, psychology, linguistics and pedagogy. Today language learning is not considered habit formation in a mechanical way by using drills, repetition and reinforcement. It is thought to be cognitive (a mental activity) and something creative. The learner has to internalize a system of rules that can generate an infinite number of grammatical sentences that will be comprehensible and acceptable when uttered with the semantic and phonological components appropriate to specific communication situations.

The emphasis obviously has shifted from manipulation (artificial contexts and situations) to expression in real communicative context. Sociology has also emphasized the role of language as social interaction to give and get information and linguistics lays emphasis on language as

rule governed or rather rule, referenced discipline and the learner generalizes and uses language on the basis of generalization which he learns from various examples.

The focus today is on functional grammar and grammar in use, grammar to communicate meaning in appropriate contexts of situation, the person using it, the person to whom he is talking and the context in which he is conversing. Obviously, appropriacy, fluency are the main criteria of genuine communication, it is an utterance which is not just correct, but most appropriate out of the many expressions and genuinely communicative.

No doubt, the current approach in vogue, the communicative approach, is linguistically, psychologically, sociologically, pedagogically sound but the frame of reference in the existing scenario in which there are conflicting views about the learning and teaching of language has to take into consideration the pragmatic point of view that is be selective, eclectic and try to have a synthesis between manipulation and expression. Tailor your method that suits your needs, works and clicks. Use Structural Situational Approach for exposure and experience, integrating it with previous language material and language skill but supplement and complement it by some sort of communicative activity in which the learner is provided with freedom to use the language in life like, authentic situation, make teaching learner initiated and not teacher dominated, relax the tight control and make it genuinely communicative.

What is new in ELT then is that educators in the field have developed a new awareness of and interest in using materials with communicative unit the purpose of which is to provide the student not only with linguistic competence but with communicative vigor also. Obviously, the structural syllabus needs to be supplemented with notions and functions of the language used. The teaching of grammar, lexis,

comprehension (reading) and composition (writing) to have focus on meaning and appropriacy and the text used authentic i.e. what is appropriate in real life situations. And evaluation, of course, has to be in harmony with the intention of getting feedback about linguistic competence as well as the expression of meaning and appropriacy of the context which has the inherent potential of providing it, its functional value, authentic use.

The agencies responsible for prescribing the text books in English should make sure that the new trends find reflection in them and they are vetted, revised and updated to take care of them.

1.4   Future Perspective

The current trend has really revolutionized language teaching and learning. The focus, obviously, has shifted from grammar to grammar in use in appropriate context of situations. Fluency is important because you have to have a lot of utterances to select the ones which we need in a particular context otherwise there is the danger of miscommunication.

The spoken word has gained importance and currency in the context of globalization and use of apparatuses like the mobile phones, the T.V. etc. We don't write letters now as we did in the past. The written word is important. Nevertheless oracy has gained more importance and hence the components involved in speech.

In the vast majority of schools today orthodoxy prevails and it is perpetuated because of the lack of awareness on the part of the teachers about the latest trends in curriculum and the concomitant changes in the content and methodology.

Educational agencies like the Boards of Education should take up concrete steps to provide detailed curriculum to familiarize teachers with the intention of the developers and the justification for the changes

envisioned and envisaged to make learning of languages really functional, meaningful and purposeful.

It is hoped that text books (including the workbook) would be written keeping in mind the intention of the curriculum framers and reflect the latest trends in various related disciplines viz. psychology, sociology, linguistics, pedagogy, etc. They should be written on the basis of notional-functional syllabus and exercises reinforce and consolidate, give plentiful exposure in the use of the language, and help develop the learner's linguistic competence by enabling him to generalize the rules, as well as communicative competence. Suitable devices such is dialogues, guessing games, role play, task-based activities, etc. should be used for communicating meaning in life-like contexts and situations. Teachers' handbook, as a sequel to the text materials should also be made available to ensure practising teachers' acquaintance with the approaches, methods, techniques, devices, etc. used to give greater learning experiences for assimilation and internalization of the language material and help provide them with insightful knowledge about teaching strategies. Furthermore, short-term orientation courses for practising teachers should be organized on curriculum transaction to discuss in detail how to use the materials and have consensus about suitable teaching-learning strategies.

As the course book (Course Reader) is essentially meant for intensive reading to develop the skill of genuine comprehension, the text of the text book should be properly selected in such a way that it makes reading purposeful and imperative for the learner to read to get meaning through various signalling devices used in discourse (connected writing).

Teaching reading comprehension, though seemingly a passive activity, is in fact, active and interactive. Comprehension questions framed should be such as to enable the learner to read with understanding, interpret the text and get the message communicated

through it. The text selected has to be suitable to lend itself for exploitation to teach comprehension, something which is unfamiliar but purposeful and authentic. In case the text is not exactly authentic, intended for language teaching and not genuine comprehension, it should be supplemented by a text which is life-like and authentic maybe from the newspaper, etc.

The text of the Rapid Reader, of course, should be easier, possibly a stage lower than the actual stage. This textbook is meant for non-detailed study, for extensive reading. It should, nevertheless, be captivating, almost gripping to foster the skill of reading faster and at the same time imperceptibly (indirectly) giving great exposure in the structure of the language and thus develop proficiency in it.

Reading comprehension teaching should be followed by intensive practice through plentiful exercises given in the course book/work book. Various appropriate devices like guessing game, simulated activities, role play, task-based activities should be used to make teaching learner-oriented for effective learning. The language component should be highlighted and the meaning they communicate explained, to enable the learner to see them to generalize the rules.

Composition work, obviously, should be taken up after this necessary foundation and background has been established. As composition, discourse (connected writing) in a second language situation is rather complex and considerably difficult, care has to be taken initially to make it integrated, (with earlier experiences, graded, guided, controlled and contextualized. This should enable the learner to walk before he can run, and run fast. Suitable techniques like paragraph - writing, describing rare incident, story-writing, stories retold could be used profitably for the purpose.

Nevertheless, composition work is to be made creative and the tight control of the ideas and language material has to be relaxed gradually so as to enable the learner to use language for genuine communication by making composition work semi-free in the light of the Communicative Approach making use of the devices like brain storming for creative thinking and task-based activities for self-initiated learning.

As the controlling of teaching is very crucial, the scheme of evaluation should be properly planned, prepared and executed. It should be objective based and cover all the significant points to give feedback about the learner's performance as well as instruction because evaluation has inherent potential to improve teaching. The testing exercises should have focus on the language skills and evaluate the pupil's knowledge and use of the syntax and lexis to communicate meaning in an authentic (life-life) context and not just the structural elements and words which are what really matter (Julia Dobson). Obviously, because the grammar and lexicon is not an end in itself, it is simply a tool for the performance in the communicative function. Test items, of course, should be objective, valid and reliable and test what they intend to test and test them consistently. The test should be obviously, objective based and in harmony with the intention of the curriculum framers.

1.5 Let's sum up

Unlike the teaching subjects like physical and social sciences the focus in teaching languages would be on the elements of language, developing linguistic and communicative competence and acquisition of four basic skills.

Viewed from the historical perspective the Direct Method of teaching English focused attention on the use of the target language but did not say much about 'what to teach'. It was indeed the Structural Approach which contributed towards it by giving structural syllabus.

Nevertheless, researches in various disciplines revealed the inadequacy of the approach which neglected the 'using' aspect of the language to communicate meaning for social interaction. Obviously, a teacher of English has to be pragmatic and make use of the strengths of different approaches and tailor his method to suit his needs.

Nevertheless, the current Communicate Approach should be utilized because of its superiority in terms of its efficacy and shift from manipulation to expression, from control to freedom, from accuracy to fluency, making it learner-oriented rather than teacher dominated.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   The Grammar Translation Method develops oral communication skills in   the learners.

(ii)   The Direct Method focuses on how to teach English.

(iii)   The Structural Approach helps in course designing only.

(iv)   The Communicative Approach develops accuracy, appropriacy, fluency   and communicative competence.

(v)   A course-book aims at teaching language content.

1.6   Exercises

(i)   Explain how the area of teaching of languages is different from that of the content subjects like physical and social sciences.

(ii)   What idea do you get by looking at the past approaches and methods in the historical perspective?

(iii)   How is the Communicative Approach an improvement over Structural Approach?

(iv) Why do you think a teacher of English has to be eclectic and highly selective?

(v) What, in your opinion, should be the basic conceptual framework of teaching English as a second language?

(vi) How do you visualize future trends in the teaching of English in the context of its gaining importance and currency both as a link and international language?

1.7 Further Reading:

(1) Bloom, B.S. (ed.) (1956) Taxonomy of Educational Objectives. Handbook I. Cognitive Domain. New York: David, Mackay, INC.

(2) Howall A.P.R. (1984) A History of English Language Teaching. Oxford: OUP

(3) National Curriculum Framework (2005). N. Delhi: NCERT

(4) Richards J.C. and Rodgers, T.S. (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. Cambridge: CUP

Unit 2

Objectives of Teaching English with Futuristic Vision

Structure of the Unit:

2.0 About the Unit

2.0 About the Unit

The study of this unit will make you familiar with

(i)   the importance of English as an international language;

(ii)   the function and role that English performs in our country;

(iii)   the place it occupies in the administrative and inter-state communication in India;

(iv)   the general aims of teaching English;

(v)   the specific objectives of teaching English;

(vi)   the objectives in behavioural terms;

(vii)   the direction that study of English is taking.

2.1 Introduction

Language learning is a skill and skills are learnt best through constant use and practice. To learn swimming one has to enter a pool and move one's hands and legs. Similarly, to learn a language, one will have to listen to, speak, read and write it. Unfortunately, in Indian classrooms English is not taught as a skill-dominated subject; it is taught as a content-dominated subject just like Economics, History, Sociology or any science subject. In other words, the teachers emphasize facts, ideas and information more than the development of communication skills. This leads to colossal national loss as most of the students, especially in rural areas and government schools, are not able to speak, read or write a single grammatically correct sentence even after studying English for years together. The fact responsible for this sad state of affairs is the utter lack of knowledge among the teachers about the aims and objectives of teaching English. A lot of waste of time, energy and resources can be prevented in our schools if we define the aims and objectives of teaching

English in precise terms and then try to realize them by teaching with modern and scientific methods.

Aims and objectives become relevant only when they serve the needs of the time and demands of the community. They must suit the requirements and capacities of the learners. Students study English for varied reasons. A clear cut idea of these reasons or objectives is crucial for the teachers while planning a successful learning experience. Such an idea will help the teacher plan his teaching strategy, adopt a systematic course of action and find suitable learning materials to achieve satisfactory results. Why then do we teach our pupils English? The simple answer to this question is that we have to. English is an important item in the school syllabus which is prescribed and which we must follow. But, why is English there in the syllabus for our pupils in this country? The answer to this question is that our pupils need it. They study English to find better jobs and for this they wish to be able to communicate, to talk on the phone, to use the internet, to travel and be understood, to read and to write. Thus, all the four skills need to be emphasized but the priority has to be given to the productive skill of speaking. Business executives, tourists, receptionists and university students all wish to use English and be fluent in speaking it.

2.2   Importance of English

The modern means of rapid communication and transport have drastically reduced distances, broken down frontiers and turned the world into a family. Cutting across all political and ideological lines English has universally been accepted as a medium of expression by the members of the world family. The recent wave of globalization and liberalization has greatly helped English in becoming an international lingua-franca. It is

being used in all international bodies and conferences. Two strangers from different countries meeting casually in a third country find themselves automatically conversing in English. It is the only acceptable language available to establish and maintain economic, commercial, political, intellectual and cultural relations with other nations as it is being used either as a first language or as a second language by millions of people in nearly every country of the world. Besides being the language of international relations, trade and commerce, it provides the readiest excess to the cream of all world knowledge and scholarship accumulated by the wisest people over the ages. It opens the door to the scientific and technical knowledge which is considered indispensable to the fast economic development of a country. It keeps a nation abreast with the times by keeping it in touch with ever increasing explosion of knowledge as almost all the latest research is published in this language only. F.G. French asserts: "Every advance in science, in engineering, in trade, in politics, in every branch of human thought is discussed, printed, disseminated and made available in English." [1] People over the world have realized the importance of the language now. There seems to be a competition going on among many nations to learn English on large scale in order to be able to compete successfully with others for controlling international affairs and capturing international trade.

English in India

Looking to the infrastructure for the teaching of English we already had, far-sighted leaders like Nehru and Maulana Abul Kalam Azad retained its teaching after independence in spite of the resistance from some quarters. They considered it as a major window to the outside world which prevented our isolation and served as an instrument of modernity

in all fields of science. Constitutionally, English continues to be our associate official language and medium of inter-state correspondence, used widely as a link language for trade, commerce, industry and administration. It is the official language in Manipur, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Tripura, Arunachal Pradesh and all union territories except Delhi. It has been the medium of all higher education—scientific, technical, and engineering, management, medical, legal and defence. All competitive examinations have English as an essential component. No research or advanced study is possible in India without the knowledge of English. Books, journals and current periodicals pertaining to higher studies are all published only in English. It has been the medium of instruction in all public schools too.

With the opening up of Indian economy the importance of English has gone up tremendously. Computers and information technology have boosted its use. It has somehow got linked to jobs and has become the language of opportunity. The multinational companies are employing the Indian youth in large numbers. They hold the interviews only in English. Young people highly skilled in the language reach the high offices. Anyone who has a working knowledge in English rarely remains unemployed. Fluency in English gives one self-confidence and its absence leads to inferiority complex. The knowledge of English, especially spoken English, has become the need of the day. Without it education seems to remain incomplete. The present generation sees its future in English alone. Hence, every parent now desires that his ward should study English and become its efficient user. Those who can afford, send their children to expensive English medium public schools. Others flock to the innumerable coaching centres that have come up in recent years.

Yielding to the societal pressure, almost all the Indian states have introduced English either from class I or from class III and are making special efforts to improve the standard of its teaching by improving the quality of instructional material and teacher training. Intensive training programmes are being organized for the training of the youth, in which special attention is paid to the development of the crucial skill of speaking.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

    (i)   English is not a skill-dominated subject.

    (ii)   Development of communication skills needs to be given greater emphasis

         in Indian classrooms.

    (iii)   People all over the world are keen to learn English.

    (iv)   English does not prevent our isolation from the world.

    (v)   Higher studies in most of the disciplines are possible without English.

    (vi)   English has somehow got linked to job opportunities.

2.3   Aims of Teaching English

"What an Indian student at the secondary school stage requires is competence in the language of a degree which would enable him to use the language with a fair amount of command and ease in all the domains where he needs to use it. Therefore, the primary objective of teaching English should be to help the students to acquire Practical Command of English so that it may be useful to them in their ordinary life." [2]

The National Curriculum Framework 2005 states : "The goals for a second language curriculum are twofold : attainment of a basic proficiency, such as is acquired in natural language learning, and the development of the language into an instrument for abstract thought and knowledge acquisition through (for example) literacy."[3]

Broadly speaking the desired result which we aim at in our English lessons is to train our pupils :

(i)   to hear and understand

(ii)   to speak and be understood

(iii) to read and understand

(iv)   to write and be understood

When we have finished our teaching, our pupils should be able to use English with ease and confidence demonstrating automatic control of the required vocabulary and structures. Their comprehension and expression of both oral and written English should be developed enough to serve their purposes in life.

But, these aims fail to provide any helpful guidance to the teachers of English. They do not indicate what to teach and how exactly to teach that or what to test and how best to test that. The broad goals need to be translated into precise statements of achievable objectives in terms of desired changes in pupils' linguistic behaviour. They become attainable only when stated in specific and concrete terms.

2.4   The Specific Objectives of Teaching English

The objectives involve (i) an analysis of the complex skills of language into simpler elements so that all the aspects are taken care of in teaching. (ii) the specific objectives based on this analysis (iii) resources

and transactional strategies to achieve the objectives. Let us now take up the four skills of language one by one.

2.4.1 Listening

Correct hearing is an essential step. Language is learnt by imitation; that is true of both the baby learning its mother tongue and the student learning a foreign language. Before a learner can understand the meaning of the word or a construction, before he can speak it, he must be allowed to hear it. The training to hear accurately and understand when it is spoken as a second language in one's country or as an international language, involves the ability to

(i)   recognize English speech sounds both in isolation and in combination readily and quickly;

(ii)   differentiate the speech sounds of English;

(iii)   distinguish between English speech sounds and almost similar speech sounds in the mother tongue;

(iv)   understand the vocabulary and sentence patterns used in speech;

(v)   derive meaning from stress, pitch and intonation of English language;

(vi)   understand English speech sounds at normal speed as in conversation or movies.

Specific Objectives

To develop the ability to

(i)   get the sense of what an educated speaker is speaking on a general subject at normal speed;

(ii)   receive orders or instructions;

(iii)   understand conversation of average tempo, lectures, talks on the radio, news broadcasts, and running commentaries on matches etc.;

(iv)   follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech such as rapid or group conversation, extended dialogues, documentary films, plays and movies etc.;

(v)   pay attention to and value the other people's point of view.

Resources and Transactional Strategies

(i)   Making greater use of English in the classroom for both teaching the text and the activities surrounding the text

(ii)   Giving commands, asking questions and getting responses

(iii)   Telling stories with brief questions based on them

(iv)   Reciting poems

(v)   Listening to music, especially popular compositions and community singing

(vi)   Watching dramas being performed in a theatre

(vii)   Listening to recorded material on the tape recorder

(viii) Listening to various programmes in English on TV and radio

2.4.2 Speaking

Speech is the foundation of all language work. The purpose of learning English is to use it as a second language or as an international language and on most occasions this implies the ability to speak to someone. It has been argued on both linguistic and psychological grounds that spoken English should be the principal objective in language

teaching. The training to speak confidently and be understood by fellow countrymen and foreigners involves the ability to

(i)   produce English speech sounds both in isolation and in combination readily and quickly;

(ii)   distinguish between English speech sounds and almost similar speech sounds in the mother tongue;

(iii)   recall appropriate words, sentence and phrase patterns readily and quickly, according to needs and situations;

(iv)   speak sentences with correct speed, pause, pronunciation and intonation keeping the sense groups in view;

(v)   select and organize one's ideas on a subject readily and express them correctly;

(vi)   read a passage aloud with correct pauses, accent and intonation.

Specific Objectives

To develop the ability to

(i)   talk on prepared topics in simple and correct sentences (e.g. in classroom situations) without obvious faltering and speaking with a pronunciation readily understandable to others;

(ii)   hold ordinary every day conversation, asking conversational questions and responding to such questions, exchanging greetings, receiving or giving orders or directions, making a request for something etc.;

(iii)   speak without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thought in sustained conversation, speak at a normal speed with good pronunciation and intonation, read a passage or report aloud; give short talks recounting experiences or something seen; provide

commentary, tell stories, give explanations that are properly sequenced and linked; make a short presentation in formal English

(iv)   participate in school debates, group talks, plays etc.;

(v)   exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations;

(vi)   speak freely, naturally, idiomatically with ease and facility at home, at school and in society;

(vii)   promote fluency-based communication.

Resources and Transactional Strategies

(i)   Encouraging child's talk in the classroom.

(ii)   Making learners participate in group discussions on given issues

(iii)   Asking questions

(iv)   Reciting poems

(v)   Narrating stories and experiences

(vi)   Holding discussions based on pictures containing total scene

(vii)   Using dialogues

(viii) Making announcements in the school assembly

(ix)   Organising speech contests, debates etc.

(x)   Telephoning

(xi)   Encouraging learners to participate in dramatic performances.

Training in speech is associated with the expressive and participatory functions of language. The teachers should see the child's talk as a resource rather than a nuisance. They should encourage children to explore different issues with small group talk and undertake activities that nurture the abilities to compare and contrast, to wonder and express, to guess and challenge, to judge and evaluate.

2.4.3 Reading

The confident reader is one who can recognize instantaneously the word or word group in front, without dividing it into parts or looking at individual letters. The more we read the more we increase our ability to read. Training to read and understand implies the ability to

(i)   sound out and syllabify words;

(ii)   take in whole phrases and sense groups at once without inwardly pronouncing single words when reading silently;

(iii)   read a passage with speed without losing the general meaning and important details;

(iv)   gather the meaning of unknown words and expressions from the context, pictures or diagrams in the book and, if necessary, with the help of a dictionary;

(v)   understand the meaning communicated by the syntax, punctuation and various linking and reference devices;

(vi)   recognize the relationships of ideas in a passage and draw appropriate inferences;

(vii)   know how to locate sources for a given task and find out relevant information in them using skimming, scanning, contents, index, glossary etc.

Specific Objectives

To develop the ability to :

(i)   grasp directly (i.e. without translating) the meaning of simple and non technical prose (reading daily newspapers, magazines, simple and general books for pleasure or for information, letters received etc.

(ii)   read with immediate comprehension prose and verse of average difficulty and mature content;

(iii)   locate the central idea and the supporting details;

(iv)   compare and contrast ideas by finding out similarities and dissimilarities;

(v)   identify the suggested or hidden meaning of the text;

(vi)   infer the mood of the writer – humorous, sarcastic , joyous or sad;

(vii)   recognise the bias and objectively distinguish facts from opinions;

(viii) appreciate the emotional and aesthetic aspects of the text;

(ix)   read as a habit.

Resources And Transactional Strategies

(i)   Model reading by the teacher in meaningful units with appropriate stress and intonation

(ii)   Use of recorded material for reading texts at a stretch

(iii)   Loud reading by the students with correct pronunciation especially at lower levels.

(iv)   Correction of errors in pronunciation

(v)   Practice in silent reading with speed regulating regressions and fixations

(vi)   Providing supplementary reading material

(vii)   Practice in skimming and scanning

(viii) Reading comprehension exercises with focus on interpretative, inferential, evaluative and appreciative level questions

(ix)   Using a library and consulting reference books

        Memorising tasks in textbooks are to be reduced and opportunities for individualized reading for its own sake have to be provided to promote the culture of reading. It is said that a good teacher reads a new

book every fortnight to keep himself updated and to maintain his professional competence. But school teachers in India have not been able to develop their reading habits. They neglect the skill of silent reading. Parents' reading at home does not go beyond the reading of newspapers. Students thus do not have any role model to look up to. No one motivates them to read. There is an urgent need to develop the habit of reading supplementary material. We have to take our students beyond textbooks and link the life in classrooms with the real life outside by promoting general readings as advocated by the National Curriculum Framework 2005.

2.4.4 Writing

Writing is the graphical representation of spoken language. It comes last as it is the most difficult aspect of language learning. Training to write correctly with confidence and without error implies the ability to

(i)   write legibly with reasonable speed even under pressure;

(ii)   spell words correctly;

(iii)   use the capital letters and punctuation marks correctly;

(iv)   recall and use appropriate words, phrase and sentence patterns readily;

(v)   identify and correct wrongly constructed sentences;

(vi)   select relevant ideas and organize them into paragraphs and essays;

(vii) present the matter logically and avoid unnecessary repetitions;

(viii) stick to the point and reach an effective conclusion;

(ix)   compare the structure of English with that of the mother tongue and improve one's language facility by following relational approach;

(x)   use a dictionary, reference books and such other source materials.

Specific Objectives

To develop the ability to

(i)   write letters to relatives and friends that we cannot speak to about everyday experiences and needs;

(ii)   write invitations, complaints and offer condolences;

(iii)   write business letters;

(iv)   write applications for leave, testimonial, jobs etc.;

(v)   write notices, telegrams and advertisements;

(vi)   write cohesive paragraphs on familiar topics, using appropriate linkers and reference devices;

(vii)   write reports of committees and minutes of meetings;

(viii) write short descriptive essays or simple stories heard or read elsewhere;

(ix)   record things we wish to remember ourselves or things that we think other people would like to know later;

(x)   make notes with speed and accuracy on subjects being studied for our future reference;

(xi)   summarise longer texts;

(xii)   take examinations;

(xiii) write freely and independently on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression and some feeling for the style.

Besides correctness, teachers should insist that children express their own thoughts and feelings in writing. At middle and senior levels of schooling, note-making should receive special attention as a skill development training exercise. It will discourage mechanical copying from the blackboard, textbooks and guides. Imagination and originality should be allowed to play a more prominent role.

Resources And Transactional Strategies

(i)   Pre-writing exercises at initial stages

(ii)   Transcription

(iii)   Dictation

(iv)   Reordering words/sentences/paragraph

(v)   Fill-in exercises

(vi)   Completion type exercises

(vii)   Questions and Answers

(viii) Developing an outline

(ix)   Changing the person or tense in a paragraph

(x)   Picture composition

(xi)   Free expression--describing persons, places, objects and events

(xii)   Letter writing –both formal and informal

(xiii) Summarizing

(xiv)   Skill of note making and note taking

(xv)   Practice in writing notices, telegrams and advertisements.

(xvi)   e-mail

It is desirable to follow the integrated approach to the teaching of different skills of language. NCF 2005 states "Children appear to learn much better in holistic situations that make sense to them rather than in a linear and additive way that often has no meaning. Rich and comprehensible input should constitute the site for acquisition of all the different skills of language. In several communicative situations, such as taking notes while listening to somebody on the phone several skills may need to be used together."

Adequate practice in different aspects of the four skills in imaginary or real life situations has to be ensured to develop the mastery over them.

2.5 Objectives In Behavioural Terms

2.5(A) Bloom's Taxonomy: Cognitive Domain

A taxonomy is a classification system that teachers use to classify objectives, questions, learning activities, written materials and tests and also to determine their levels and ranges. It gives greater breadth to our objectives and prevents us from over emphasizing one dimension of learning such as memorization of facts in our teaching. It helps in sequencing learning from simple to complex as its organizing principle is that of complexity. The higher levels in taxonomy involve more complex student behaviours than the lower levels do. But the higher levels are built on lower levels. The teachers typically begin a unit by establishing a knowledge foundation and then move on to interpretative and inferential levels. A taxonomy also helps in selecting more appropriate teaching strategies and evaluation techniques that go with the level of the objectives.

Bloom's taxonomy classifies cognitive behaviours into six categories. The taxonomy has been widely used and accepted by educators at all levels. It has been much used in describing objectives, analysing questions and in constructing curriculum and tests and in providing stimulating learning experiences.

2.5.1 Knowledge

This is the category that emphasizes remembering – either by recall or recognition. Both the processes involve the recapturing of information in the same form as it was stored in the mind. Knowledge level questions may consist of recalling specific facts or bits of information, terminology or definitions, conventions or rules of usage. For example:

(i)   Who was the first President of India?

(ii)   What is a Noun?

(iii)   When do we use Passive Voice?

In this category the student is not expected to transform or manipulate knowledge but to remember it in the same form as it was presented. It is basically a passive operation and the learner is not actively involved. He is poorly motivated as the emphasis is only on the memorization of facts. If most of the questions that are asked are of the knowledge level the thought processes of students would remain at very low levels. It also does not offer opportunities for the development of communication skills. But, this category serves as the foundation for the other categories.

Examples of Knowledge level objectives :

(i)   Students will become familiar with certain new words in their common meanings.

(ii)   Students will recall major facts about the first President of America.

(iii)   Students will recall the definition of the term 'sonnet'.

(iv)   Students will become conscious of the correct form and use of Passive constructions.

2.5.2   Comprehension

The comprehension category emphasizes ways of handling information that has already been stored and requires students to demonstrate an understanding of the material by processing or altering it before answering a question. Here the student understands the material and does not simply memorize it. He does not extend the information but merely integrates it into his own frame of reference. A comprehension level question requires a greater degree of active participation by a student.

The comprehension category is divided into four groups: interpretation, translation, examples and definition.

Interpretation involves the students' ability to locate and comprehend the major ideas in a communication and to understand the relationship between these ideas. The relationships may be understood by comparing or contrasting or by demonstrating similarities. 'How' and 'why' questions call for interpretation. For example:

(i) How do English and Hindi sentence structures differ?

(ii) What are the similarities between Satan, the protagonist of Paradise Lost, and Milton, his creator?

(iii) Compare the use of 'may' and 'can' for permission.

Translation involves changing ideas from one form of communication into a different form retaining the meaning. Reading a graph and describing the main point of a pictorial cartoon are examples of translation. Another type of translation exercise is summarization. In summarization the student translates a large passage into a shorter, more personal form. For example:

(i) Reconstruct the main story plot of 'Pride and Prejudice'.

(ii) Summarise Coleridge's poem 'The Rime of the Ancient Mariner'.

Citing examples is one of the best ways to demonstrate comprehension of an idea. For example:

(i) Give two examples of alliteration from the poem 'Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening'.

(ii) Bring to class tomorrow a poem that uses allegory.

A Definition requires students to construct in their own words a description or idea of a term or concept. For example :

(i) Explain in your own words the meaning of the word 'hospitality'.

(ii) Give a definition of the term 'ballad.' in your own words.

Examples of Comprehension level objectives :

(i)   Students will grasp the central thought of the poem.

(ii)   Students will understand the contrast between the beginning and the end of a particular poem.

(iii)   Students will summarise the text in their own words.

(iv)   Students will give examples of 'WH' type questions.

(v)   Students will define the word grammar in their own words.

2.5.3 Application

The application category involves applying or using information to arrive at a solution to a problem. In operating at the application level, the student is given an unfamiliar problem and must apply the appropriate principle (method of solving the problem) without having to be prompted regarding how to resolve it. Both the answer obtained and the processes of solving a problem are important. The problem must be unique or novel. For example:

> Using a dictionary, compose an essay of approximately two pages on 'The scariest dream I ever had'. Incorporate the principles of proper usage of grammar, logical sentence structure, logical development of ideas, and clarity of expression.

Examples of Application level objectives :

(i)   Students will write a small essay on 'how to prepare tea' using most of the verbs in the Passive Voice.

(ii)   Students will cite different examples of alliteration in the poem.

(iii)   Students will convert a set of Active sentences into Passive ones.

(iv)   Students will use Yes/No and 'Wh' type questions in conversation in real life.

2.5.4 Analysis

In analysis, speeches, written communications etc. are taken apart and the underlying organization behind them explained. The emphasis in analysis level operations is on explaining how the various parts of a complex process or object are arranged and work together to achieve certain effect.

Analysis goes beyond just understanding a communication and involves being able to look beneath a surface and discovering how different parts interact. It involves working backwards, taking a situation or event and explaining how all the parts fit together to give a total effect.

Subcategories of analysis are identification of issues, implications and motives.

In **identification of issues** the students subdivide a broad communication into its constituent parts. They go beyond the information in the message to show the relationship between assumptions and key points, stated or otherwise. For example :

Analyse the character of Macbeth.

Implications involve relationships that are expressed by inference, association or necessary consequences which may not be stated directly. Here the student refers to some meaning beyond the denotation level and this is what distinguishes analysis from comprehension; connotation of the message is important. For example.:

What are the implications of teaching functional English ?

Motives involve questions or objectives that ask students to identify reasons for behaviour. The student must again be able to use connotative meanings to discover two bases of behaviour. – one overt, the other covert.

What were the poet's motives in writing 'The Rape of the Lock'?

Examples of Analysis level objectives:

(i)   Students will distinguish facts from fiction.

(ii)   Students will infer the mood of the poet.

(iii)   Students will understand irony and satire in the poet's verses.

(iv)   Students will understand the inter-relationships between the various ideas in the passage.

2.5.5 Synthesis

It is necessary in synthesis to assimilate elements so as to form a new and unique entity. It is the process of combining parts in such a way as to constitute a pattern or structure that did not exist before. If a research paper is comprehensive and thorough but does not add anything to the topic that is not already known, we consider the writer to be operating at the application level. If, however, the writer puts ideas together in new or unique patterns or creates new idea configurations, then we consider this to be a synthesis level activity. For example :

Writing a play, a short story, a poem or an essay.

Examples of Synthesis level objectives :

(i)   Students will develop the skill in writing using excellent organisation of ideas and statements.

(ii)   Students will develop the ability to tell a personal experience effectively.

2.5.6 Evaluation

The evaluation category involves making decisions on controversial topics and substantiating these decisions with sound reasons. Evaluation questions ask the students to state their thoughts, opinions, and judgments and to give the criteria on which these are based. Evaluation uses standards for appraising the extent to which particulars are accurate, effective, economical or satisfying. To qualify for this

category, the student must set up appropriate standards or values and determine how closely the idea or object meets these standards or values. For example :

(i)   Is 'The Adventures of Tom Sawyer' a good novel?"

(ii)   What do you think is the most important reason for learning English?

(iii)   'Should we introduce the teaching of English from class VI ?'

Examples of Evaluation level objectives :

(i)   Students will be able to indicate logical fallacies in arguments.

(ii)   Students will judge the accuracy of the author's language.

(iii)   Students will be able to compare the poem with the poems of other poets on similar themes.

2.5(B) Affective Domain

Affective domain is related to the development of students' feelings, attitudes, values and emotions, e.g. the inculcation of values like honesty and truthfulness, development of scientific temper or awareness about drugs, HIV/AIDS. The kinds of attitudes we develop as children and the values we espouse as adults are certainly influenced by the schools. Good teachers have always incorporated affective goals into their curricula for years. The knowledge of the affective taxonomy will help to make the teachers more effective and sensitive to these values. The analysis of affective domain was made by David R. Krathwohl et al in 'Taxonomy of Educational Objectives : Handbook II : Affective Domain.'

The taxonomy has the following five levels.

(i) receiving (attending) ; (ii) responding; (iii) valuing; (iv) organization ; (v) characterisation by a value or value complex.

'**Receiving**' refers to the willingness of learners to be open to stimuli and messages in the environment. They become conscious of the beauty of colour, form, arrangement, design and structures around them.

Examples of objectives :

(i)   Students will listen to other students who disagree with their point of view and pay attention to their message.

(ii)   Students will develop openness towards other cultures so that, when other cultures are encountered in and out of the classroom, students will be willing to hear or read about them.

(iii)   Students will become sensitive to human need and pressing social problems.

Responding involves an action component. The learner is expected to make choices about an issue. He willingly responds and then feels emotionally satisfied in the response.

Examples of Objectives:

(i)   Students will develop an appreciation for poetry, so that during a free reading period they will choose a book of poetry and enjoy reading that.

(ii)   Students will develop an appreciation of good hygiene habits so that they will wash their hands with soap and water after going to the lavatory without being reminded

(iii)   Students will obey playground regulations.

In **Valuing,** a learner internalizes a value. He accepts a particular value preferring it to others and then commits himself to it. Here the learner exhibits a motivated and deliberate behaviour and not simply willingness to accept. He gets involved and identified with the value and acts in accordance with it.

Examples of objectives :

(i)   In a mock election, students will vote and urge at least three others to do the same and thus demonstrate their appreciation of democratic processes.

(ii)   In voluntary, non-school settings, students will demonstrate their commitment for clean air and water by becoming active in organizations set up for this purpose and by encouraging others to do so.

(iii)   Students grow in kinship with human beings of all nations.

When learners' experiences broaden and values begin to be ordered or classified, we have the category of **organization**. Here an individual takes a value position and can defend the value, if necessary. Learners gradually develop commitment to values.

Examples of objectives :

(i)   Learners demonstrate good study habits by voluntarily organizing free time, both in school and outside, by preparing a schedule of assignments to be done.

(ii)   Students will put away their materials and clean up their work area.

Characterisation by a value complex occurs when an individual acts in a manner consistent with those internalized values in which he or she believes. One gets committed to certain attitudes, beliefs, or values, as reflected in one and consistent behaviour.

Finally values so influence an individual and his thinking as to be completely controlled by them. His words and actions become entirely consistent with value orientation. He develops a definite philosophy of life.

An example of objective :

Students will develop a code of behaviour based on ethical principles consistent with democratic ideals for regulation of their personal and civic life.

2.5(C) Psychomotor Domain

Psychomotor domain deals with the development of muscular skills and abilities. It has three levels – imitation, manipulation and precision. Imitation is performed with teacher's help; manipulation is done independently and in precision a skill is performed accurately.

When English language students pronounce new sounds requiring new mouth and tongue configurations they operate in psychomotor domain.

This domain is not used much in languages.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

 (i) Learners need to acquire practical command of English.

 (ii) We can start the teaching of English straightaway by teaching the skill of writing.

 (iii) Speech is a fundamental skill:

 (iv) A silent classroom is an indication of successful teaching.

 (v) Teachers should encourage students to read books other than textbooks.

 (vi) Note-making discourages rote learning and leads to the development of originality.

2.6 Objectives with Futuristic Vision

Although it is rightly believed it is very difficult to predict future, yet some intelligent guesses may be made on the basis of the past and present trends in all spheres of life. So far as English is concerned, it is

discernibly clear that it has become a truly functional global language. More and more people are learning it for social interaction across the global. The ICT and Internet have made global communication a virtual reality. The natural corollary is that the teaching of English would be shaped and reshaped by the changed global contexts. Obviously English would be taught with practical objectives of genuine communication skills both oral and written. Along with the productive skills, the teaching of English would give equal weight to the receptive skills with fresh inputs drawn from the researches in the field of phonetics, linguistics, sociolinguistics, applied linguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics, sociology, neurolinguistics and pedagogy.

The curriculum of English would also be designed in such a way that it caters to the genuine communicative needs of the clientele at large. Testing, assessment and evaluation would also be in tune with the objectives predetermined. With the era of ICT and Internet, the teaching of English as a second language in our country would academically and pedagogically be more relevant and pragmatic. For this, the teachers would have to constantly update their knowledge, hone their own skills and keep abreast of all the latest development in ELT.

2.7   Let's sum up

In order to enable a pupil to achieve a basic language proficiency in English he will have to be provided with maximum possible exposure to English within and outside schools. The relative success of English medium schools shows that language is learnt through exposure in meaningful context and not when it is taught as a language. NCF 2005 has rightly stated "Input rich communicational environments are a pre-requisite for language learning, whether first or second. Inputs include

textbooks, learner chosen texts, and class libraries, allowing for a variety of genres : print (for example, Big Books for Young Learners); parallel books and materials in more than one language, media support (learner magazines/ newspaper columns, radio/audio cassettes), and 'authentic' materials. Approaches and methods need not be exclusive but may be mutually supportive …" The teachers may use the eclectic approach including constructivism based pedagogy which assumes that a learner has to construct or build up his own knowledge by linking new ideas with his past experiences or already existing understanding with the help of the teacher who provides the setting, poses the challenges and offers the required support. But, all teachers who teach English must themselves have basic proficiency in English. The time available for English in the timetable is always short. This can be made up to some extent by using English whenever possible in other lessons.

Moreover, the focus of attention in the teaching of English needs to be shifted to

(i)   the oral aspects of language from the written one;

(ii)   the extensive general reading from the teaching of textbooks;

(iii)   the development of the ability to USE the language in speech and writing for different purposes at work places and in society in general;

(iv)   the oral examination in the evaluation process from the written one.

It is our aim to do everything possible to give our pupils a command of English which will be of practical value in their life.

2.8   Exercises

Exercise 1

1   What advantages does a knowledge of English confer on the young men seeking jobs in India?

2   Which skill of the English language is the most important in the present context? Discuss the relative importance of the four skills.

3   Why is it essential to help students build up their vocabulary?

4   What are the advantages of writing objectives in behavioral terms?

5   Discuss the specific objectives of teaching English.

6   Select two passages from X_{th} class textbook and frame specific objectives on them in behavioural terms.

Exercise 2

1   Read the B.Ed. syllabus of English issued by your university thoroughly.

2   Make comparative analysis of the secondary syllabuses of English of the Board of Secondary Education, Rajasthan and CBSE.

3   Think of the occasions outside the classroom when you speak English.

4   Compare your reading vocabulary with your speaking vocabulary. Which one is bigger?

5   Think of the aims in the second language teaching which are the same as those of the mother tongue teaching and the aims which are different.

6   On the basis of your experience with the class make a common list of mistakes that students commit in speaking and writing. How would you explain and correct these mistakes?

2.9   Further Reading

1.   Bloom, Benjamin, S. (ed)., **Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook I: Cognitive Domain.** New York, David McKay, INC, 1956.

2   Bhatnagar R. P. and Sharma, C.B. **Teaching English** Vol.I (Kota Open University) 1991-92, p. 7

3.   French, F.G. **Teaching English as an International Language** (London, Oxford University Press 1963), p.7.

4   Krathwohl David R. et al., eds. **Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II   : Affective Domain**, New York, David McKay, INC, 1956.

5   **National Curriculum Framework 2005** (NCERT) p. 39

6.   Shrivastava, B. D., **Structural Approach to the Teaching of English.** Agra, Ram Prasad and Sons, 1968.

Unit 3

Place of English in School Curriculum, Its Linkage With Other Subjects And Different Stages, Unified/Specialized Approach to Curriculum

Content

3.0   About the unit

This unit is intended to focus your attention on the place of English in school curriculum after Independence, teaching of English as a second language at different stages, primary, elementary and secondary. Then it explains how English has linkages with other subjects as a means, a medium of instruction. After that the unified//specialized approach to curriculum is focused upon.

3.1   Place of English after Independence

During the British regime English enjoyed the pride of place. It was the national language of the country and the sole medium of instruction at the university stage. Obviously after Independence the heyday of English was over. Hindi was given the status of one of the official languages and the pride of place and English was relegated to a secondary position.

Nevertheless, for the advantages of English for pragmatic reasons and utilitarian point of view it was considered wise and necessary to retain it for a period of fifteen years till Hindi took its place and operated (functioned) as the link language in the country.

To quote Pt. Nehru "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. The creation of such gap must be avoided at all costs."

It was felt that we in our anger and hatred against the British people should not throw away the baby (English) with the bath water (English people).

In fact 'English is ours by historic necessity. It was rightly pointed out, "One hundred and fifty years of intimate contact has made English an integral part of our educational system and this cannot be changed without injury to the cause of education in India".

Nevertheless, it was realized that English must be taught as a means of communication rater than as a mere study of literature.

Actually it was only after 1958 that English began to be considered seriously as a second language. The emphasis naturally shifted from literature to language. An indiscriminate literacy course for one and all whatever the level at which English was taught was hardly calculated to serve the needs of India. A report on English Teaching

in India by University College, London, June 1963 rightly suggested, "Will the university not do its students, and the future citizens of India, a more significant service if it teaches them English language?"

The Calcutta University Commission report rightly emphasized, "Communication is necessary for the maintenance of unity of India - for that the use of English would have to be continued as a means of inter-mutual exchange and for promotion of inter-provincial relation in commerce and industry."

Furthermore, English has today become one of the major languages of the world and India can neglect its study only at the risk of loss to themselves. In the words of Pt. Nehru, "I regard the English language as an open window for peeping into Western thought and science. In fact, world knowledge is growing at a tremendous pace, especially in science and technology. India must not only keep up this growth but make her own significant contribution to it. For this purpose, the study of English deserves to be specially strengthened. As a matter fact, "The language link is a greater link between us and English speaking people than any political link or commonwealth link or anything else. It is so because we can see how their thoughts are functioning much more than in other European languages So far as creative thought in every department of knowledge is not as active in this country as in the West it would be rash to cut ourselves off from a language which keeps us in contact with the latest thought in Europe in every field of life and culture".

The Radha Krishanan Commission rightly pointed out in this context "English is a means of preventing our isolation from the world and we will act unwisely if we allow ourselves to be enveloped in the folds of dark curtain of ignorance".

Therefore, after Independence it was considered wise and necessary to retain English and provision was made in the constitution that it would continue to be used for fifteen years or till Hindi gained wider currency and became the sole lingua franca in the country at a language used between people of an area where several languages are spoken.

3.2   **English as a Second Language**:

Nobody except the linguist will ever learn a language if it has no practical use for him.

Obviously the use of English in India was justified because of its utility within the country and also an international language but more because of its important function as a lingua franca.

This important function, therefore, explains the status given to English in our country.

Evidently, it is not in the chronological sense that English is a second language. In fact, chronology does not always determine dominance of a language.

As a matter of fact the common elements in these situations which are usually called second language situations is that the language being learned is not the mother tongue of any group within the country, but that it does have some internal social function. Almost by definition the countries where the L_2 will be a second language are multilingual states. It may be that there is no one local language that is sufficiently dominant to become immediately a national language. Even where there is a candidate for this role it may happen that there is political resistance to its general acceptance or that it has not yet evolved into an entirely satisfactory instrument for the expression of man's needs in the twentieth century. Until another language is ready to take over, some of the functions of a national language will be performed by a language which has historical connections with the country.

3.3   Rationale for its Retention today:

However, with the passage of time even after fifteen years English has gained much in status that it has become almost imperative to retain it, a sort of necessity something we have to have almost indispensable which even eminent leaders of the country could not visualize. Some, however, envisaged the study of English as a library language in the not too distant future. But once English is reduced to the status as one of the important foreign languages and with the change in status comes a steep drop in the standard of English proficiency.

English as a second language obviously has implications for formulation of the objectives of teaching it and naturally developing the curriculum and syllabus for the purpose. In fact the routine school curriculum should contribute to the pupil's exposure to English.

English is, therefore, to be taught as the lingua franca for internal communication through speech and writing between state and state(s) and the centre and also operate as a powerful medium of instruction. Moreover, in the light of its important position it is to be introduced at the primary level of education. In fact, almost all second language courses assume a beginning in the primary school. The reasoning here does not depend on arguments about what is psychologically the best time for a child to begin foreign languages. In the case of foreign language teaching, of course, they are usually taught in secondary school.

3.4   School Curriculum and Syllabus

In Rajasthan, in view of the acceptance of English as a second language by the central government the educationists in the state considered it worthwhile to begin to teach it at class VI (now, it begins at class I) compulsorily up to class XII (Higher Secondary) stage. The structural syllabus was presented for the purpose and books and relevant materials were written, printed and published. Orientation courses were organized and teachers were made familiar with the approach and relevant methodology to teach this subject. However, because no detailed pedagogical input was provided through curriculum, the skeleton in the form of syllabus (a list of structures and words) and absence of objective-based evaluation did not yield fruitful results. Moreover, the teachers who followed the courses at graduation and post-graduations levels studied literature were not reasonably equipped to handle the ardors task proved rather and most colleges of education continued to old Methodology. The short-terms courses for the teachers proved inadequate to give insightful knowledge of grammar etc. and suitable methodology to enable the student to develop competence and acquire skills. Therefore, concerted efforts are required in this direction. English has now begun at stage I, that is, standard first, Mere introduction of the subject at an early stage will not help until the focus is on the development of the basic language skills.

3.5   Linkages with other areas and different stages

The scale and variety of use of a second language differs enormously. It encompasses part or all government administration, politics, law, medicines, industry, trade, newspapers, general publishing, and education. As a result, in education it has

become the medium of instruction at any level from the primary school upwards. Because English is to operate (function) as an efficient tool at higher levels, it is taught from class I. Textbooks are intended to appeal to the younger child. The language is graded much less steeply and the methodology is not in harmony with the approach that is adopted to teaching of the rest of the primary curriculum. At this stage English is taught as a compulsory basic subject like the mother tongue, maths, social science and elementary science because they are representative of the major disciplines.

As in the teaching of English the themes are borrowed from other subjects it has linkage with them in ideational content. And in the case of English as a medium of instruction it has direct links with other subjects as a means to study them. Moreover, the selection of subjects at the primary stage is done to develop the pupil's personality and his sensibilities and English helps in expanding his experience.

All the subjects for the elementary school are interrelated naturally. The emerging concept of curriculum at this stage considers the child himself, his capacities, his needs and his interactions in relation to selected experiences which will foster his growth.

3.6   Unified and Specialized Approach to Curriculum

Curriculum as environment in motion is conceived as the whole of the interacting forces of the total environment provided for pupils by the school and the pupil's experience in that environment different from the curriculum is conceived as simply sum of courses of study. It now focuses attention upon what kind of experience the learner should have rather than upon the subjects he should study under this plan of organisation. The content is selected from a number of different but related subjects or subject fields and combined in one broad area. The teaching of the mother tongue and English as a second language obviously is inseparable because of its crucial role in communication and social interaction.

As a matter of fact, the curriculum organization is a combination of unified studies on some problems or topics that involve writing across several areas of knowledge broad fields. Within the different segments of the curriculum teachers provide opportunities for experience with a wide range of media and their related

symbol systems so that the children may gain knowledge of different kinds and from varied sources.

The cultivation of common outlooks, skills and dispositions necessary for a united culture is consistent with the principle of a 'core curriculum'. It is important to note that the core curriculum does not have correlation as its distinctive feature. Correlation, the selecting of a number of subjects around a central study, may indeed take place, but the essence of the core is to provide basic grounds and purposes upon which the needs and action of all the members of the community can meet.

At present the teaching of English in Rajasthan begins at class I and continues up to class X as part of the correlated curriculum with which the teaching of the mother tongue and the second language are fused. The teaching of these languages, moreover, are given greater exposure by using them as media for getting necessary experiences through selected subject content.

It is at +2 stage, at classes XI and XII their diversion takes place and English is taught as an optional subject as well. Nevertheless, the teaching of English as a compulsory subject continues. At +2 stage teaching of literature which includes related genres viz. poetry, drama and novel are focused upon. They are taught as elective areas of content and thus specialized approach to curriculum is followed.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   English is a truly global language today.

(2)   English is not necessary for inter-state communication in India.

(3)   English is a compulsory language to be studied up to 12fth standard in Rajasthan.

(4)   The textbooks of English generally contain themes from various subjects.

(5)   The Specialised Approach to curriculum should be followed at the higher stage of learning English.

3.7   Let's Sum up

After Independence English was retained because of its importance and utility as a lingua franca and given the status of a second language which has had wider implications for developing competence and language skills of listening, speaking,

rending and writing for genuine social interaction and communication. Obviously, in Rajasthan it was introduced at class VI and related and integrated with other subject fields.

Recently, it has been introduced right from class I, primary school stage for greater exposure and proficiency in the language and continues up to class X as integrated part of the curriculum in view of following the unified approach to it.

At +2 stage, however it is made optional and the emphasis is on teaching literature. Of course quite some materials in the form of Course Books, Rapid Readers, Work Books etc. have been made available to teach the subject, they need vetting, detailed pedagogical input (curriculum and not just the syllabus, which is a mere skeleton and revision and updating, help and guidance of experts in the field having first-hand knowledge as a practitioner of the English language and really competent and skilled professional to improve upon them to gear them towards the latest trends and approaches, methods, techniques in ELT (English Language Teaching) and plan and prepare (synchronize) them in such a way that they reflect and are in consonance and conformity with differing approaching to be followed at various stages and are in harmony with the intentions of the curriculum developers.

3.8   Exercises

1.   Explain the justification for retaining English after Independence?

2.   Why was English given the status of a second language?

3.   What is the role of English as a second language?

4.   What are the implications for 'teaching' English as a second language?

5.   What is the justification for introducing English at Class I, primary school stage?

6.   What is meant by 'unified' and 'specialized' approach to curriculum?

7.   What are the differing approaches to curriculum followed at present to teach English as a second language in your state?

3.9   Further Reading

1.   Baruah. T.C. (1985) The English Teacher's Handbook. New Delhi: Sterling Publishing Pvt. Ltd.

2.   Lado, Robert (1971 THM Ed.) Language Teaching. New Delhi: Tata McGraw - Hill Publishing House Co. Ltd.

3.   Richards, J.C. and Rodger's, T.S. (2001) Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching Cambridge: CUP.

4.   Willis Jane (1981). Teaching English Through English. Harlow, Essex, England: Longman Group of Pvt. Ltd.

Unit 4

Cognitive Maps of Concepts in English

Structure of the Unit

4.0   Objectives of the unit

4.1   The Background

4.2   Cognition, Concepts and Elements

4.3   The Meaning and Implication: Cognitive Maps for Learning and Learning of Languages.

4.4   What's a Concept Map?

4.5   Why Concept Maps?

4.6   Concept Maps and Curricular Elements

4.7   Steps for Concept Mapping

4.0 Objectives of the unit

This unit is of prime importance and vital utility to enable you to understand the psychological, sociological and pedagogical bases of teaching and learning of languages in general and English as a second language in particular.

It should certainly help you to know the real meaning of various approaches and methods and how they emerged from the research done in related disciplines like psychology, sociology and pedagogy and theories and principles propounded and advocated by experts in those fields and which naturally have had obvious impact on and implication for teaching and learning of all subjects and also of languages. By reading this unit you will understand the concept of concept mapping.

It will give you an insight into what is meant by cognitive maps of concepts and elements and how they contribute substantially towards obtaining language competence and acquisition of the four fundamental skills of languages and also whether you should make use of the mechanistic (using drills) or mentalist approach (generalizing rules) or a happy combination of the two and follow pragmatic or eclectic way i.e. what really clicks and works in the existing situation.

4.1 The background

In the nineteenth century the period when mechanistic theory of behaviorism had its domination it was almost impossible to talk of anything concerning understanding, goal, purpose, idea, mental activity etc. The theory of stimulus-response, eliciting answers form stimuli represented all learning and teaching. The voices of Watson, Pavlov, Guthrie, Skinner, and Hull prevailed. Nevertheless it was Tolman who envisioned the role of understanding in the context of finding a path, goal-oriented learning, purposive effort.

Although Tolman was a behaviorist yet one cast in a different mould from a Watson, a Pavlor or a Guthrie. He emphasized the role of purpose or reinforcement to enable a person to know about the world, the structures, and the map of the environment he lives in. Does he choose different paths, routes, tools etc. and a mechanistic hit or miss manner or does he do it in view of what's already known to him? As a matter of fact he selects a new path in the light of what is known to him, relates to it, sees the relationship, and develops an insight about the environment in a cognitive (mentalistic) way, not in a mechanical or reflexive manner. The system

obviously was molar (holistic) rather than molecular (atomistic) because, as was later pointed out by a band of German psychologists it is the whole that gives the picture, the meaningful figure through its organization which is greater than the sum of its parts. In fact the laws of perceptual organization (proximity, similarity, good continuance, closure) determine how we group certain stimuli and thus how we structure and interpret a visual field in a certain way. The influence of the Gestalt psychologists has lived on long after their death. Actually they were the intellectual forefathers of much of what is today called 'cognitive psychology' which is indeed a dominant viewpoint currently in American experimental psychology.

4.2   Cognition, Concepts and Elements

Now let's see what these important terms mean. **Cognition** refers to the process by which knowledge is acquired. Perception, memory, thinking, imaging all contribute to it.

A Concept is generalized meaning. It is a symbol which stands for a class or group of objects or events with common characteristics. We are all familiar with many concepts like chair, book, orange etc. They stand for groups of objects with common properties. Concepts therefore enable us to group objects or events that share common properties and respond in a similar manner to each example of the concept. Obviously for each concept a rule defines which concepts are examples of that particular concept. In fact the acquisition of concepts depends on the reciprocal process of generalisation and discrimination. **Generalization** enables the learner to incorporate two or more separate experiences into a more comprehensive new meaning. Discrimination enables the learner to distinguish between classes of events and experiences. Actually we can't develop generalization without discrimination nor can we go far in forming discrimination establishing some generalizations.

4.3   The meaning and implication of cognitive maps for learning of languages

It was Tolman who conceived of the organism knowledge as organized into a sort of 'cognitive maps of the environment rather than being a simple listing of stimulus-response pairs. In fact the world in which behavior goes on is a world of paths and tools, obstacles and bypaths with which the organism has commerce. The manner in which the organism makes use of path and tools in relation to its goals

characterizes behavior as planful as well as purposive. Actually knowledge of the world is used in planning out efficient action sequences.

Learning a new subject, therefore, should begin by getting a view of it as a whole and should proceed by analysing it into parts, each to be studied in greater detail.

In fact this is in line with the Gestalt view that the primary emphasis is to be placed on the whole. It is in line with the integration movement because seeing the subject as a whole facilitates integration. It is also in line with the experimental evidence which shows that learning is accomplished more rapidly and efficiently if we have a clear understanding of what we are attempting. Actually a definition of 'whole' depends upon the learning capacity to see relationship. In general, we learn by wholes when the activity that results from the learning is unified, integrated, functional and independent.

So far as languages are concerned at its most elementary level psycholinguistics describe the nature of speech sounds called phonemes and how phonemes combine to form words. A higher level of analysis called grammar discusses the rules by which words combine to form plurals and sentences. The highest level of study deals with semantics and pragmatics. Semantics is the study of meaning and pragmatics concerns everyday use of the language. Phrases cannot be randomly combined to form a sentence. Rules govern the formation of sentences and rules determine how phonemes are grouped to form words and how words are combined to express various ideas. Grammar rules establish the ways that words can be combined into meaningful phrases, clauses and sentences. Words must be arranged to indicate mutual relations, they cannot be grouped haphazardly.

In fact Tolman who talked about 'cognitive maps' visualized the potential of cognitive approach to learning languages to recreate, to use the rules to develop competence which is basic, a prerequisite to acquiring the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Actually cognitive map is knowledge of the environment and the knower makes maps of what he learns and they in turn help him know more about the environment and with the elements form concepts. Obviously, this implies that the teacher should structure his teaching strategies in view of the knowledge the learner has already had which means follow a spiral approach for easy understanding and longer retention.

The following are the perceptual features emphasized by advocates of cognitive theory :-

1. A learning problem should be so structured and presented that the essential features are open to the inspection of the learner.

2. The function of knowledge should be an essential thing for the teacher or educational planner. He should proceed from simplified wholes to more complex wholes.

3. Emphasis should be on meaningful learning.

4. Cognitive feedback confirms correct knowledge and also corrects faulty learning.

5. Goal-setting is as important as motivation for learning.

6. Development of thinking leads to inventive solutions of problems or to the creation of novel and valid points nurtured alone with concept thinking which leads to correct answers.

Essentially the enactive mode is learning through actions, such as learning to ride a bicycle. The iconic mode is based on representation through perceptual means. A mental map that points us to follow a route from where we are to where we are going constitutes such an iconic representation. Finally the symbolic mode enables the translation of experience into word.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   According to the behavioural theory, learning is habit formation only.

(ii)   Understanding is more important than mechanical behaviour.

(iii) Perception, memory, thinking and imaging do not contribute to cognition.

(iv)   The learner should be enabled to look at the problem in totality first rather than in parts.

(v)   Cognitive feedback is helpful in learning.

4.4 What's A Concept Map?

A concept map is a tool that illustrates the conceptual connections understood by the map's creator. Each person may construct a different map, depending on how he or she understands the subject of the map. It is not advisable to try to memorize a

concept map. Instead, study it for the conceptual story that it tells, paying attention to the main ideas and the relationship among them.

Concept maps use three types of knowledge: <u>facts, concepts</u> and <u>generalizations</u>. *A fact* is a singular occurrence that happens in the past or present and that has no predictive value for the future. Common attributes between facts can be described and named. The name given represents a concept. Therefore, *concepts* by their nature are abstract. In fact, most words in the dictionary represent concepts. All learners, especially young children, need to experience many examples of singular occurrences or facts before they can develop the abstract understanding necessary for conceptualization. But once they learn the concept, they do not need to learn isolated facts that are subsumed in it. They can reconstruct these facts when they need them.

Generalizations are broad patterns between two or more concepts that have predictive value. Generalizations are rules or principles that contain more than one concept and that have predictive value.

Briefly speaking, concepts are abstract ideas. **Concept maps**, on the other hand, are **concrete graphic illustrations** that indicate how a single concept is related to other concepts in the same category. Concepts maps are in a way, sophisticated planning webs that reveal what concepts children must learn and how the concepts must be related curricular are primarily designed to teach concepts that students do not already know. Therefore teaching and learning will be greatly enhanced if we know which concepts should be included and which need to be excluded from instructional programmes.

4.5   Why Concept Maps?

According to Joseph Novak (1979, P. 86), concept maps show relationships among different smaller and larger concepts. By looking at a concept map and considering the level of the children's abilities and other instructional factors, teachers can make a decision about the scope of the concepts they need to cover in an instructional programme.

A concept map shows *hierarchical relationships*: how various concepts are related to the subordinate concepts. A relationship can descend several levels deep in the hierarchy of concepts.

A concept map is different in several ways from the outline or table of concepts generally found at the beginning of a book. First, outlines do not show any definite relationships between concepts: they simply show how the material is organized. Concept maps, on the other hand, show a definite relationship between big ideas and small ideas, thus clarifying the difference between details or specifics and the big idea or subordinate concept.

The second difference is that concept maps provide *visual imagery* that can help students recall information and see relationships between concepts. Outlines do not provide such imagery. They just indicate a sequence of different steps. Concept maps, on the other hand, show *hierarchies of ideas* that suggest psychologically valid sequences, these hierarchies may not match linear sequence, or outline, that a teacher has decided to use for a presentation. Third, concept maps can show *interrelationships between ideas,* or cross links.

According to many Kane and W.M.K., Trochim, concept mapping is a generic term that describes any *process for representing ideas in pictures or maps.*

Concept maps are essential tools for planning and teaching, and they can help improve student concept constructions, while helping to avoid misconceptions: Concept mapping is a more recent development that is becoming widely used as constructivist learning models are more accepted in language education.

Concept mapping helps students fulfill high - quality and meaningful learning outcomes. Concept maps provide concrete visual aids to help organise information before it is learned. Many English textbooks are beginning to use concept maps among their end-of-chapter activities. Teachers who have used them have found that they provide a logical basis for deciding what main ideas to include in (or delete from) their lesson plans and English language teaching.

Concept maps can be developed for an entire course, one or more units, or even a single lesson.

4.6   Concept Maps and Curricular Elements:

Some psychologists believe that *cognitive maps* are, in fact, *mind maps.* Mind maps are based on *content analysis* (analysis of idea/s). Mind maps essentially *facilitate understanding* which is based on curricular elements (content), (i) What are the curricular elements in English? (ii) How can learners apply the concepts to

learning the subject? (iii) How can a teacher develop an understanding of the curricular elements in the learners? These are some of the basic questions which we are going to discuss in the following paragraphs.

The curricular elements in the English Language are generally as follows :

(i) Pronunciation (Sounds)

(ii) Lexical Items

(iii) Structural items

(iv) Reading texts

(v) Composition (oral and written)

(vi) Grammar (Formal)

(vii) Comprehension (through listening and reading)

(viii) Expression/Communication (spoken and written)

4.7 Steps for Concept Mapping :

The general steps for concept mapping are as follows :

(i) Analyse the content to be taught.

(ii) Find out a concept in each curricular element/area.

(iii) Sequence them (in terms of difficulty level, abstract and concrete abstract, i.e. concept from the abstract world and from the physical world?

(iv) Prepare a flow diagram/chart.

(v) Establish relationships / a hierarchy (That is usually like a map)

(vi) Prepare a concept map keeping in view the 'objectives' of the subject (why to teach?) and 'the content' of the subject (what to teacher?)

(vii) Try not to select topics without a strong rationale.

4.8 Stages of Preparing Concept Mapping :

The following are the general stages of curricular transaction:

(i) Rationale (Why to teach the subject?)

(ii) Objective (Why to teach the curricular element)

(iii) Content (What to teach?)

(iv) Mode (How to teach?)

(v) Evaluation (Application)

Cognitive maps should essentially show the above mentioned things.

4.9   Examples of Concept Maps

Let us first take an example from a structure

(i)   **A concept map of a structure (too...to)**

The tea is too hot to drink.

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                              Subject                              Predicate

              The        tea              is      too      hot      to drink

         Determiner     Noun            Verb    Adverb   Adjective   'to' infinitive


              Form    ←───────────────────→    Meaning

Affirmative form 'too.... to'                  Negative meaning
                                               1. You cannot drink it.
                                                  (because it is very hot.)
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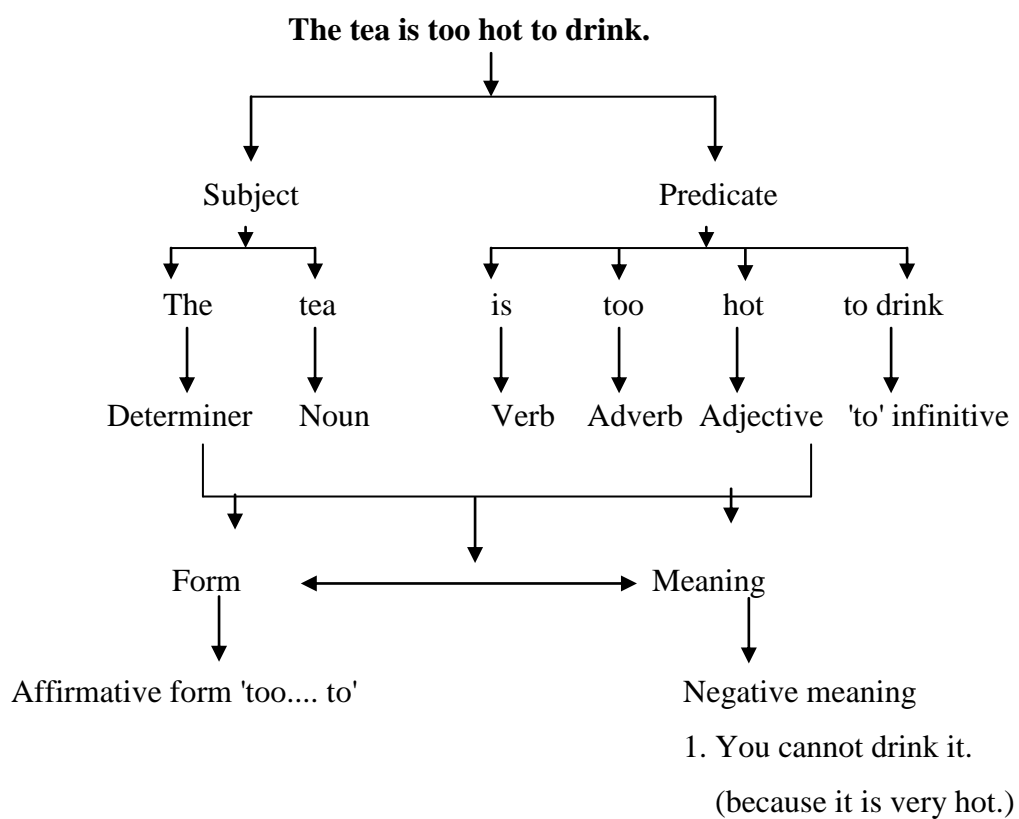
A concept map of a word (Crisp)

Crisp

Sound/Pronunciation ⟷ Sense ⟷ Form

1. Stress

2. Intonation

Noun ⟶ Verb ⟶ Adverb ↘ Adj.

(Crispiness)   Crisp   Crisply

Potato crisp

Crisp
Crisper
Crispest
Crisp

bread

1.   (of food) pleasantly hard and dry
2.   (of fruits and vegetables) firm and fresh
3.   (of paper) fresh and clean
4.   (of air and weather) pleasantly dry and cold
5.   (of snow, leaves) firm, dry making a pleasant noise
6.   (of sound) pleasantly clear and sharp
7.   (of person's way of speaking) quick and confident.

4.10 Emergence of New Approaches and Methods of Teaching English

With this insight into cognitive mode and consciousness about its necessity and importance in learning and teaching languages you should be in a better position to understand the bases of the emergence of new approaches and methods to teach English as a second language.

In fact the dramatic changes that took place in the fields of psychology, linguistics, sociology and pedagogy (art and science of teaching) have had deeper implications for and impact on it.

Obviously, if you want to understand the real meaning of Structural Approach you have to view it in the perspective of the principles of behaviorist school of psychology. Behaviorism considered language learning and teaching as something mechanical, (not mental) a sort of habit formation and therefore emphasized the role

of repetition, drill, imitation, memorisation, learning and manipulation, pattern practice, etc. The approach, of course, was an improvement over Direct Method in the sense that it provided structural syllabus, selected and graded language material, what to teach and contents to the curriculum, a base necessity because how to teach follows it. Direct Method did not work because it did not say anything about the content i.e. what to teach.

Nevertheless as the behavioural school of psychology dominated the scene and the voice of structural linguist prevailed, it seemed Structural Approach was the last word, a panacea for all diseases.

However, the latest researches in various disciplines caused traumatic changes, revolutionary changes in the teaching and learning in general and those of languages and English as a second language in particular. The new trends in psychology caused a stir by restoring understanding. It emphasized the role of cognition, mental activity in learning. Language learning, therefore, was considered something mental and not mechanical as the behaviorists thought it was.

Morever, the role of genuine communication has been emphasized. Obviously the learner has to use language in view of the situation, the occasion, the person talking to etc. which means he has to select appropriate occasions to suit his purpose. In fact, it is the context which explains the real meaning. Language used therefore has to be appropriate, authentic and life like. Therefore although accuracy is important it is fluency and appropriacy which are more important. Furthermore, as the language learning is recreating, the learner is to be given freedom to construct reality to make a cognitive map, generalize and develop both linguistic as well as communicative competence on the basis of which he can by plentiful exposure and practice acquire the four fundamental language skills.

Although the selection and grading of material did make teaching systematic it remitted in a sort of prescription, imposition, tight control rendering teaching teacher dominated and language had to adjust to teaching. No freedom was given to the learner to learn by cognitive mapping in the light of the purpose he had in mind.

Morever, although advocates of Structural Approach considered speech primary, the selection and grading of the material was done on the basis of the written corpus available in books, etc. It was not based on speech acts and was not authentic and life like. Furthermore, meaning was not emphasized. The learner uses structures

to communicate some idea, notion. Grammar in itself has no meaning: it's a means to serve the purpose of social interaction.

Above all the avoidance of errors in any form, exposure to only that which is correct did not enable the learner to discriminate and generalize the concept. As a matter of fact, errors are at times natural and they are helpful and inevitable in developing a concept. The learner in fact has to see the relations, connect certain elements, form an idea, and generalize by putting common elements together and by discriminating others. Henry Sweet has rightly said that grammar and language are concerned not with form and meaning but with the connection between them. "In fact, grammar and the lexicon are an end in itself, it's simply a tool for performance of the communicative functions, which are what really matter."

4.11 The Eclectic Approach to the Teaching of English

In the existing situation we cannot afford to do away with the Structural Approach in entirety. After all, manipulation, contrivance is useful devices and repetition consolidation, drills, etc are not altogether wasteful. We should, therefore, like to be selective, pragmatic and eclectic, tailor our strengths to suit our needs, follow the golden rule of a happy combination of Structural and Communicative Approaches.

As a matter of fact as methodologists like to point out, a new fashion in language learning never entirely replaces the methods that preceded it, rather it co-exists with earlier methods and may modify them in such a way as to improve upon them.

Nevertheless, learning has to be meaningful and purposeful. Obviously mechanical repetition, learning parrot-like drills are not of much use. They in fact are wasteful and should be avoided. The grammatical points and lexical items listed in the structural syllabus could be made use of in the order they are given.

Nevertheless we should not lose the wood for the trees and establish proper linkage of the elements with the whole and ensure that the learner has got it. This is actually helpful for easy understanding and longer retention and suitable for transfer of learning to other concepts and life situations. Contrived situations should be supplemented by genuine communication activities. The learner should be given freedom to recreate and frame his own sentences to use them in the context visualized

by him, make cognitive maps by using the rules and relating them to form the concepts.

4.12 Teaching of vocabulary, grammar in terms of four fundamental language skills in English

Although the points explained above should help you considerably to understand the implications of ' cognitive mapping ' for teaching and learning languages and English as a second language, it should be worthwhile to understand them in relation to the classroom teaching of grammar, lexical items, comprehension and composition in term of the four fundamental language skills.

The teaching of grammar as you all know is to be made notional and functional. Therefore, we may take up the teaching point in view of the existing pattern of Structural Approach. We must ensure that the learner gets the idea of concepts as a whole i.e. tenses, the passive, the degree of comparison, relative pronouns, if clauses, reported speech, etc.

To present the teaching point, meaningful situations are to be created on the basis of what the learner already knows i.e. his previous knowledge which besides making the context of situation purposeful would enable the teacher to revise and consolidate the material already learnt by way of the spiral approach and establish proper connections between the elements.

In the second phase of the lesson which is meant for further reinforcement, the teacher should highlight the language elements involved in the teaching point by use of coloured chalk or a pointer or underlining the elements. This should enable the learner to generalize and get the rule to generate more such sentences. In the third phase, of course, the creative aspect of the language and communicative competence have to be focussed upon and obviously some communicative activity is to be added for genuine (authentic) communicative value in the context of social interaction. The teacher, nonetheless, has to make sure that the learner develops linguistic competence as well as communicative competence by generalizing the rules of the language and the rules of using it. And on the bases of these acquire the language skills.

For teaching vocabulary, suitable context has to be provided in order to enable the learner to understand the meaning of the item, generalize and discriminate, see the

physiological and phonological variations and understand the grammatical categories and shade of meaning by using the item in a particular context.

In teaching reading comprehension, the teacher should make use of suitable text, at least something unfamiliar to the reader. He should focus the learner's attention on the structure and words used in the text, the role of pronouns, the articles, prepositions, proper nouns and cohesive marks which help in establishing proper linkage and sequence. The teacher by asking questions can enable the reader to understand the grammatical and lexical meaning, total meaning, implied meaning, can infer and understand the ideas, facts etc. mentioned in the text. The questions of course could be so framed that they gradually lead on to the different difficulty levels of comprehension.

The text of the course book is not really meant for reading. It is structured for teaching purposes. Therefore, it is advisable to use an authentic text to develop the skill of genuine comprehension by using the passages from the newspapers, magazines etc. Normal conversational speeds, proper eye span, sense group, have to be focused upon. The teacher has to ensure that while the learner reads he does not move lips and/or fingers, (does not vocalize) because this hampers speed and distracts attention from the meaning.

So far as teaching of composition is concerned appropriate techniques and device should be used in view of the language material involved in connected writing. Initially composition work in a second language situation has to be guided and controlled and integrated. But it could be gradually relaxed in view of the spirit of communicative approach. The tight control has to be relaxed and composition work made semi-free or free to enable the student to recreate and use them for expression. Obviously it should be made situational for fluency and creative use of the language for genuine communicative value.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   A concept map is a concrete graphic illustration.

(ii)   Concept maps do not show hierarchical relationships.

(iii)   Concept maps essentially deal with content to be taught.

(iv)   Sequencing is not one of the major steps in concept mapping.

(v)   Learners may be enabled to form concepts through structuring of teaching.

4.13   Let's Sum up

By now you must have been able to understand that languages are sequential and they have an inherent system of using elements in a particular order, connecting links which contribute to forming concepts. Languages, as you know, differ in the phonological (speech) and orthographical (writing) components forming different cognitive maps.

Obviously languages are rule governed or rule-referenced. In language teaching, therefore the teacher has to enable the learner to develop linguistic competence by assimilating and internalizing the rules of language and also communicative competence to generalize the rules of using the language in appropriate contexts of situations and acquire language skills on the bases of their competencies.

The tilt, therefore, has to be on structuring the teaching in such a way that the learner is enabled to form concepts through building cognitive maps and give him freedom to recreate and do it himself. The tight control obliviously has to be relaxed and teaching is to adjust learning and made 'student oriented' focusing attention on self learning, recreating and using language appropriate enough to serve the purpose of the community, his ideas in an interactive way.

4.14   Exercises

1.   What is meant by cognitive maps of concepts and elements?
2.   What are the implications of cognitive maps for the teaching of languages?
3.   How is concept mapping helpful in teaching English? Prepare a concept map on a structural item and a lexical item.
4.   Which do you understand by Communicative Approach in the light of 'cognitive mode' of learning languages?
5.   How is 'Communication Approach' an improvement over Structural Approach?
6.   What are the implications of 'Communicative Approach' and 'Cognitive Maps' for the teaching of vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing in English as a second language?

7.	What is meant by eclectic approach?

	Why should the English teacher be highly selective, pragmatic and eclectic?

## 4.15	Further Reading :

(i)	Kane, Marry and Trochim, W.M.K. (2007) Concept Mapping for Planning and Evaluation. New Delhi : Sage Publications

(ii)	Krippendorf, K. (2004). Content Analysis: An Introduction to Its Methodology (2nd edition). Newbury Park, A : Sage Publications.

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Unit 5

Teaching Approaches and Methods in English

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5.0   Objectives

This unit aims at giving you information on and about the major methods in and approaches to English language teaching. The unit also provides a critical analysis of each of the approach, method and technique in term of linguistics, psycholinguistics, methodology and second language pedagogy. An attempt has also been made here to help you develop an insight into the major critical issues in ELT in the present context with a special focus on eclecticism.

5.1   Introduction

All the curricular subjects (disciplines) may be broadly divided into two major categories: (i) content subjects, and (e) skill subjects. The content subjects are those which essentially provide us with information, facts, data, knowledge, cognition, etc. Physics, chemistry, history, civics, book keeping, mathematics, etc. are some of the examples of the content subjects. Contrary to them are skill subjects such as music, drawing and painting, dancing, playing, swimming, etc. Language is also a skill subject and is practically under psychomotor domain, not under cognitive domain. Therefore, the methodology of teaching a content subject

naturally differs vastly from that of the language teaching methodology. In addition to it, we have separate methodologies for teaching the first language (mother tongue), a second language, a foreign language, or the other tongue, etc. The content based methodology and subject-specific skills are also crucial issues in this contest. This unit specifically discusses the methodology of teaching English as a second language (TESL) as well as content based methodology in terms of basic language skills.

5.2   The basic concepts of approach, method, and technique

Before discussing the methodology of English Language Teaching (ELT), let us be clear about the three terms which are often used in the context of language teaching which are approaches, methods and techniques.

An 'approach' is based on certain theoretical principles. A 'method' is a set of procedures or a collection of techniques used in a systematic way which it is hoped will result in efficient learning. A 'technique' then is the narrowest term, meaning one single procedure. A method will consist of a number of techniques probably arranged in a specific order. The word 'approach' is much more general and the implication that whatever method or techniques the teacher uses, he does not feel bound by these, but only by the theory in which he believes; if he can find new and better methods or techniques which will fit in with his approach, then he will adopt these. (Peter Hubbard, et. al., 1983 : 30-31).

A method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic and a method is procedural. Within one method, there may be many techniques. Within one approach, there may be many methods.

A technique is implementational that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, stratagem (plan) or contrivance device used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method and therefore in harmony with an approach as well. (J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers (1986), page15)

This whole idea can be shown through a flow chart which indicates that different approaches may share the same techniques and even the same methods; and different methods may share the same techniques.

Approach

```
                    Approach
                   /        \
          Method 1            Method 2
       etc./  |  \  \          /  |  \  \
Technique, (T1)  (T2) (T3) (T4)   T1  T2  T3  T4
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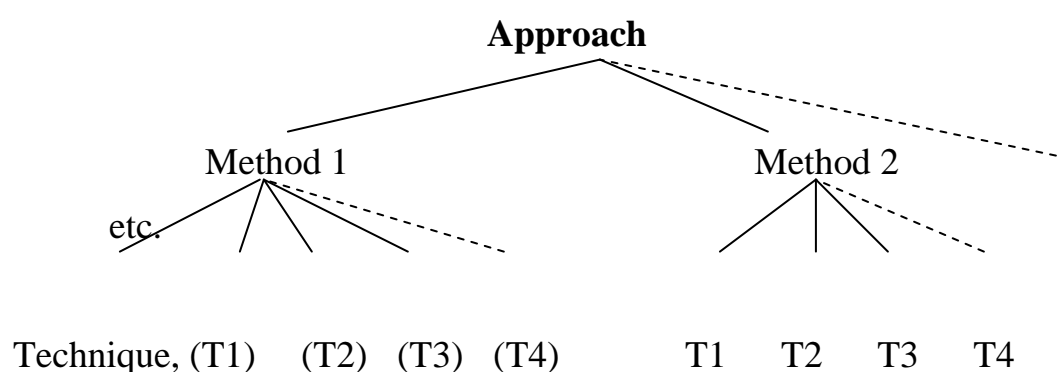
Let us now discuss some of the major language teaching methods and approaches.

5.3.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

This is an old method of teaching a language. According to this method language teaching is "grammar recitation and dictionary thumbing. The students define the parts of speech; memorize conjugations, declensions, paradigms, and grammar rules; and translate selections, using a bilingual dictionary or glossary" (Robert Lado, 1971 : 4).

This method simply consists of the activities of grammar and translation. The grammar is an outline of formal grammar. Students are given lists of lexical items together with their translation equivalents in the mother-tongue (L). The vocabulary depends on the text selected.

Students are asked to memorize all these grammatical rules of (facts about) the language and they are often tested on their knowledge by being asked to recite the paradigms or give the translation of words or they are asked to 'parse' words. Next the students are made to put their knowledge to use by translating sentences or texts from mother-tongue to foreign language or vice-versa.

The Grammar-Translation Method has many serious disadvantages. According to Peter Hubbard et al some of the obvious ones are as follows:

1. The grammatical analysis is very neat and satisfactory for the grammarians who have devised it, but it often makes facts about the language very confusing to the students.

2. The method puts a tremendous strain on student's memories.

3. Word-to-word translations are often unsatisfactory.

4. The students have to learn a lot of grammatical terms. In fact, they have to learn a new language for talking about language (Peter Hubbard et al, 1983: pages 33-34).

W.F. Mackey has also criticized the method by saying that "Vocabulary is divided into lists of words to be memorized; but there is little relationship between the vocabularies of successive lessons. Pronunciation either is not taught or is limited to a few introductory notes" (W.F. Mackey, 1965: 153).

Even from the psychological point of view, the method is defective. The students who devote years to the study of a foreign language are in most cases unable to use it. They develop distaste for the language and an inferiority complex about language learning in general.

Discussing the features and drawbacks of this method Robert Lado observes, "The ability to talk about the grammar of a language, to recite its rules, is also very different from the ability to speak and understand a language or to read and write it. Often those who can use a language are unable to recite its rules and those who can recite its rules may be unable to use it. (Robert Lado, 1971: 4).

He further adds, "Translation can be defended as a valuable skill in itself, but not as a substitute for practicing the language without recourse

to translation, and the description of the grammar of a language has its value to the linguist and to the students but not as a substitute for language use".

Criticizing the Grammar Translation Method J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers write"... though it may be true to say that Grammar Translation method is still widely practiced, it has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or (that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory") (1986: 5).

5.3.2. The Direct Method

It is generally pointed out that the ' direct method' was developed as a reaction to the grammar translation method. The simplest idea behind the direct method was that we learn languages by hearing them spoken and engaging in conversion: reading and writing can be developed later. The main principle of the direct method was to immerse students in the target language.

The direct method is also known as New Method, Reform Method, Natural Method, and Oral Method. This method puts emphasis on language learning by direct contact with the target (foreign) language in meaningful situations. It de-emphasizes or eliminates translation and memorization of conjugations, declensions, and rules. It favours the introduction of phonetics and phonetic transcription.

In fact, the direct method was a movement led by great linguists such as Vietor, Jesperson, Palmer, and others. According to Robert Lado the central idea of the direct method is, "the association of words and sentences with their meaning through demonstration, pointing, etc." He further adds, "The direct method assumed that learning a foreign language is the same as learning the mother-tongue, that is, that exposing

the student directly to the foreign language impresses it perfectly upon his mind." (1971: 5).

According to W.F. Mackey, the main characteristics of the method are as follows:

1. The direct method emphasizes the use of everyday vocabulary and structure.

2. Grammar is taught by situation.

3. Using many new items in the same lesson to make the language sound natural and to encourage normal conversation.

4. Emphasis on the oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.

5. Concrete meanings are taught through object lessons; abstract ones through the association of ideas.

6. Grammar is illustrated through visual presentation.

7. Stress on extensive listening and imitation until forms become automatic.

8. Most of the work is done in class.

9. The first few weeks are devoted to pronunciation.

10. All reading matter is first presented orally (1965: 151-152).

Limitations of the direct method:

In spite of its wide use and application, the direct method has been severely criticized in many ways.

1. This method requires teachers who are native speakers or who have native like fluency in the Foreign Language (FL).

2. It is largely dependent on the teacher's skill, rather than on a text-book, and not all teachers are proficient enough in the FL to adhere to the principles of the method.

3. In frustration a teacher performs verbal gymnastics in an attempt to convey word-meanings. (Translation can help sometimes).

4. The goal of trying to teach conversation skills is considered impractical in view of the restricted time available for FL teaching in schools.

5. A lot of teaching aids are required for teaching the FL/TL through this method.

6. Focus is on listening and speaking. Reading and writing skills are largely ignored.

Critics of the method believe that it lays undue emphasis on listening and speaking and does not take into account the utility of reading and writing. The direct method does not aim at teaching grammar in a clear cut and systematic way. The teacher who is well-equipped with a lot of audio-visual aids can teach English through it without aids it is rather difficult to make use of the method.

Notwithstanding all these drawbacks and niggling criticism, we must accept the fact that the Direct Method is far better and definitely superior to the Grammar-Translation Method. This is possibly one of the reasons why some linguists and pedagogues call the Direct Method an improvement on the Grammar Translation Method.

5.3.3. The Structural-Situational Approach

According to Peter Hubbard et.al, "The 'situational approach' combined with the 'structural approach' may be regarded as the 'structural-situational approach'.

They discuss the philosophy of the approach in the following words:

"This method is widely used at the time of writing, and a very larger number of textbooks are based on it. But it also has important links with the audio-lingual method, especially as far as the way the language to be taught is organized (The 'structural ingredient'). New language is

presented in the form of model patterns or dialogues. Much use, too, is made of repetition and analogous pattern drilling."

However, great care is always taken to present and practise language 'within a situation'... The purpose of the 'situational ingredient' is to ensure a meaningful context for language practice (Another word for this is 'contextualization'). In other words it aims to avoid meaningless and mechanical practice" (Peter Hubbard, et al., 1983: 36).

Since we have stated above that the structural-situational method is a combination of both the structural approach and the situational method, it would be a good idea to briefly mention their main points which would clear the concept of the Structural-Situational Approach in a better way.

5.3.3.1. The Structural Approach

Pedagogically speaking, the Structural Approach (SA) stresses the importance of structures which are carefully selected and graded. Structural grading consists of arranging the structural items or patterns into a suitable order. In this approach the basis of teaching is structures and patterns of English. The selected and graded structures are presented in a text book and taught through classroom situations, actions, gestures, pictures, blackboard drawings, etc. The teacher is expected to give choral, group and individual oral drills based on certain structural patterns in order to reinforce and consolidate the language items taught.

The SA has certain inherent weaknesses; for instance, it is more concerned with the selection and gradation of language items to be taught than with the presentation of the same in the classroom. It just helps in course-designing. The drills presented through this approach are not only generally meaningless but also lawfully boring and mechanical. Conclusively speaking, the SA develops learner's structural competence

to some extent but fails miserably in developing their communicative competence.

5.3.3.2. The Situational Approach

This approach basically aims at teaching the target language in line with the methodology of teaching the mother-tongue. It advocates the view that the target language should be learnt the way the mother-tongue is acquired by the children. The teacher who teaches through this approach just introduces new words incidentally in the class and offers a lot of opportunities to the learners to associate the meaning of new words with corresponding situations. A number of questions are asked by the teacher. Here, constant repetition is emphasized. Meaningful classroom situations are created for presenting the language material through appropriate contexts.

Conclusion:

The amalgamation of both the approaches results in the structural-situational approach which adopts their merits and eliminates their demerits for methodological and pedagogical purposes.

Noam Chomsky's views on the Structural Approach are as follows :

1. Chomsky rejects the Structural Approach to language learning. "Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy. (1966: "Linguistic Theory" page 153).

2. Sentences are not learnt by imitation and repetition but "generated" from the learner's underlying "competence".

3. Chomsky's theory of transformational grammar proposed that the fundamental properties of language derive from innate aspects of

the mind (LAD : Language Acquisition Device) and from how humans process experience through language.

4.   Chomsky suggested an alternative to the behavioural theory.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   An approach is philosophical in nature.

(ii)   A method is not a set of procedures to be used systematically.

(iii)   The Grammar Translation Method stresses the memorisation of rules.

(iv)   The Direct Method rejects the use of the mother tongue in learning a second/foreign language.

(v)   The Structural Approach does not tell us what to teach.

5.3.4. The Bilingual Method

This method was propounded by Prof. C.J. Dodson. According to the Bilingual Method, the mother-tongue of the children is judiciously used for *conceptual translation* of new words without creating new classroom situations. Further, phrases, idioms, sentences and grammatical points and rules are explained through the mother-tongue. The target language is taught in accordance with the linguistic habits already formed in the learners while acquiring the mother tongue etc.

Researches have proved that the students taught through the Bilingual Method are more-fluent in speaking English than the students taught through the Direct Method or the Translation Method. The Bilingual Method suits an average teacher. It needs a little equipment and is suited to all types of schools, rural and urban. Hence, it is less costly.

There are certain disadvantages associated with this method. They are as follows:

1. Since many teachers are not well-versed in the features of the students' mother-tongue and the foreign language, they may create a muddle.

2. A contrast between the features of the two languages, viz., English and the mother-tongue, may confuse the students to a great extent.

3. The Bilingual Method is not suitable at higher secondary stage.

4. There is always a strong possibility of reducing the teaching to mechanical translation exercise in the classroom. If the teacher fails in handling the Bilingual Method properly he may degenerate it into the Translation Method.

Despite all these drawbacks, one may not say that the Bilingual Method is just another attempt for the backdoor entry of the Grammar Translation Method.

5.3.5 The Communicative Approach

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is a very exciting development in the field of language teaching. In the recent past, language teaching seems to have shifted the emphasis away from 'accuracy' to 'fluency' and from 'structural competence' to 'communicative competence'. (Brumfit, C.J.). Since it the latest and obviously the most popular and widely used approach, we are going to discuss it here in greater detail.

K. Johnson and K. Morrow define the CLT as one which "recognizes the teaching of 'Communicative Competence' as its aim. It is on this level of aim that such a language teaching distinguishes from traditional approaches where the emphasis is on teaching structural competence" (1981: 10).

According to D.L. Freeman in CLT, "almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent, students use the language a

great deal through communicative activities such as games, role plays, and problem solving tasks" (D.L. Freeman, 1986, page 132).

T.W. Littlewood discusses the aims of CLT and writes, "the CLT pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view." He further adds that the CLT, "encourages us to go beyond structures and take account of other aspects of communication. It can therefore help us to match the content more closely with the actual communicative uses that the learners will have to make of the foreign language." (1981: i).

William Littlewood is of the opinion that the CLT, "makes us more strongly aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time." (1981: x-xi).

5.3.5.1 CLT Principles

The CLT principles discussed by D.L. Freeman (1986) are as follows:

1. Whenever possible, 'authentic language' as it is used in real context should be introduced.

2. Being able to figure out the speaker's or writer's intention is part of being communicatively competent.

3. The target language is a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of study.

4. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.

5. Students work with language at the discourse or superasentential (above sentence) level. They must learn about cohesion and

coherence, those properties of language which bind the sentences together.

6. Games are important because they have certain features in common. In real communicative events there is a purpose of the exchange...

7. Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills.

8. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.

9. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterance.

10. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow the function, situational context, and the roles of the interlocutors..." (1986: 129-130).

5.3.5.2. The CLT Procedure

Hubbard et. al. explain the CLT procedure in the following words:

1. The teacher sets up a communicative activity which demands ability to express the function(s) to be taught. At this stage, the teacher does not supply the language forms which the students require for expression of this function. Instead, the students have to cope with whatever language resources they have available. In performing this task they will inevitably produce errors, mistakes and much inappropriate language.

2. The teacher introduces the required language form(s) and does sufficient drilling to achieve a reasonable degree of fluency. Since a model interaction might be the best way to introduce these forms, a suitable way to do this would be to play a taped dialogue illustrating use of the forms and functions to be presented.

3.   The teacher gives students a fresh communication task so as to provide them with an opportunity and motivate to use the language forms they have learnt. If serious errors occur, the teacher goes back to the drilling stage again" (1983: 252-253).

5.3.5.3 The Role of the Mother-Tongue in CLT

It is noteworthy that CLT is not averse to the use of mother tongue in teaching. D.L. Freeman who is regarded as one of the exponents of CLT spells out the role of the mother-tongue of students and writes that the first language, that is, mother-tongue, "should be used not only during communicative activities, but also, for example, in explaining the activities to the students or in assigning homework. The students learn from these classroom management exchanges, too, and realize that the target language is a vehicle for communication, not just an object to be studied" (1986: 135).

5.3.5.4. Communicative Activities

Communicative activities are very much a part of CLT and are always purposeful and objective-based. The following are the two types of communicative activities:

(A)   Pre-Communicative Activities

According to William Littlewood, pre-communicative activities aim at equipping the learner with some of the skills required for communication, without actually requiring him to perform communicative acts. The criterion for success is therefore not so much whether he has managed to convey an intended meaning, but whether he has produced an acceptable-piece of language (1981: 89).

(B)   Communicative Activities

In these activities language functions are emphasized over forms. Typically, although not always, a functional syllabus is used. To William Littlewood, "a variety of forms are introduced for each function. Only the simple forms would be presented at first, but as students get more proficient in the target language, the functions are reinforced and more complex forms are learned... students work with language at the 'superasentential' or discourse-level... They learn about cohesion and coherence... students work on all four skills form the beginning" (Freeman, 1986: 135).

These activities can be divided into two categories: first 'Non-Communicative Activities'; the other 'Communicative Activities.' The following table makes the difference clear between them.

Activities

S. No.	Non-Communicative Activities	S. No.	Communicative Activities
1	They have no communicative purpose.	1	They have a communicative purpose.
2	Students have no desire to communicate.	2	They have a desire to communicate.
3	Language form is stressed, not content.	3	Content is emphasized, not form.
4	One language item is presented at a time.	4	A variety of language items are presented.
5	There is a lot of teacher-intervention.	5	There is no teacher-intervention.
6	Materials are controlled.	6	There is no material control.

5.3.5.4. Role Play and Simulations in CLT

Gill Sturtridge writes, " Among classroom activities role-play and simulation rate highly suitable vehicles to use in a communicative approach to language teaching. Used well, they can reduce the artificiality of the classroom, provide a reason for talking and allow the learner to talk meaningfully to other learners" (K. Johnson and K. Morrow, 1981: 77).

In a role-play, learners are expected to play certain roles in certain situations. The learner performs the role according to the available situation. While in a simulation the learner is given a task to perform or a problem to solve; the background information and the environment of the problem is simulated. Simply speaking, in a simulated situation, a learner pretends to do something as if he is doing it in a real sense. Children tend to enjoy simulations very much.

5.3.5.6 Teacher's Role in CLT

Several roles are assumed for teacher in Communication Language Teaching. M. Breen and C.N. Candlin describe teacher's role in the following terms, "The teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts. The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning teaching group... A third role for the teacher is that of researcher and learner" (1980: 99).

The other roles assumed for teacher are 'needs analyst', 'counsellor' and 'group-process-manager.' According to William Littlewood, a teacher is a 'facilitator of learning' and he may need to perform in a variety of specific roles, separately or simultaneously. These include the roles as (1) general overseer, (2) classroom manager, (3) language instructor, and co-communicator.

5.3.5.7. Learner's Role

Breen and Candlin describe the learner's role within CLT in the following terms:

"The role of learners as negotiator-between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way" (1980: 110).

5.3.5.8 Testing

In D.L. Freeman's view, in the communicative language testing, "a teacher evaluates not only his (student's) accuracy, but also his fluency. The student who has the most control of structure and vocabulary is not

always the best communicator. A teacher can informally evaluate his students' performance in his role as an advisor or co-communicator. For more formal evaluation, a teacher is likely to use a communicative test... This is an interactive test which has real communicative function" (1986: 135).

K. Morrow (1979) also touches upon the issue of communicative testing and expresses the opinion that, "the concept of 'pass: fail' loses much of its force; every candidate can be assessed in terms of what he can do. Of course, some will be able to do more than other; and it may be decided for administrative reasons that a certain level of proficiency is necessary for the awarding of a particular certificate" (Brumfit and Johnson, 1979: 155).

5.3.5.9. Conclusion

CLT is best considered an approach rather than a method. It pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view. The CLT aims at developing learner's communicative competence and bridging the gap between linguistic and communicative competence. To put it in a nut-shell, CLT is a learner-centred approach.

The off-shoots of CLT are the Task Based Approach, Notional Functional Approach, Content-Based Instruction (CBI) Lexical Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Text-based Approach, etc. which have been discussed in the unit No. XIII

Diane Larsen-Freeman rightly observes, "Perhaps the greatest contribution of CLT is asking teachers to look closely at what is involved in communication. If teachers intend students to use the target language, then they must truly understand all that being communicative competence

entails" (Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching" second edition, 2000, O.U.P., page 135).

The CLT has also come under some constructive criticism. J.C. Richards and T.S. Rodgers discuss the criticism in the following terms:

"Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a language programme, whether it is equally suited to ESL and EFL situations, whether it requires existing grammar based syllabuses to be abandoned or merely revised, how such an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for non-native teachers, and how it can be adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based tests. These kinds of questions will doubtless require attention if the communicative movement in language teaching continues to gain momentum in the future" (1986: 83).

5.3.6. The Eclectic Approach

- It's an approach, not a method.
- It adopts any techniques or procedure, so long as it can be shown that it results in successful learning.
- Teachers do not follow any single method, but rather they use a selection of techniques.
- It's much more flexible and can easily be adapted to suit a wide variety of teaching situations.
- A teacher who approaches TEFL eclectically is less likely to become fixed in one single method and more likely to keep an eye open for new techniques and approaches.
- The teacher adopts the methods which are successful and work in the class room.
- 'Eclectic' is a convenient term, but it is also vague. If we condemn blind chasing after methods, we should also condemn the blind

adoption of techniques. [Hubbard, Peter et al (1983) pages 37-38, 327]

6.1. Four Distinguishable Concepts About Eclecticism:

According to Prof. N.S. Prabhu,

(1)   Eclecticism is a matter of operating with a combination of perceptions or procedures which, though all different and some perhaps arguably inconsistent with others, have nevertheless found a satisfying balance in the mind of an individual (Teacher's mental mix is eclectic).

(2)   Eclecticism is an exercise of worldly wisdom − a search for the safest course in the midst of many risks.

(3)   Eclecticism is a desirable principle of life. It is a refusal to see things in terms of irreconcilable alternatives and a belief that, where there are alternative courses of action available the right course must be somewhere between the two.

(4)   Eclecticism is the development of a new perception which enables one to see earlier perception in a new light or a new relationship, thus resolving what was earlier seen as a conflict. ("Second Language Pedagogy" 1987, Page 108)

5.4. Content Based Methodology with Specific Illustrations and Subject-Specific (ELT) skills

As we have already discussed that language is a skill subject, not a content subject like Physics, Maths, History, etc. However, it may be mentioned here that every language has language - content which is largely as follows:

(A)   Language - content:

        1. Lexical items

2. Structural items

3. Grammatical items

4. Phonological items

(B)   Skills:

1. Receptive skills:

(A) Listening

(B) Reading

2. Productive skills:

(A) Speaking

(B) Writing

It may be pointed out that it is only through language skills that language content is 'received' and 'produced'. Therefore, the methodology of language teaching takes into account both the language-content and language-skills. Language teaching programmes generally focus these two vital issues and orientate teachers accordingly.

Teaching of lexical items is one of the core issues. A teacher of English is expected to teach 'sound, sense and shape' of words. They may use appropriate audio-visual aids for this purpose.

Structural items may be taught by way of creating life-like situations with the help of suitable audio-visual aids, exercises, pattern-practice drills, communicative, contextualized, meaningful tasks, etc.

As listening and speaking go together in real life situations they may be taught/developed through classroom contexts and authentic textual materials supported by appropriate and adequate audio-visual aids.

Reading and writing are literacy skills and obviously are related to graphics. Both general and specific reading skills may be developed by providing the class with authentic textual/reading materials. Writing skills may be developed by way of contextual and meaningful tasks.

Poetry is also one of the things one could find in a language course especially at the secondary stage. Rather than talking about the poet and the poem, teachers would do well to teach the poems itself with a view to developing in the students aesthetic sense and the ability to appreciate the beauty of language and thoughts involved in the poem. Teachers may make use of appreciate audio-visual aids as well as choral, group and individual recitation.

It may be mentioned here that instead of sticking to a particular method of teaching English as a second language, teachers should adopt an eclectic approach for more pragmatic and meaningful teaching-learning situations in a formal setting like the classroom.

5.5 Let's sum up:

You have read through the unit. We believe you have largely developed an understanding regarding the methodology of language teaching, especially English language teaching in a second language context like India. The issues of content- based methodology and subject-specific skills have also been discussed. As space does not allow a detailed discussion on all this it is suggested that you read more-literature on ELT and thereby enhance your knowledge and skill both by way of the theoretical orientation and practical experiences. The ultimate purpose is to learn how to translate theory into practice and construct knowledge based on skills and vice versa.

The major innovations in the field of Language methodology have been discussed in the Unit on 'Innovations'.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i) The Bilingual Method advocates the use of concept - translation, not literal translation.

(ii) The Communicative Approach aims at developing communicative competence in the learners for social interaction.

(iii) There is no role for the mother-tongue in the communicative language teaching.

(iv) Communicative activities are goal-oriented.

(v) The teacher need not be eclectic to teach both content and skills.

5.6 Exercises

(i) Take up a piece of text from the prescribed textbook for your class and teach the language content involved in it through each of the approaches, methods and techniques discussed in this unit. Thereafter, write a critical report on your experiences in the classroom. Discuss the vital issues with your mentor/supervisor.
The detailed description of each of element of language content discussed above is given in separate chapters.

(ii) Make a list of the activities/tasks based on the ELT methodology you would like to use in your classroom. Discuss why and how you would like to make use of them.

(iii) Write a brief note with suitable examples on each of the following issues:
(a) Teaching of lexical and structural items
(b) Teaching of receptive and productive skills

5.7 Further Reading:

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Unit - 6

Innovations in the Teaching of English with Futurist Vision

Structure of the unit:

6.0   Objectives

6.1   Introduction

6.2   About Innovations:

   6.2.1 Conceptualizing Innovations

   6.2.2 Types, Sources of Innovations, Goals   of Innovations

6.3.3   Innovations in ELT

   6.3.1 Major Areas of Innovations in ELT

   6.3.2   Major Innovations

6.4 Futuristic Vision

6.5 Let's sum up

6.6 Exercises

6.7 Further reading

6.1   Objectives

In this Unit you will have an idea about the concept, types, sources and goals of innovations in general and English Language Teaching in particular. An attempt has also been made here to acquaint you with the future trends of innovations in ELT.

6.2   Introduction

Thanks to internal and external motivation, man has always been on the way to exploring knowledge and enhancing required skills. His insatiable thirst for knowledge has been instrumental in constructing new knowledge and building new skills. This process still continues and the product of it is innovation. In fact, innovations happen in all areas of life. Arguably, ELT is not untouched with this phenomenon: rather, it has been at the forefront.

6.2:   About innovations

6.2.1 Conceptualizing innovations

The classic definitions of 'innovation' are as follows:

(1)   "The introduction of new things, ideas or ways of doing something." (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2000)

(2)   "a new idea, method, or invention,"(Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2004),

(3)   "the act of introducing something new: something newly introduced" (The American Heritage Dictionary)

(4)   "the successful exploitation of new ideas" (Dept. of Trade and Industry, U K)

(5)   change that creates a new dimension of performance.

Innovation has been studied in a variety of contexts. **Change** and **Creativity** are also words which may be substituted for innovation. Much

of the current literature on business blurs the concept of innovation with value creation, value extraction and operational execution. When an insight or a creative idea is put into action which makes a genuine difference that is also innovation.

6.2.2 Types, sources and goals of innovation

Scholars have identified numerous types of innovations in general. However, innovations in ELT may be categorized as follows:

(i)   Process innovation

(ii)   Product innovation

Process Innovation involves the implementation of a new idea, procedure, technique, method or approach.

Product Innovation involves the introduction of a new idea, procedure, technique, method, or approach.

Simply speaking, a process innovation is an idea which you implement and you see to it that it works. A product innovation is an idea which has been successfully tried out or implemented and it is the one which you want to use or introduce in your own setting.

There are two main sources of innovation :

(i)   **Producer Innovation:** This is where an agent (person, etc.) innovates in order to sell the innovation.

(ii) **End-User Innovation:** This is where an agent (person, etc.) develops an innovation for their own (personal or in-house) use because the existing ideas, methods, etc. do not meet their needs.

The goals of innovation are to improve quality, create new and meaningful procedures, resources and devices, etc. Innovation in language education is achieved by formal research, practice, experience, etc. Technology, particularly, ICT [Information Communication

Technology] has been useful in generating and implementing new ideas in ELT. We will discuss some of them in this Unit.

Innovations and Technology affect each other. For example behaviorism caused programmed learning. Internet online learning and teaching.

6.3.0 Innovations in ELT

We have discussed the concept, types, sources and goals of innovation. New we are going to discuss the major areas of innovations in ELT.

6.3.2 Major areas of innovations in ELT

Generally speaking the major areas of innovations in ELT are as follows:

    (i)   Teaching Approach

    (ii)   Teaching Method

    (iii)   Teaching Procedure

    (iv)   Curriculum Construction

    (v)   Resources

    (vi)   Testing and Evaluation

    (vii) ICT, Multimedia

    (viii) Other Allied Aspects

6.3.3 Major innovations in ELT

Every new approach, method, procedure, device, resource, etc. is largely an improvement on the previous or existing one. Thanks to this particular reason we have had the emergence of Grammar-Translation Method, Direct Method(s), Structural Approach, Situational Approach, Structural-Situational Approach, Bilingual Method, the Communicative

Approach, etc. Presently the Communicative Approach is in great use and demand, notwithstanding some genuine objections. Let us briefly discuss some of the alternative methods in and approaches to ELT.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   Innovations are new ways of doing something.

(ii)   Implementation of a new idea is a process innovation.

(iii)   Introducing a new idea is a product innovation.

(iv)   Innovations and Technology do not influence each other.

(v)   Approaches, methods and curricula are some of the areas in ELT in which innovations have taken place.

6.3.3.1 Total Physical Response (TPR)

This method is built around the coordination of speech and action: it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity. Developed by James Asher, TPR reflects a grammar-based view of language. Oral proficiency is stressed at the beginning. Comprehension is a means to the end, and the ultimate aim is to teach basic speaking skills. TPR regards reduction of stress as a key to successful language acquisition.

6.3.3.2 The Silent Way

The Silent Way is the name of a method of language teaching devised by Caleb Gattengo. It is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. The elements of the Silent Way are the use of colour charts and colored Cuisenaire rods. The general objective of the method is to provide

beginning level students with oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language.

6.3.3.3 Community Language Learning (CLL)

CLL was developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. CLL represents the use of counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. CLL combines innovative learning tasks and activities with conventional ones, which include translation, group work, and recording transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening and free conversation.

Learners become members of a community- their follow learners and the teacher, and learn through integrating with the community. Learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment but as something that is achieved collaboratively. Teachers function as counselors.

6.3.3.4 Suggestopedia (Desuggestopedia)

This method was developed by Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgaria Psychiatrist-educator. "Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from suggestology, which Lozano describes as," Science.... concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/or non-conscious influences that human beings are constantly responding to." Suggestopedia tries to harness these influences and redirect them as to optimize learning. The most conspicuous characteristics of suggestopedia are the decoration, furniture and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music and the authoritative behavior of the teacher.

Conversational proficiency, mastery of prodigious lists of vocabulary pairs, suggesting to the students for setting such goals for themselves are some of the objectives of Suggestopedia. Learning

activities include imitation, question and answer, role play and listening. Silence is also part of the lesson.

6.3.3.5 The Whole Language

In this approach developed by a group of US educators, language is seen as a whole entity. The approach is implemented by each individual teacher keeping in view the needs and relevant activities of the learners. Authentic materials are used for teaching language. The approach aims at helping learners to read and write naturally with a focus on real communication. The teacher is seen as a facilitator and the learner is a collaborator. The whole language instruction activities comprise individual and small group reading and writing, ungraded dialogue, journals, writing portfolios, story writing, etc. There is a particular focus on using literature.

6.3.3.6 Multiple Intelligences (MI)

MI is a learner based philosophy propounded by Howard Gardner. According to this view, human intelligence has multiple dimensions. Gardner is of the opinion that all humans have these types of intelligences but people differ in the strengths and combination of intelligences. All of them can be enhanced through practice and training.

Gardner mentions eight native "intelligences" which are (1) linguistic (2) logical/mathematical (3) spatial (4) musical (5) bodily/kinesthetic (6) interpersonal (7) interpersonal and (8) naturalist. "Gardener believes that there is more to language than linguistic intelligence. A multisensory view of language helps us construct an adequate theory of language as well as an effective design for language learning. MI based language teaching consists of four stages: (1) awaken the intelligence, (2) amplify the intelligence, (3) teach with/for the

intelligence and, (4) transfer of the intelligence. The activities for MI based learning are lectures, small and large group discussions, demonstrations, charts, maps and other visual awareness activities, role plays, music appreciation, peer teaching, group brainstorming, individualized projects, inventories, checklists, etc.

6.3.3.7 Neurolinguistic Programming (NCP)

NLP is not a language teaching method. It is a humanistic philosophy developed be John Grinder and Richard Bundler. It is a set of beliefs and suggestions based on popular psychology designed to convince people that they have the power to control their own and people's lives for the better and practical prescriptions on how to do so. NLP practiceners believe that if language teachers adopt and use the principles of NLP, they will become more effective teachers. According to Revell and Norman (Richards-Rodgers), the neuron part of NLP is concerned with how we experience the world through our five senses and represent it in our minds through our neurological processes. The linguistic part of NLP is concerned with the way we use shapes, as well as reflects our experiences of the world. We use Language - in thought as well as in speech - to represent the world to ourselves and to embody our beliefs about the world and about life. If we change the way we speak and think about thing, we can change our behavior. We can also use language to help other people who want to change.

"The programme part of NLP is concerned with training ourselves to think, speak and act in new and positive ways in order to release our potential and reach those heights of achievement which we previously only dreamt of. "(Revel and Norman 1977 : 14)

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   'Total Physical Response' method emphasises oral proficiency in the learners.

(ii)   In the Silent Method, it is the teacher who produces the language.

(iii)   The whole Language Approach aims at developing reading and writing skills in the learner with a focus on oral proficiency.

(iv)   The Multiple Intelligence as Philosophy was propounded by Caleb Gattengo.

(v)   The NLP helps learners in thinking, speaking and acting.

6.3.3.8 : The Lexical Approach

The fundamental belief of this approach is that the building blocks of language learning and communication are not grammar, functions, noting, or some other unit of planning and teaching but lexis, that is words and words combination. This approach reflects the centrality of the lexicon, language structure, second language learning and language use and in particular to multiword lexical units or "chunks" that are learned and used as single units.

The lexical syllabus is used in this approach. The learners take on the role of 'discourse analyst'. Classroom procedures involve the use of activities that draw student attention to lexical collocations and seek to enhance their retention and use of collocations, add exercises and focus explicitly on lexical phrases.

6.3.3.9 : Competency-Based Language Teaching

[CBLT]

CBLT stresses the outcomes or outputs of learning in the development of language programme. It advocates defining educational goals in terms of precise measurable descriptions of knowledge, skills,

and behaviours student should posses at the end of a course of study. CBLT is based on a functional and international perspective on the nature of language. It seeks to teach language in relation to the social contexts in which it is used.

The following are the eight key features of Competency Based Education programme in English as a second language

1   A focus on successful functioning in society.

2   A focus on life skills.

3   Task-or performance centered orientation .

4   Modularized instruction.

5   Outcomes that are made explicit a priori.

6   Continue and ongoing assessment.

7   Demonstrated mastery of performance objectives.

8   Individualized, student-centered instruction.

The following are the four domains of competency descriptions at each stage of twelve core competencies :

1   Knowledge and learning outcomes

2   Oral competencies

3   Reading competencies

4   Writing competencies

6.3.3.10 The Communicative Approach

The Communicative Language Teaching [CLT] marks the beginning of major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century. The goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. In CLT meaning is paramount and effective communication is sought.

The details about the CLT have been given in the Unit No. 5.

6.3.3.11. The Natural Approach

In this approach there is an emphasis on exposure, or input, rather than practice; optimizing emotional preparedness for learning; a prolonged period of attention to what the language learners hear before they try to produce language; and a willingness to use written and other materials as a source of comprehensible input. Krashan and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language.

In the Natural Approach, emphasis is also given to the use of visual aids, listening and reading, speaking, and a relaxed classroom atmosphere. Academic learning skills are also focused.

6.3.3.12   Cooperative Language Learning (CLL)

It is a learner centered approach that makes maximum use of cooperative activities involving pairs and small groups of learners in the classroom. Cooperative learning advocates draw heavily on the theoretical framework of development psychologists Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky, both of whom stress the central role of social interaction in learning. A central premise of CLL is that learners develop communicative competence in a language by conversing in socially or pedagogically structured situations. CLL also seeks to develop learners' critical thinking skills, which are seen as central to learning of any sort.

6.3.3.13 Content Based Instruction

In this approach, teaching is organised around the content or information that student will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus. Content is the subject matter or substance that students learn or communicate through language rather than language to convey it. The two central principles of CBI are as follows:

(i)   People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information rather than as an end in itself.

(ii)   Content Based Instruction better reflects learners' needs for leaning a second language.

The CBI aims at activating and developing learners' existing language skills, their general academic skills and helping them to acquire learning skills and strategies that could be applied in future language development opportunities.

6.3.3.14 Task- Based Language Teaching

This approach is based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. Learners learn language by interacting communicatively and purposefully while engaged in the activities and tasks.

A task is an activity or goal that is carried out by using language, such as finding out a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, writing a letter or reading a set of instruction, etc. Tasks are done individually, in pairs in peers and in groups also. The procedure includes pre-tasks, task and post-task activities, planning, reporting, analysis and practice.

6.3.3.15 Notional Functional Approach (NFA)

NFA refers to that approach to teaching language in which instruction is organised in terms of 'notions' and 'functions'. Thus the focus is on 'content', rather than on 'forms' of the language. In this approach language is categorised on the basis of notions such as quantity, location, and time, and functions such as making requests, making offers, apologising, etc. A notion is a particular context in which people

communicate and a <u>function</u> is a specific purpose for a speaker in a given context.

6.3.3.15 More Models of Language Teaching

Language teaching especially ELT, has been very a fascinating area for researchers and practiceners who have propagated and advocated new ideas and models. We have discussed many of them above. Some of the new models are briefly discussed below:-

(i)   PPP (Presentation, Practice, and Production) Model:

In this model, the teacher 'presents' new language materials in meaningful contexts, the students have 'practice' and then they 'produce' language.

(ii)   ESA (Engage, Study and Activate) Model:

In this model, the students are 'engaged' in a meaningful task. They 'study' the material provided to them. The teacher 'activates' them by way of questions, exercises, activities, etc.

(iii)   TTT (Test, Teach and Test) Model :

In the TTT model, the teacher first of all conducts a 'test', then 'teaches' on the basis of student performance on the text, and thereafter gives another 'test' based on the teaching.

6.3.3.17 CALL, CALT and Multimedia

CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) and CALT (Computer Assisted Language Teaching) are the latest developments in the field of language learning and teaching. The computer is a part of the latest technology available to the teacher. Computer mediated learning and teaching has certain advantages which cannot be provided in a traditional classroom atmosphere. However, the computer does not offer magical solutions to all the problems in language teaching.

The CALL and CALT programmes help the learners in learning the following aspects of the English language to a great extent :

     1 Grammar

     2 Vocabulary

     3 Pronunciation

     4 Reading and writing skills

     5 Listening and speaking skills

     6 Communication skills

With the advent of the Internet the learners have easy access to a vast amount of information on their area of interest such as English grammar, pronunciation, literature, etc. by way of www, e-mail, mailing list, news-groups, SIGs (Special Interest Group), chat, mooing , online conferences, etc. Multimedia including print and electronic media such as newspapers, magazines, authentic texts, TV, mobile technology have affected ELT positively.

6.3.3.18 Constructivism

With the renewed interest of teacher educators, pedagogues, methodologists, teachers, etc. in the cognitive psychology, constructivism is gaining currency. The new thinking is that learners do not learn anything in a vacuum. In fact, they build up new knowledge, understanding, skills, etc. on the basis of their own previous knowledge, understanding, skills, etc. They transform and construct knowledge by way of analysis, synthesis, comparison, application, etc. Learners engage themselves in thinking, critical thinking etc. through concept-mapping, mind mapping, image, mapping, etc. Taking fresh impetus from Piaget and Bruner, researchers and practiceners in ELT are presently involved in translating constructivism into English language teaching.

6.4 Futuristic vision

The brief survey of innovations in language teaching, particularly in ELT makes it discernibly clear that language teaching has always been a very fascinating area for researchers, linguists, psycholinguists, sociolinguists, pedagogues, methodologists, curriculum designers, agencies involved in testing and evaluation, and teachers. A new idea emerges on the basis of the inadequacy of the existing idea, say, a method, an approach which does not seem to be fully serving the purpose in view. Obviously this is indicative of the fact that there is a constant search for better solutions to the existing problems and hurdles in language teaching.

Thanks to this phenomenon, we have had a number of exciting developments and innovations in English language teaching in the form of approaches, methods, materials etc. Certainly all of them have brought into light new facts and insights into ELT which have been enormously helpful to the teachers and learners. However, it is also a fact to be accepted that in spite of all this, many of the crucial issues are still awaiting better solutions.

With the constant inflow of fresh knowledge and information from the areas such as ICT (Information Communication Technology), grammar, lexicography, syntax, semantics, phonetics, pedagogy, psychology, management, etc. we would see more innovations in all the areas of ELT in the immediate and distant future with varying degrees of emergence, prominence, acceptability, changes, modification, etc.

In the existing 'post methods era', we would find new roles defined for learners, materials producers, teachers, teacher educators, researchers, evaluation agencies, etc. It is expected that teaching approaches and methods will have greater flexibility and adaptability keeping in view learners' needs and interacts.

As the current knowledge and understanding is tentative, partial and changing, the existing classroom practices and methods will change, alternative approaches and methods will emerge and also teaching will go beyond approaches and methods. Such changes may be motivated by factors like government policy directives, trends in the teaching profession, 'Guru-led innovations', responses to technology, influences from academic disciplines, research influence, learner-based innovations, crossover educational trends, and crossover from other disciplines.

Summing up the whole idea of future in ELT, Richards and Rodgers (2001) rightly state. "Despite changes in the status of approaches and methods we can therefore expect the field of second and foreign language teaching in the twenty first century to be no less ferment of theories, ideas and practices than it has been in the past."

6.5. Let's sum up

ELT has witnessed a large number of remarkable innovations over the years. The basic purpose of any innovation in ELT is to make ELT a little more pragmatic, contextual and purposeful in the changing classroom context. Though the West has been a pioneer in this regard, some attempts have also been made at ClEFL (Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages) in Hyderabad and at other places keeping in view the multilingual and multicultural contexts in India. The EDUSAT 'mobile technology, T.V., Radio etc. would also tremendously positively help ELT in our country. It is hoped innovations will continue happening across the globe for a better ELT scenario in future.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   The Lexical Approach puts emphasis on Lexicon.

(ii)   CBLT focuses life-skills and modularized instruction.

(iii) In the Task Based Approach, a task is essentially a goal oriented and genuinely meaningful activity in a socially interactive context.

(iv)   CBI aims at teaching language through content drawn from various subjects/disciplines.

(v)   CALL and CALT provide panacea for all problems in ELT.

(vi)   Learners may construct new knowledge through experiential learning.

6.6.   Exercises

1.   Write a brief note on the role of innovations in ELT in the present context.

2.   Have you ever come across any local innovation in ELT in your state? Describe and discuss it with suitable examples.

6.7.   Further Reading

- Richards, J.C and Rodgers, T.S (2001) <u>Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching</u>. Cambridge: C.U.P.

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Unit-7

TEACHING ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

Structure Of The Unit

7.0 Objective

The objective of this unit is to sensitize you regarding the significance of correct pronunciation. Here rests the great responsibility on the shoulders of the English teachers. A language is primarily learnt through listening. This is how a child learns its mother tongue. The *other* tongue is learned consciously and carefully with the help of a teacher. The problem arises when the teacher's own pronunciation is incorrect. Therefore, first of all you will have to understand the intricacies that are involved in speaking and accordingly acquire the correct pronunciation of English in order to teach it properly to your pupils.

7.1 Language

Language is a system of communication through speech basically; and written language is an attempt to represent the spoken language by visual symbols, called **graphemes**. Every sound unit is termed a **phoneme**. Phonemes are distinctive in that they are the smallest units in the sound system of a language which can be used to obtain different words by substituting one phoneme for the other. The phonemes of a language can be found by collecting minimal pairs, i.e. pairs of words which differ only in one sound segment, e.g. **met** and **net**, or **man** and **men**, or **net** and **not**.

7.1.1 Phoneme

A series like **pet**, **bet**, **debt**, **get**, **jet**, **vet**, **met**, **set**, **net**, **let**, **yet**, **wet**, and so on gives us a list of twelve English phonemes/ π, β, δ, γ, δΖ, ϖ, μ, σ, ν, λ, φ, ω/. Other phonemes can be found by similar substitutions in various positions. (The phonetic symbols used between slanting lines are those of the International Phonetic Association, which are very convenient for the study of phonetics and very useful to learn/teach correct pronunciation of English, or any other language for that matter.)

In all there are 44 phonemes in English. In Hindi there are 48.

Thus, every language has a different number of phonemes. Graphemes belong to the script that the language has adopted or invented to represent phonemes. Whereas there is one to one correspondence between the written form and the spoken form in almost all India languages, it is not in the case of English. The Roman script contains only 26 graphemes with which 44 phonemes of English are handled, with the result that English spelling and their pronunciations are widely apart frequently. In this unit we shall see what different grapheme(s) represent what sounds. For better understanding Hindi/Rajasthani system of graphemes and phonemes will be juxtaposed in Devnagari script also.

7.1.2 Standard English Pronunciation

English is spoken over such a large part of the world that a number of slightly different accents are used by native speakers of the language — in the USA, U.K., Canada and Australia. English is also spoken by the educated people all over the Commonwealth, and a number of 'foreign accents' have therefore come into existence, each showing certain features of the speakers' mother tongue. English as

spoken by educated people in India does not differ radically from native English in grammar and vocabulary, but in pronunciation it is different from both British and American English. Even within India there are a large number of regional varieties, retaining the phonetic patterns of the India language(s) spoken in that particular region. These regional varieties of English sometimes create problems of intelligibility for those not belonging to that region, like Tamil English or Gujarati English.

At the same time, there is a natural pan-Indian English spoken by educated speakers all over India, which is free from gross regional accent. It is intelligible throughout India, and is more or less so to the native speakers of English also. It is called General Indian (G. I.) English. Nevertheless, for educational and historical reasons the model of pronunciation most useful and widely favoured in India is the R. P. (**Received Pronunciation**). It is the sort of English used by educated British speakers in London and surrounding areas of south-east England. It is also known as the **Queen's English** or **BBC English**.

Now we can take up English sounds in detail.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   A grapheme is a sound unit.

(ii)   The script of a language is always invented.

(iii)   The standard variety of pronunciation is known as King's English.

(iv)   In all there are 48 phonemes in English.

(v)   There are only four varieties of English, viz. American English, British English, Canadian English and Australian English.

7.2 Vowels And Consonants

It is quite usual to divide all speech sounds into two broad categories, viz. vowels and consonants.

7.2.1 Vowels

In the articulation (or production) of vowels the air comes out freely through the mouth. Thus, all vowel sounds in English are oral. In Indian languages and French

there are nasalized sounds which can be represented by the symbol *chandra-bindu* चन्द्र बिन्दु or simple *bindu* बिन्दु in spelling, e.g. आँ in आँख (eye). Such nasalized sounds are used in English only in the case of French loan-words, e.g. in the last syllable of "restaurant" (रेस्तराँ) but this is not very common and most English speakers use the English pronunciation (and not the French one) as /ρεστ↔ρ□ντ/. The symbols used between the two slant lines are those of the International Phonetic Alphabet (I. P. A.) which are used by most good dictionaries and through which the pronunciation of all languages is taught these days. We shall take up these symbols one by one when we discuss them. That means that in the production of vowels there is no closure of the air-passage and no narrowing of the passage that would cause audible friction. All other sounds are called consonants.

7.2.2 Description of Vowels

In the production of vowels, the air from the lungs comes out in a continuous stream through the mouth, and the vocal cords vibrate to produce 'voice'. Therefore, all vowels are voiced in the articulation of which the vocal cords are brought so close that they vibrate at the rate of 800 to 1500 per second in the case of male voice and 1200 to 1900 in the case of female voice. The soft palate is raised for all oral vowels in order to close the nasal passage and allow the air to pass through the oral passage. For nasalized vowels (as in Hindi) the soft palate is kept lowered in order to permit the air to pas through both the oral as well as the nasal passage.

There are 20 vowel sounds in R. P., which are divided into two groups:-

(1)   **Monophthongs** or **Pure Vowels**, which are 12 in number.

(2)   **Diphthongs** or **Vowel Glides**, which are 8.

Vowels are studied with three reference points:-

(a) Part of the tongue raised towards the roof of the mouth

(b) Height to which the part of the tongue is raised

(c) Position of lips

Given below is the vowel diagram with the first two reference points indicated. The position of lips will be indicated when we discuss each vowel individually.
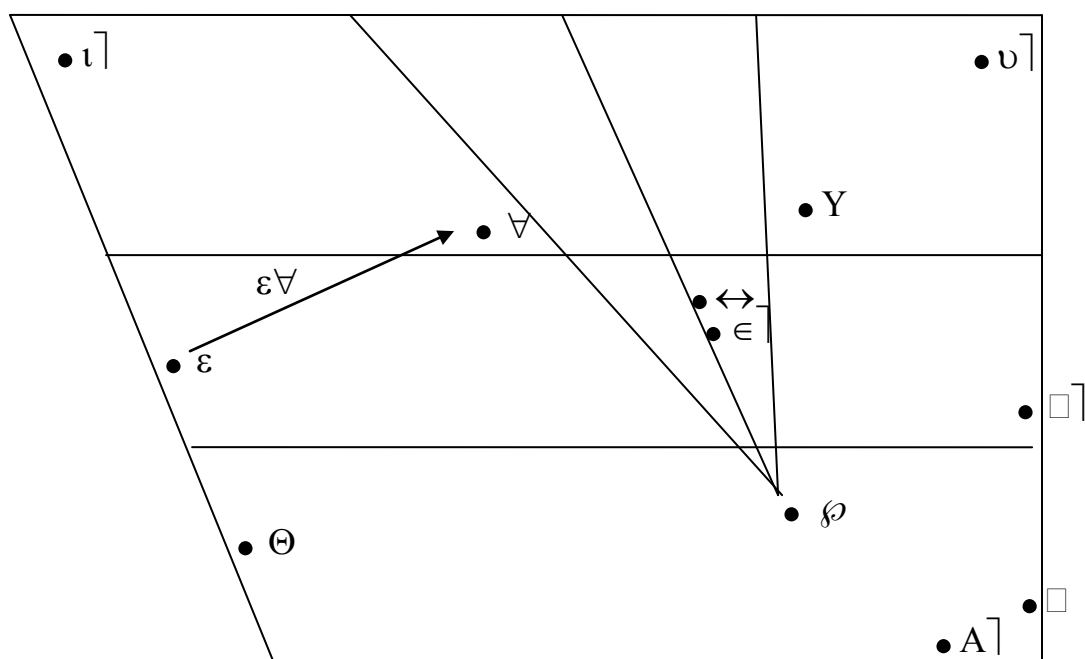
Figure: 7.1 Tongue-parts and Position for R. P. Vowels

∀ ε Ė α

Yo˙ ☐ A
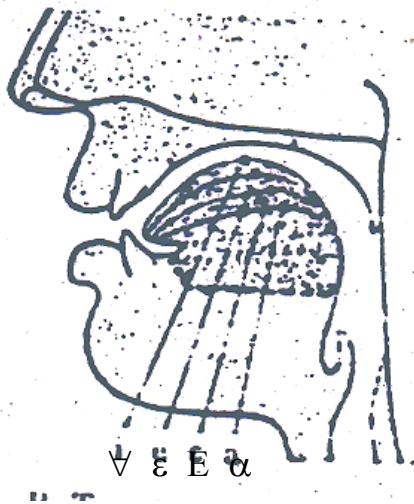
Figure 7.2 Front Vowels   **Figure 7.3 : Back Vowels**
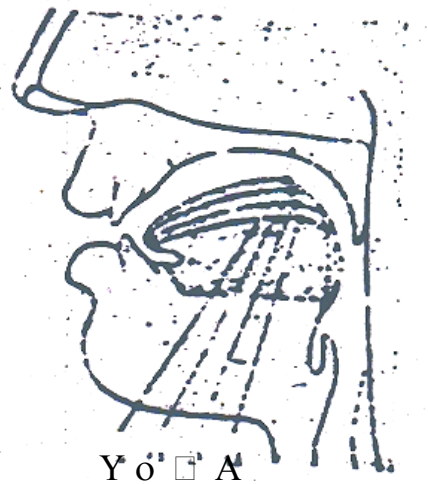
7.2.2.1 Monophthongs

Now we can discuss each one of the vowels beginning with **monophthongs** (in which the quality of the vowel remains the same). We shall indicate the three reference points, its I. P. A. symbol and also various spellings which represent a specific sound. You must pay attention to the three positions in which a particular sound can occur in a word, viz. initial (= in the beginning), medial (= in the middle) and terminal (= at the end). Remember that these are certain restrictions as to which sounds can occur where, e.g. /ε/, / ℘/, /Θ/ cannot occur terminally. Only one example of a change in spelling should suffice here. You can think of similar spellings. The three reference points will be given in the same order, i.e. (a) part of the tongue used (b) height to which it is raised and (c) position of the lips. e.g.

(1)   / ι⌉/ ई *Front Close Spread* as in **even** /ι⌉ѿν/, **tree** /τρι⌉/, **cream** /κρι⌉μ/, **piece** /πι⌉σ/, **seize**   /sι⌉ζ/, **police** /p↔lι⌉σ/, **key** /kι⌉/, **people** /πι⌉pl/

 (2)   /∀/ इ *Front Half-close Neutral* as in **thick** /T∀k/, **college** /k☐l∀δZ/, **village** /v∀λ∀δZ/, **surface** /s∈⌉ϕ∀σ/, **carries** /kΘρ∀ζ/, **handkerchief** /hΘNκτΣ∀ϕ/, **minute** /m∀v∀τ/, **captain** /kΘpt∀ν/, **foreign** /f☐r∀ν/   **James'** /dZe∀μδZ∀ζ/

(3)   /e/ ऍ *Front Between half-close & half-open Neutral* as in **left** /left/, **feather** /feΔ↔/, **friend** /frend/, **leisure** /leZ↔/, **said** /sed/.

The aforementioned three vowels do not create any problem for the Indian learners because they are quite similar to the vowels in the Indian languages. But

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there are certain sounds in the R. P. which do not find their counterparts in many (or any) Indian languages. Therefore, they will have to be acquired consciously and taught to our Indian learners correctly and carefully, e.g.

(4)   /Θ/ *Front Between half-open & open Neutral* (This sound is very close to the vowel in है as it is spoken in Rajasthan.) as in **bad** /bΘδ/, **mat** /mΘτ/, **pan** /pΘν/, **sad** /sΘδ/ . This sound can be picked up by opening the mouth wider while pronouncing.

(5)   /℘/ अ *Central Between half-open & open Neutral* (This sound is quite sharp.) as in   **cup** /k℘π/, **month** /m℘νT/, **rough** /r℘φ/, **blood** /bl℘δ/, **does** /d℘ζ/.

(6)   /A⌐/ आ *Back Open Neutral* (This vowel is longer than आ in Indian languages. [The colon sign (:) after any vowel indicates length.] as   in **art** /A⌐τ/, **pass** /pA⌐σ/, **branch** /brA⌐ντΣ/, **path** /pA⌐T/, **staff** /stA⌐φ/, **half** /hA⌐φ/, **laugh** /lA⌐φ/, **rather** /rA⌐Δ/, **clerk** /klA⌐κ/,   **heart** /hA⌐τ/.

(7)   /□/ आॅ *Back Open Rounded* (This vowel is also not available in Rajasthani or Hindi but can be   acquired by producing आ with rounded lips. We Indians tend to pronounce it like   Hindi आ without rounding of lips or like ओ, but it is a short sound) as in **dog** /d□γ/,   **moral** /m□ρ↔λ/,   **quality** /kw□λ∀τ∀/, **because** /b∀k□ζ/, **cough** /k□φ/, **shone** /Σ□ν/, **knowledge**   /n□λ∀δZ/.

(8)   /□⌐/ *Back Half-open Rounded* (This vowel is closer and longer than □ and is not available in Rajasthani or Hindi but can be acquired with practice.)   as in **all** /□⌐λ/, **force** /f□⌐σ/ , **four** /f□⌐/, **nor** /n□⌐/, **more** /m□⌐/, **fought** /f□⌐τ/, **door** /d□⌐/, **law** /l□⌐/, **fault** /f□⌐λτ/,   **walk** /w□⌐κ/, **quarter** /kw□⌐τ↔/, **board** /b□⌐δ/, **daughter** /d□⌐τ↔/, **broad** /br□⌐δ/, **war** /w□⌐/.

(9)   /Y/ उ *Back Half-close Rounded* (This sound exists in our Indian languages and   therefore creates no difficulty in producing.) as in **cook** /kYκ/, **woman** /wYμ↔ν/,   **cushion** /kYΣν/, **would** /wYδ/.

(10)   /υ⌐/ ऊ *Back Close Rounded* (Again this sound exists in our Indian languages but care   should be taken in using the short उ or long ऊ.) as in **pupil** /pjυ⌐πλ/, **rude** /rυ⌐δ/, **loose** /lυ⌐σ/, **lose**   /lυζ/, **through** /Trυ⌐/, **juice** /dZjυ⌐σ/ , **suit** /sjυ⌐τ/ , **new** /njυ⌐/, **shoe** /Συ⌐/, **two** /tυ⌐/.

(11) /∈∫/ अ.... ***Central Between half-close & half-open Neutral*** (This vowel is like our अ   but longer and occurs in accented syllables.) as in **serve** / s∈⌉ϖ/, **circle** /s∈⌉κλ/, **nurse**   /n∈⌉σ/, **word** /w∈⌉δ/, **search** /s∈⌉τΣ/, **journey** /dZ∈⌉v∀/. You will observe that length to   अ is given because of silent **"r"** in the spelling. Most Indian speakers replace /∈∫/   by /↔ρ/, which is acceptable in General Indian English but for international   intelligibility our students should try to acquire /∈∫/.

(12)   /↔ / अ ***Central half-close Neutral*** (This sound is like our   Indian अ but not sharp like   / ℘/. It has been assigned a special   term "**shwa**" /Σ□⌉/ and occurs in unaccented syllables only.) as in **about** / ↔϶βαΥτ/, **breakfast** /brekf↔στ/, **problem**   /pr□bl↔μ/, **instrument** /∀nstrYm↔ντ/, **terrible** /ter↔bλ/, **factory** /fΘkt↔ρ∀ /, **effort**   /ef↔τ/,   **famous** /fε∀m↔σ/, **succeed** /s↔κσι⌉δ/, **surprise** /s↔πρα∀ζ/, **drama** /drA⌉m↔/, **collar** /k□l↔/,   **hunger**   /h℘Νγ↔/, **motor** /m↔Yt↔/, **honour** /□n↔/, **thorough** /T℘r↔/, **creature**   /krι⌉tΣ↔/, **centre** /sent↔/. It must be observed that in many of these words the silent "r" in   the spelling does not make अ longer because that syllable is unaccented.

7.2.2.2 Diphthongs

Diphthongs are vowel glides within a syllable, i.e. in its articulation the tongue glides from one vowel to the other. There are two such diphthongs in Hindi (ए = अ+इ and औ= अ+उ) which are very distinctly used by Maharashtrians and South Indians. All diphthongs are long vowels from prosodic point of view. There are eight diphthongs in the R.P., which can be put into three groups:-

 (a)   ending in /∀/ इ, viz. /ε∀/ ऍइ, /α∀/ आइ and /□∀/ ऑइ

(b)   ending in / Y / उ, viz. /↔Y/ औ (अ+उ), and / αY / आउ

(c)   ending in /↔ / अ, viz. /∀↔/ इअ, /Y↔/ उअ and / ε↔ / ऍअ

Notice carefully that the symbol for आ in three diphthongs is /a/ and not / A /; also, for ऑ it is / □ / and not / □ /. Now we can take them up one by one.

 (1)   /ε∀/ एइ, (from ***Front Between half-close and half-open Neutral*** to ***Front Half-close   Neutral***) as in **gate** /γε∀t/, **pray** /prε∀/ , **straight** /strε∀τ/, **grey** /γrε∀/, **weigh** /wε∀/, **break**   /brε∀κ/. As already stated, this sound — though existing in Indian languages — is   not   used even in   Hindi by the North Indians, there

is a tendency to replace it by Hindi ए   /E/.   Therefore, this sound needs to be practised carefully.

(2)   /α∀/ आइ, (from *Back open Neutral* to *Front Half-close Neutral*) as in **fine** /fα∀ν/,   **climb** /klα∀μ/ , **rival** /rα∀ϖλ/, **cry** /krα∀/, **cycle** /sα∀κλ/, **die** /dα∀/, **cried** /krα∀δ/, **might** /mα∀τ/,   **either** /α∀Δ↔/,   **height** /hα∀τ/, **child** /α∀λδ/, **eye** /α∀/, **buy** /bα∀/, **island** /α∀λ↔νδ   /. In   words like **fire** /fα∀↔/ or **science** /sα∀↔νσ/ the triphthong /α∀↔/ is used, which also needs   to   be practised.

(3)   /□∀/ ऑइ, (from *Back Half-open Rounded* to *Front Half-close Neutral*) as in **choice** /τΣ□∀σ/,   **oil** /□∀λ/, **boy** /b□∀/, **annoy** /n□∀/.   We Indians go by the spellings and try to   pronounce **boy** /b□j/. Therefore, this sound needs practice occasionally. Again, in   words   like   **employer**   /∀mpl□∀↔/   the triphthong/□∀↔/ is used,   which counts as a single   vowel in the syllable.

(4)   /↔Y/ औ or अउ, (from *Central Half-close Neutral* to *Back Half-close Rounded*) as in   **nose** /n↔Yζ/, **both** /b↔YT/, **open** /↔Yπν/, **no** /n↔Y/, **don't** /d↔Yντ/, **most** /m↔Yστ/, **roll** /r↔Yλ/,   **narrow** /nΘr↔Y/,   **road** /r↔Yδ/, **shoulder** /tΣ↔Yλδ↔/. We North Indians tend to replace this   sound by   ओ which does not exist in the R. P. at all. Therefore, this diphthong needs good practice.

(5)   /αY/ आउ (from *Back Open Neutral* to *Back Half-close Rounded*) as in out /αYτ/, **mouth** /mαYT/, **owl** /αYλ/, **allow** /↔lαY/. This   sound is well used by the Indians. In words like **hour** /αY↔/ or **flower** /flαY↔/, the triphthong /αY↔/ is also used.

(6)   /∀↔/ इअ (from *Front Half-close Neutral* to *Central Half-close Neutral*) as in **period**   /p∀↔ρ∀↔δ/, **serious** /s∀↔ρ∀↔σ/, **zero** /z∀↔ρ↔Y/, **cheer** /τΣ∀↔/, **near** /n∀↔/, **mere** /m∀↔/, **fierce** /f∀↔σ/,   **idea** /α∀d∀↔/, **theatre** /T∀↔τ↔/.

(7)   /Y↔/ उअ (from *Back Half-close Rounded* to *Central Half-close Neutral*) as in **poor**   /pY↔/, **sure** /ΣY↔/, **tour** /tY↔/, **doer** /dY↔/, **influence** /∀nflY↔νσ/   /, **virtuous** /v∈˥τΣY↔σ/.

(8)   /ε↔/ ऍअ (from *Front Between half-close & half-open Neutral* to *Central Half-close   Neutral*) as in **air** /ε↔/, **share** /Σε↔/, **various** /vε↔ρ∀↔σ/, **bear**

/bɛə/, **prayer** /prɛə/, their /ðɛə/, **where** /wɛə/, **aeroplane** /ɛərəpleɪn/. We Indians have a tendency to replace the second part of the diphthong by the semi-vowel य /j/ e.g. **care** /kejər/ केयर , which should be taken care of.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   Nasalized sounds are rarely used in English.

(ii)   Good dictionaries use the phonetic symbols of I.P.A.

(iii)   Some vowels are voiced and some are voiceless.

(iv)   Monophthongs are also known as vowel glides.

(v)   The number of rounded vowels in English is four.

7.2.2.3 Consonants

Except these 20 vowel sounds, the remaining 24 sounds are consonants. Like vowels, consonant cannot be articulated with a free flow of the air passage. In the production of consonants, there is some constriction like closure or narrowing of the air-passage. In Hindi or Sanskrit we learn 33 consonants from क ख to स ह. Notice that क्ष (क्श), त्र (त्र) and ज्ञ (ज्ञ) are combinations of two consonants each. They are merely different ways of writing the two combined consonants. ज्ञ in Hindi is pronounced as ग्य in North India but ग्न in South India whereas its original pronunciation ज्ञ seems to have been lost all over.

We said we learn 33 consonants but actually there are 35 including ड़ and ढ़. They had been very systematically studied by Panini, e.g. the क group has the five sounds क ख ग घ ङ Out of these the first two are voiceless and the next two voiced, the final one being a nasal. The first and the third phonemes are unaspirated whereas their second and fourth counterparts are aspirated. Out of these five sounds, British R.P. has only three, viz. क /k/, ग /γ/, and ङ /N/. Note carefully that ङ and ड़ are two different sounds but many an educated person pronounces ङ as ड़, which is incorrect. Rajasthani has a special consonant ळ which does not exist in Hindi. While learning क ख ग घ ङ etc. as we read or write our Hindi phonemes they are not single phonemes again because the vowel अ is attached to each one of them, e.g. क् + अ = क. We are

going to discuss that क् /k/ is a voiceless sound but because of अ /↔/ is attached to it, it is heard as a voiced one /k↔/.

Consonants are studied with the help of three reference points:-

(a) **Manner of Articulation** : There are six different ways in which the sounds of English are produced, viz. plosive, fricative, affricate, lateral, semi-vowel, and nasal.

(b) **Place of Articulation** : English sounds are articulated from nine different places, viz. bilabial (two lips), labio-dental (lower lip and upper teeth), dental (edge of the upper teeth), alveolar (alveolar or teeth ridge), post- alveolar   (back   of   the alveolar-ridge), palato-alveolar (alveolar ridge and hard palate),   palatal (hard palate), velar (soft palate of velum), glottal (glottis or space q   between the vocal cords). They are shown in the figure below.

Figure : Organs of Speech

LL   Lips

TT   Teeth

TR   Teeth ridge: convex part of the roof of the mouth immediately behind the upper teeth

HP   Hard palate: concave part of the roof of the mouth behind the teeth- ridge.

SP   Soft palate: the flexible part at the back of the roof of the mouth. The soft palate can be raised or lowered. The continuous line shows the soft palate in its raised position and the broken line shows the soft palate in its lowered position.

U   Uvula: the end of the soft palate.

P   Pharynx: space between the back of the tongue and the back wall of the throat.

BI   Blade of the tongue, including tip: the part which lies opposite the teeth ridge when the tongue is in a position of rest.

F   Front of the tongue: the part which lies opposite the hard palate when the tongue is in a position of rest.

B   Back of the tongue: the part which lies opposite the soft palate when the tongue is in a position of rest.

R   Root of the tongue.

E   Epiglottis.

FP   Food passage.

W   Windpipe.

Larynx: situated at the top of the windpipe and containing vocal cords.

V   Vocal cords: a pair of lips placed front to back horizontally in the larynx.

Glottis : Space between the vocal cords.

(c) **Position of Vocal Cords** : Vocal cords are a diaphragm-like flexible organ in the larynx (or sound box) joined in front at the Adam's apple (कंठ) but separated at the back as is shown in the figure below.
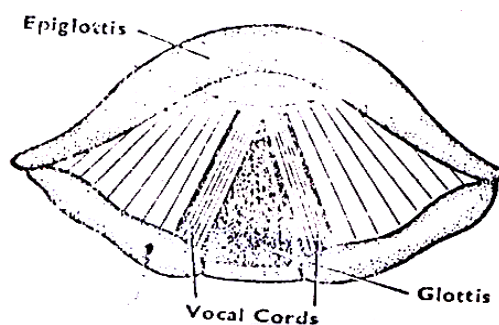
Figure 2 (a)

Figure 2 (b)

Figure: Vocal cords wide apart- position for breath and during the production of voiceless sounds

Figure: Vocal cords loosely together and vibrating position during the production of voiced sounds.

Normally they remain apart when we breathe. Similarly, they remain apart in the articulation of 9 consonants, viz /p, t, k, f, T, s, Σ, h, tΣ/ ; whereas in the remaining 15 consonants they are brought so close that they vibrate, which causes voice. This voiced vibration can be felt by putting fingers on the Adam's apple or by putting one finger each in each of the ears. On the basis of this reference point, the consonants   are divided into two categories, viz.
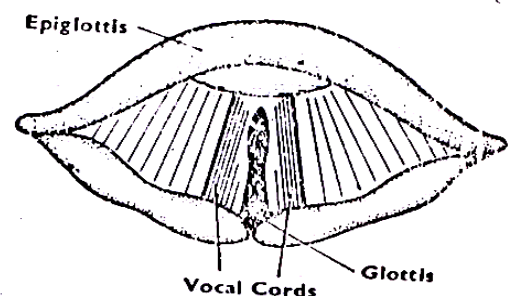
(i) **voiceless** in which the vocal cords do not vibrate and

(ii) **voiced** in which the vocal cords vibrate.

Note that vocal cords do not vibrate even in the case of voiced sounds when we speak whisperingly. As said earlier, *all vowel sounds are voiced*. It is very easy to remember the distinction between the voiceless and voiced consonants because they are paired. Remember that when the mode and the place of articulation of the two paired consonants is the same, the first one is **voiceless** while the second one is **voiced**. The fricative ह /h/ is voiceless and has no voiced counterpart. Now we can take up various consonants keeping in mind the aforementioned reference points:-

Plosive Consonants: A plosive or stop consonant in produced by

      (i)   a complete closure of the air passage in the mouth;

      (ii)   holding of the closure and compression of the air coming from the lungs; and

      (iii)   sudden release of air so that the sound comes with explosion.

Bilabial Plosives : /p, b/   प॒ , ब॒

The air passage in the mouth is closed by the two lips, and the soft palate (velum) is raised to shut the nasal passage. When the lips are suddenly separated the compressed air from lungs is released with explosion. The vocal cords are held apart for प॒ /p/ to produce a voiceless consonant, but vibrate for ब॒ /b/ to   produce a voiceless sounds.

Like all voiceless plosives /p/ is aspirated in the beginning and sounds like फ॒ /pH/, i.e. there is a strong puff of breath after the release of the plosive before the next vowel begins, e.g. **pack** /pHΘk/, **table** /tHɛ∀bl/, **cage** /kHɛ∀dZ/. But after /s/ it is unaspirated as in **spin** /sp∀n/, and also in unaccented position as in **polite** /p↔∪lɑ∀t/ or **happy** /hΘp∀/. The dictionary does not indicate the sign of aspiration. Note that there is no system of the same consonant sound being repeated immediately in English, as in Indian languages. Therefore, out of the two p's in *happy*, the first one automatically becomes silent and the pronunciation is /hΘp∀/ and not /hΘpp∀/. Also, note that sounds combine with each other in a specific order only, e.g. only /s/ can come before /p/ and no other consonant, **special** /speΣl/.

Like all voiced plosives ब् /b/ is never aspirated. In spellings /p/ is represented by the letter "**p**", but in **cupboard** /k℘β↔δ/, **receipt** /r∀sɪ⌐τ/ and words of Greek origin, like **psychology** /sα∀κ◡□λ↔δZ∀/, the letter "p" is silent. Similarly, /b/ is represented by the letter "**b**", but it becomes silent in <u>comb</u>, <u>plumber</u>, <u>thumb</u> and <u>debt</u>.

Alveolar Plosive : /t, d/ त् , ड्

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. /t/ is voiceless and /d/ is voiced. /t/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables, as in <u>team</u>, <u>tone</u>, be◡<u>tween</u>, but not in <u>enter</u>, to◡<u>morrow</u> or after /s/, as in <u>stone</u>. /d/ is never aspirated.

In spelling /t/ is represented by (i) "<u>t</u>" as in <u>team</u>, <u>settle</u>, <u>beat</u>; and (ii) "<u>ed</u>" after /p, k, f, s, tΣ/ as in **sipped** /s∀pt/ **talked** /t□⌐kt/, **laughed** /lA⌐ft/, **passed** /pA⌐st/ **pushed** /pYΣt/, and **searched** /s∈⌐tΣτ/. The letter "<u>t</u>" is silent in <u>castle</u> and <u>Christmas</u>. /d/ is represented by the letter "<u>d</u>" as in <u>deem</u>, <u>sudden</u>, <u>seed</u>.

Velar Plosives : /k, γ / क् , ग्

The air passage in the mouth is closed completely by the back of the tongue making a contact with the soft palate (velum). /k/ is voiceless and /γ/ is voiced. /k/ is aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables, as in <u>cool</u>, <u>coin</u>, <u>clean</u>; but unaspirated in can◡<u>al</u>, ◡<u>equal</u> or after /s/, as in <u>scold</u>, <u>school</u>. /γ / is never aspirated. Note that the symbol for this sound is /γ / and not /g/.

In spelling /k/ is represented by (i) "<u>k</u>" e.g. <u>kind</u>, <u>basket</u>, <u>milk</u>; (ii) "<u>c</u>", generally followed by <u>a</u>, <u>o</u>, <u>u</u> or a consonant letter, e.g. <u>call</u>, <u>come</u>, <u>cut</u>, <u>clean</u>; also when "<u>c</u>" is in the final position, e.g. <u>music</u>; (iii) "<u>ck</u>", e.g. <u>back</u>, <u>sick</u>; (iv) "<u>qu</u>", e.g. <u>conquer</u>, <u>cheque</u>; (v) "<u>ch</u>", e.g. <u>character</u>, <u>stomach</u>. "Qu" is pronounced /kw/ in words like <u>quality</u> or <u>queen</u>. "<u>k</u>" is silent in words like <u>knee</u>, <u>knife</u>, <u>know</u>. /γ/ is represented by the letter "g", generally followed by <u>a</u>, <u>o</u>, <u>u</u> a consonant or nothing, e.g. <u>gate</u>, <u>go</u>, <u>guard</u>, <u>glory</u>, <u>bag</u>. Sometimes, followed by "<u>e</u>" and "<u>i</u>" also, "<u>g</u>" can be /γ/ as in <u>get</u>, <u>give</u>.

Fricatives Consonants : They are produced by bringing two organs so close to each other that the air stream has to pass through a narrow passage with audible friction.

Labio-dental Fricatives : /f, v/

The top of the lower lip is brought very close to the edge of the upper teeth, making a light contact with it. /f/ is voiceless and /v/ is voiced. Both these sounds are absent in Hindi

and need to be learnt/taught carefully. Note that Hindi फ़ is a bilabial plosive. Hindi व् is pronounced from slightly below the top of the lower lip.

In spelling /f/ is represented by (i) "f", e.g. <u>f</u>ace, a<u>ff</u>ord, lea<u>f</u>; (ii) "ph", e.g. <u>ph</u>otograph; (iii) "gh", e.g. cou<u>gh</u>, rou<u>gh</u>. Similarly /v/ is represented by (i) "v" e.g. <u>v</u>ain, co<u>v</u>er, bra<u>v</u>e; (ii) "f" in o<u>f</u> (iii) "ph" in ne<u>ph</u>ew.

Dental Fricative : /T, Δ/ थ् , द्

The tip of the tongue is brought very near the edge of the upper teeth. The air passes between the tip and blade of the tongue and the upper teeth with audible friction. The vocal cords are wide apart in /o/ but vibrate in /a/. These two sounds should not be confused with Hindi थ् and द् which are dental plosives. With a little practice in the production of fricatives, these sounds can be mastered.

Both these sounds are represented by "th", e.g. <u>th</u>ank, pa<u>th</u>ology, four<u>th</u> /T/ and <u>th</u>ere, brea<u>th</u>es, wrea<u>th</u> /Δ/. Note that /T/ changes to /Δ/ as soon as the suffix "s" or "ed" is added, e g. pa<u>th</u>s , mou<u>th</u>ed (except mon<u>th</u>s).

Alveolar Fricatives : /s, z / स् , ज़ ॖ

To articulate these sounds, the tip and the blade of the tongue are brought very near the teeth (alveolar) ridge. /s/ is voiceless but /z/ is voiced. /z/ is found in Hindi and also in Urdu loan words and is represented with a dot under ज in Devnagari script, e.g. इन्तज़ार /s/ is represented in spellings by (i) "s", e.g. <u>s</u>ingle, e<u>ss</u>ence, purpo<u>s</u>e; (ii) "c" followed by <u>e</u>, i, <u>y</u>, e.g. fa<u>c</u>e, <u>c</u>ity, poli<u>c</u>y; (iii) "sc", e.g <u>sc</u>ene, <u>sc</u>ience; (iv) "x", e.g. bo<u>x</u>, e<u>x</u>plain. /z/ is represented by (i) "s", e.g. poi<u>s</u>on, <u>s</u>cissors, prai<u>s</u>e; (ii) "z", e.g. <u>z</u>ero, pu<u>zz</u>le; (iii) "x", e.g. e<u>x</u>act, e<u>x</u>amine.

Note that the addition of <u>s</u> /es / <u>'s</u> is pronounced in three different ways :- (i) /s/ after the voiceless /p, t, k, f/, e.g. cap<u>s</u>, bit<u>s</u>, take<u>s</u>, laugh<u>s</u>; (ii) /z/ after vowels and voiced consonants except /s, z, Σ, Z, tΣ, dZ/, e.g. eye<u>s</u>, rob<u>s</u>, head<u>s</u>, bag<u>s</u>, loave<u>s</u>, breathe<u>s</u>, children'<u>s</u>, form<u>s</u>, thing<u>s</u>, hill<u>s</u>;   (iii) /∀z/ after /s, z, Σ, Z, tΣ, dZ/ e.g. influence<u>s</u>, noise<u>s</u>, washe<u>s</u>, barrage<u>s</u>, catche<u>s</u>, judge<u>s</u>.

Palto-alveolar Fricatives : /Σ, Z / भ़

The tip and the blade of the tongue are brought very close to the alveolar ridge and the front is also raised towards the hard palate. /Σ/ is voiceless, and /Z / is voiced and does not occur initially.   /Σ/ is represented by (i) "sh", e.g. <u>sh</u>ine, cu<u>sh</u>ion, pu<u>sh</u>; (ii) "ch" e.g.

machine; (iii) "su", e.g sugar, ensure; (iv) "ti", e.g. nation, initial (v) "sci", e.g. conscience, (vi) "ci", e.g. special, official; (vii) "ce" ,e.g. ocean. /Z/ is represented by (i) "si" + on , e.g. decision, occasion, (ii) "su" + re , e.g. pleasure, measure;   (iii) "ge" in French loan words, e.g. barrage, rouge. This sound will have to be practiced fairly well.

Glottal Fricative /h / ह

This sound is produced by narrowing the gap between vocal cords but not so much that they vibrate. Therefore, it is a voiceless consonant. It never occurs finally; hence in ah, oh the letter, "h" is silent. This sound is represented by letter "h", e.g. humble, inhuman.

Affricates : /τΣ, δZ/ च , ज्

These sounds are a combination of plosives and fricatives. That is why they are made up of two phonetic symbols each. They are produced by a complete closure of the air passage in the mouth but with slow release causing friction. The two English affricates /τΣ, δZ/ are articulated through complete closure 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. When the air is released slowly it escapes with friction between the front of the tongue and the hard palate, and also between the blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge. The vocal cords are wide apart for /τΣ/ but vibrate for / δZ/. These sounds are very similar to Hindi च and ज् respectively.

/τΣ/ is represented by (i) "ch", e.g. chair, such,; (ii) "tch", e.g. catch, watch,; (iii) "t" + ure, e.g. nature, picture,;   (iii) "t" + ion, when preceded by "s", e.g. digestion, question, suggestion. / δZ/ is represented by (i) "j", e.g. join, jump; (ii) "g", generally followed by e, i, y, e.g. general, agile, dingy; (iii) "dg", e.g. bridge, edge; (iv) "di" , e.g. soldier; (v) "dj" , e.g. adjective, adjunct.

Lateral Fricative : /l/ ल्

To articulate a lateral consonant, there is a closure in the middle and the air comes out through the sides. There is only one lateral phoneme/l/ in English, which is like Hindi ल . To produce this sound, the tip of the tongue makes a contact with the teeth ridge but the sides of the tongue are lowered so that there is a free passage for the escape of air at the sides. It is a voiced sound. This sound is syllabic in words like **bottle** /b□τλ/ or **cattle** /kΘτλ/, i.e. each of these words contains two syllables, even when there is no vowel sound before /l/.   In spellings this sound is represented by "l", e. g. in laugh, yellow, oil. Note that "l" is silent in words like walk, could, half, calm.

Post- alveolar Frictionless Continuant : /r/ र

It is the sound /r/ र which is produced by raising the tip of the tongue towards the back of the teeth ridge slightly retroflex (i.e. curled back) but the passage is not so close as to cause friction, i.e. like a vowel, the air comes out through the oral passage without any friction. Presumably because of this ऋ in Sanskrit is counted as a vowel, but it is treated as a consonant because it takes the position associated with consonants, e.g. <u>bat</u>, <u>cat</u>, <u>rat</u>. In R. P. /r/ is pronounced only before vowel sounds and remains silent before consonants and terminally, e.g. /r/ is not to be pronounced in <u>burst</u> /b∈⌐στ/ or <u>better</u> / bet↔/ or <u>here</u> / h∀↔ /. But when the next word begins with a vowel, a linking /r/ is inserted, e.g. "<u>Here it is</u>." /h∀↔ρ ∀t ∀z/. This sound is also voiced. Note that after /d/ it becomes a voiced fricative as in <u>dry</u>, <u>draw</u> ; and a voiceless fricative after accented/ p, t, k,/ as in <u>pray</u>, <u>try</u>, <u>cream.</u>

Semi-Vowels: /j, w/ य्

A semi vowel is a vowel glide (like diphthongs) to a more prominent vowel sound in the same syllable, whether a monophthong or a diphthong. There are two semi-vowels in English, viz. /j/ य् and /w/. They are treated as consonants because they take the positions normally associated with consonant, e.g. <u>pet</u>, <u>get</u>, <u>met</u>, <u>yet</u>, <u>wet</u>. Like vowel glides, these sounds are also voiced.

Unrounded Palatal Semi-Vowels : /j/ य्

There is a quick tongue movement from ***Front Close Spread*** /i:/ to the position of the next vowel, e.g. in <u>yet</u> /jet/ it is from /i:/ to /e/. In spellings this sound is represented by (i) "<u>y</u>", e.g. <u>you're</u>, <u>beyond</u> ; (ii) "<u>u</u>", e.g. <u>union</u>, <u>excuse</u> ; (iii) "<u>eau</u>", e.g. <u>beauty</u> ; (iv) "<u>ue</u>", e.g. <u>due</u>, <u>blue</u> ; (v) "<u>ew</u>", e.g. <u>ewe</u>, <u>sewer</u> ; (v) "<u>iew</u>", e.g. <u>view.</u>

Rounded Bilabial Semi-vowel: /w/

The tongue moves quickly from **Back Close Rounded** /u:/ to the position for the next vowel. This sound has no counterpart in any of the Indian languages and therefore need to be learnt/taught carefully. We Indians generally replace it by व् but /v/ and /w/ are two different sounds in English. It can be mastered by rounding the lips and going to the next vowel.

In spellings this sound is represented by (i) "<u>w</u>", e. g <u>waste</u>, <u>swell</u>; (ii) "<u>wh</u>", e.g. <u>whether</u>, <u>nowhere</u> ; (iii) "<u>o</u>", e. g <u>one</u>, <u>once</u> ; (iv) "<u>u</u>", when preceded by q, g, s, e.g. <u>quick</u>, <u>language</u>, <u>persuade</u>.

Nasals : /μ, ν, N/ म् , न् , ङ्

For the production of nasal consonants a complete closure is made in the mouth, but the soft palate is kept lowered so that the air passes through the nose. There are only three nasals in English, whereas there are five in Hindi. Nasals are in some ways vowels-like; they are frictionless continuants and out of them /n/ can sometimes be syllabic, e.g. in **button** /b℘tn/ or **frighten** /frɑ∀τν/. All the three nasals are voiced and they are very similar to Hindi nasals म्, न्, and ङ् .

Bilabial Nasal : /m/ म्

The oral passage is completely closed with the help of the lips and the air passes through the nose. This sounds is represented by (i) "m", e.g. mad, hammer, come; (ii) "mb", e.g. limb, thumb; (iii) "mn", e.g. autumn.

Alveolar Nasal : /n/ न्

The tip of the tongue makes a closure against the teeth ridge while the rims of the tongue are against the upper side teeth and the air comes out through the nose. Note that Hindi न् is dental. /n/ can be syllabic, as in sudden /s℘δν/ or listen /l∀sn/. In spellings it is represented by (i) "n", e.g. no, manner, cotton; (ii) "kn", e.g. knowledge, knife; (iii) "gn", e.g. sign, campaign.

Velar Nasal : /N/ ङ्

To articulate /N/ the back of the tongue makes a closure with the soft palate (velum) kept lowered so that the air escapes through the nose. This sound never occurs initially. This sound is represented by (i) "ng", e.g. sign, long, hang; (ii) "n", followed by /k/, e.g. monkey, uncle. In R.P., final "ng" is pronounced as /N/ and no /γ/ is added. Even in derivatives from verbs ending in /N/, no /γ/ is added after /N/, e.g. singer, bringing. But in other words the medial "ng" is pronounced /Nγ/, as in finger, longer.

The table below will give you an idea about the classification of the 24 consonant sounds of English with reference to the three reference points discussed above.

Table : 7.1 Classification of Consonant sounds

Place ⟍ Manner	Position of Vocal cords	Bi-labial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alve-olar	Post-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glot-tal	Total
Plosives	Voiceless	p			t				k		3
Plosives	Voiced	b			d				γ		3

Fricatives	Voiceless		f	o	s					h	5
Fricatives	Voiced		v		z						4
Affricates	Voiceless										1
Lateral	Voiced										1
Lateral	Voiced										1
Frictionless continuant	Voiced					r					1
Semi Vowels	Voiced	w					j				2
Nasals	Voiced	m		n					N		3
Total		4	2	2	6	1	4	1	3	1	24

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   In English there are twenty one consonant sounds.

(ii)   In lateral sounds there is a complete closure in the oral passage with slow release.

(iii)   The position of vocal cords affects the quality of consonants.

(iv)   / N / is an alveolar voiced nasal sound.

(v)   /δZ / does not occur medially.

7.3. <u>Stress</u>

Unlike French or Hindi (or presumably any of the Indian languages), English is a stress-timed language. That is, the rhythm of English is obtained through the stressed or accented syllables. Stress is the degree of force with which a syllable (a word/part of a word that contains a single vowel sound except syllabic /n/ and /l/) in a word is uttered. In the unit on teaching poetry you will read about *iambic pentameter* or *blank verse*, which create musical rhythm through the systematic arrangement of unstressed/short and stressed/long syllables in a line of a poem.

Therefore, word accent (or stress) is an important feature of English. In words of more than one syllable, not all syllables are equally prominent. Those that are more prominent than others are said to receive the accent in polysyllabic words. Every good dictionary indicates the location of word accent, and because there are very few rules in the matter, it is necessary to refer to the dictionary to find out the accentual pattern of an unfamiliar word.

The relative prominence of a syllable is due to stress, i.e. greater breath force, greater muscular effort and greater amplitude of vibration of the vocal cords in the case of voiced sounds on the part of the speaker. However, on the part of the listener this accented prominent syllable is heard louder than other syllable(s). It is advised that you should listen to the English news on the B.B.C. and the A.I.R./ Doordarshan and pay special attention to the accentual patterns in words as well as sentence. That will provide you with the necessary ear training and help you pronounce words/sentences correctly, which will, in turn, help you teach these elements properly and effectively.

Word stress in English is something unpredictable and confusing. However, there are some generalisations, which are helpful. They are given below with examples:-

(1) : Words with weak prefixes have the stress on the ROOT and NOT on the prefix, e.g.

a'bed;   **a'loud;**   **a'far;**   **be'little;**   **be'friend;**   **em'bitter;**

en'rich;   **dis'loyal;**   **dis'honest;**

(2) : The inflectional suffixes *–ed* (to make past and past participle forms of verbs), *–er, -es* (to derive comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives/adverbs), *-s, -es* (to obtain singular present form of verbs), and *-ing* (to form present participial/gerundial form of verbs) do not affect the stress. That is, words to which these suffixes are added have the stress on the SAME SYLLABLE as before, e.g.

de'feated;   **de'veloped;**   **'benefited;**   **sepa'rated;**   **con'ducted;**   **'conquered;**   **'happier;**

'unkindest;   **'bandages;**   **for'bids;**   **de'manding;**   **'auditing;**

(3) : The derivational suffixes *–age, –ance, –ant, –en, –er, –ess, –ful, –hood, –ish, –ive, –less, –ly, –ment, –ness, –or, –ship,* do NOT change the stress pattern. The root words and the new words formed by adding these suffixes have the stress on SAME syllable, e.g.

'coverage;   **at'tendance;**   **as'sistant;**   **brighten;**   **pro'ducer;**   **'waitress;**   **'dutiful;**

'motherhood;   **'yellowish;**   **a'busive;**   **'colourless;**   **'certainly;**   **a'chievement;**

'loveliness;   **col'lector;**   **'scholarship;**   **en'viable;**   **'capable;**

(4) : Words ending with *–ion, –ic, –ical, –ial, –ically, –ity, –icide, –logy, –ious, –tomy, –cracy, –graphy* have the primary stress on the syllable immediately preceding the suffix, e.g.

'nation;   **in'vasion;**   **in'flexion;**   **ecclesi'astic;**   **me'chanical;**   **confi'dential;**

psycho'logically;   **elec'tricity;**   **in'secticide;**   **anthro'pology;**   **pre'carious;**

appen'dectomy;   **aris'tocracy;**   **pho'tography;**

(5) : Words ending with *–ate* take the stress two syllables before it, e.g.

'celebrate;   **com'municate;**   **par'ticipate;**

(6) : Words ending with the suffixes *–ee, –self, –selves, –ever* take the stress on the suffixes themselves, e.g.

devo'tee;   **consig'nee;**   **your'self;**   **our'selves;**   **whoso'ever;**

(7) : In the case of conversion, when the same word functions as a noun/adjective and a verb, generally the stress is in the beginning for the noun/adjective, which shifts to the second syllable for verbs, e.g.

'produce (n);   **pro'duce (v);**   **'present (n/adj);**   **pre'sent (v);**   **'export (n);**   **ex'port (v);**

Every good dictionary indicates the word stress mark with a perpendicular bar (‿) before the syllable that takes the accent. Now along with Oxford/Cambridge dictionary a CD

is also provided free of charge, which when loaded in/used with a computer gives the correct pronunciation (both British and American, wherever different) along with the stress. For the pronunciation of proper nouns, there is a special dictionary (again with a CD) called English Pronouncing Dictionary.

7.4 <u>Accent In Connected Speech : Rhythm</u>

When words are combined into sentences in English, the accented syllables tend to recur at regular intervals of time. Thus, in the sentence : <u>He is ∪going to ∪meet us at the ∪station</u> , the time intervals between the strong syllables /γ↔Y/, /mι⌉t/ and /stε∀/ will be roughly the same. It is this phenomenon that gives English its characteristic rhythm, and any neglect of this feature results in lack of intelligibility.

You must have noticed that in this process some individual words have also lost their original strength and become weak. The **content words** (which are the message carriers and are generally used in drafting telegrams), viz. nouns, main verbs, adjectives, adverbs, demonstrative pronouns, and interrogative pronouns take the accent, while the **structure words** (which are grammatical fillers), viz. pronouns, determiners, prepositions, conjunctions, and helping verbs are not stressed. Consequently, in the sentence above **he** /hι⌉/ becomes /ι⌉/; **is** /∀ζ/ becomes /z/; **to** /tY/ becomes /t↔/; **us** /℘s/ becomes /↔s/; **at** /Θt/ becomes /↔t/; **the** /Δι⌉/ becomes /Δ↔/. A good dictionary indicates the weak forms of words also. Thus, rhythm is a regular succession of weak (unstressed) and strong (stressed) syllables. This is an important difference between English and Indian languages. In the latter there is more or less an equal stress on each syllable, except that which is stressed especially for emphasis.

7.5 <u>Intonation</u>

When we speak, the pitch (degree of highness or lowness of a sound) of our voice keeps changing. Sometimes it is high and sometimes it is low. Pitch is used to add significance to what is said. The term '**intonation**' is used for the above kind of change and for the modulation of voice for conveying various kinds of meaning.

Although finer points of English intonation are many, the basic intonation patterns are very simple and be easily learnt and taught. The two basic tunes or tones of English are *falling* and *rising*.

Falling : A falling tone is used in

(a) an ordinary statement without emotional implication, e.g. <u>It's ∪seven o' ∃χλοχκ</u>.

(b) questions beginning with a wh-word (question-word), e.g. ∪<u>What are they</u>   ∃<u>muttering</u> <u>about</u> ?

(c) commands, e.g. ∪<u>Do as I</u>   ∃<u>say</u>.

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 indicated by a falling slant mark (∃) above the last accented syllable.

Rising : The rising tone is used in

(a) incomplete utterances, e.g. <u>It's</u> ∪<u>seven o'</u>   ᵤclock (but she hasn't turned up yet.)

(b) questions which demand an answer in *yes* or *no*, e.g. Have you ∪seen my ∪younger

   ᵤbrother ?

(c) questions beginning with a wh-word but said in a friendly manner, e.g. ∪<u>Why didn't you</u>

∪<u>come and</u>   ᵤ<u>see me</u> ?

(d) polite request, e.g. ∪<u>Please</u> ᵤ<u>sit down</u>.

7.6 <u>Exercises</u>

Given below is a list of words which we Indians generally mispronounced. There may be a few words which you may not find in the dictionary (Think why they are not there). Look them up in a standard English pronouncing dictionary and

(1) write down their phonetic transcriptions

(2) mark the primary stress appropriately :

abbey	compere	gestalt	occidental	Russia
accoutrement	competitor	Glamis	Oenone	Russian
advertise	conspicuous	Greenwich	of	sadist
advertisement	coupon	healthy	Ohio	sesame
aegis	courier	hearse	onomatopoeia	sew
alias	cucumber	hero	oriental	sewage
alibi	cuisine	hotel	oven	sewerage
almond	cupboard	housewife	parliament	shove
alternative	curriculum vitae	hyperbole	Persepolis	sieve
annihilation	dais	idea	petrol	silhouette
Antigone	debris	imbroglio	photograph	soccer
apartheid	debut	indigenous	photographer	sojourn
asked	decade	indict	pizza	spinach
asthma	decided	inform	plait	strophe

awry	denouement	information	plumber	suicide
Basil	determine	irreparable	police	suite
bass	echelon	jersey	politician	sure
beneficent	economical	lager	poverty	Switzerland
blessed	economy	language	precious	tables
bomb	either	laughed	prefer	target
bon voyage	electrical	lengthy	prejudice	telepathy
bona fide	en block	lethargy	produce(n)	tier
born	en masse	livelihood	produce(v)	tomb
borne	en route	lump sum	pronunciation	tuition
bourgeois	engineer	mala fide	prophesy	umlaut
breakfast	enunciation	Malaysia	Proserpine	variety
Britain	environment	malevolent	psychology	various
bury	epode	marine	rabbi	vehemently
buses	eunuch	martyr	radar	vehicle
caricature	exhibition expertise	medieval	recipe	victuals
cashier	extempore	merchandise	refer	vide
cassette	facsimile	mercury	rendezvous	video
Celtic	fool's cap	monarch	repertoire	viscount
clerk	fracas	mongering	repetition	wand
comb	gallant	naïve	reservoir	wealthy
comparable	gazed	Nazi	resumé (n)	Wednesday
compass	genuine	necessity	rhetorician	want
			ruin	zoology

(4)   How will you teach such words?

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   The arrangement of stressed and unstressed syllables does not affect the rhythm.

(ii)   The unstressed syllable is to be produced with greater breath force.

(iii)   Word stress in English goes according to rules.

(iv)   The inflexional suffixes do not change the stress.

(v)   An incomplete sentence will take the rising tone.

7.7 Let's Sum Up

We realize that we have made you aware of the significance of correct English pronunciation and its related features. However, you are bound to find difficulties in comprehending certain points, which you should note down and clarify during you contact classes with you tutor. It is also advised that you should provide your pupils sufficient practice in consulting a good English dictionary, not only for meaning but also for correct pronunciation because bad pronunciation, like bad spellings, presents a very poor picture of the speaker. Adequate practice will also be required in the sounds of English which do not exist in the pupils' mother tongue(s). Oxford University Press has prepared some material on the topic including audio-cassettes, which can be helpful in this direction.

7.8 Further Reading :

(1)   Bansal, R.K. and Harrison, J.B. (1972) Spoken English for India. Madras : Orient Longman Ltd.

(2)   Gimson, A.C. (1980) An Introduction to the Pronunciation of English. London : Edward Arnold

(3)   Jones, Daniel : (2003, 16th ed.), (edited by Peter Roach.) Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary. Cambridge : C U P.

(4)   Roach, Peter (1991) English Phonetics and Phonology. Cambridge : C U P.

Unit - 8

Teaching of Vocabulary in English

Structure of the Unit

8.0   Objectives of the unit

8.1   Concept

8.2   Types of words

      8.2.1 Classification of the words.

      8.2.2 Meanings of words.

8.3   Selection and gradation of vocabulary

8.4   Teaching Techniques

      8.4.1 Presenting lexical items

      8.4.2 Building Vocabulary

8.5   Let's sum up.

8.6   Exercises

8.7   Further Reading

8.0   Objectives of the unit

At the completion of this unit, you should be able to:

(i)   Know the concept and types of words

(ii)   Know the characteristics of words

(iii)   Know the principles of selection and gradation of vocabulary

(iv)   Know the techniques of teaching vocabulary

(v)   Know how to present vocabulary, and

(vi)   Describe the strategies for vocabulary building.

8.1   Concept :

It is generally observed that teachers teach words, especially in the context of reading and writing. Every new lesson often begins with teaching of new words. There cannot be any meaningful teaching of vocabulary items unless and until teachers know what words are and how they may be taught.

Vocabulary items generally refer to words and phrases. A word is a single unit of language which means something and can be spoken or written.

If we examine an English sentence closely, we will find that it is made up of two kinds of words. Some of the words in it have stable meaning while the meaning of others depends entirely on the context. Language is largely made up of words which we listen (hear), speak, read and write. Teachers generally teach words while teaching the prescribed texts. Let us know the basic types of words and how they should be taught for comprehension and communication.

8.2   Types of words:

Words are generally of two types:

(i)   Content words : These words have their own meaning.

(ii)   Function/structural words: These words do not have their own meaning.

Content words may be classified into three broad types which are as follows.

(i)   Words of actions.

(ii)   Words of ideas, things and entities.

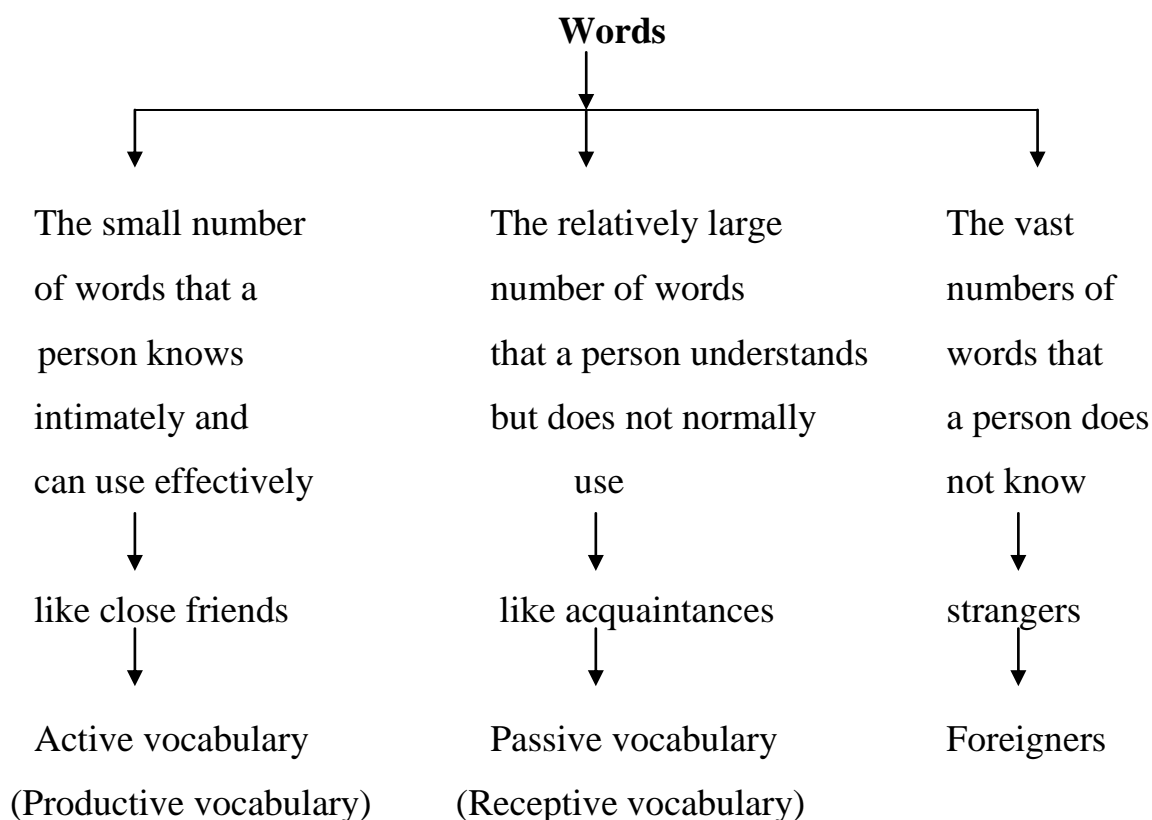(iii)   Words used to describe the qualities of things or actions.

Function Words : These words correspond to the various parts of speech: nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, demonstrative and interrogative pronouns.

Categories of function words are as follows :

(i)   Prepositions   :   in, on ....

(ii)   Determiners   :   the, an, a,

(iii)   Auxiliaries   :   be, do, have ....

(iv)   Pronouns   :   I, we, this ......

(v)   Adverb particles   :   on, off, down, up.....

(vi)   Relatives   :   who, that, which.....

(vii)   interrogatives   :   what, when, why.....

(viii)   Subordinators   :   because, since.......

(ix)   Conjunctions   :   and, but, or......

(x)   Sentence connectos :   therefore, further.......

(xi)   intensifiers   :   very, quite, rather.....

8.2.1 Classification of the words

Words may be further classified as follows :

Words

The small number of words that a person knows intimately and can use effectively	The relatively large number of words that a person understands but does not normally use	The vast numbers of words that a person does not know
↓	↓	↓
like close friends	like acquaintances	strangers
↓	↓	↓
Active vocabulary (Productive vocabulary)	Passive vocabulary (Receptive vocabulary)	Foreigners

The above diagram indicates that in our real life we have our neighbours, relatives, friends, acquaintances and strangers; the same is true with words. Some words are like close friends: we know them intimately. Such words form active vocabulary. Other words which we can understand, when heard or read, but which are not easy for us to use such words are called passive vocabulary. Some words are new for us. They are strangers and foreigners.

In due course of time foreigners become friends, acquaintances too come close. In the same way passive vocabulary becomes active. It all depends on teachers' enthusiasm and creativity which help to condition students to savor the language to which they are exposed, so that their progress can be accelerated.

8.2.2 Meanings of words

Generally a word in isolation has no meaning. It is generally accompanied by other lexical items. The meaning of lexical items is determined by a context. For example, the word 'run' in the following sentences has been used in a variety of contexts.

1. He <u>runs</u> fast. (physical movement) (Verb)

2. He can't <u>run</u> a shop. (manage) (V)

3. He made one hundred <u>runs</u>. (Noun)

4. This news paper <u>runs</u> in high society. (is popular) (V)

5. The bicycle <u>ran</u> into a bus. (collided) (V)

6. His health has <u>run down</u> .(become weak) (phrasal verb)

7. The tap is <u>running</u> dry. (V)

Lexical items may have more than one meaning. Some of the major types of meaning are as follows :

(a) *Lexical meaning* is one which is given in a dictionary. It is fixed. It is concerned with the basic or usual meaning of the word or phrase. It is literal.

(b) *Idiomatic meaning* is different from the literal meaning. It operates at a different level. It is a particular meaning accepted by the society. It is socially and contextually oriented.

(c) *Morphological meaning* is one which is conveyed through the forms of words.

(d) *Implied meaning* is one in which the real meaning is hidden. The meaning is not explicit. It is implied. It is internal.

(e) *Intonational meaning* is one which in conveyed through pronunciation.

(f) *Socio-cultural meaning* is one which is related to the social and cultural environment. A word may have a particular meaning in one society but the same word may have a different meaning in another society.

(g) *Total meaning* involves all the aspects of meaning discussed above.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i)   Vocabulary items generally refer to words and phrases.

(ii)   Content words do not have their own meaning.

(iii)   Functional words correspond to the parts of speech.

(iv)   Words which are not easy to use are called the passive vocabulary.

(v)   Implied meaning is the hidden meaning.

8.3   Selection and gradation of vocabulary for teaching

Generally the purpose of teaching English is not to teach all the words of English but to teach a reasonable number of words according to the standard of the class. It is possible to cover approximately 2500 active words and 500 passive words in a five year course of English. It seems appropriate that the students at secondary stage should get the knowledge of 3000 words.

It is very important that the words (active and passive) are selected and graded for each class and a list of words is prepared for each class and these words are presented through the textbooks prescribed.

8.3.1 Principles of selection and gradation

While selecting the words the course-designers should keep the following principles in mind :

(1)   *Universality :* The words to be selected should be of a universal use in almost all walks of life.

(2)   *Popularity :* The words used in speech, news and those which are very popular should be included.

(3)   *Frequency :* The words which are frequently used in the real life should be listed out and included.

(4)   *Utility :* The words should be useful for the learners and should not be above their mental level.

(5)   *Validity :* Words of current usage should be selected and out of date words should hence be avoided.

(6) *Productivity :* Words which have potential to produce more words, with prefixes and suffixes, (like harm, harmful, harmless etc). should be selected.

(7) *Applicability :* Words which can be used in various situations should be selected.

(8) *Suitability :* Easy to memorise, easy to spell and easy to utter, such words should be given priority.

8.4 Teaching Techniques

There are various ways of teaching vocabulary in English. Generally speaking, the teacher may keep in view the level of the class and teach vocabulary by -

(1) Using real objects (realia): for example: flower, book, purse etc.

(2) Showing models: plastic models of watch, temple, mosque, bear, horse, etc.

(3) Using actions, miming and facial expressions (walk, punch, wave, sneeze)

(4) Using pictures: (cat, owl, temple, elephant)

(5) Using blackboard sketches : (tree, clouds, sun, circle)

in   on   into   over   out of   under
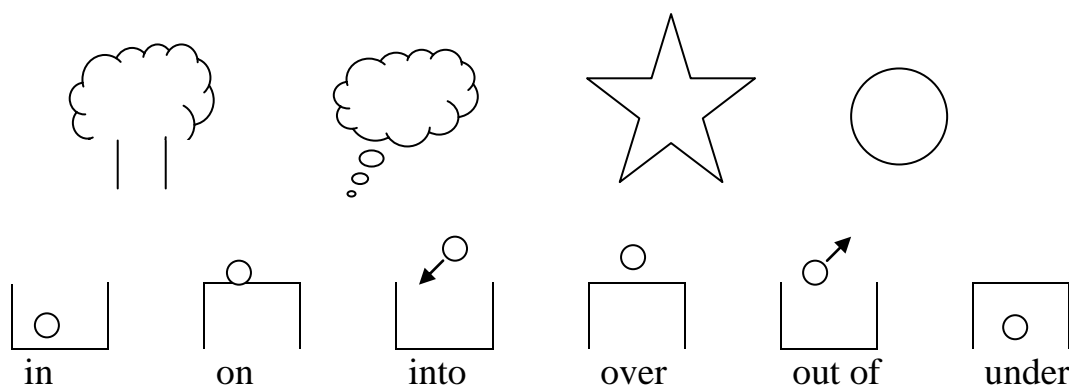
(6) Using verbal context:

Prefer: I like tea more than coffee. I prefer tea to coffee.

Late: The class is at 10 A.M. Prakash comes at 10.15. He is <u>late</u>.

(7) Giving definitions

For example : gravitation: a force of attraction that causes objects to move towards each other.

(8) Using opposites

empty   (full)

small   (big)

long   (short)

(9) Using synonyms

Reena is a <u>pretty</u> girl.

Reena is a <u>beautiful</u> girl.

(10) Using dramatization / mime

sleep, shake hands, close, open

(11) Using series

The months of the year, the days of the week, seasons of the year ......

(12) Word analysis

Unhealthy = un+health+y

(13) Using illustrative sentences

Raju sees a bird.

Can you see a bird in the tree ?

Did you see a bird in the tree ?

(14) Translation and explanation:

(15) Associated vocabulary:

On particular topics e.g. - doctor, nurse, patient, medicine, ambulance, stretcher, etc.

(16)   According to Jane Willis (1981:114) the teacher may use the following techniques for teaching vocabulary.

- write in figures

- use symbol

- demonstrate

- take students out of the classroom

- give a context and let students guess.

- give lexical sets.

8.4.1 Presenting vocabulary

(a)   The teacher should follow the dual method of presentation and practice. After the presentation of the new words, the teacher should provide the class with adequate amount of practice.

(b)   Presentation of a new word generally involves three aspects: sound, shape and sense.

Sound

Words

Shape   Sense
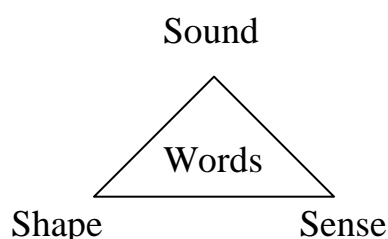
Firstly let the student properly hear the <u>sound</u> of the word, that is its pronunciation. Secondly let the students <u>know the meaning</u> of the word and thirdly let them <u>observe the spelling</u> of the word.

(c)   Generally words in isolation have no meaning. They have meaning in a context. Therefore, the teacher should teach the words in the context of the text.

(d)   Adrian Doff (1988: 19) advises teachers to allow their students to understand far more words than they can produce- and they (teachers) should not try to treat all new words as active vocabulary.

(e)   In teaching active vocabulary, it is usually worth spending time in giving examples and asking questions, so that students can really see how the word is used.

(f)   To save time, it is often best to present passive vocabulary quite quickly, with a simple example. If it appears as part of a text or dialogue, teachers can often have students to give the word from the context.

(g)   Since the use of the same technique renders the interest of the students it is better to use different kinds of techniques for presentation e.g. visual demonstration, word association. verbal context, etc

(h)   The use of the mother tongue should be the last resort.

(i)   Teacher should always consult a standard dictionary if need be.

According to Peter Hubbart et al (1983 : 50) while presenting new lexical items:

(i)   Teacher should teach and practise the words in spoken forms first, otherwise students will try to pronounce the words as they are written.

(ii) Unless teachers only want students to have passive knowledge of the lexical items, they (teacher) must present them in a meaningful context and get the students to practise them.

(iii) As with teaching anything else, revision is essential, otherwise the new words which have been taught by the teacher will be forgotten.

(iv) Teachers should check that their students have understood the new words, no matter how they have been presented.

(v)   Students will remember new vocabulary better if it is perceived in a memorable way to start with.

Obviously, emphasis should be put on learning to use the words. Therefore, the teacher should -

(i)   recognise degree of vocabulary difficulty.

(ii)   let the student hear the word.

(iii)   let the student pronounce the word.

(iv)   let the student grasp the meaning.

(v)   use a self defining context.

(vi)   lead the class practising words into use.

(vii)   write the word on the board and let the class see and read it aloud.

(viii)   use the word more freely keeping in mind the level of the learners.

(ix)   ask the class to use the word for some communicative purposes.

(x)   use different types of strategies for different types of words.

8.4.2 Building vocabulary

It is not just enough to teach essential vocabulary to students. It is equally important that teachers help their students in expanding and building students' vocabulary. It is believed that a rich vocabulary would help them in better comprehension and expression. Therefore, teachers may use the following techniques to help their students build their vocabulary :

1.   Provide an appropriate context for new words : The dictionary defines only certain limits within which a word may range. Selecting the appropriate meaning is the skill that has to be developed.

2.   Teach key words : The key words or 'stopper' words to be encountered by the students in new assignments or units should be taught by the teacher prior to the assignment.

3.   Utilize word-attack devices : To develop understanding of word meaning, various word-attack devices can be used. If there are roots, prefixes and suffixes that can be pinpointed, these can be separated and analyzed. Long words can be divided into easy -to-manage syllables. Sounding out

the words, placing the proper stress, hearing and recognizing the auditory components call into play other senses used in learning. Syntactical clues can be helpful, such as the endings-*ed*,- *ly*, marks such as capital letters, articles, auxiliary verbs and prepositions also help to decide the function of words. The way a word is used in a sentence, or in its relationship with other words, often will supply a broad hint to its meaning.

4. Teach the use of printed aids to reading : These include marginal notes, parenthetical definitions, headings, footnotes, summaries and punctuation marks.

5. Encourage and teach use of dictionary: The dictionary is a resource with which students need help. The following skills for vocabulary building are useful:-

   (a) Using guide words.

   (b) Selecting the best fitting meaning.

   (c) Recognizing differences in meaning.

   (d) Figuring out pronunciation by proper use of the key.

   (e) Syllabication, stresses and blending.

   (f) Relating the meaning to word derivation.

   (g) Using information about nuances of meaning among synonyms.

6. Utilize word-slips or vocabulary note-books : On small slips of paper or in a note pad students can record the words and sentences in which the task is used. Pronunciation should be recorded if it presents a problem and the derivation may be helpful in remembering its meaning.

7. Expand pupil's vocabulary through the following techniques :

(1) *Word Families:* Take up words and teach all the words which go with them. Usually each word has a family. The members of the family are equally important. Words taught in the context of the family are usually better understood and easily remembered. For example, look at the following words and their family:

(a)

care	careful	carefully	careless	carelessly	carelessness
fear	fearful	fearfully	fearless	fearlessly	fearlessness
doubt	doubtful	doubtfully	doubtless	doubtlessly	doubtlessness
hope	hopeful	hopefully	hopeless	hopelessly	hopelessness

(2) *Word Patterns:* Some Words also have different forms. Look at the following examples :

(a)

Adjective	Adverb
quick	quickly
slow	slowly
firm	firmly
violent	violently

(b)

Verb	Noun
move	movement
punish	punishment
conceal	concealment
announce	announcement

(3) *Word Building Games:* There are lots of games available for word - building. Some of the examples are as follows :

(a) *Strips* can be prepared with the number of words, prefixes and suffixes written on them. The students can be asked to use some prefixes and suffixes to form new words.

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For example :

comfort	profit		able	ly

Some of the words which may be made with the help of the above strips are as follows :

comfortable, uncomfortable, profitable, profitably etc.

(b) How many words of four or more letters can you make from the letters shown in the following puzzle. In making a word, each letter may be used once only. Each word must contain the central letter.
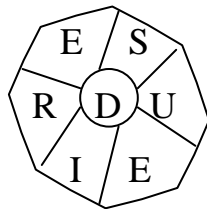
Some of the words would be : deer, desire, dire, reed, reside, ride, rude, seed, used etc.

(c)   Select suitable words from the ones given in the 'Cloud' shown on the right hand side and use the words appropriately in place of the underlined words in the list given on the left hand side below:

(i) - a wealthy <u>merchant</u>

(ii) - a lovely <u>bouquet</u>

(iii)- tasty <u>dishes</u>

(iv)- an honest <u>man</u>

(v) - an excellent <u>plan</u>

(vi)- a velvet <u>purse</u>

(vii) - a gold <u>coin</u>

(viii) - an expensive <u>gift</u>

idea

mangoes

view

necklace   diamond

dress   doctor

shopkeeper
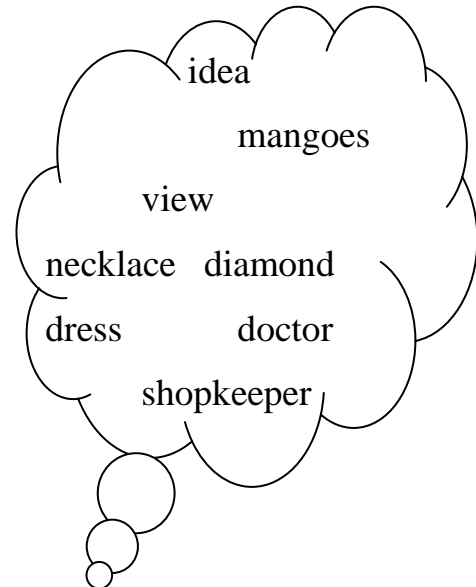
(d)   Pick the odd one out.

| tree   branches   mud   roots |
| lovely interesting beautiful pretty |

(e)   Match the words opposite in meaning

late	*crying*
open	*never*
laughing	*early*
always	*close*

(f)   For each sentence, write one word that means the same as the words underlined. Beside that word, write its homonym.

1.   His book is <u>not</u> <u>old</u>, _____   _____

2.   Our team did <u>not</u> <u>lose</u> the game, _____   _____

        Answer 1) new

2) won

(g) What are the synonyms of 'cook' ? _____
_____
_____
_____

Answer- bake, fry, boil, grill

(h) Think and write five other related words for 'thief, carpet, marry.'
Answer. : Thief _____ burglar, robber, steal, crime, arrest, etc.
Carpet _____ rug, mat, doormat, weave, woven, etc.
Marry _____ wedding, husband, wife, fiancé (e), separate, etc.

(i) Will you help me make the dinner?
a) shell
Can you b) peel the peas?
c) crack
d) skin
Why are the other words wrong?

(j) In English which of the following can we keel, which can we shell and which can we skim? Tick ✓ the boxes.

	shell	keel	skin
potatoes			
oranges			
eggs			
nuts			
tomatoes			
grapes			

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(i) Translation is the only technique to teach new lexical items.

(ii) Words involve three aspects : pronunciation, spelling and meaning.

(iii) The use of the mother tongue should be the last resort for teaching vocabulary.

(4) The teacher should teach the new words in the written form first.

(5) All the words can be taught only through one teaching strategy.

8.5 Lets Sum up

We have discussed some of the examples of word - games and other activities. They should be used keeping in view the level of the class, the local contexts, learners' linguistic needs and your pedagogical framework. The cognitive elements involved in them may be taught in detail at a higher stage of learning.

Let us keep the view in mind that teaching vocabulary should be a means to the end. It should not be an end itself. Obviously it should be a part of the total programme of language teaching.

Teaching vocabulary is one of the crucial elements in the language teaching programme. Both context and form words need to be caught in appropriate context of situations by way of suitable audio-visual aids. Thus, the sound, the sense and the shape of new lexical items should be taught and appropriate activities and exercises must also be used for expanding and building vocabulary.

8.6 Exercises:

(1) Take up any two paragraphs from a textbook and select and grade vocabulary for teaching.
How would you teach these words?

(2) How are vocabulary games helpful in teaching and building vocabulary? Explain them with suitable examples.

(3) Suggest some more strategies for vocabulary building.

(4) "Some words have more than one shade of meaning" Explain this statement with suitable examples.

8.7 Further Reading

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Unit - 9

Teaching of Structures and Grammar in English

Structure of the Unit

9.0   Objectives of the Unit

9.1   Concept of Structure

9.2   Presenting Structures

9.3   Model of Presentation

9.4   Concept of Grammar

9.5   Approaches to Teaching Grammar

9.6   Let's sum up.

9.7   Exercises

9.8   Further Reading

9.0   Objectives of the Unit

This unit aims at giving you an idea about the concept of structures and grammar. You will also get acquainted with the methods of teaching structural and grammatical items.

9.1   Concept of Structure

A structure is a rigid grammatical pattern which is usually unchangeable. It signals meaning. Structures provide the general framework of a language. They are the skeleton. Structures must not be confused with sentences.

While a lexical item provides the particular meaning of the lexical units within the structure, a structure provides the general classes and features of the language which signal grammatical meaning.

A structure is a group of words arranged in a particular order and the particular arrangement of these structures makes a sentence. The different arrangements or patterns of words are called structures. All the sentence patterns, phrase patterns, and formulas are structures.

In a structure the words are grouped in a particular word-order. This word-order can be arranged or rearranged according to need particular and situations.

For example : There is a girl in the garden. This sentence can be rearranged in other situations like:

Is there a girl in the garden?

According to A.S. Hornby, "Structures are closely related to grammar, but not to traditional grammar. The Structural Approach to language learning does not require the student to know or learn definitions of the parts of speech or of clause and sentence. Structures are the devices that we use to make signals, to convey meanings, and indicate relationships. (1961:x)

9.2   Presenting structures :

There are generally four categories of structures which are as follows:

1.   Sentence pattern (e.g. I am Raju.)

2.   Phrase patterns (e.g. on the table)

3.   Formulas (e.g. Good day, Hello)

4.   Idioms (e.g. a drop in the Ocean)

Thus, we see that structures are important in a language. Students can use one structure to make a variety of sentences: if they learn the main structures of English, it would help them greatly in speaking and writing in the language.

The teacher of English as a second language has to keep in view the new structures used in a particular lesson. These structures may be taught in two or three sentences depending on their number and difficulty level. New structures and new words could be taken up separately or they could be mixed. These items may be taught orally first. The students should be advised not to open the textbook. (In fact the text of the lesson should be kept unseen for teaching reading comprehension later.)

Generally Speaking, teaching of structural items is the same thing as teaching grammar. But this is teaching grammar, not teaching about grammar as is generally done in grammar teaching in schools. It is applied grammar, functional grammar and not traditional or formal grammar, which helps in understanding the rules about the language but not teaching language which is its real purpose. While teaching a structural item the teacher has to be careful to see that it is presented in such a way that the meaning emerges out of the situation.

According to Peter Hubbard et al. when presenting a new structural item, the teacher should try to achieve two things.

1.   To enable the students to recognize the new structure well enough to be able to produce it themselves. (**establish the form**)

2.   To make absolutely clear the usage of the patterns so that when the students produce them, prompted by the teacher, they know what they are saying (**establish the meaning**)

According to Adrain Doff, (1983:12) "When we present a structure, it is important to:

-   Show what the structure means and how it is used, by giving examples.

-   Show clearly how the structure is formed, so that students can use it to make sentences of their own." (1988:33)

Thus, we see that a structure has both a form and a meaning. And teachers must teach both the things.

9.2.1   Mode of presentation

When we talk about structures, we have to discuss the appropriate mode of presentation which is essentially a pedagogical issue. There are various ways of presenting structures. Each mode is based on a particular approach or method. Let us discuss some example related to the Present Continuous Tense.

(i)   Model sentences

A teacher makes use of model sentences. He/she may use appropriate visual aids. For example :

He's eating.

She's telephoning.

They're reading.

He's sleeping.

She's talking.

Model sentence in a dialogue form

Another mode of presentation of the structure can be a dialogue accompanied by appropriate visuals.

Teacher- Well, Raj. What are you painting ?

Raj : I'm painting a picture of my house.

Teacher- Who's that ?

Raj: That's my father.

Teacher- What's he doing?

Raj: He's reading a newspaper.

(ii) Dialogue

A dialogue in itself is a self-explanatory device. It can help you teach the structure in a more communicative way. Here is an example :

Father : What are you doing up there ?

Son   : Nothing.

Father : Are you taking a bath ?

Son   : No, I'm not.

Father : Are you playing with the ball ?

Son   : No.

Father : You're eating, aren't you ?

Son   : No, I'm not.

Father : He isn't reading. His book's down here.

Mother : Is he cleaning his room ? Ask him.

Father   : Are you cleaning your room ?

Son   : Yes, I am.

Linking model sentences to appropriate contexts of situations. One of the other modes of presentation is linking model sentences to appropriate contexts of situations. Let's study the following examples.

The Director is reading a report.

The Accountant is answering the telephone.

The Sales Manger is talking to a customer.

The Secretary is typing a letter.

(iii) Classroom demonstration

The teacher can exploit the classroom situations to demonstrate the meaning of certain structures by performing actions in the classroom. Let us look at the following example.

The most useful verbs for presenting and practising the Present Progressive Tense are those which need some time to perform such as writing, drawing, teaching, holding etc. Verbs such as opening, closing, and putting are suitable to perform actions with several objects. (e.g. He is opening the windows. etc.)

(iv)   A short text

Teachers can make use of a short text also. It helps in making the learners understand the use of the structural item in an appropriate context. For example, look at the following text.

Devanand is in the living room. He is writing his name in his note book. Now he is drawing a picture in a book. Seema is in the kitchen. She is looking at a plate. She is holding it in her hand. It is dirty. She is washing it. She is working. Now the plate is clean.

Teaching of structures usually involves a mode of presentation with a particular focus on form and meaning. It's the meaning aspect which is very crucial in terms of communication. Meaning may be shown in a variety of ways.

Adrain Doff describes the following ways of showing meaning of a new structure.

(v)   Showing meaning visually:

For presenting the structure'--------too-----to ---. The teacher may teach in the following manner.

For example,

The teacher may teach the structure, 'too ----to----' in the following manner:

Teacher " (Point to the ceiling) What's that?

Student " The ceiling.

Teacher : (reach up and try to touch it) look. I'm trying to touch it. Can I touch it ?

Studnet : No. Can you?

Teacher : No, I can't. Because it's too high. I'ts too high to touch. Too high. The ceiling's too high to touch (The teacher may say this sentence again in students' own language.)

(vi)   Showing meaning through situations :

Another way of showing meaning is to think of a situation from out side the class, in which the structure could naturally be used. The situation can be real or imaginary.

For example, to present a more advanced structure such as : 'There's no point in …….. ing", the teacher may use the following strategy :

Teacher Listen. Imagine you are with a friend. You're going to visit your uncle, who lives quite near. Your friend says, 'Let's go by bus'. What will you say ? Yes or no ?

Student : No.

Teacher : Why ?

Student : Because he lives near.

Teacher : Yes, he lives nearby. So you might say, "We can walk there in 15 minutes. There's no point in going by bus. There's no point in doing it. No point. There's no point in going by bus.

(vii)   Focusing on form :

According to Adrian Doff, "As well as making it clear how a structure is used and what it means, it is also important to show clearly how it is formed. There are two basic ways of doing this:-

o By giving a clear model and asking students to listen and repeat two or three times.

o By writing the structure clearly on the board. While writing teacher should say words and underline the fixed part of the structure.

(viii)   Contrasting Structure :

Sometime we need not only to present single structure, but to show the difference between two structures; this is especially important when there is a contrast between two structures in English which does not exist in the students' own language. There are two basic ways of doing this: by giving examples and by simple explanations.

e.g. to contrast 'How much' and 'How many'?

-        We could give examples to show the difference between them: How much butter/flour/sugar?

-        We could give an explanation : 'How many' is used with words that have a singular and plural form (an egg,eggs).

(ix)   Pattern Practice Drills

According to Robert Lado, "A grammatical pattern is an arrangement of parts having linguistic significance beyond the sum of its parts. The parts of a pattern are exposed by words or clauses or words so that different sentences often express the same pattern. All the sentences of a language are cast in its patterns……. A pattern is not a sentence; however, sentences express patterns. Each sentence illustrates a pattern"- (1970:90)

Thus, we see that a pattern aims at enabling the learners to make the right choice in the pattern and use the language more freely.

There are various types of pattern practice drills. Some of them are as follows:

(a)   Addition :

This is a drill in which the teacher says a sentence and the learners repeat it. The teacher supplies another word and the students add the word at the end or the beginning of the sentence :

Example:

Teacher : *Ritu is writing.*

Student : *Ritu is writing.*

Teacher : *A letter.*

Student : Ritu is writing *a letter.*

Teacher : *Now.*

Student : Ritu is writing a letter now.

Teacher : *In her room.*

Student : Ritu is writing a letter now *in her room.*

(b) **Inclusion :**

The teacher says a sentence and a word. The learners are asked to include the word in the sentence properly.

Teacher : She comes here. *Always*

Student : She *always* comes here.

Teacher : She always comes here. *Usually*

Student : She *usually* comes here.

Teacher : She *usually* comes here. *Never*

Student : She *never* comes here.

(c) **Replacement**

The teacher says a sentence and instructs the class to replace one of its elements :

Teacher : They are playing cricket. *Hockey.*

Student : They are playing *hockey.*

Teacher : They are playing hockey. *Football.*

Student : They are playing *football.*

(d) **Integration**

The teacher says two words, phrases, clauses or sentences and asks the class to join them appropriately.

Teacher : He is a teacher. He teachers English.

Student : He is the teacher who teachers English.

Teacher : He is the teacher who teachers English.

(e) **Conversion**

The teacher gives a number of forms and instructs the class to change all of them to a given pattern.

Teacher : (Convert to the negative) Sachin plays football.

Student : Sachin doesn't play football.

(f) **Completion**

The teacher says an incomplete sentence and asks the class to complete it.

Teacher : Sachin plays……….. .

Student : Sachin plays cricket.

Teacher : An Englishman speaks……. .

Student : An Englishman speaks English.

(g) **Transformation**

The teacher says a sentence and asks the class to transform it in a response to a call-word.

Teacher : Today they are teaching English. Tomorrow.

Student : Tomorrow they will teach English.

(h) **Transposition :**

The teacher says a sentence and asks the class to transpose it into a related one:

Teacher : (Ask for some) I like tea.

Student : Give me a cup of tea.

(i) **Rejoinder :**

The teacher says a sentence or asks a question. The class is instructed to use a formula appropriate to the situation or to the attitude intended.

Teacher : Give an affirmative answer politely. Did you enjoy the dinner.

Student : Yes, indeed.

Teacher : May I read this book ?

Student : Of course.

(j)   **Contraction :**

The teacher says the longer form and instructs the learner to contract it:

Teacher : They have the books.

Student : They have them.

Teacher : They have them. It's their bag.

Student : It's theirs.

(k)   **Re-statement**

The teacher makes a statement and asks the class to restate it:

Teacher : Ask me who I am.

Student : Who are you?

(L)   **Games to practice structures:**

There are lots of interesting and useful games which help us in practising structures and grammatical items. Some of them are as follows.

(a)   **Kim's game :**

According to Peter Hubbard et al, "Kim's game is an extremely versatile game which can be used for teaching several structures. The basic principle is that the teacher displays a wall-chart or some realia, etc. which the students have to study carefully for a minute or two. What was displayed is then hidden from view and the students then have to remember what they have seen."

(b)   **Guessing game :**

The teacher displays a magazine picture and covers a part of the picture, then students have to guess what is there in the hidden part of the picture.

For example, the teacher shows a picture of a person. He has a bag with him. His right hand is in the bag. The teacher may such ask some questions as:

- What is there in the hand of the man Has he got a gun ?

  Has he got a book ? etc

(c)   **Adverb game :**

Student 'A' leaves the room while the rest of the class think of an adverb. For example : Slowly. Student A is then called back and asks the other students to do certain things in the manner of the agreed adverb.

e.g. Raju, open the door.

Raju has to open the door in the manner of the adverb chosen, in this case, *slowly*. The student 'A' has to guess the adverb which has been thought of.

In the same way new games can be devised and suitably used for practising structures.

We have discussed the concept of a structure, the mode of its presentation including focus on form and meaning, drills, pattern practice, and language games to practice structures. Now we would like you to keep in mind the view that the teacher has to make use of appropriate audio-visual aids to communicate the meaning, the conceptual idea. Students should be involved in the activity for a meaningful interaction. New structures should be taught with the help of old (known) structures. Plentiful exposure is to be given in the basic language skills, initially listening and speaking and later of course, reading and writing based on the same language material (structures and lexical items). In addition to it, basic dialogues, substitution tables, puzzles, language games, repetition and drills etc. may be made use of. Nevertheless, in view of the recent researches the teachers are advised to shift emphasis from tight structural control to expression and genuine communication from rote learning to creativity and constructivism.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   A structure is a rigid grammatical pattern which is usually changeable.

(2)   In a structure the words which are grouped in a particular word order can not be rearranged.

(3)   Structural items should be taught orally first.

(4)   While presenting a new structure the teacher should teach the meaning only.

(5)   Teaching of structural items is the same thing as teaching grammar.

9.4   Concept of Grammar

Grammar has been succinctly defined as a study of the morphology and syntax of a language. Simply speaking, grammar has to do with the form and function of words and the way they are combined to form sentences. In essence, grammar is the study of how language functions.

(A)   Types of Grammar

1.   Traditional Grammar :

Grammar teaching has changed considerably in recent decades. Traditional grammar, the only approach to teaching grammar for many years, was prescriptive. Traditional grammarians assumed that language was static; this grammar could be taught as an absolute.

Traditional grammar relies heavily on the use of definitions. It defines a sentence as "a group of words that express a complete thought". Typically, children are expected to memorize these definitions and then apply them in naming the parts of speech in a given sentence.

Traditionally, correctness is an integral part of grammar instruction, and children are often drilled on what is deemed correct grammar. The varieties of English, the natural growth and change of a living language, and the relationships between grammar and reading and writing are seldom considered in traditional grammar.

The contributions of traditional grammar and its potential for the study of language should not be underestimated, however. Many of its shortcomings can be minimized by stressing a conceptualization of language scheme rather than memorization of definitions and rules.

2. Structural Grammar

Structural linguists, responding to the inadequacies of traditional grammar, developed a new system for analyzing language objectively. One very significant feature of structural grammar is that it describes grammar rather than prescribes it. Structural grammarians consider the whole of language including its phonemic system (the sounds of language), its morphological system (the form of words), and its syntactic system (the structure and function of words in sentences).

Working from a corpus of sentences, structural grammarians identify basic sentence patterns and describe the form and function of words in each pattern.

Rote memorization of definitions of form, class words is not encouraged. Rather, the form or class of a word is determined by analyzing the word's form and its function in the sentence for example, to determine whether a word is a noun.

3. Transformational-Generative Grammar [TG Grammar]

In 1957 Noam Chomsky published a book, "Syntatic Structures", that was to have great influence on the teaching of grammar. The grammar he introduced has been called variously: transformational grammar, generative grammar, or transformational - generative grammar. Whereas the structural grammar described the structure of languages as it is used, the transformational - generative (TG) grammarians recognized an additional need to describe the process underlying the structure of sentences. The TG grammar is concerned with identifying and analyzing the rules of language that native speakers of English acquire and use intuitively in producing grammatical sentences.

Chomsky explains that sentences have both a *surface structure* and a *deep structure*. The surface structure has to do with the form of a sentence, what is actually said or written; and the deep structure has to do with the meaning of the sentence, the underlying structure on which the surface form is based.

A study of TG grammar is an analysis and explanation of the language system we acquire and use intuitively. It identifies two related types of rules for achieving linguistic competence: those for generating basic language units – phrase structure rules – and those for rearranging or combining the basic units into other forms or surface structures - transformational rules. Kernel sentences are the basic language units from which all other sentences are formed. They are simple, active, positive, declarative sentences without added phrases or details. The patterns identified in structure grammar are kernel sentences A native

speaker of English unconsciously follows certain rules that result in grammatical utterances. Phrase structures describe that process.

9.5 Approaches to Teaching Grammar.

As far as formal teaching of grammar is concerned there are two types of approaches :

Deductive Method and Inductive Approach

(A) The Inductive Approach :

According to this approach which is descriptive in nature, the only valid statements about language and its grammar are those arrived at by observing linguistic and grammatical facts, classifying them and making generalisations on what is observed and classified. It is an imitation of the approach used by the sciences of observation. The learner observes the samples of the language, classifies them and makes generalisations (rules). He uses particular facts and examples to form general rules and principles.

(B) The Deductive Approach

If the inductive approach imitates the sciences of observation, the deductive approach which is prescriptive in nature, follows the theoretical sciences. The learner perceives a pattern, constructs a theoretical model, and tests to see how much can be deduced from it. The learner learns the rule in order to apply it to various situation and contexts. He uses knowledge about grammar that is generally true in order to think about and understand particular samples of language or linguistic problems.

Limitations of Grammar Teaching :

(a) Researches have revealed that learning the rules of language is not enough for acquiring perfection. Language learning largely depends on practice and habit formation because it is a matter of skill.

(b) Knowledge of grammar does not help in either fluency of speech or articulation and colloquial expression.

(c) It never provides ideas.

(d) It actually hinders the spontaneous learning of a second language.

(e) The use of parsing and full analysis is a waste of time as compared to the effectiveness of many other methods.

Suggestions for Teaching Grammar

a)   It is a good idea to teach grammar incidentally and informally at the early stage. At the middle stage / secondary stage inductive or deductive method may be more useful. At the higher level, it can be taught through traditional method.

b)   Grammar teaching should occupy a secondary place. It should be a means to an end, not the end in itself.

c)   Teaching of grammar should be started only when pupils acquire some command of language.

d)   Grammar should follow the language.

e)   During early years the function of words and the way they are used may be taught. It includes subject, predicate, subject and verb, use of capital letters and small letters, punctuation marks, Simple Present, Simple Past, singular-plural, personal pronouns, genders etc. Which may be taught. During later years sentence patterns, phrase patterns, structural words and inflections may be taught. At the senior level synthesis, analysis, narration, active-passive voice, compound and complex sentences may be taught.

The teaching of grammar has always been a very controversial issue. The recent view based on researches in applied linguistics is that grammar should be taught in context and it should not be isolated from language in use. Grammar should be taught as and for genuine communication, not a subject to be learnt and talked about. Instead of sticking to a particular approach or method, the teacher would do well to follow an eclectic approach keeping in view the goal of language teaching, the level of the learner and the context in which the language is being taught.

9.6   Let's Sum up

In this unit we have discussed the concept of structure, teaching of structure, concept of grammar and teaching of grammar. Some relevant examples have also been given here with a view to helping you better understand the issue in the context of the development of idea of teaching grammar in use grammar in context and grammar as and for communication.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   The traditional grammar relies heavily on the use of definitions.

(2)   In the structural grammar, rote memorization of definitions of form and class of words is encouraged.

(3)   The T G grammar is concerned with identifying and analyzing the rules of language that native speakers of English acquire and use.

(4)   The Inductive Approach is prescriptive in nature.

(5)   In the Deductive Approach the learner learns the rules in order to apply them to various new situations and contexts.

9.7   Exercises

(i)   Take up a structure from a lesson in a prescribed text book and discuss how you would teach it.

(ii)   Read through the prescribed text book for your class in school and make a list of structures used in it.

(iii)   Take up a grammatical item used in a particular lesson in your prescribed textbook and discuss how you would teach it.

(iv)   "Teaching of structure is teaching grammar, not teaching about grammar." Explain this statement with suitable examples.

(v)   "Teach grammar as and for genuine communication." Do you agree with the statement? Give your views with evidence for or against it.

9.8   Further Reading :

(1)   Hornby, A.S. (1962). The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence Patterns. Delhi : O.U.P.

(2)   Hubbard, Peter; Jones, Hywel; Thornton, Barbara; and Wheelar, Rod. (1983). A Training Course for TEFL. Oxford: O.U.P.

(3)   Lado, Robert (1971, THM, Ed.). Language Teaching. New Delhi : O.U.P.

(4)   Paliwal, A.K. (2006). Teaching English. Jaipur : Kalpana Publications.

(5)   Paliwal, A.K. (2007). A Handbook for Teachers of English. Jaipur: Kalpana Publications

(6)   Mackey, W.F. (1965). Language Teaching Analysis. London & Haslow. Longmans, Green & Co. Ltd.

UNIT - 10

Teaching Reading Comprehension

Structure

10.0   OBJECTIVES

In this Unit we intend to sensitize you to the various aspects of reading comprehension, e.g. silent and loud, intensive and extensive, mechanical reading and reading for understanding. You will also learn how you and your pupils can become efficient readers, i.e. how you all can increase reading speed as well as comprehension. By the end of the Unit you should be able to :

➢ Understand the nature and aspects of reading

➢ Understand the importance of vocabulary and grammatical structures in improving reading comprehension and also reading speed

➢ Devise appropriate exercises for measuring reading speed and comprehension

➢ Generate suitable strategy for improving reading speed and comprehension

For all this it is necessary for you to know what reading involves so that you can explain, teach and inspire your pupils to become efficient learners in order to pass on and further the knowledge farther.

10.1 INTRODUCTION

The sole object of reading is to get meaning from the printed/written page as close as the writer intended to convey. When a child first learns to read, a large portion of his task is to see the various differences between the printed/written symbols and relate them with the corresponding sounds they represent. Let us understand the background of this process of communication.

10.2.1 Primacy of Speech

We know that language originated as a means of communication—both

i.   internal, i.e. between its members, and also

ii.   external, i.e. with other societies using different languages.

This must have been in the form of speech. In the Darwinian evolutionary process, speech is unique to humans. Later, when a speech community developed mentally to such an extent as to need to record its thoughts, it invented or borrowed a script, and the written form came into being. Our *Vedas* came down through *shruti* (aural-oral) tradition, till they got recorded in *Devnagri* script. There are speech communities even today at the oral stage, i.e. without any written language. Incidentally, the written record forms the overall knowledge of a specific linguistic community. Indian linguists have aptly labelled these two stages/forms as :-

(a) *'prakrit'* i.e. the natural form, and

(b) *'sanskrit'* (not to be confused with the language), i.e. sophisticated or polished literary form.

It needs to be understood clearly that since writing is a conscientious activity demanding improvement, the written material without sustainable worth will soon die and only what is first rate will get filtered to the posterity. The written word crosses geographical/political boundaries; and travels temporally from past to present to future. All this accumulated rich treasure of entire human knowledge can be available to us—upon which the entire theory of education is based, which also requires the learner to be an efficient reader. Your pupils need to be explained that reading is the way of coming in contact with the minds of millions of wise men and women—dead or alive—who have recorded their experiences for the reader's benefit." It suffices to

understand, according to an anonymous maxim, that *"If we are stupid, we are stupid by choice— for well within walking distance of any of us stands a library with its unlimited knowledge and unlimited wisdom."*

10.2.2 Reading : Most Convenient Skill

Reading is fortunately one of the most convenient and easiest of all linguistic skills. Of the four basic language skills, speaking and listening are oral, whereas writing and reading belong to the written form of language. Categorised along their roles, speaking and writing are **skills of expression** (or productive skills); but listening and reading are **skills of comprehension** (or receptive skills). Obviously the productive skills ought to be more difficult than the receptive ones, i.e. listening and reading should be easier than their productive counterparts, viz. speaking and writing. The table below shows the skills and their classification.

Skills → ----------- Mode ↓	Skills of Expression	Skills of Comprehension
Oral	Speaking	Listening
Written	Writing	Reading

It is true that, whether in L_1 (i.e. mother tongue) or L_2 (i.e. other tongue), the learner is first exposed to listening. Historically speaking also, the spoken form of any language is primary and its written form is a stage developed much later. Nevertheless, mere listening cannot compensate for reading and in the system of formal education "reading is critical for success in school" as "achievement of basic reading skills opens the way to all areas of learning."

Now, as skills of comprehension, both listening and reading entail two factors :-

(a) understanding, and

(b) speed.

That is, a listener/reader is required to understand as fast as possible. On this dimension, reading is easier and more convenient than listening, owing to the additional facilities it offers, particularly in an SLL (Second Language Learning)

situation like ours, lacking much aural exposure of English. The added aids which reading provides over listening can be enumerated as follows :

(1) Reading, being a private and individual activity has a very significant psychological advantage for a diffident learner who can benefit a lot through solitary reading. Thus, it helps overcome his shyness initially.

(3) As a leisurely activity the reader is free to read according to his mood and convenient time.

(4) The reader can choose his material to suit his interest, need, level of comprehension, and time available. The listener, on the other hand, may have the only choice not to listen by leaving the place or switching off the TV/radio.

(5) The reader can consult a dictionary, an encyclopaedia or a knowledgeable person in case of any difficulty during or after reading. Thus, this facility of consultation helps to achieve better understanding of the text.

(6) The reader can keep his own pace, regulating the speed according to his need, i.e. the amount of comprehension required. In the case of listening the speed is controlled by the speaker.

(7) If the reader feels that he has not been able to understand any specific thing in the text, he enjoys the freedom to re-read a word, or a phrase, or a clause, or a sentence, or a paragraph, or even the whole of the passage, not only once but as many times as he chooses.

Thus, reading is not only the most important but also the most convenient language skill, and this fact needs to be hammered into the learners' minds in order to encourage them to pay more attention to it.

10.2.3 Sub-skills of Reading

Reading, though one of the four basic language skills, necessitates a number of sub-skills, which are more often than not referred to as reading skills, the knowledge of which is essential and useful for language teachers.

These sub-skills of reading can be understood as a **grapho-phonic-semantic** process of sight-sound-sense: it consists mainly in the decoding of written (or printed) symbols on a page and attaching meanings to them. These sub-skills comprise mechanics of reading and mental sub-skills, aimed at comprehension. Once the initial mechanics of reading have been mastered, reading becomes a process of thinking under the stimulus of the printed page.

10.2.4 Mechanics of Reading :

For reading to occur some sort of writing system of the language must be present. It consists of **graphemes,** i.e. written symbols representing the sounds of the language. At an early stage, therefore, in order to decode the written symbols at a progressively faster rate, the learner needs to recognise these written symbols which form the words and groups of words. For this purpose the following sub-skills are required:

(a) **Sight-recognition**, i.e. the ability to recognise the visual shapes of words. Familiarity with these shapes enables the reader to go along the reading passage smoothly.

(b) **Phonics**, i.e. the skill to relate spellings to sounds. It demands that the reader should be able to guess the pronunciation of new words on the basis of his prior experience of similar words.

(c) **Word-analysis**, i.e. the skill to guess meanings of new words through morphological cues. Here, the reader is required to guess the meanings of new words using his knowledge of the processes of prefixation (e.g. <u>dis</u>obedient, <u>en</u>throne, <u>un</u>fortunate, <u>mis</u>fortune), suffixation (e.g. nation<u>al</u>, national<u>ize</u>, nationaliz<u>ation</u>) and compounding (e.g. after**noon**, foot**ball**, boy**friend**), which go into the formation of words in the language.

(d) **Structural analysis**, i.e. the ability to guess meanings of words and groups of words from the syntax. In other words, this requires a passive knowledge of the grammar of the language, i.e. how the strings of words in a particular order are used to form meaningful sentences.

(e) **Sense-group reading**, i.e. the sub-skill involving taking in groups of words forming sense-units, rather than reading word by word at a time. Accordingly,

whereas a poor reader decodes individual words, the good reader is able to decode the entire sense-group of words in a single effort. Obviously, this ability also needs familiarity with syntactical structuring of words i.e. what words go together in what order.

Evidently, the sub-skills develop as the learner goes on forming rules of phonetics, morphology and syntax, which results from greater linguistic input through reading. Thus, more and more reading provides more linguistic experience as well as practice, which, in turn, helps in more efficient reading. Hence, it needs to be impressed upon the students that if they go on reading regularly, they will be better readers and consequently their ability to read efficiently will result in better academic achievements.

10.2.5 Mental Sub-skills

Besides the basic sub-skills pertaining to the mechanics of reading involved in decoding the written symbols, there are other sub-skills related to semantics (=study of meanings) because meaning is not constructed from the formal language of the message alone. True reading, as opposed to decoding, involves the perception of meaning at different levels ranging from the lowest, individual graphemes, to the highest, the text as a whole. This meaning-perceiving process at diverse strata can be the location, identification, reorganisation, interpretation, and evaluation of the information retrievable from a printed text.

Broad Classification

Put together these cognitive abilities comprise the sub-skills of comprehension, which can be classified in two ways :-

i) **Local comprehension** involving the ability to locate and identify specific points of information (e.g. facts), to draw inferences from them, etc.; and

ii) **Global comprehension** is attainable through the skill to perceive the overall organisation of a piece of text—the themes and sub-themes, the logical and hierarchical relationships between them, and the relationship between thematic organisation and paragraph structure, (i.e. how the relationships between the

themes and sub- themes is reflected through the logical relationships between paragraphs), etc.

Hierarchical Classification

These sub-skills are also categorizable along the continuum of mental abilities involved in reading comprehension from lower to higher:

i) **Factual or literal comprehension** refers to the ability to deal with information at a purely factual level, i.e. to locate, identify and recall facts which are explicitly stated, e.g.

      a) names of characters in a story, specific events, etc.,

      b) sequence of events,

      c) comparisons and contrasts, cause-effect relationships,

      d) physical features or traits of a character,

      e) directly stated main idea or ideas.

ii) **Referential comprehension** demands the ability to retrieve factual information by referring to the different parts of the text because such information is dispersed over the entire text. For the purpose, the reader has to refer to the different parts of the text and connect one piece of information to another, e.g. to recover various causes of a particular phenomenon not listed together.

(iii)   **Skill of organising information** relates to the ability to recover information not conveniently presented. The reader is required to rearrange or reorganise facts and ideas either mentally or in the form of notes for his own future reference. It involves categorisation of information as well as a process of selection and summarising.

iv) **Inferential comprehension** is the ability to draw inferences from stated facts, which requires higher and more complex reasoning abilities. The reader fills in the information gaps on the basis of what has been presented explicitly, e.g. inferring a cause-effect relationship not stated directly. Students can be trained to acquire and develop such abilities through problem-solving exercises, in which they learn to pick up the linguistic clues in the text in order to come to the correct inference or conclusion.

v) **Prediction** is the reader's ability to foretell what is likely to follow as he goes on reading, by following the linguistic clues like discourse markers as well as the logical organisation of the text. For instance, the expression "for instance" indicates that the writer is going to illustrate what he has stated, or the expression "there are several reasons..." hints at enumeration of the reasons.

10.3 Types of Reading

Having discussed the mechanical and mental sub-skills involved in reading, before we proceed any further it will be worthwhile to distinguish between two types of reading, viz. oral and silent.

(i) Oral Reading

In this kind of reading the reader, while reading, produces sounds audible to others. In the early years of aural-oral language learning, oral reading is indispensable. As has already been explained, the learner initially learns to relate sounds to graphic symbols (grapho-phonic relationship). In this process of reading out he learns the phonemes (=sounds of a specific language), their combinations, the stress and the intonation patterns. In the classroom ELT (English Language Teaching) situation also it offers the teacher opportunities to discover mispronunciations of specific sounds, faulty stresses and wrong intonations; and take appropriate remedial measures. However, if reading aloud is too much made use of as a way of teaching, it may lead to short-circuiting of the meaning, which is the ultimate purpose of reading. In that case, the written word does not convey meaning but becomes merely a collection of sounds. Therefore, gradually the learner has to be weaned away from it, because the large bulk of reading in real life situations is going to be silent. Reading aloud constitutes a kind of prop for the reader. But progressively all such supports have to be withdrawn. Eventually, the learner is to rely on his own efforts, unaided by anyone. This implies a kind of transfer from speaking to reading habit, which has to be silent mainly.

(ii) Silent Reading

This type of reading requires reading quietly without producing any audible sounds. At the advanced levels of learning, it is immensely advantageous to be skilled in reading silently because most of the reading outside school is necessarily silent. Here

the emphasis is on meaning rather than sounds. Some psycholinguists believe that reading without assigning some phonetic values to the graphic symbols is impossible, therefore, even in silent reading the reader 'sub-vocalises' i.e. pronounces words mentally. However, recent researches show that after the acquisition of the basic mechanics of reading, the grapho-phonic process becomes automatic and the reader connects meaning directly with the graphic symbols.

Here, one thing needs to be specially emphasised. In most of the ELT classrooms, what the ELT practitioners have been observed doing with Course Readers and Rapid Readers is that they

(a) either themselves read the passage and go on translating it piece by piece into Hindi or the local language, or

(b) ask the pupils to read aloud one paragraph each and translate it para by para.

This stereotyped method of explaining with a modicum of English here and there will have to be done away with because it cannot be termed as any step towards developing reading skill(s). Charles Lamb (1775-1834) very succinctly remarks in his essay titled '*Detached Thoughts on Books and Reading*': "With every advantage of lungs and elocution, the effect is singularly vapid." In fact, gradually the pupils have to be left to grapple with the text on their own with minimal help from the teacher. The ultimate aim is to make them independent readers, availing themselves of all help at their disposal.

The teacher can at the outset help the learners familiarise themselves with the topic in order to give them a foretaste to create expectations and arouse their interest. This is to be followed by the reading task set so that they know beforehand the purpose of their reading. Once they have read independently, they should work in pairs/groups. The teacher can help them to check their answers. To discourage slow and ponderous way of reading, a time limit may also be set. After the reading comprehension exercises, a follow-up task(s) related to the text, e.g. a reply to a letter in the text can be taken up.

For building reading habits and improving reading skills efforts need to be made from the beginning, i.e. the primary school stage, for which the primary teachers also need to be trained. The reading skills learnt in Hindi/regional language will get automatically transferred to English. Also, the English teachers can educate the

content-subject teachers about what is involved in reading, as a lot of reading is required in content subjects also.

Our Course Readers are designed to teach certain grammatical structures and vocabulary items. After teaching/explaining them, the pupils should be asked to read the passage silently and mark any grammatical structure and/or words, which they find difficult to understand, besides the glossary provided at the end of each passage. Firstly, other pupils can be asked to explain such difficult grammatical structures/words. If they fail, the teacher can handle them briefly or in detail looking to its need for the entire class. Rapid Readers, on the other hand, are generally abridged and simplified. As the name suggests, they are for faster reading with the help of the glossary given. Incidentally, Course Readers are prepared for intensive reading, whereas Rapid Readers for extensive reading, the difference between which we shall explain a bit later.

Remember that language has to be taught as a 'skill' like carpentry and not like a content subject like history. Silent reading involves more language activity on the part of the learner and less on that of the teacher.

This kind of reading is extremely useful at the advanced levels of learning. At this stage meaning takes pre-eminence over sounds. Using the physical mechanics of reading, the reader takes in semantically unified groups of words in quick succession and goes on decoding them. Reading will, therefore, denote silent reading, with its emphasis on meaning.

10.4 Cognitive Processes in Reading

There is some controversy as to how different levels of meaning are integrated in the reader's mind. Some argue that reading is a **bottom-up** process: graphemes are perceived as forming words, words as forming sentences, sentences as forming paragraphs, and so on. Others argue that the process is **top-down**: the reader starts with a general idea or "schema", derived from his previously acquired knowledge of what should be in the text and uses this schema in perceiving and interpreting graphic cues. Later researchers have developed a useful **interactive** model of the major cognitive processes involved in reading, which is presented in the Figure below :-

FIGURE

The activities and processes by which information is gleaned from the text is depicted on the left. The reader encounters new information through reading and assigns it preliminary meanings. Long-term memory, presented on the right, likewise contributes to the reading process. Memory for alphabet characteristics, for concepts, word order, the structure of passages and prior information all influence the process.

The main activities of reading, like all other cognitive processes, occur in working memory, pictured in the middle. Incoming information and prior knowledge interact in working memory, each influencing the other. On one hand, our schemata affect the information we take in and the way in which we take it in (i.e. the way in which we read). On the other hand, existing knowledge undergoes modification and transformation through the new content.

Thus, like other cognitive activities, reading is a dynamic, interactive process. Therefore, the meaning that the reader obtains while reading is influenced both by the content of what he reads and by his prior knowledge as well as his goal(s) for reading in the context of the reading event.

There is in fact an interaction between the levels. The reader starts with the perception of graphic cues, but as soon as these are recognised as familiar, schemata derived from both linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world in general are brought into play.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(1.)   External communication refers to communication of one speech community with another speech community.

(2.)   Reading is process of coming in contact with millions of wise men and women living in different parts of the world.

(3.)   Reading involves both understanding and speed.

(4.)   Many sub-skills are involved in reading.

(5.)   Inferential comprehension refers to tell in advance what is probably going to follow.

10.5   Kind and Degree of Comprehension

We have already discussed that the reader operates with several sub-skills while engaged in this cognitive interactional processing. However, it should not be misconstrued that all the sub-skills of comprehension are employed in reading every piece of text. Indeed, the kind and degree of comprehension will depend on :

(a) kind of the text, and

(b) purpose of reading.

Kind of the Text

The spectrum of language extends from the subjective, imaginative realm of literary writing to the objective, factual domain of journalistic or scientific writing. Obviously, therefore, different kinds of texts, determining diverse difficulty levels call for different kinds of comprehension. An expository essay, packed with information, will require a different kind of comprehension from a humorous narrative. Because in real life a sizeable portion of reading materials is of the informative type requiring a high

degree of concentration, practice in different varieties of reading with special emphasis on the informative type will be necessary in classroom teaching.

Purpose

Purpose not only serves motivational function but also provides a focus and directional component to the reading process. Therefore, the reader may have to exercise different kinds and degrees of comprehension in handling the same text depending upon the purpose of reading. For instance, trying to select a book on a particular topic, he just compares its treatment by different authors with a cursory comprehension *(skimming)*. Later, when he has decided in favour of a particular book, he will peruse it with greater attention and concentration, perhaps making notes from it for subsequent reference. Again, just before the examination he may revise the book in order to refresh his memory.

To take another example, if the reader requires finding out the population of India in a passage of, say, twenty pages, he will only pay attention to the figures and glide his eyes over the passage very briskly. Similarly, if he is proof-reading, he concentrates only on correct spellings as well as size and shape of the font rather than the meaning. Thus, different purposes of reading dictate different kinds and amounts of comprehension.

We mentioned earlier that reading as a receptive language skill presupposes comprehension and speed. After having discussed comprehension we shall take up the second important component involved in the reading process, viz. speed, or reading rate.

Reading Rate

The afore-mentioned two factors, viz. the kind of the text and the purpose of reading, not only influence comprehension but also dictate the speed at which a text has to be read. For instance, while comparing different text-books for the purpose of selecting one, the reader concentrates only on new information and ignores common familiar material presented therein. On the other hand, when he goes through a selected book for the purpose of close study, the reading rate will come down drastically. The speed at which a novel is read is entirely different from that at which a text-book is perused.

Sundry kinds of texts needing varied degrees and types of comprehension as well as different reading rates involves an important pedagogical implication : the learner needs to be exposed to a large variety of texts in order to develop a wide range of comprehension, which can conveniently be put under two headings :

(a) Intensive Reading

It demands attention to each and every detail. It is useful while studying for tests and examinations. This kind of reading is also required when the reader is working on difficult technical type of materials in his text-books, or while reading articles of serious nature. It may also be required while reading passages from fiction in which the details are essential and/or interesting. Intensive reading is usually essential and useful where recall of practically all the facts is required. However students who have to be given training in this type of reading should start with a pencil and a note-book. They should get the habit of making notes of the major ideas.

(b) Extensive Reading

It is faster than the former and aims at general understanding rather than details. The reader tries to obtain the overall idea paying attention to the relevant pieces of information in the passage to form it. All pleasure reading comes under this category. This kind of reading makes it possible to read widely, which in turn helps the reader to acquire speed and various skills needed for good reading. Since the written word is the repository of human knowledge, only through extensive reading can we have an easy access to that knowledge. Therefore, in addition to the close intensive kind of reading, this type of reading practice also forms a part of reading syllabi.

Practice in extensive reading is purported to "develop good reading habits to build up knowledge of vocabulary and structure and to encourage liking for reading.

The distinction between intensive reading and extensive reading also explains that it is not enough to be able to read, but to be able to read fast is the demand of the modern world. This skill of fast reading is termed "speed-reading."

Speed-reading

The ability to read rapidly is the most significant component of reading in the wake of the recent explosion in the field of knowledge and in print. Guestimates in early 1960's indicate that it took approximately 1750 years for the first doubling of knowledge, 150 years for the second doubling, 50 years for the third, and only 10 years for the fourth. The fifth doubling may take 5 years or even less. Almost every profession today requires a lot of reading during training as well as while in the profession to keep pace with the fast striding new knowledge in the area. Equipped with rapid reading ability, we shall become life-time readers and derive pleasure out of reading. Reading, then, will not be a monotonous and wearisome activity.

Therefore, a major (*if not the major*) objective of language teaching, whether first or second, should be to induce and train the learners to read fast. "Fortunately, the reading processes, skills and techniques, learned in one language are automatically transferred to another language."[27] Therefore, in order to cope with the fast speeding knowledge it is not enough to be just able to read, but to possess the valuable skill to read fast. Rapid reading habits enable a person to gather more information in comparatively less time, which is the need of the hour.

Origin of Speed- reading

Interest in **speed-reading** dates back to the mid-thirties of the 20[th] century. The most accredited work in the area is that of Guy Buswell of Chicago University in 1935-36 on the reading habits of 100 adults from all walks of life. One very significant conclusion of his experiments is that the most serious handicap retarding the adult education movement is the low reading ability of many adults.

As a result, many schools sprang up with the business of teaching people to read faster and, therefore, better. Since then researches in this field have gained momentum and many rapid reading programmes have started in developed countries aiming at breaking the accustomed tempo of the reader and claiming that each and every individual can be made to read considerably faster than his existing reading speed without any loss in comprehension.

Incredible Reports:

The following incredible extract from "*Speed Reading*" by Jack Smith appeared in the Indian Express of the 26th August 1973 : "One 13-year old boy read the book in four

minutes. This lad was said to be capable of reading at 35,000 words a minute, with spurts of 80,000." [28]

Another similar report appeared in the *Nutan Gujarat* (a newspaper) dated the 14th August 1977 about Miss Maria Tera of the Philippines, an advocate by profession : "Maria Tera underwent a speed reading course in North Western University, USA at the age of 16. At the beginning of the 5 weeks' training, her reading speed was 250 words per minute. But on conclusion the speed had shown an increase of 750 words per minute. Then it went on increasing to 1000..... 5000.... 7000.... 10,000 to 12,000,.... 20,000.... 25000.... 40,000....... 45,000.   Her current speed [in 1977] is estimated to be 80,000 words per minute. She practices law in the Philippines and has been honoured by their President."

Such reports may appear to be fictional though, they should not be regarded as impossible. We shall attempt to explain this phenomenon. It needs to be appreciated at the outset that reading is a basic human skill involving the reader's eyes, brain and the text. We are well aware of the extra-ordinary capacity of the brain. We shall, therefore, examine how eyes function during the reading of the text.

Eye Movements and Fixations

One of the few observable aspects of reading is the movement of eyes across the printed page (from left to right, or right to left, or top to bottom, according to the writing convention of the language). Our eyes can see clearly only when they are stationary; otherwise what they perceive is a vague hazy image. Therefore, eye movements in reading are not smooth like those we make when looking at slowly moving objects, but are a series of start-stop jumps along a line of print. The jumps [or pauses] are called **saccades**, while the periods of time in which the eyes come to rest are called **fixations**. The eye movements in reading are much like those involved in looking at various objects in a room: the eye jumps from point to point.

The number of saccades governs the reading speed. The more the pauses per line, the less is the speed and vice versa. The number of saccades depends on **span**, i.e. how much we see at each stop. Swami Vivekanand could read a page at a glance through his photographic memory. The second speed-determining factor is fixation, i.e. the time taken at each pause. A camera, only a poor imitation of human eye, can take a

clear picture at 1/500 second. Thus, a fair estimation of 4 words per span with a fixation of 1/20 second comes to 4,800 words per minute. Not surprisingly, then, through training and practice this speed can be raised much higher, it can be argued convincingly.

Efficient Reading:

Reading fast, nevertheless, is not running like a mad man, just as driving fast is not driving for death. An efficient reader is commonly compared with an efficient driver. Just as a good driver takes into account the condition of the vehicle, the road condition, his own skill in driving, road-signs and the purpose; a good reader, similarly, pays attention to the difficulty level of the material, his own proficiency, various linguistic clues and the purpose for which he is pursuing the task of reading. Two things are clear even from these contradictory arguments:

(i) reading rate is measurable; and

(ii) it can be enhanced. If it can be measured, then there must be some measuring techniques.

Reading speed

Reading speed is the number of words read within a given time period. It can objectively be calculated with the help of the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{Number of words read}}{\text{Total time taken in seconds}} \times 60 = \text{Speed (words per minute)}$$

However, it is not enough to merely measure the speed of reading because in isolation this kind of measurement does not serve any purpose. In fact, the scores may be unreliable and there may not have been any reading at all really, since speed without comprehension has no value. Therefore, it is essential to measure both speed and comprehension in reading.

10.6 Testing Reading Comprehension

Comprehension, on the other hand, is an elusive entity as a process, embracing a number of skills and sub-sills, hence thwarting measurement. Comprehension as a **product** can measure in some more or less objective way, the net result of the process.

Typically, comprehension measurement is based on the evaluation of the reader's responses to a battery of specific questions in percentage as follows:

$$\frac{\textbf{Marks obtained by the reader}}{\textbf{Total marks assigned to the battery}} \quad \textbf{X} \quad \textbf{100 = Comprehension(\%)}$$

The battery of such specific questions forms a test which can be employed for two purposes:

(a) An **achievement test** is prepared at the beginning or end of a particular teaching programme to assess the proficiency level a testee has achieved.

(b) A **diagnostic test**, as the name suggests, is administered to the testees in order to find out the areas where they are deficient so that suitable teaching programmes can be designed looking to their specific needs. Such a test is also used for error-analysis.

Types of Questions

To measure reading comprehension various types of items are employed—each one purported to test some specific skill.

a) A **short-answer question** is open-ended and the testee writes the answer briefly as he wishes.

b) A **multiple-choice item** can begin with a **lead** or **stem** in the form of either a question or a statement, followed by one correct answer and two/three/four distracters, which should be as plausible as the **key** to lure less knowledgeable testee. The testee is required to indicate the correct answer by ticking, encircling, etc.

c) A **true-false item** is in the form of a statement and the testee is to indicate whether it is true or false in the context. By using a **polar** question this item can be transformed into a yes-no type.

d) A **vocabulary item** is to test whether the testee can understand the **literal** or **denotational** (or surfacial) as well as the **connotational** meaning of a word/phrase in the context.

The item may demand the testee to:

    (1) match or replace the meanings with words given or to be identified from the passage;

    (2) fill in the blanks with the words provided;

    (3) give antonyms or synonyms; or

    (4) give the meaning out of the multiple-choice words or vice-versa.

e.) A **cloze** question/test cannot be a single item. It is a new and relatively unfamiliar type of question, in which a few words from a continuous text are deleted and the testee attempts to supply them, very similar to the skill of ancient scholars to interpolate the portions of scriptures eaten away by termites or damaged by some similar circumstances. A 'cloze procedure' requires the reader to construct the mutilated language-patterns by making the most likely replacement in the light of his language system and the grammatical and semantic cues that are available.

W.L. Taylor (1953) invented it to measure readability and named it after **Gestalt Closure Theory**, which refers to human tendency to construct a whole figure from fragmented pieces.

The deletion can be a single word or a group, but invariably a 'communicative unit' : a word, a phrase, a clause, a sentence, even a paragraph from a continuous text. It has two types:

(i) **Standard deletion**, in which every **'n^{th}'** word (generally fifth) is deleted, is employed as a **test of proficiency**.

(ii) **Selective deletion**, in which a specific category of word—content or functional— is deleted, is used as a **diagnostic test**.

There are two systems of scoring:

(a) **Exact word scoring**: in which the correct answer is only the same word(s) that was deleted.

(b) **Acceptable word scoring**: in which credit is accorded even when the testee offers a word(s) similar to the one deleted.

The latter is favoured since including synonyms as correct responses slightly increases the correlation between cloze scores and scores on comprehension test. A few scholars

recommend even ignoring spelling mistakes in the testee's answer if they do not change the meaning of the word.

Two more varieties of cloze have evolved:

(i) **Multiple-choice cloze**: a multiple-choice with one correct answer is provided for the deleted word.

(ii) **Convenient cloze** (or 'comprehension cloze') : credit is given even if an L_1 word(s) with a similar meaning to that of the deleted word(s) is offered.

Cloze has been universally acclaimed highly useful, valid and reliable since it tests the local as well as the higher order skills like organisation—grammatical, syntactic and semantic grasp of the learner. It is a test of the students' "transitional competence". Cloze tests both the language system and the communicative competence of the learner— "to "integrate clues from different levels".

The types of questions explained above are merely different forms in which a question can be framed and are interchangeable. Certain questions may go better in one form than the other. However, perhaps the best approach is not to rely on one testing instrument but on an assortment of testing techniques in an effort to achieve a more complete assessment of reading comprehension. Besides, there can be long answer descriptive questions, but the types enumerated above ensure greater objectivity of evaluation.

Striking the Balance

In the foregoing paragraphs we looked at how reading speed and amount of comprehension are measured. Even so, speed and comprehension are inversely proportionate. Therefore, an efficient reader is supposed to strike the balance between the amount of comprehension required as per his purpose and the reading rate achievable with that. Accordingly, reading efficiency is measured by the product of speed (words/minute) and percentage of comprehension, the formula being :

**Reading efficiency =
Speed(wpm)   X**

$$\frac{\underline{\textbf{Comprehension (\%)}}}{\textbf{100}}$$

When and Where of Reading

Not only that, the proficient avid reader also decides what to read, keeping in view the availability of time and where he is reading. Charles Lamb very succinctly remarks in his above-mentioned essay : "Much depends upon *when* and *where* you read a book. In the five or six impatient minutes, before the dinner is quite ready who would think of taking up the *Faerie Queene* or a stop-gap, or a volume of Bishop Andrew's' sermons?"

Efficient Reading Speeds

On the lines of the above discussion Fry (1963) distinguishes three reading rates:

(i) The **study reading speed** is meant for difficult sort of material like text-books, directions to be followed precisely, a philosophical discourse, etc. The emphasis is on total or near-total comprehension, as much as ninety per cent or more, along with retention of what is read.

(ii) The **average reading speed** is for relatively simpler text-books, novels, magazines and newspapers, all prose that is descriptive, narrative, factual or informative. It is the reading rate at which most of the reading material is read, and therefore the most useful to the reader. According to Fry, it should be certainly faster than 250 words per minute, while a speed of 500 words per minute is not too ambitious a goal for most students to achieve through training. The comprehension required in this kind of reading is around 70 per cent.

(iii) **Skimming** is reading at the fastest that a reader is capable of. The reader leaves out judiciously and selectively entire chunks of reading material. As a result of this high acceleration, he achieves a lower comprehension, say about 50 per cent. Skimming is a well-defined reading skill, in which relatively less essential parts and details are left out and attention is paid only to get the general idea of what the passage is about.

The following Table presents Fry's gradation of reading rates along with the amount of comprehension desirable/achievable in the case of a poor reader and a good reader.

Fry's Gradation of Reading Rates with Comprehension

Speed	Poor Reader	Good Reader

Study Reading	90-125 words/minute	200-300 words/minute
	80%-90% comprehension	80%-90% comprehension
Average Reading	150-180 words/minute	250-500 words/minute
	70% comprehension	70% comprehension
Skimming	cannot skim	800+ words/minute
		50% comprehension

Scanning

Similar to skimming, there is another reading skill called 'scanning'. Both skills require the reader to jump through the text, ignoring parts of it. When the reader is looking quickly over the text to get a general, superficial idea of the content (and there may or may not be a reason for a subsequent, more careful reading), it is called **skimming**. When the reader is looking quickly through the text searching for a specific piece of information or to see if the text is suitable for a specific reading purpose— this we call **scanning.**

The reader asks himself, 'Has this text got what I'm looking for and, if so, where is it?' Then, in the text under consideration he moves his eyes quickly over the text on the look-out for specific "symbol(s)" (such as a name, date or figure). He knows what the symbol looks like and exhibits a mixture of rapid inspection with an occasional closer look. Naturally, very little information is processed for long-term retention or even for immediate understanding, because the purpose is to find a match between what is sought and what is given. The reader proceeds rapidly rejecting a mismatch and examining more carefully a near match till he arrives at the exact match.

The solitary pedagogical implication of our discussion so far is that our aim should be to prepare our students as efficient readers and equip them with the skills required to achieve this objective.

Since reading is not a natural process, the habits necessary for efficient reading need to be inculcated during the initial period of language instruction. The subsequent instruction, then, can concentrate upon improvement of reading habits and skills leading to efficiency.

Efficient reading involves:

a) rapidity in seeing and in recognising printed/written symbols (visual-cum-lower mental

activity), and

b) accurate comprehension of their meanings (higher mental activity).

Accordingly, an efficient reader performs a twofold task of :

i) recognising printed symbols instantly, comprehending their specific meanings

quickly and correctly, and

ii) assimilating the specific meanings, integrating and interpreting them in order to

use the sum of what he comprehends either for his information or for his enjoyment.

10.7 Factors Affecting Reading Efficiency

It is a commonplace that efficiency in reading skills varies from one learner to the other even when the reading instructions have been the same or similar. That denotes that there are various factors which affect reading efficiency, favourably or unfavourably, which can be categorised into two sets:-

i. **internal**, i.e. the factors within the individual, and

ii. **external**, i.e. the factors outside the individual.

Internal Factors

There are quite a few causes residing within the reader which affect reading. They are as follows:

a. **Vision:** The mechanical process of reading is accomplished by means of the eyes. Therefore, visual efficiency is essential for successful reading. Poor vision is a distinct handicap in reading.

b. **Hearing**: In language-learning, speech enjoys primacy over the written form. It has already been explained that the ability to relate graphemes to phonemes is essential to be able to read, for which the ability to hear sounds accurately is necessary. Without auditory acuity, therefore, the learner cannot be expected to become an efficient reader.

c. **Speech Defects:** Defective articulation may directly affect reading by presenting confusion in the sounds of words to be associated with their respective written/ printed symbols. Therefore, there appears to be a reciprocal relation between facility in speech and reading.

d. **Vocalisation:** Reading audibly retards reading rate. A vocalising reader can read at 120-150 words per minute (i.e. normal speaking rate), stretchable to 200 words per minute, beyond which speech becomes unintelligible. If vocalisation becomes a habit, it is very difficult to get rid of it. Further, it not only hinders the speed of the reader, but also affects comprehension adversely.

e. **Lip-reading** (movement of lips without audible sound) or movement of throat muscles are also residual effects of the initial loud reading, which do not allow the reader to go fast.

f. **Sub-vocalisation:** Akin to vocalisation this habit of reading with mental speech is difficult to eradicate. Although there are no audible sounds, the reader goes on pronouncing the words in the mind while reading and therefore, cannot go to the next word until he has mentally pronounced the present word.

g. **Word-by-word reading** hampers speed and also obscures the overall meaning of the sentence or the paragraph. A good reader is supposed to grasp whole phrases at a glance and decode their meaning.

h. **Word Blocking:** Allowing a long pause to worry about an unfamiliar word frequently breaks the tempo of reading due to insufficient vocabulary. Instead of stopping over an unfamiliar word the reader should develop the habit of guessing its meaning with the help of contextual clues and go ahead.

i. **Word analysis** is the habit of stopping over some words (during reading) and start analysing them to their etymology and structures. It can be a good vocabulary building exercise but during reading it breaks the speed and takes the reader away from the context.

j. **Inflexibility:** One who plods monotonously at the same speed along all kinds of reading materials cannot claim to be an efficient reader. The reader need to be clear beforehand as to the purposes for which he is going to read. To be a really good reader, however, the pupil must have learned to set his own purpose. This requires discrimination and flexibility. That is, the pupil must be able to size up the materials and clearly understand the purpose. Then, he must be flexible in choosing the appropriate rate for himself to read with understanding. In other words, 'the proficient reader is the adaptable, versatile reader'. This self-management of the

cognitive abilities on the part of the reader is sometimes referred to as 'metacognition', i.e. the capacity of the reader to guide the comprehension process.

k. **Finger Pointing:** Some poor readers depend on a pen, a pencil, a foot rule, or even a pointing finger, placing which below the printed line and moving along, they guide their eyes—as a prop. Obviously, the finger cannot move as fast as the eyes can. Therefore, this habit also obstructs the reading rate.

l. **Head Swinging:** The perpetuation of the tendency to move the head from left to right as the learner proceeds along the written/printed line will prove harmful if not checked at the initial stages. This process is really tiresome as well as unnecessary and retards the reader's speed.

m. **Backtracking:** Going back to read some words again indicates the reader's doubt about his ability to pick out important ideas and he keeps thinking over the back ideas instead of accelerating his reading.

n. **Rereading:** Lack of self-confidence and interruption in between the reading assignment compels some readers to reread the whole matter. This kind of rereading is a fairly ineffective method of reviewing immediately after study.

Some of these reading defects cause unnecessary fatigue and boredom, and hence discourage long reading sessions. Motivation and attitude of the reader are also internal factors which cannot be discussed in detail here. It suffices to mention that it is the duty of the classroom practitioner to motivate his pupils to read as much as possible for their own benefits by creative positive attitude. He needs to make the learners understand the importance of reading as well as establish it as a pleasurable and rewarding habit and not as drudgery. He should explain what is involved in being a proficient reader as well as the bad habits which hinder proficiency. However, those readers who cling to such habits as a prop, owing to a sense of insecurity, should not be harassed.

External Factors

Besides the factors within the individual, there are factors within the environment which also influence reading:

(a) **Illumination**: The eye perceives objects as a result of reflected light. Therefore, proper light—both in quantity and quality— is essential for visual task. Reading is a

prolonged near-vision task that requires concentration and quick recognition of finely detailed objects. Adequate light and its proper arrangement contribute materially to efficient performance in the physical aspects of reading.

(b)   **External Readability** is concerned with legibility and, therefore, sensory perception. If the text poses difficulty in reading because of the size of the type, type face, length of the printed line, paper, ink etc., it can obscure vision and produce visual discomfort and fatigue.

(c) **Internal Readability** refers to the facility or difficulty of comprehension that the text presents for the reader. There can be two types of difficulties:

      (i)   Linguistic, i.e. related to language.

      (ii)   Conceptual, i.e. certain ideas hamper understanding.

Linguistic difficulties can further be sub-divided into two classes:

      (i)   Lexical

      (ii)   Syntactical

Lexical difficulties relate to the problem of decoding posed by certain words—content or structure. **Content words** are the message-carriers (usually only these words form a telegraphic message), while the **structure words** are merely gap-fillers and belong to grammatical categories like pronouns, prepositions, articles, etc. The pupil should be trained to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from the context and go ahead without bothering about the meaning of every word. If essential, he can consult a **dictionary** as well. Indeed, an important aid to inculcate independence in readers is a suitable dictionary and the skill to make its effective use.

Syntactical difficulties pertain to complexity of sentence structure in which the rules of agreement govern the relationships among its different constituents. An unfamiliar type or form of a sentence can hamper understanding.

There can also be **conceptual difficulties** of comprehension. Unfamiliar complicated ideas or unfamiliar historical allusions presented in the text can deter understanding. At times such difficulties may arise because of the cultural distance between the writer and the reader. In that case it is labelled **cultural difficulty.**

From the ELT point of view it implies that the difficulty level of the reading material should be appropriately pitched to the comprehension level of the readers, i.e. slightly

higher so that it remains sufficiently challenging. Besides, it should be interesting enough to hold their concentration: boring texts are demotivating.

(d) **Distractions** affect reading adversely too. They do not allow the reader to direct his attention to the task. Our attention wavers when someone speaks to us; or when we feel drowsy, we find it difficult to understand what we are reading. It is because our capacity for processing incoming information in working memory is very limited, therefore, attention gets shifted from one thing to another. The importance of attention in any learning situation has been recognised for centuries, which from the psycholinguistic viewpoint suggests that learning is maximal when irrelevant stimuli are removed and only the relevant stimuli are provided to derive the desired response.

Before we conclude this discussion of reading skills, it appears appropriate to deal with one such reading skill, which deserves a little elaboration because of its unique significance in reading and without which this analysis of reading skills would look deficient, viz. the use of the dictionary.

Dictionary

A suitable dictionary and the ability to use it is an important aid to independence in reading, especially in the learning of English, which is a foreign language. Once the learner has passed the stage of extensively glossed as well as carefully graded readers and simplified abridged books, he will be required to read unabridged books, similar to the real life situations. Even when he has already been trained and encouraged to guess the meanings o]f words or expressions with the help of the contextual clues provided, these may not always be sufficiently helpful. It is here that training in the use of the dictionary becomes relevant. He may need guidance and assistance in reacting quickly to the use of the order of the letters in the alphabet as well as the catchwords appearing at the top of each page. However, he should be warned against an excessive and indiscriminate use of the dictionary. The dictionary is like a medicine which should be used only when one must.

10.8 Let's Sum up:

In this Unit we have objectively discussed the primary of speech, importance of reading, types of reading, the congnitive processing involved in reading. Kind and degree of comprehension testing of reading comprehension, the external as well as internal factors affecting reading efficiency along with the evidences provided by reading researches.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false :

(1.)   Kind and degree of comprehension depends on the purpose of reading.

(2.)   Extensive reading demands attention to details in the text.

(3.)   Eye movements in reading involve many jumps and stops.

(4.)   Efficient reading is a good combination of reading speed and comprehension.

(5.)   Some internal bad habits of reading are developed through using them as props in the earlier phase.

10.9 Exercises:

1   Discuss the basic concept of reading, types of reading and factorts affecting reading   comprehension.

2   Take up and Unseen passage from a text book and frame a variety of reading comprehension exercise for te students at the secondary stage.

3   Discuss wit suitable examples how you would develop the skill of genuine reading   comprehension in the student at the secondary stage.

10.10 Further Reading:

1   Lado, Robert(1997) Language Teaching. New Delhi: McGraw Hill Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

2   Baruah, T.C. (1985) The English Teacher's Hand book. New Delhi: Sterling Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

3   Richards, J.C. and Rodgers, T.S. (2001). <u>Approaches and Methods in Language</u>

       <u>Teaching</u>. Cambridge CUP

Unit - 11

Teaching of Writing in English

Structure of the Unit:

11.0   Objectives of the Unit

The last of the four skills of language is writing. This in itself is sufficient proof of its complexity. The skill of writing calls for greater maturity and training of mind. Written communication is more permanent than oral communication. While writing, a person is generally alone. His writing is likely to be read in his absence. Therefore, there is no room for immediate clarification as is possible in a conversation. Writing, hence, presupposes second thinking and a very conscious selection of words.

Like poetry, writing too, is an imaginative skill. Writing a piece of prose also involves application of one's creative faculty. Even routine written communication involves some kind of ingenuity. Therefore, special effort is required to teach writing.

In this unit we shall try to explain to you how you can teach your students the art of writing i.e. how the students can be taught -

a)   to write with clarity, cohesiveness and consistency.

b)   to develop their thoughts logically and present them in a proper grammatical form.

c)   to obtain conciseness and lucidity in their writing.

d)   to report on a given subject objectively.

e)   to write in a formal as well as informal situation.

11.1   Introduction

Writing is a skill that can be developed through a knowledge of various components of language coupled with the imaginative and creative faculties of the learner. It involves the creative use of the richness of a language for the benefit of the desired effect. The students need to be acquainted with the expressive potential of the language. They should be taught how they can make the best use of the grammar and lexis of a language spellings vocabulary, punctuation, sentence linkers, and other cohesive devices as well as various formats for formal and informal forms of writing. Specially the students need to be trained in writing those compositions which may be useful for them in the day to day life. For students of English, learning it as a second language, the skill of writing becomes doubly difficult as they have to grapple with correct structures as well as look for the appropriate words. The sentence structure in the mother tongue is different from the one in English and so are the variations in different verb forms. Idioms and phrases are characteristic to a language. Their translation from one language to another is not possible. Therefore, teaching writing skills involves a composite of grammar, word formation, vocabulary, sentence construction, use of language devices like idioms, phrases, similes, metaphors etc. Even simple prose writing

involves certain degree of imagination. The teacher as well as the learner needs to have a lot of patience and perseverance. The purpose of this chapter is to suggest some measures of developing :

1. Skill of writing correct sentences.
2. A style of one's own.

11.2 Qualities of Good Prose-writing

Writing a piece of prose is a creative exercise. No two persons writing on a subject will write in the same way. The individuality of the writer is important and needs to be preserved. In traditional classrooms there is a tendency to learn by heart even if it is an exercise in developing writing skills. Young students chose to learn by heart letters, essays, stories etc. This must be checked. Rather, the students must be encouraged to write their own thoughts in their own language. To make their writing presentable, they may be guided to keep these points in mind.

a) **Clarity :** The first and foremost principle of a good piece of writing is clarity. This can be achieved by making a correct selection of words, unambiguous sentence structures and reasonably short sentences. It is indeed true that clarity of thought leads to clarity of expression. But if one is conscious in choosing his diction, he can pretty well make his language transparent and clear.

b) **Cohesiveness :** Sentences form the unit of language. But in order to make a meaningful utterance they need to be arranged in such a manner that they seem to appear as a composite structure. There are numerous devices used for cohesion. Every sentence should be linked to the other in a paragraph and every paragraph should be connected to the next paragraph in an essay or any other composition of reasonable length.

c) **Logically :** The sentences which are linked to each other need to be linked logically. The events need to be arranged in a sequence according to a chronological order. The sequencing itself would ascertain logicality. In case of argumentative prose the reasons and logics put forward should be systematically arranged so as to make a point convincingly. The illustrations or examples used for supporting a point must be used economically so that they occur only to provide evidence of the central

argument. Excessive use of illustrations might sometime undermine the argument in question.

d)   **Lucidity :** Lucidity is the hallmark of all good writing. The flow of the writing should be maintained. This can be achieved by keeping a close watch on all the components of writing including syntax, vocabulary, illustration etc. Though there is no place for devices of music in prose writing yet if some internal rhythm can be maintained in prose, it adds to the lucidity of the expression. Exceptions apart, generally active sentences, familiar expressions instead of archaic and obsolete ones, plain diction instead of officials or jargon can facilitate lucidity of expression. The teacher of English can illustrate this in the class using certain examples.

11.3   Teaching Writing :

Traditional method of teaching writing is to give a model, may be a letter or a paragraphs, and to ask the students to write similar compositions on other subjects. However, the need has been felt that just as graded learning is useful in the case of grammar and structure so also in composition some sort of a graded system be evolved. Specially the less gifted pupils will benefit more if they are taught composition in stages ensuring success at each stage, acting as a confidence-building measure.

11.3.1 Guided Writing

Guided writing is a device to teach composition in which the learner is relieved of the responsibility of producing ideas. Even some of the major vocabulary items are supplied and he has just to put them in the correct form.

At the first stage the students may be asked to put the jumbled words in order.

e.g.   **1. driving was he car a.**

          2. School she to daily goes.

Later they may be asked to write simple sentences derived from single words.

e.g. like

1.   I like biscuits.

2.   She likes tea.

3.   They like fruit.

Later pupils may be asked to fill out a given outline of a composition on a familiar theme and concentrating on a single tense. e.g. The habitual present -

Get up ____ early morning ____ brush ___ tea ___ bathroom ___ take a shower ___ put on dress __ breakfast __ dress up ___ to school ___ study __ play games ___ evening ___ tea ___ entertainment ___ friends ___ go to bed.

At a more advanced stage an outline of a journey or a story may be given.

<u>Outline</u>

Clear pool - stag drinking ___ sees reflection in water ___ admires his strong branching horns ___ ashamed of his thin legs ___ hunters and dogs ___ stag flees ___ his horns caught in a tree ___ caught ___ stag pulled down by dogs ___ his thoughts at the time of death.

The story can be started as ___

<u>Horns or Legs</u>

"One day a stag was drinking at a pool of clear still water."

Then it may be elaborated with the hints given above.

11.3.2 Controlled Writing

At a stage further the learners may be given a broad idea about the theme, the number of words required in a given composition and the guidelines about the difficulty level. In this way students may be given an exercise in controlled writing. It should be like a systematic habituation programme. This programme should be so arranged that what is written is guided and controlled with the aim of getting as close as possible to the situation which the teacher wishes the pupil to use in a particular piece of writing.

The frame for controlled writing should have the following features.

a)   It must enable the teacher to choose the patterns and also, to some extent, the vocabulary to be used.

b)   It must reduce the chances of error to the minimum.

c)   It must allow for progressive grading into freer writing.

11.3.3 Free Writing

When a learner is able to handle English accurately without any errors he may be entrusted with free writing. This had been practised in traditional courses on composition where in the learners were asked to write paragraphs/essays/letters/reports irrespective of the level of language learning they have had. What is advisable here is that free writing should be engaged at a level where the students have had sufficient exposure to language and have earlier gone through the stages of guided and controlled composition.

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Writing is an imaginative skill.

(2)   Cohesion means use of linking devices.

(3)   Guided writing involves the guidance by the teacher only.

(4)   Free writing should be adopted at secondary level.

(5)   Controlled Writing involves delimiting the size of the composition only.

11.4 Paragraph Writing

A paragraph is a group of sentences logically connected in a sequence about a given subject. Thus every paragraph has a central idea. Usually the central idea occurs at the beginning of a paragraph, but in some cases it might occur in the middle or at the end of the paragraph too. Paragraphs, like essays, may be divided into the following categories:

a)   Descriptive

b)   Narrative

c)   Argumentative

d)   Reflective

e)   Evaluative.

To describe a thing well the students must be taught to do three things -

1.   To observe closely - one cannot describe a thing well unless he has noticed it carefully.

2.   To choose the details necessary for description - The students must be taught to choose the details necessary for description, as one cannot put down all one sees.

3.   Students must be taught to use the best words, simple but clear and right.

Specimen

A'' Bullock-cart

The Indian bullock cart is a heavy clumsy thing. It is made all of wood, with thick wooden wheels without any springs or gears. It crawls slowly along the road, drawn by two bullocks. It is used by farmers to carry agricultural produce, logs of wood or their household goods. Its wheels creak as it jolts over the ruts. The man who drives

it sits in the front or on the top of the load. Now and then he prods them with his stick or twists their tale to make them move fast.

Activity :

Prepare hints for students to write short paragraphs on the following topics :

1.	The Railway Station

2.	The Horse

3.	The Mobile Phone

4.	The Cricket Match

5.	The Zoo

For narrative writing one has to think of a sequence of events happening one after the other. The description looks like an episode in a story.

Specimen

It was a little before five in the morning when strange sounds started coming. John listened carefully and having assured himself that it wasn't a hallucination, got up to raise the alarm. The sounds grew fiercer and with that increased the pounding of his heart.

Activity :

Prepare hints for students to write a narrative paragraph :

1.	Daily Routine

2.	How I prepared tea

3.	My visit to the Tajmahal.

Reflective :

Reflection is a highly intellectual activity. One tends to move from the individual to the general, from concrete to the abstract and sometimes from the worldly to the ethereal. Reflection is also a creative exercise drawing its material from observation, comparison, analysis and evaluation. The students need to be trained in reflection and then write it using appropriate diction.

Specimen

Who can be said to be practising true Non-violence? Is it an easy concept to define? The very enormity of its scope may be deterrent to its easy understanding. For, carried to its logical conclusion, wouldn't non-violence be co-extensive with life? But does such a thought bring us any nearer to the proper definition of non-violence?

Activity

Prepare hints for the students to help them write paragraphs on the following topics -

1. Seeing is believing
2. Success is all that matters
3. Happiness is a property of the soul.
4. God is in heaven and all is well with the world.

Evaluative :

Evaluative prose is similar to reflective prose in many ways. But it involves a bit of comparison and contrast. By comparing two or more things, ideas, situations or personalities one can draw certain conclusions. Such evaluative writing is very often used in literary criticism, management practises and administrative decision making.

Specimen

Even when the most rigorous standards are applied, Indian talent in scientific research is second to none. Given the same facilities and resources that their counterparts in England and America have, Indian scientists will excel in all those fields where at present the west boasts of an exclusive record of supreme achievement. Prepare hints for the students to help them write paragraphs on the following topics :

1. Studying commerce is more beneficial than studying science.
2. Private transport system is better than public transport system.
3. Education should be given through mother tongue only.

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   A paragraph always begins with the central idea.

(2)   Students must be instructed to remember the paragraph by heart.

(3)   A descriptive paragraph never uses first person narration.

(4)   Paragraphs need not be logically connected.

(5)   Formal letters have no space for personal feeling.

11.5 Letter Writing :

Correspondence is one of the chief means of keeping oneself in touch with those separated by distance. Letters thus bridge the spatial gap. Both formal and informal communication is possible through letters. With the advent of information technology e-mail has become more popular, yet letters continue to be the main form of official and unofficial communication.

a)   Informal or personal letters - Letters written to friends< relatives, parents etc. are personal letters. The tone is intimate and there is much room for the communication of emotions. The solution in such letters could be like :

My dear Brother

My dear Sister

Dear Tom

Dear Samir

The complimentary close should be in agreement with the salutation. For example :

Yours affectionately,

Your affectionate brother,

Your loving friend, etc.

The body of the letter will consist of information to be communicated along with the message and enquiry of well-being.

The students may be asked to write letters about topics familiar to them. However, they must be taught to follow the structural pattern of the letters closely. The right hand top corner of the page may be used to write the date and the sender's address.

The structure of a personal letter could be like this -

                                                                          i) Sender's address

ii) Date

iii)   Salutation

iv)   Body

       ----

                                          v) Complimentary Close

                                          vi) Signature

vii)   Receiver's address

b)   Formal letters - Formal letters can broadly be categorised into two :

       (i) Official letters

       (ii) Business letters.

       The learners learning writing skills are likely to use this form of letter more than the personal letters. The category of official letters includes applications for leave, job applications, letters of complain to authorities, joining reports, request letters etc. Business letters include letters seeking information, providing information, letters for placing orders, for supplying goods, sale letters, tender notices etc. The structure of a business letter could be as follows :

       (i)   Heading

              (At the top like the letter head of a company)

              Heading

              ----

                                                    ii) Date

                                                    _____

       iii)   your reference
              our reference

       iv)   Inside address

              ----

       v)   Attention

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                    --------------------
    vi)     Salutation

                    --------------------
    vii)    Subject

                    --------------------

    viii)   Body

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                                                    ix) Complimentary Close

                                                    ----

                                                    x) Signature

xi) Identification Marks

xii) Enclosures

While teaching students to write formal letters it must be clarified that they need to be direct, matter of fact and to the point. However, in business letters certain degree of politeness is required so that the deals are materialised and even the refusals do not become offensive.

The salutation in formal letters ought to be very formal. Some of the examples of salutation with corresponding complimentary close are given below :

Sir,

                                                    Yours faithfully

Dear Sir,
Dear Madam,

                                                    Yours faithfully,
                                                    Yours truly,

Dear Mr. Chaudhury

Yours sincerely,

In formal letters the signature should be accompanied with the name (in brackets) of the officer signing the letter.

The lay out of the official letters is of the following types :

i)   The indented form

ii)   The Block form

iii)   The Complete block form

iv)   The Semi Block form

v)   The Hanging-indented form

The most popular form of lay out used in official and business communication these days is the complete block form. In this form all parts of the letter are aligned with the left margin except the heading which is printed. A letter in this form saves more time because indentation is no required for any part. In this form generally open punctuation is followed.

Heading

Date - (e.g.) 14 May 2007

Address of the receiver

Salutation

Body ---------------------------------------

Complimentary close (e.g.) Yours faithfully

Signature

Name   (e.g.) R.C. Methew

Identification Mark   (e.g.) MPUAT/TR

Enclosures   (e.g.) Encl - 1

Activity

1.   Write the points you will ask your students to keep in mind while writing a business letter.

2.   Prepare a job application as a model to be presented before your student

11.6 Précis Writing

Précis writing is a form of composition which includes comprehension, summarizing and conclusion. The process consists written after reading the given passage. The size of the précis is one third of the original passage.

While teaching précis writing, the students may be acquainted with the following steps:

1. Scanning : The students should read the passage given and mark important words and phrases.

2. Taking notes : After reading the passage thoroughly they should write down certain points which carry the essence of the passage. Then they should develop those points to compose the précis.

3. Giving the title - At the end the central idea of the passage should be written in the form of a phase and used as the title of the précis.

    Usually the students reproduce the sentences from the passage. They should be taught to avoid this and write their sentences. For condensing the passage they may be suggested to dispense with the examples and illustrations.

11.7 Report Writing

Report writing has been of late incorporated as a writing skill at different levels. A report is different from an essay, a fact which is usually over looked. It involves the use of a number of research techniques and methods of collection, tabulation, analysis, representation and drawing inference from the data. A report is thus an objective description of occurrences written in a fixed format.

11.7.1 Collection of data : Collection of data can be done through schedule, questionnaire, interviews, observation, telephone conversation and from secondary sources already available. Scientific tools should be used to collect primary data.

11.7.2 Tabulation of data : Collection of data through schedules, questionnaires, filed visits etc. should be followed by their tabulation. Unless they are put in a proper table they cannot be anlaysed.

11.7.3 Figurative Representation : Collected data can be presented through different figures like graph, histogram, bar chart pie chart etc. This helps in a visual presentation.

11.7.4 Analysis of data : The data can be analysed through comparison and contrast, using statistical tools like mean, mode median, chi-square test etc.

11.7.5 Interpretation of data : After analysis of data, the reporter interprets them in order to draw some conclusions on the basis of the objectives and the data available.

11.7.6 Drawing Conclusions and Offering recommendations : The interpretation leads to conclusion on the basis of which recommendations can be given.

11.7.7 Features of a good report : A good report needs to be objective, analytical and representative. It must be presented in the required format with the structural components divided into the front, middle and back parts.

11.8 Let Sum Up :

Writing skill is one of the highest language skill. Though a lot of emphasis is given on developing writing skills in the Indian Education System yet only a few really acquire it. A lot m any students resort to learning passages by heart instead of developing their own style. Teachers, or would be teachers must take it up as a challenge and try to educate themselves in this skill so well that they can inculcate it in the young students.

11.9 Exercise

Teaching writing skills involves the use of language free of errors. Teachers teaching writing skill must ascertain that they use error free English. The skill of writing also involves imagination. A teacher should take up certain topics and develop his/her own passages to be used as illustrations for the students.

1. Take a few topics and develop some questions by answering which the students will be able to develop paragraphs.

2. Write a report on a topic of your interest to use as illustration for the students.

11.10 Further Reading

1. R.C. Sharma & Krishna Mohan. Business Correspondence and Report Writing. New Delhi : Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Company Ltd.

2.   Swati Samanta Ray. <u>Business Communication and Communicative English.</u> New Delhi : Sultan Chand.

Unit - 12

Teaching of Poetry in English

Structure of the unit :

12.0   Objectives of the Unit

Poetry, unlike other genres of literature is a highly imaginative form of expression. It has been variously defined as an overflow of powerful feelings, emotions recollected in tranquility, the best words in the best order, an artistic expression of reality and also as beauty transformed into truth. It is described as a highly subjective form of artistic expression.

Can poetry be taught? This is a question that is very often asked. If it can be, then what are the components that need to be explained. To begin with, it must be understood that the primary impulse of composing a poem is attainment of pleasure. The poet feels great joy in creation. The teacher has to convey this joy to the students who read that poem. The language of poetry is different from that of prose. In order to understand poetry one needs to decode the symbols and images used by the poet.

In this unit we would try to explain some methods which will help you in :-

a)   Identifying the stanzaic form of a poem.

b)   Finding out the meter used in a poem.

c)   Locating the figures of speech in a poem.

d)   Determining the rhyme - scheme of a poem.

e)   Tracing the development of thought in a poem.

f)   Analysing the poem critically.

12.1   Introduction

Expression is an integral part of thought. It we are not careful, or rather, meticulous about our expression, there is the danger that our thought will remain vague and half-formed, or perhaps as borrowed and readymade as the phrases we use for expression. Poetry satisfies this urge for novelty. Even apparently ordinary and commonplace words and phrases find new meanings in poetry. A poet uses all his rhetorical sources such as similes, metaphors,

spellings, punctuation, headings etc. to give expression to what he wishes to convey. T.S. Eliot regarded poetry as being essentially a disturbance of the conventional language. He maintained that poetry disturbs conventional consciousness more by its syntax than by its sentiments. The inversion of the syntax and the stanzaic division in poetry facilitate the expression of various subtle and complex emotions that the poet wants to express.

It is quite natural that students will find it difficult to understand and appreciate poetry. Therefore, an effort is made in this unit to acquaint you with those figurative, stylistic and syntactic devices that are frequently used in poetry. The conventional method used in poetry teaching is not very much different from that of teaching pieces of prose. There is much more which needs attention. The purpose of this unit is to suggest some methods which can be used to approach poetry.

12.2   Reading through the poem

Teaching poetry begins with reading of the poem. At the first reading a poem may strike you as somewhat odd in many ways. The syntax of some lines might seem crabbed and involved. You may find some curious words formations. The meaning of the poem might not come very distinct. But as you read a poem twice or thrice it starts unfolding itself. Reading a poem aloud with proper accent and intonation can give a feel of its rhythm and harmony. This is important because poetry is to be enjoyed both for its meaning as well as melody.

A closer reading of the poem will lead you towards decoding the meaning. It has been noticed that the titles give us a starting point - at least adequate help to adjust our response to what is to follow. Let us take the example of a poem by G.M. Hopkins. Its title "Spring and Fall" arouses expectation of a poem about the seasons. A theme which is very common among nature poets. Both the words in the title have grown heavy with various

connotations and also rather trite through common use. Besides their literal meaning pointing to events in Nature - the warmth, beauty and vitality of spring and the mellow fruitfulness of Autumn - their metaphorical use i.e. "the spring time of life", "the autumn of life" is equally common. The combination of the two can alert us to a possible state or aspect of the theme. And it is not "Spring and Autumn" but "Spring and Fall". "Fall" is a common substitute for autumn. This word connotes the fall of leaves but it also has an extended meaning, the sense of a decline and fall. It could also have a religious connotation connecting itself with the Biblical narrative, implying thereby, the loss of innocence, fall from Eden, fall of man. In religious sense "spring" too has strong religious nuance suggesting "the source", the ever flowing waters, the healing waters, life-giving waters and so on.

The meaning of the title expands as you read through the poem. This phenomenon is experienced in all poems. In poems without a title, the first line usually plays this role.

Reading of the poem by the teacher may be followed by the students reading it, both, reading it silently as well as aloud. This exercise will enable them to have a feel of the poem and familiarise them with the verbal expressions, sounds, illustrations, images etc. used in the text. A close scrutiny of the text, is therefore, the first step towards understanding of a poem.

12.3   Determining the form

The debate between form and content is an ongoing one and is not resolved yet. A proper appreciation of a poem, however, cannot take place without taking both the things into consideration. Various forms of poetry have been used in English Literature. You must have heard of Edmund Spenser's Faerie Queene. The stanza devised by Spenser in this work is called after him as at. Spenzarian stanza. The Spensarin stanza consists of nine lines. The first eight lines are in iambic pentameter followed by one in iambic hexameter. An iambic

Hexameter is also known as Alexandrine. Following is an example of a Spensarian stanza:

Lo: I, the man, whose muse whylome did maske ; a

As time her taught, in lowly shepherd, weeds ;   b

Am now enforst, a farre unfitter taske ;   a

For trumpets sterne to change mine Oaten reeds;   b

And sing of Knights and ladies gentle deeds !   b

 Whose praises having slept in silence long,   c

me, all too meane, the sacred muse areeds   b

To blazon broad amongst her learned throng :   c

Fierce warres and faithfull loves shall moralize my song. c

Rhyme Royal: A stanza written in rhyme royal has seven lines of iambic pentameter with the rhyme scheme ab ab bcc. Sir Geoffrey Chaucer used this form in his Troilus and Criseyde, Shakespeare in The Rape of Lucrece and Wordsworth in Resolution and Independence. Following is an example drawn from this poem:

There was a roaring in the wind all night;   a

The rain came heavily and fell in floods;   b

But now the sun is rising calm and bright.   a

The birds are singing in the distant woods;   b

over his own sweet voice the stock dove broods; b

the Jay makes answer as the magpie chatters;   c

and the air is filled with pleasant noise of waters. c

Ottova Rima : The Ottova Rima is an eight-line stanza of iambic pentameter lines. 'Ottova' means eight and 'Rima' means rhyme. The rhyme scheme is ab ab ab cc. The romantic poet John Keats has used it in his poem "Isabella" and Lord Bysron in "Don Juan" and the "Vision of Judgement". Here is an example from Byron's "Don Juan" :

My poem's epic, and is meant to be   a

Divided in twelve books! each book containing,	b
with love, and war, a heavy gale at sea,	a
A list of slips, and captains, and kings reigning,	b
New characters; the episodes are three:	a
A panoramic view of Hell's in training,	b
After the style of Virgil and of Homer,	c
So that my name of Epic's no misnomer.	c

Blank verse: Blank verse is a very flexible English verse form which contains unrhymed lines of iambic pentameter. First used by Henry Howard (c. 1540), Earl of Surrey, it soon became both the standard meter for dramatic poetry and a widely used form for narrative and meditative poems. This is a verse form which can attain rhetorical grandeur while echoing the natural rhythms of speech and allowing smooth enjambment. touch of the finest verse in English - by William Shakespeare, John Milton, William Wordsworth, Alfred Tennyson and Stevens- has been written in blank verse. The final lines of Tennyson's Ulysses (1842) can be seen as an example:

One equal temper of heroic hearts

made weak by time and fate,

but strong in will To strive,

to seek, to find and not to yield.

Free verse: (or in French, verse libre)

It is a verse form that does not conform to any regular meter: the length of its lines is irregular, as also its use of rhyme- if any. Instead of a regular metrical pattern it uses more flexible Cadences or rhythmic groupings, sometimes supported by anaphora and other devices of repetition. Walt Whiteman's Leaves of Grass is written in free verse.

 Here is a light-hearted poem by Ezresta Pound on free verse in free verse:

Go, little naked and impudent songs.

Go with a light foot !

(Go with two light feet, if it please you)

Go and dance shameless ly !

Go with impenitent frolic.

<u>Sonnet</u> : A sonnet is a poem that has fourteen lines in iambic pentameter. There are two types of sonnets -   1. Petrarchan

2. Shakespearean

The petrarchan sonnet, known after the great Italian poet Petrarch, comprises an eight line Octave or two quatrains rhymed abba abba followed by a six line sestet usually rhymed cde cde or cd cd cd. The transition from octave to sestet usually coincides with a turn in the argument or the mood of the poem.

The Shakespearean sonnet, also termed as Elizabethan or English sonnet comprises three quatrains and a final couplet rhyming abab cdcd efef g g.

John Keat's "On first looking into Chapman's Homer" and John Milton's "How soon Hath Time" are examples of Petrarchan sonnets. William Shakespeare's "Shall I compare three to a summer's day" is an example of English sonnet.

<u>Ode</u> : It is an ancient lyric form. The odes of the Greek poet Pindar (5[th] cent B.C.) were devoted to public praise of athletes. Pindar composed his odes for performance by a chorus, using lines of varying length in a complex three part structure of strophe, antistrophe and epode corresponding to the dancing movements. Latin poet Horace (C23-13BC) is another prominent poet who wrote more privately reflective odes.

In English, it is an elaborately formal lyric poem, often in the form of a lengthy ceremonious address to a person or abstract entity, always serious and elevated in tone.

The odes of John Keats, notably his 'ode on" Grecian urn' and 'Occap, Ode to a Nightingale' are examples of Horation ode.

Ballad: A Ballad is a folk song or orally transmitted poem telling in a dramatic manner some popular story usually derived from a tragic incident in local history or legend. Ballads are normally composed in quatrains with alternating four- stress and three- stress lines, the second and fourth line rhyming. Ballads flourished particularly strongly in Scotland from the 15th century onward. S.T. Coleridge's "Rime of the Ancient Mariner" (1798) is a celebrated example.

You can determine the form of a poem and its stanzaic pattern on the basis of this description. How to find the meter shall be illustrated further. This knowledge will enable you to analyse the formal features of a poem. The students can also be taught to describe the formal features on the basis of the above.

12.4   Metre [meter (American English)]

Metre is the regular, recurrent pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables in a line of poetry. It involves the number and location of accented and unaccented syllables and the relation between them. The function of metre's to produce an impression of order and control, even of restraint. It provides musical effect and pleasure in repeated sounds.

English is a stress-timed language and English poetry is accentual. Thus in English the stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals. The specific combination of accented and unaccented syllables is called a measure, a metre, a foot. Let us illustrate this with the help of the following example :

Her lips were red her looks were free. If we give the symbol (/) to the stressed syllable and the symbol (v) to unstressed syllable the line can be metrically represented as follows:

v	z	v	z	v	z	v	z
Her	lips	were	red	her	looks	were	free

The vertical lines separate one foot from another which show that there are two syllables in each foot, the first syllable is unstressed while the second syllable in each foot is stressed. In all there are four feet in the line. The pattern of accents or stresses in a line of poetry is called metre.

The students should be taught to scan the line of a poem, identifying the feet by marking stressed and unstressed syllables. The stages of finding out the metre will include:

(a) Finding out the number of syllables in a line_ a syllable is a cluster of letters with at least one vowel sound.

(b) Marking the stressed and the unstressed syllables.

(c) Dividing the line into feet

(d) Counting the number of feet

Some important metres in English are as follows:

I ambus or Iamb- A two syllabled foot in which the first one is stressed

Trochee - A two syllabled foot in which the first one is stressed

Anapaest - a three syllabled foot in which the first two are unstressed

Dactyl - a three - syllabled foot in which the first one is stressed

Spondee - a two syllabled foot in which both are stressed

The pyrrhic - a two syllabled foot in which both are unstressed.

A line containing one foot is called monometer, two feet is called dimetre, three feet is called trimetre, four feet is called tetrameter, five feet is called pentameter, six feet is called hexameter, seven feet is called heptameter and eight feet is called optometry.

On the basis of the above the students may find out the meter of any poem.

Check Your Understanding

Q.I   Say whether the following statements statements are true or false:

(1)   Primary impulse of composing a poem is instruction.

(2)   Poetry does not affect consciousness.

(3)   For the students it is easier to comprehend poetry than prose.

(4)   In poetry form is more important than content.

(5)   A sonnet is a poem which has fourteen line.

12.5 Rhyme - scheme

The pattern in which the rhymed line - endings are arranged in a poem or stanza is called its rhyme scheme. This may be expressed as a sequence of recurrences in which each line ending on the name rhyme is given the same alphabetic symbol. Rhyme schemes may follow a fixed pattern as in a sonnet or they may be arranged freely according to the poet's requirements. The simplest rhyme- schemes are those of rhyming couplets aa bb cc or of the common quatrain forms abab, abba, abcb)

e.g.

What would the world be, once bereft.   a

of wet and wildness? let them be left,	a
O let them be left, wildness and wet;	b
Long live the weed, and the wilderness yet.	b

The end-rhymes provide the melody to poetry and are useful for making it lyrical. The heroic couplets used by Alexander Pope and John Dryden had identical end-rhymes aa bb cc etc. while the sonnets have two different sets of rhyming pattern.

12.6 Figures of speech

What is it that makes poetry different from prose? The syntax, the arrangement of words in an order, the stanzaic pattern etc? yes they are very apparent distinctions. But beyond all these there are some more devices which are peculiar to poetry and are used by the poets to express their imaginations with perfection. They might sometimes cause difficulty in deciphering the meaning of the lines but they add enormously to the poetic beauty of a work of art. They are called figures of speech. They are expressions that depart from the accepted literal sense or from the normal order of words, or in which an emphasis is produced by patterns of sound. Such figurative language is an important resource of poetry.

If you want to understand poetry and teach it to the students properly you must be familiar with, if not all, at least the most commonly used figures of speech. Some of these are listed here for your understanding.

Simile

This is a figure of speech which expresses an explicit comparison between two different objects, actions, feelings or things using the words of comparison "as" or "like". Let us take a few examples:

I wandered lonely as a cloud".

There is a comparison between the poet-narrator and a cloud.

My love is like a red rose.

The comparison here is between love (beloved) and the red rose.

This figure of speech is very commonly used both in verse as well as prose. Simile is more tentative and decorative than metaphor. A lengthy and more elaborate kind of simile, used as a digression in a narrative work is called epic simile.

<u>Metaphor</u>

The metaphor is described as the most important and widespread figure of speech in which one thing, idea or action is referred to by a word or expression normally denoting another thing, idea or action as to suggest some common quality shared by the two. Here the similarity is assumed as an imaginary identity rather than directly stated as a comparison.

"He is a gem" is a metaphor while " He is as bright as a gem" is a simile.

Metaphors may also appear as verbs eg - talent may <u>blossom</u> or as adjectives- A novice may be <u>green</u> or in longer idiomatic expressions - to throw the baby out with the bath water.

<u>Activity</u>

Underline the similes and metaphors in the following extract:

At the violet hour, the evening hour that strives

Homeward and brings the sailor home from sea,

The typist home at teatime, clears her breakfast, lights.

her store, and lays out food in tins

of the window perilously spread

Her drying combinations touched by the sun's last rays -------

(T.S. Eliot, Wasteland)

<u>Personification</u>

This is a figure of speech by which animals, abstract ideas or inanimate things are referred to as if they were human as in sir Philip Sidney's line:

Invention, nature's child, fled stepdame.

Study's blows.

Or in Toru Dutt's poem "Lotus":

Love came to the flaura

Asking for a flower that is queenliest of all the flowers!

Metonymy

Metonymy is a frequently used though little discussed figure of speech. It is a figure of speech that replaces the name of one thing with the name of something else closely associated with it. A very common example is the "bottle' for alcoholic drink. The oval office for the office of the president of America, press for news paper industry etc. A well-known metonymy saying is: The pen is mightier than the sword.

Irony

At its simplest, in verbal irony, it involves a discrepancy between what is said and what is really meant. The more sustained structural irony in literature involves the use of a naive or deluded hero or an unreliable narrator, whose view of the world differs widely from the true circumstances recognized by the author and reader. Literary irony thus flatters its reader's intelligence at the expense of a character or fictional narrator. Irony also suggests a subtly humorous perception of inconsistency, in which an apparently straight forward statement or event is undermined by its contest so as to give it a very different significance.

Alliteration :

The repetition of the same sounds-usually initial consonants of words or of stress syllables- in any sequence of neighboring words:

'Landscape Lovar, lord of language (Tennyson)

Alliteration provides for lyrical quality of poetry. Repetition of similar sounds produces music that depends on the character of the sound repeated.

Sorrows springs are the same (Hopkins) also:

I dance with the

Wild wanton waves

I pierce the envious

Wheezy whining wind.

(Sanchita Choudhury)

Oxymoron

This figure of speech usually combines two contradictory terms in a compressed paradox, as in the word "bittersweet" or the phrase "livingdeath". Oxymoronic phrases, like Milton's "darkness visible" were especially cultivated in 16^{th} and 17^{th} century poetry. In Shakespeare's Romeo and Juliet Romeo utters several oxymorons in one speech:

Why then, O brawling love, O loving hate,

O anything of nothing first create;

O heavy lightness, serious vanity

Misshapen chaos of well-seeming forms,

Feather of lead, bright smoke, cold fire, sick health

Still- waking sleep, that is not what it is!

Hyperbole

Hyperbole is exaggeration for the sake of emphasis in a figure of speech not meant literally. An everyday example is the common way of complaint, "I've been waiting here for ages". Hyperbolic expressions are common in the inflated style of dramatic speech known as bombast. In Rape of the Lock, Alexander Pope uses hyperbole to describe the influence of Belinda's beauty.

"Belinda smiled and all the world was gay".

(Alexander Pope)

There are many more figures of speech used in English poetry but one can begin the study of poetry with the help of the above. You will find it easy to interpret a poem if you are familiar with the figures of speech used by the poet. The students whom you would teach later will find this information handy in their study of literature. Figures of speech are like tools in the hands of a poet. Their skill and craftsmanship is evident in the use of these devices. The meaning of the poem becomes clear as one deciphers what is suggested through them.

12.7 <u>Interpretation</u>

After the chores of loud and silent reading, the syntactic and semantic analysis is required. This involves a discussion of the form, the vocabulary, the syntax, the use of images, figures of speech and punctuation. A thorough understanding of all these components is required for an interpretation of the text of a poem.

There are contending views about the methods of interpretation of a poem vis-a-vis its composer. Those who believe, like structuralists, in the objectivity of interpretation, emphasize on delimiting the study to the text itself. While others who believe that text alone is not sufficient, say that it has to be placed in the right context for its interpretation. In the latter approach the time, author's life, his temperament, his attitude etc. need to the taken into consideration to find out the "authorial intent". This would require a reading of the background, familiarity with the age of the author, the traditions of his place and time and the trends of his age. Familiarity with the critical schools of his time and the critical views of eminent critics about the author and the text under scrutiny will also help. But above all going to the text again and again is only the right course to interpretation of a poem.

12.8 Lets Sum up

Poetry is a genre which is highly imaginative. It involves a use of language which is much different from the language of prose. Therefore, a teacher has to take special care, while teaching poetry. Especially in states like Rajasthan where the average level of competence in English among school going children is very low, all efforts need to be made on the part of the teacher. Hence, the students preparing for a degree in education must take up this unit in the right earnest.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Figures of speech are the same as parts of speech.

(2)   An Ode is a folk song.

(3)   There is no specific form in blank verse.

(4)   Meter of a line in a poem depends on the number of words in that line.

(5)   Metonymy is a kind of comparison.

12.9   Exercise

1.   Poetry teaching is not a mechanical exercise. It will depend much upon the temperament of the teacher. But adherence to the methods suggested in this unit, will ensure certain degree of independence from too narrow a subjectivity. To develop your skill select some poems belonging to different ages in English literature and examine their

a) Stanzaic pattern

b) Rhyme-scheme

c) Figures of speech used.

2.   Select a couple of lines from the poems given in this unit and identify the meter by

a) marking the stressed and unstressed syllables.

b) dividing the lines into feet.

12.10 Further Reading

1. Baldick, Chris (1996) <u>The Concise Oxford Dictionary of Literary Terms.</u> Press, New York Oxford University.

2. Brumfit, C.J. & Carter, R.A.(1991) <u>Literature and Language Teaching.</u> ELBS, Oxford University Press (1991)

3. Sood, S.C.(1998) <u>New Directions in English Language and Literature Teaching in India.</u> Delhi Ajanta Publication.

Unit - 13

Media and Media Integration in English

Structure of the Unit

13.1 Objectives of the Unit

This unit essentially aims at giving you an idea about the meaning of mass, media and their integration in ELT, need for and importance of mass media in education, classification of mass-media, cultural means of mass media and education. The unit is followed by some exercises and list of books for further reading.

13.2 Meaning of 'Mass', 'Media' and 'Mass Media'

'Mass' is used to describe something which involves or affects a very large number of people. The 'mass of people' are most of the people in a country, society or group.

What does 'media' mean? The media are television, radio and newspapers regarded as a group. The media entertain or spread news and information to a large number of people.

The mass media are the various ways by which information and news is given to a large number of people, especially television, radio, newspaper and magazines. The mass media now play an increasing role in shaping our opinions.

Integration means becoming part of a whole idea or system.

Every state, nation or society has its own ideals, values and faiths as well as goals with plans and strategies to sustain and achieve them. Efforts are made to disseminate them to the masses. The means through which a society ensures their percolation are called mass media such as newspapers, magazines, radio, television. Public awareness and public opinion is created through these means of communication. In the present time they have become an important means of publicity and advertisements. In addition to this they have their own significance as a powerful medium of educating people. One of the most important characteristics of the media is that in a very short time they can influence a vast number of people.

Creating public awareness, arousing public opinion, acquainting everyone with the happenings in the country and abroad, providing latest knowledge and the developments in their respective domains are some of the important functions of mass media. In addition to all this, mass media have the role of entertaining the masses. They have emerged as a main means of publicity and advertisements. Developing as well as developed nations are increasingly making use of them in the field of education. The new facets of education that have emerged in the modern times such as correspondence education, distance education and life-long education have been greatly benefitted through mass media.

One school of educationists consider mass media an agent of education. According to them, mass media play the same role in education as do family, society and school. They argue further that mass media are created not only for the organization of education but also for various other purposes. Thus they are an informal agent of education. But, some others feel that mass media are not an agent but a means of education. Agents of education include social groups and organizations and through participation in them the process of education moves forward. However, mass media are neither a social group or social organization and generally speaking there is no direct interaction between the learner and the educator through them. Thus they cannot be labelled as agents of education. They are just means and so used in this form only.

13.3 Need and Importance of Mass Media in Education

National Policy on Education (1986) stated that in the preceding decades education had to pass through many stages and series of steps. But now due to the development of modern communication technology quite a few of them can be leapt over. It has now become possible to be free from the constraints of place and time. Educational technology can now be used for imparting important knowledge, for training and retraining teachers, for improving the quality of education, for creating awareness of art and culture and for nurturing permanent values. It will be used in formal and non-formal education.

The importance of mass media in education has been viewed from different angles:

1. To fulfill the target of education for all as laid down in Section 45 of the Indian constitution.

2. To create social awareness in the masses.

3. To help the masses in keeping abreast of happenings in the country and abroad and thus help in developing a feeling of national integration and universal brotherhood.

4. To create awareness about the culture and traditions of different parts of the country through presenting programmes related to them.

5. To make text material and information simple and easy to grasp from psychological point of view.

6. To make masses citizens through newspapers, magazines, radio broadcasts etc.

7. To disseminate information widely and quickly.

8. To make lessons related to difficult concepts in formal education easy and simple to bring about qualitative improvement in education.

It may be briefly mentioned here that mass-media are not resources. Rather they are the vehicles and carriers of information. It is through them that the desired information is passed on/transmitted. For example ET, A.V. Aids, ICT etc. are media. Resources are not media.

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Media include only radio and television.

(2)   Media influence public opinion.

(3)   Through mass media, time and place are no more very important.

(4)   Media help in inculcating social awareness.

(5)   Media helps in passing on knowledge widely and quickly.

13.4 Classification of Mass Media

Broadly speaking, mass media may be classified as follows :

1. Print Media
2. Newspaper
3. Magazines
4. Edusat

13.5 Print Media

Today print media like newspapers, magazines, pamphlets and booklets are being used to pass on knowledge and information to the masses. These means are called print media. They are being used extensively in our country. They can be further divided into two main categories - general and educational. General category includes daily, weekly and fortnightly newspapers and different types of magazines. As also pamphlets and booklets published by different government departments, like health, agriculture, industry, information departments. Educational publications include magazines, journals, booklets, pamphlets etc. related to education. Here we have to remember that print media cover only those publications that have a very wide circulation.

Newspaper

A newspaper is a publication containing news, information and advertising, usually printed on low-cost paper. It may have general or special interest, and is most often published daily or weekly.

The first printed newspaper was published in 1605 and the form has thrived even in the face of fierce competition from technologies such as radio, television, and the internet. However, recent developments on the internet are posing major challenges to its business model. Paid circulation is declining in most countries, and advertising revenue, which makes up the bulk of a newspapers income, is shifting from print to online, resulting in a general decline in newspaper profits. This has led to some predictions that newspapers' role in society will shrink or even disappear, although historically, new media technologies such as radio and television never supplanted print media.

Types of Newspapers

Daily Newspapers

A daily newspaper is issued every day, often with the exception of some national and other holidays. Saturday and Sunday editions of daily newspapers tend to be larger, include more specialized sections and advertisements and cost more.

Weekly Newspapers

Weekly newspapers are also common and tend to be less prestigious than daily newspapers.

Newspapers often refine distribution of advertisements and news through zoning and editing. Zoning occurs when advertising and editorial content change to reflect the location to which the product is delivered. The editorial content often may change merely to reflect changes in advertising the quantity and layout of which affects the space available for editorial - or may contain region-specific news.

Magazines

A magazine is a printed collection of texts (essays, articles, stories, poems), often illustrated, that is produced at regular intervals. Modern magazines have roots in early printed pamphlets, broadsides, chapbooks, and almanacs. One of the first magazines was published in Germany and was issued from 1663 to 1668. In the early 18th century, Joseph Addison and Richard Steele brought out the influential periodicals - The Tatler and The Spectator. By the 19th century, magazines catering to specialized audiences had developed, including the women's weekly, the religious and missionary review, and the illustrated magazine. One of the greatest benefits to magazines publishing in the late 19th and early 20th centuries was the addition of advertisements as a means of financial support. Subsequent developments included more illustrations and vastly greater specialization. With the computer age, magazines also became available over the Internet.

Advantages

Newspapers and magazines help in disseminating the ideas of the editors and writers to the masses. On the one hand, the reader gets general knowledge of various kinds and on the other special knowledge of his own field. They can be read at a convenient

time. They can be used by one reader after another. Newspapers and magazines can help achieve various educational objectives. They help the reader in keeping abreast with the latest developments in different realms of life and thus provide a means of life long learning.

Limitations

Newspapers and magazines can benefit only literate persons who can read. There is in a way not much personal interaction between the writer and reader and thus young children do not benefit much. The reader does not get immediate solution to his problems. All the material published in them is not always useful for all the readers. The price of these reading material is gradually increasing due to rise in cost of production.

Edusat - Educational Satellite Series

Edusat carries five Ku-band transponders providing spot beams, one Ku-band transponder providing a national beam and six extended C-band transponders with national coverage beam. It will join the INSAT system that already has more than 130 transponders in C-band, Extended C-band and Ku-band providing a variety of telecommunication and television services.

13.6 Information and Communications Technology and Information Technology

"Information and communications technologies (ICT) are the computing and communications facilities and features that variously support teaching, learning and a range of activities in education."

Such ICT-related activities includes, for example, the use of :

(i)   Broadcast material or CD-ROM as sources of information in history;

(ii)   Micro-computers with appropriate keyboards and other devices to teach literacy and writing;

(iii)   Keyboards, effects and sequences in music teaching;

(iv)   Devices to facilitate communication for pupils with special needs;

(v)   Electronic toys to develop spatial awareness and psycho-motor control;

(vi)   E-mail to support collaborative writing and sharing of resources;

(vii)   Video-conferencing to support the teaching of modern foreign languages;

(viii)   Internet-based research to support geographical enquiry;

(ix)   Integrated learning systems (ILS) to teach basic numeracy;

(x)   Communications technology to enchange administrative and assessment data.

The focus is on the subject being taught or studied, or the organization being administered, rather than developing pupils' skills with, and knowledge of, the technologies themselves.

What is IT?

Information technology (IT) comprises the knowledge, skills and understanding needed to employ information and communications technologies appropriately, securely and fruitfully in learning, employment and everyday life. It is to ICT as literacy is to books, journals or screen displays.

IT capability at school age includes :

Understanding of how information is structured in a database, skills in carrying out a search on the world wide web with sensitivity to meaning, accuracy of data and reliability of sources;

(i)   Understanding of how computers can simulate real processes e.g. predator-prey relationship.

(ii)   Skills in using software e.g. word processing or e-mail to communicate effectively.

(iii)   Understanding that ICT can be used to control things.

(iv)   Knowledge of how to use ICT securely, with consideration of the feelings of other people, their rights to privacy and ownership of material.

The focus of IT is on pupils' capability with ICT. This is why IT is the overall title used for the National Curriculum subject and qualifications.

Not all IT learning will involve use of computers. For example, teachers might ask pupils to :

- Sort real objects into different categories as an introduction to databases;
- read a piece of printed text in order to identify the key words that may characterize it and help to retrieve it electronically, if necessary.
- develop paper-based models and simulations of situations, consider the use of font sizes and print effects in newspapers and magazines as part of their work with word processors;
- give each other information as a way of teaching about precision and control;

- compare the use of IT tools and software with other ways of undertaking a design, composition or analysis tasks.

13.7 Computer-Aided Communication

These days communication is enhanced and enriched by computer-aided technologies. These include electronic mail, and video-conferencing.

E-mail :

Electronic mail or e-mail uses computers linked to a telecommunication network namely to internet to transmit and receive computer-generated text, diagrams and documents. Its growth has been spectacular. As a communication tool, e-mail has a long list of benefits. E-mail messages can be quickly written and stored. They can be distributed to one person or thousands with a click of a mouse.

Video-conferencing

Video-conferencing permits people at one place to have meeting and discussions with people at different locations. It allows people to conduct interactive meetings without the necessity of all being physically present in the same location.

Check Your Understanding

II   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Advertisements provide a major source of income.

(2)   Daily newspapers are more prestigious than weekly newspapers.

(3)   Magazines are now available on the Internet also.

(4)   Print media help in achieving educational objectives.

(5)   E-Mail is an electronic mail.

13.8 Radio and Transistor in Education

Today radio is an inexpensive and extremely useful means of education. All India Radio programmes are broadcast on the radio. Various kinds of general programmes are broadcast viz. information based programmes like news, talks, conferences, entertainment

programmes like movies, songs, religious broadcasts like 'bhajans', religious talks, cultural based programmes like folk songs, folk plays, literary broadcasts like 'Kavi Sammelans', 'Mushairas'. Some programmes are educational namely programmes for teaching different languages, talks by experts in different fields. The radio is being used for adult education, distance education and life-long education. Thus the radio is useful both for formal and informal education.

Advantages

Through the radio thinkers, speakers and teachers can easily reach every home and thus influence the thinking of a vast number of persons simultaneously. Persons who cannot attend schools and other learning centres can also be benefitted. People can learn different languages at home. People can update their knowledge and skills of their professions. The radio keeps everyone informed about the latest happenings all over the world. It helps people know about literacy campaign and other programmes of the government like family planning, prevention of AIDS. It also tells people about open education, distance education and life-long education. The radio may seem to be an expensive medium but, in fact, it is quite inexpensive, looking to the numbers of its beneficiaries.

Limitations

Even now all schools do not have radio-sets. Even when they are available, they are not in working condition. It is not easy to coordinate the time of radio broadcast, school time-table and classroom teaching. Many persons who are getting informal education do not have radio-sets. Moreover, their working hours and the time of broadcast are not easily adjustable. When one misses some radio lessons in a series he finds it difficult to continue his education. There is lack of interaction between the radio teacher and pupils. This hampers proper learning.

13.9 Television and Education

Today television is perhaps the most important form of mass media. We can just listen to the programmes broadcast on the radio whereas television's visual dimension adds to its utility and interest.

Like radio broadcasts, television programmes have too broad categories - general and educational. General programmes are very much of the same kind as radio broadcasts of general nature which we discussed under the use of the radio.

Education T.V. programmes are related to formal and non-formal education. Educational T.V. programmes in India began on 15th September, 1959 and could be viewed within a range of 20 kilometers. These programmes began for some adult education and social welfare centres. Later on school telecasts (1960) and programmes for farmers (Krishi Darshan) were introduced. To extend these programmes to a wider geographical range SITE (Sattelite Instruction Television Experiment) was introduced on 1st August, 1975. Under this project, educational telecasts related to agriculture, health education, family planning, national integration etc. were included. Now telecasts could be beamed to six states. With the launching of INSAT (Indian National Satellite) on 1st April, 1982, the whole country could be covered. Then INSAT IB was launched. INSAT 1C was a failure. It was followed by INSAT 1D. On 18 April,2000. INSAT 1B and INSAT 1D were linked. Lessons for school telecasts are prepared by NCERT while those related to university are produced by U.G.C. Indira Gandhi National Open University telecasts open education programmes.

Advantages

Being an audio and visual media it is a better and more interesting means of learning. Television establishes relationship between the object and the word on one side and between the word and action on the other and this makes learning easier. Through dramatization of historical events and making the knowledge of geography real, television becomes an effective means of learning. Many subjects can be taught in an effective way. Television is an extension of the teacher as one teacher can teach lakhs of students over a wide geographical area at the same time. Various modes of education like adult education, literacy campaign, open schooling, distance education, continuing education can benefit through this medium. In terms of expenses per student it is very cost effective, looking to its large clientele.

13.10 Films and Education

Films have their own role in education. In our context we can delimit educational films to documentaries mainly produced by the government. These days films need not be screened in villages with the help of mobile units as they can be easily telecast through television. Documentaries are prepared by various departments of the government, for

example, films related to health are prepared by health deptt. and those concerning agriculture are produced by agriculture department and so on.

Educational films cover areas related to education. NCERT, New Delhi has a big film library. Now even private publishers and others have started producing educational films.

Advantages

Learning through films is of a more permanent nature since two senses - eyes and ears - are involved. Objects, places, processes etc. which cannot be easily seen and observed can be presented through films. Learners can get the benefit of talks, lectures etc. of experts with the help of films. Latest information and knowledge can be acquired through them. One big advantage of films is that they can be stopped to have discussions and started again.

Limitations

Producing educational films is not an easy task. It is rather difficult to maintain film projectors in good condition in most schools. Taking these projectors from one place to another is also a problem. Availability of a good operator and a generator, if needed, is another difficult task.

13.11 Cultural Means of Mass Media and Education

Before the start of publication of newspapers and magazines and discovery of radio and television, plays and dramas were means of communication. This also includes Ram Leela, and puppet shows. Through these values can be inculcated.

Advantages

Since these programmes are related to our culture, they touch the viewers' hearts and have a permanent effect on them. They entertain and introduce the viewers to the truths of life. These means are very helpful in building character. They have a special impact on rural people. These shows can be arranged anywhere any time.

Limitations

Nowadays they are generally used for entertainment. People prefer to watch plays on television as it is convenient to do so. They are usually presented at night so children find it difficult to watch them. They are considered to be of low standard.

13.12 Media Integration :

You should keep in view the basic difference between mass-media and resources and why and how they should be used for teaching English as a second language in our country. It is widely accepted that using the media in isolation would not serve the purpose of education in general and ELT in particular. Therefore, the need of the hour is to objectively and wisely integrate media for the larger interest of the learning community. Moreover, we have to see to it that quality education in our country is available to all strata of society irrespective of the socio-economic status they may belong to. Obviously the role of ICT is very crucial in this context. Thanks to LPG [Liberalisation, Privatisation and Globalisation], English has gained more importance. Naturally the teaching of English should also avail of the new gadgets, resources, media and media-integration. As teachers of English you should try your level best to make good use of the media and gradually learn the skill of integrating the fundamental language skills (LSRW) and the mass media for achieving the goals of ELT as mentioned in the NCF 2005.

The media integration may be done by way of the following in ELT :

1. ***Integrating the Rudimentary Language Skills*** (LSRW) : Integrate listening and speaking as they go hand in hand. Similarly reading and writing skills need to be integrated as both of them are largely interdependent. Furthermore, the comprehension skills (listening and reading) are to be integrated with the expression skills (speaking and writing) as both comprehension skills and expression skills are also greatly interdependent. In fact, genuine communication takes place only through the integration of the skills.

2. ***Integrating the Language Content*** : The phonological items, lexical items, structural and syntactic items, orthographic items, semantic and pragmatic properties, etc. need to be thoughtfully integrated for pedagogical purposes.

3. ***Integrating the Media*** : Both audio and visual media, ICT, etc. need to be integrated for teaching the rudimentary language skills and the basic language content. It is generally believed that the combination and integration of media would have a far greater impact on education in general and ELT in particular.

Check Your Understanding

III   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Radio serves the purpose of promoting of various types of education.

(2)   Radio has a wide range influence in forming public opinion.

(3)   Television has revolutionized teaching in its own way.

(4)   Television can replace the teacher.

(5)   Mass education can be provided through media integration.

13.13 Exercises :

1.   What are 'mass media'?

2.   What are the main types of 'mass media'?

3.   Discuss some linguistic uses of print media?

4.   How are newspaper useful in Teaching English?

5.   What does IT include?

6.   How is e-mail useful?

7.   Mention the advantages of video-conferencing.

8.   How is the radio useful in teaching English?

9.   What is the role of television in education?

10.   How are films useful?

11.   What is meant by media integration in ELT ?

13.14 Let's Sum Up:

First of all, this unit discussed the meaning of mass media. Then the need and importance of various types of mass media like newspapers, magazines, computer aid communication, radio, television, films were discussed in detail.

13.15 Further Reading:

(1)   Lado, Robert (1971). Language Teaching. New Delhi : Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing House Co. Ltd.

(2)   Hubbard, Peter : Jones, Hywel; Thornton, Barbara; and Wheeler, Rod (1983). A Training Course for Teacher English as a Foreign Language. Oxford : OUP.

(3)   Lee, W.R. (1965). Language Teaching Games and Contexts. London : OUP.

(4)   Mackey, W.F. (1965). Language Teaching Analysis. Cambridge : CUP.

(5)   Sharma, A.P. and Paliwal, A.K. (2007). How to Teach English. Jaipur : Rajasthan Prakashan.

(6)   Venkateshwaran S. (1995). Principles of Teaching English. New Delhi : Vikas Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

Unit 14

Planning: Yearly, Sessional, Unit and Daily Lesson planning

Content

14.0   About the Unit

In this unit your attention is focused on what planning is and the importance of planning teaching of English as a second language. It gives you an idea of what is involved in planning. Then how to plan for the year, for a unit of teaching and daily lesson.

A Planning in language teaching is quite different from that of content subjects like physical and social sciences. The prescribed syllabus and the materials and teaching strategies for the purpose are to be looked at from the point of view of curriculum in terms of exposure to enable the learner to attain linguistic as well as communicative competence and acquire the skills of linguistic communication and at the same time using the language in genuine communication context and real life situations involving fluency and appropriacy for authentic social interaction.

14.1   Concept of Planning

Before we begin to do anything, take up any assignment or embark on any undertaking, we try to know about the purposes (objectives) for which we take up the work, what content is involved in it (curriculum) and how to go about it (methodology), what feature we have to keep in mind and the strategies we would like to use to complete the work successfully and also how to know whether we have been successful or not (evaluation).

As teaching of English is an important undertaking we should plan it in such a way that we work not in a haphazard or happy- go-lucky fashion but concerted, systematic and scientific way. Of course, there might be some deviation which is natural but the deviation will be from the planned stage and not in a hotchpotch manner.

Obviously, planning is decision making, something premeditated, pre-conceived and has some foreseen details about the effort to perform a task. It makes the task really operative and functional workable in such a way that it provides a smooth road to the journey and it yields fruitful results and enables us to reach the destination successfully.

14.2   Importance of Planning

Careful planning, therefore, is crucial and basic, most essential and presupposes deeper understanding, creativity, insightful knowledge of the details, the problems likely to be encountered, and the snags likely to occur in the proper, smooth execution of the undertaking.

Fortunately, your task for planning teaching of English has become lighter and easier because you have already had the requisite understanding of the process involved in teaching English as a second language in the foregoing (earlier) unit (chapters of this book).

Naturally, you know a great deal about the objectives of teaching the subject, the prescribed syllabus (curriculum) as the content and approaches and methods to teach it. In fact, you can plan more easily than other teachers.

The task, nevertheless, is more difficult and obviously of greater importance in the context of teaching English which as you know is quite different from the teaching of content subjects like social sciences and physical sciences because its focus is on language competence and acquisition of skills rather than knowledge of facts and ideas.

Unfortunately, most teachers are not aware of it and in a large number of schools English is taught like content subjects, not like languages. As a matter of fact the teaching of English in our country, particularly in Rajasthan is not well defined. Many factors are responsible for it. A teacher of English is not necessarily clear about the objective of teaching English as a second language which has wider implications for curriculum and methodology. Teachers of English although are qualified and trained but all of them may not be properly equipped adequately to deliver the goods. Most of them use wholesale translation.

The scenario is not encouraging. Careful planning of course will help in making the undertaking systematic, scientific and objective-based.

14.3 Planning for the year

Planning has to be done in terms of the whole year, units of teaching and daily lesson plans.

This important exercise obviously has to be done in view of the division of the content meant for the session. The objectives formulated for the particular stage and the time allotted for each stage, in a hierarchical way i.e. in a sequence and order beginning with the planning for the whole year and time and content set for it and then in terms of units contributing to the whole course and then daily lesson plans contributing to the unit in a hierarchical, spiral way for convenient and proper implementation stage by stage.

Obviously, planning is to proceed from upwards to downwards. In some schools and colleges, the practice, unfortunately is to begin from lesson planning and then move ahead to plan a unit and then the year plan which is obviously not in keeping with the spirit envisaged for planning, teaching and defeats its very purpose. In fact, the unit plan should emerge form

the yearly plan and a lesson plan from the unit plan, not the other way round and we must follow the holistic approach and not lose the wood (forest) for the trees. It is not just connecting the two sides either way but organizational set up connecting all the parts together with proper linkage, a networking which is inevitable. In fact, important decisions have to be taken at each step in terms of general and specific objectives, selection and sequencing of the material and suitable strategies and tactics to be used, adopted and adapted for the purpose.

To prepare a year plan in English, you have to keep in mind the general objectives of teaching English as a second language, the structural syllabus (or currently notional and functional syllabus), containing the new grammatical points and lexical items (vocabulary) and also the text book in which they have been deliberately spelt out and, the scheme of evaluation and the period of time available for teaching them. And this has to be done in terms of competence, attainment and acquisition of the language skills viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing. The objectives of teaching English as a second language as you know are very much different from that of a foreign language. English has to operate as a link language, a lingua franca, and also a powerful medium of instruction at different levels of instruction, particularly at the university stage. The objectives have to be formulated in a hierarchical way, in a descending order. The specific objectives for planning a unit of a lesson have to be contributing to and in consonance and conformity with the general objectives of teaching the subject and the aims of education.

Of course quite some material, course books, work books etc. are made available to teach the subject. They need vetting and detailed pedagogical input.

Obliviously, the learner at this level has to operate within the constraints of the syllabus prescribed, materials available (the text books, the workbooks etc. for planning). Both the teachers & students heavily depend on them. Naturally, their role is crucial, central as it were and the agencies responsible for prescribing them should be mindful of their pivotal function to give directions to all that goes into planning for the year.

If the differing roles of the textbooks, the teacher, and the students are not made specifically clear, it is not possible to plan scientifically and systematically, because time has to be allotted in view of what learning experiences are to be provided and how much time each is likely to consume. Furthermore, changing textbooks frequently is all the more troublesome and is not called for.

As a matter of fact, the new materials should reflect the shift from structural grading to arranging materials in view of the notions and functions and give emphasis on genuine communication, a happy combination of structural and communicative approach. There

should be pragmatic and selective way in the spirit envisaged in eclecticism, something which really works and clicks in the existing classroom conditions and circumstances.

The approximate period of working (teaching-learning) days available for the session could be allotted to various books prescribed for the purpose in view of the linguistic content and in terms of the four fundamental language skills. Obviously, as has already been referred to, the planning of the whole course is done holistically, the next stage emerging for the first and contributing to it to give a total view of the structure. Furthermore, the methods, teaching strategies used for a particular content area and skill have to be constantly kept in mind for the completion of the course. Tentatively the period of working (teaching-learning) days could be allotted to various areas in the following manner.

Inclusion of poems seems to be a new dimension added to the teaching of English as a second language. The purpose of including the poems should be made clear and the differing roles of the poems, the teacher, the learner and the evaluator should be specifically stated. Furthermore at the level of the year plan it should be worthwhile indeed to give adequate time to co-curricular activities and to plan and organize them systematically.

Tentatively the period of working (teaching) days could be allotted to different content areas and skills.

14.4 A Unit Plan

The organization of subject matter into units has received considerable attention in recent years. In English a lesson from the course book is a unit and the content of the lesson will form the basis for teaching structures and vocabulary and the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. In fact, the books prescribed have been written in view of the inclusion of the language material and the acquisition of the skills they are likely to lead to. The main thrust of a unit is on spelling out of the language material viz. structures and lexical items (vocabulary) and providing the text for teaching the skills of reading and writing. Obviously, the teaching of the course book is very crucial from the point of view of their objectives. The course book for is for detailed study and is meant for intensive reading. While the supplementary is for non-detailed study and is meant for reading for pleasure to motivate the learner to read more and more books and they assimilate and internalize the language.

Obviously, the course book is the textbook which is deliberately intended to exploit the situation and the context so that new structure and vocabulary items (included in the structural syllabus) could be weaved, interwoven as it were, to teach real meaning in

appropriate context, and that is the reason why it is called the course book. It is the rapid reader because the focus is on acquisition of the skill of reading. Therefore, it performs two functions, gives the new structural and lexical items with shades of meaning. They are to be taught and intended to develop the skill of reading for comprehension.

The teacher, therefore, is supposed to first analyze the content, list them from a particular lesson as a unit, categorize them for active or passive use and the shades of meaning they are used in with a view to teaching them sub-units orally so as to keep the text as unfamiliar or unseen to be used for developing the skill of reading after the language material has been taught orally. Evidently the teacher who takes up the text directly renders it unsuitable for reading. Furthermore, teaching structures and vocabulary and the text of the lesson is making learning all the more difficult because in this way they put two difficulties at the same time i.e. teaching new structures. In fact, new words and new vocabulary items with the in the context of words and structures which is themselves are difficult should be taught with the help of the material already learnt by the student. In some cases, it has been pointed earlier the text of the lesson is known to the reader and therefore, the expected answers to comprehension questions could be given without reference to the text. Such a text defeats its very purpose and is utterly meaningless.

The composition work is also linked to the language material of the unit. Even the unit test which is to give feedback for the performance of the learner as well as efficacy of the teaching is part of the unit and is based on same language material. A unit, therefore, comprises sub-units on the following content areas.

1. Sub-unit one: Structure ⎤
2. Sub-unit two: Structure ⎦ Two Periods

3. Sub-unit three: vocabulary ⎤
4. Sub-unit Four: vocabulary ⎦ Two Periods

   (Selected in view of the grammatical category and shade of meanings)

5. Comprehension (unseen and unfamiliar text of the lesson) from.... to.....

6. Comprehension (unseen and unfamiliar text of the lesson of from ... to....

7. Exercises given in the text book one period.

8. Composition based on the language material of the unit one period.

9. Unit Text (one period)

10. Remedial work (one period)

    = Ten periods in all for the particular unit of teaching.

14.5 A Lesson Plan (or a period plan)

A lesson plan is part of the unit of teaching, which in English is a lesson from the course book.

A lesson (a period plan) obviously, emerges from the unit and in turn contributes to it in an integrated manner. Different plans, of course, are needed for teaching structures, vocabulary, reading comprehension and composition based on the unit. The language material involved in the unit will naturally permeate in all the cases including the unit test and remedial work. In all planning the dominant thing must be the objective. The teacher most bear in mind that there is a hierarchy of objectives. This hierarchy extends from general and proceeds to the specific objective. The specific objective concerns what the teacher expects to achieve during the class hour, she/he should have a definite end in view as to what he or she expects to accomplish each day.

Nevertheless the specific teaching purpose must be in harmony with the general and both should be written out in order that there may be no confusion. The most important part of a lesson plan in English would be to provide the learner with some motivational input, a sort of initial warm up through a puzzle, rhyme or brisk dictation of the known words to be used to teach the new items. Secondly it is crucial indeed to identify the basic assumptions, the entry level competence of the learner (his previous knowledge) and on which the lesson will be built-up. Then the first phase would be presentation of the teaching point (structure or lexical items) through meaningful situations and making use of audio-visual aids, objects, pictures, actions, gestures, mimes, demonstration etc. The second phase would include reinforcement and consolidation of the material by using substitution tables, dialogue, sentence-frames and frames based on programmed learning. In this phase the focus would be to get the feedback about the performance of the learner and knowledge of the efficacy of the teaching strategies used. The tight control could be relaxed at this stage and freedom be given to the learner to use language authentically in appropriate contexts of situations for genuine communication and social interaction.

In teaching comprehension (based on the text of the course book) care has to be taken to see that questions are framed in such a way that the skill of genuine comprehension of the learner is developed properly. The questions have to be properly graded in view of the difficulty level and would be of general, detailed and linguistic type. The learner should be given adequate experience in reading silently at normal conversational speed without moving lips and/or fingers because that hampers speed and derails attention from meaning. Initially

the composition lesson will be integrated, guided and controlled and contextualized and the techniques (letters, stories etc.) would be selected in view of the language content involved.

Written composition will be preceded by oral composition in all cases. Later, of course, the tight control could be gradually relaxed and composition work made semi-free in the spirit envisaged in communicative approach for authentic use of the language for communication.

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Planning in teaching should deal with 'what to teach?' and 'How to teach'?

(ii)   The objectives of teaching are not as important as the procedure of teaching.

(iii)   Daily lesson planning is more important than unit planning and yearly planning.

(iv)   A lesson from a textbook is a unit in English.

(v)   Teaching should be planned in terms of the objectives, the content, the method and the context.

14.6 Let's Sum up

Planning at all stages is crucial and basic to make teaching and learning and is of vital concern, objective based, systematic and scientific. The time the teacher spends on planning is time well utilized. The planner, nevertheless, has to have insightful knowledge of the objectives, strategies and devices and at various stages and see the activities in a holistic view. Learning a new subject should begin by getting a view of it as a whole and should proceed by analyzing it into parts each to be studied in greater detail. The primary emphasis is to be placed on integration and seeing the subject as a whole facilitates it. In fact, each next step consolidates the first, and in turn contributes to it later.

14.7. Exercises

1.   Why is planning inevitable for effective teaching and learning?

2.   What is a unit of teaching in English? Explain the parts that emerge from it and contribute to it.

3.   What is lesson planning? How would you plan your daily lessons?

4.   What are the main steps of lesson planning?

5. How is planning of a lesson on teaching structures different from planning a lesson on reading comprehension?

6. How will you plan a lesson on composition? What important points will you keep in mind to make composition work really worthwhile?

14.8. Further Reading

(1) Baruah, T.C. (1985). The English Teacher's Handbook. New Delhi : Starling Publishing Pvt. Ltd.

(2) Doff, Adrian (1995 ed.). Teaching English, Trainer's Handbook. Cambridge : CUP.

(3) Hubbard, Patel et al (1983). A Training Course for TEFL. Oxford : OUP.

(4) Mackey, W.F. (1965). Language Teaching Analysis. Cambridge : CUP.

(5) Paliwal, A.K. (2007). A Handbook for Teachers of English. Jaipur : Kalpana Publications.

Lesson Planning : What, Why and How?

Rudiments :

Let us now discuss the rudiments of lesson planning in English. This section deals with the basic concept, aims, objectives, types and procedures for lesson planning in English as a second language.

(1) The nature of the lesson plan depends on -

    1. The sort of lesson

    2. Length

    3. Level of teaching.

(2) Lesson plans may differ in -

    1. Objectives,

    2. Procedures,

    3. Order and

    4. Proportion.

(3)   There are three kinds of lesson in language teaching. **Informative lessons** talk about language, its origin and grammar. **Affective lessons** deal with appreciation of literature. **Practical lessons** focus on language use.

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(4)   Points for consideration : According to Adrian Doff, the teacher should consider the following points for lesson planning :

(A)   What are the aims of the lesson ?

    1.   Does the lesson focus on a particular topic ?

    2.   Does the lesson focus on a particular structure ?

    3.   Does the lesson focus on a particular skill ?

(B)   What language is taught in the lesson ?

    1.   Are you going to teach new vocabulary ?

    2.   Are you going to teach new structures ?

    3.   Are you going to teach either or both ?

(C)   What skills will be developed in the lesson ?

    1.   Listening

    2.   Speaking

    3.   Reading

    4.   Writing

(D)   What are the main stages of the lesson ?

- Presentation
- Practice
- Production
- Reading
- Listening
- Review

According to W.F. Mackey, the teacher should keep the following points in view while preparing lesson plans:

(A) Objectives of lesson vary according to :

(1) the level of teaching,

(2) type of lesson,

(3) language skills, and

(4) teaching points.

(B) Procedures :

(1) Does the plan *include a list of equipment* which the teacher will need ?

(2) Does the teacher know the *procedures* for preparing the learner?

- *Psychological preparation*

- *Linguistic preparation*

(3) *Presentation* : Does the teacher know which forms are to be taught ? Which procedures are to be used to get the meaning across to the learner ?

(4) *Guidance* : What guidance does the learner need to do the drill etc. in terms of

- comprehension

- production

(5) *Habit formation* : What provision is there in the plan for converting what is taught into a habit ? Language habits include :

(1) Expression, as in the case of pronunciation, and

(2) Content as in the case of the right words in a given situation.

(6) *Application* : Does the lesson plan make provision for

- Expanding the context through conversation or extensive reading ?

(7)   *Checking-up and Summing-up* : Does the plan include a section devoted to a recapitulation of the items taught ?

(C)   Order : Teaching plans may differ considerably in the order in which their constituent parts are arranged. This applies to

1.   the items taught,

2.   the skill taught, and

3.   the procedures used.

(D)   Proportion :

What proportion of the lesson time is given to each of the items taught ? Is it justified ?

(3)   Suggestions for lesson planning :

Peter Hubbard et al offer the following suggestions for lesson   planning in the form of a check list.

(A)   Aim : *What is to be taught ?*

1.   Decide on the main teaching point.

- Are you going to teach *usage* (Grammar)?
- Are you going to teach *uses* (Functions) ?
- Are you going to teach *language items* ?
- Are you going to teach *language skills* ?

2.   Which stage of *practice* is to be attempted with the patterns isolated and mentioned above ?

(B)   Type of activity :

- Do you want to conduct a *controlled activity* ?
- Do you want to conduct a *freer activity* ?
- Do you want to conduct a *completely free activity* ?

3.   Think of suitable situations for the activity.

4.   What new lexical items fit in with these situations ?

5.   What phonological problems or teaching point should be included ?

6.   *Activities* : What are you going to do in the lesson ?

- Plan the stages to be followed in introducing and practising your main teaching point (s).

- Calculate the timing of these stages.

- Make your plan less ambitious.

- Let there be a reasonable balance of activities.

(C)   Aids : What aids are you going to use ?

1.   Which are likely to be most effective ?

2.   Are they varied or attractive enough ?

3.   Are you making full use of them ?

4.   Plan your blackboard work in detail.

5.   List the aids beside each stage planned so far.

(D)   Anticipated difficulties : What could go wrong ?

1.   Try to guess which errors are most likely to occur.

        Why will these occur ?

        Work out alternative strategies to sort these out.

2.   Bear in mind that no lesson, however, carefully prepared, works out exactly as planned. Flexibility in carrying out a plan is one of the signs of a good teacher. There is a danger of over-planning your lesson.

(E)   General view : Is the lesson going to be a success ?

1.   Are the students going to learn something in this lesson ?

2.   Are they going to enjoy the lesson ?

3.   Does the lesson as a whole have a sense of coherence and purpose ?

4.   Does the lesson connect up with what went before ?

5.   Does it lead the way to useful activities in later lessons ?

Check Your Understanding

Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   There are only four kinds of lesson in language teaching.

(ii)   The objectives of one lesson may differ from that of another lesson.

(iii)   The lesson plan need not include a list of equipment to be used.

(iv)   The lesson plan should also discuss the method of teaching to be used.

(v)   Evaluation is the last part of the lesson plan.

A Suggestive Outline of a Lesson Plan

1.   Objectives :

- General

- Specific

2.   Content Analysis :

(What is to be taught in terms of language content and language skills)

3.   Materials and aids to be used :

4.   Motivational Input :

5.   Presentation :

(Different types of devices, strategies, may be used)

- Consolidation / Reinforcement

- Revision

6.   Evaluation.

A Suggestive Outline of a Unit Plan

Subject : English

Class	:	**Periods for the Unit**	: ....
Unit	:	**Revision**	: ....
Unit No.	:	**Evaluation (Unit Test)**	: ....
Sub Unit	:	**Remedial Teaching**	: ....

(A) General Objectives -

1. To enable the learners to develop their comprehension skills (listening, reading) through the prescribed text.

2. To enable the learners to develop their expression skills (speaking, writing) through the prescribed text.

3. To enable the learners to develop their communicative competence through the language content involved in the unit and the basic language skills.

4. To enable the learners to learn the *form, usage, meaning* and *use/s* of the new lexical and structural items involved in the unit.

5. To enable the learners to develop their interest in English and motivate them to learn it.

6. To give learners remedial treatment through the feedback on the basis of the Unit Test.

Unit 15

Context Specific Teaching Aids in English - Their Preparation and Evaluation

Structure

15.1 Objective

The objective of this unit is to tell the teachers about the importance and need of various kinds of teaching aids like the blackboard, pictures, charts, flash cards, the epidiascope, the overhead projector, slides and slide projectors, film strips, films, the radio, the tape-recorder. The basis of selection and evaluation of teaching aids and their objectives and process of usage is to be put across to the teachers.

15.2 Introduction

This unit deals with the visual side of the verbal word as well as other aids and the part they play in the teaching of English as a second language. The use of an aid in the teaching of a second language is aimed chiefly to relate language with features of experience of which visual audio and audio visual aids form a part.

15.2 Need

Now, let us try to answer the question 'why visual aids are needed'.

When one learns one's mother-tongue, everyday environment and situations provide a good many of the stimuli to natural use of the language. The learner hears people around him express themselves in all the circumstances of their daily lives. Gradually he learns how these activities are related to their verbal accompaniment. In teaching a second language the teacher in the classroom has to try and make up for this lack of natural stimuli. Most teachers feel the need for making use of visual aids in one form or another.

There is still a widespread ignorance among most language teachers of the real value and significance of aids. This is not surprising for a large number of language teachers do not even know what language really means. As L. Bloomfield remarks, "Our schools are conducted by persons, who, from professors of education down to teachers in the classroom, know nothing of the results of linguistic science, not even of the relation of writing to speech, or of standard language to dialect. In short they do not know what language is, and yet must teach it, and in consequence waste years of every child's life and reach a poor result." One problem of English language teaching is how to create the necessary interest and enthusiasm in the learner. Teaching aids help teachers to make their teaching lively and enthuse the pupils to learn better.

15.3 The Blackboard

The blackboard is perhaps the simplest classroom aid. It is the cheapest and the best among the various aids which can be used to transcend the narrow limits of the classroom. Even the most poorly equipped classroom contains a blackboard, yet very few teachers make full use of its vast range of possibilities in language teaching. Either through sheer ignorance or indifference most teachers, with their backs to the blackboard, struggle hard to explain a simple point which could have been better and more easily illustrated with a simple drawing or sketch. Most teachers, however, do use the blackboard for introducing new words, lesson summaries and test exercises. There are a few who resort to the expensive methods of using pictures drawn on drawing sheets, when they could just as well be drawn on the blackboard.

One reason why teachers are reluctant to make blackboard drawings and sketches is that they feel they are incompetent to do so. However, the task is not as difficult as is appears to be, if we realize that the best type of blackboard drawing is a rapid sketch, expressive like a caricature or the drawing in a good humorous magazine. The essentials are indicated only, and no unessential details are shown. The big advantage of a blackboard drawing is that it takes shape under the eye of the pupil. Teachers lose this advantage by preparing the drawing in advance. A drawing done in advance is best done on a card sheet and pinned up. But it still has a different purpose from that of the blackboard drawing.

Built up like a living organism, in front of the class, the blackboard drawing has a special life of its own. It is in itself a means of relating language to experience, when it is drawn with a running commentary from the teacher. The words and their meaning penetrate into the mind with unusual clarity. There is deep concentration, if the drawing is rapid and lively. Even a large class may participate completely.

For making an intelligent use of the blackboard, let us study what F.L. Billows has to say about it in his book **The Techniques of Language Teaching,"** I have always found drawing in this way on the blackboard a sure way of rallying of the scattering attention of a class unaccustomed to concentrate; it is a way of giving point and focus to the spoken word. As I draw badly, it at once puts me on a level with the class, and brings out their sympathy and friendliness. I was once able in this way to make a very unruly class of sixty-five little girls attentive and quiet. Their teacher's voice and physical presence were insufficient to silence or overawe them. But I was able to get their attention by drawing pictures of cats and inviting members of the class to outdo my cats, and then telling a jury to number the cats in order of excellence. The fact that I was having an off-day in my skill at representing cats with a few conventional curves did not seem to affect their value as a focus for attention.

After a time I went over to dogs, but my first dog was universally shouted down as more like a sheep; eventually we achieved a fine quantity of good quality dogs, some with spots, some with short tails and some with long; there was scornful rejection of the notion of a dog with stripes, and cats with short tails were also not tolerated.

By the end of the lesson we were able to agree, with some surprise, that we had got used to hearing and using, if we had not quite learnt, the ordinal numbers **first, second, third, fourth** and **fifth,** and expressions such as better than, worse than, the best picture of a cat, that dog's more like a sheep than a dog, dogs with short tails, dogs with spots, stripes, etc. and a great deal that had been half-learnt before had been well practised and made quite clear and conscious".

The teacher must never draw away silently on the blackboard, wrapped in concentration over his little masterpiece, he must constantly comment and invite comment on what he is doing, "I've drawn that arm too long," "Does an arm look like that?" "Can anyone draw it better?" "Have I given him any eyes?" "Now I've drawn an eye, the other eye is on the other side, we can't see it".... Ears and hands can be put in the wrong place, to the scandalized delight of the class. All this gives an opportunity to bring in humour and humanity into the otherwise sterile classroom.

We can use simple blackboard illustrations to teach useful sentence-patterns and structures. An example of how this can be done will make things clear. If we have to elicit 'could' or 'might' with a verb, we can draw a picture of a short wall with a dog on one side and a cat on the other side, seated close to a tree and a house. We may then say, "What would happen if the dog jumped over the wall?" The pupils give all the possibilities, using 'could' or 'might', as the case may be.

We can use the blackboard as an aid in teaching simple grammatical forms, such as singular and plural, the various tenses, Active and Passive voices, etc.

Minimal contrasting pairs can be written on the blackboard to clarify the contrast. For this purpose the significant elements of the pattern are written one under the other. Vertical lines separating the contrasting elements will further highlight the point. Here, we can make use of coloured chalk to draw attention to the contrast.

The blackboard can be used in many different ways in the teaching of reading and writing. In the preparatory stage the 'experience chart' can be built up on the blackboard with the active co-operation of the class. This chart is built up on a simple experience, such as a visit to a place of interest. As the pupils describe their experience in simple sentences the teacher selects suitable sentences and writes them on the blackboard one below the other.

Together they make a short composition. They can form the basis of a reading lesson also. As the sentences have been given by the pupils themselves, they will naturally take interest in spotting them when written on the blackboard.

Robert Lado gives examples of the excellent use of the blackboard. One use is for memorization of a text. He says, "The material is written on the board and covered before class time. For memorization it is uncovered and read through by the teacher with the class following silently or in a low voice. The material is read again by the teacher with the class attempting full simultaneous reading. The choral reading may be repeated until the students read smoothly together. The teacher then erases some of the nouns and leads the class in reading everything, including the erased words. Verbs are erased, and another reading is conducted, with the teacher abstaining while the class reads and supplies the missing words. Additional readings follow, with more and more material erased until even the function words are erased, and the class repeats the text, looking at the blackboard where the text appeared previously."

About one other use of the blackboard, Robert Lado says, "To have the class correct their own dictation exercises, one of the students can write his dictation on a board that is not visible to the rest of the class. When the dictation has been finished the black board can be turned around or otherwise put in full view of the class. Corrections are made on the dictation, and the class can correct on their own from the sample on the board."

Another device that Lado suggests is: "Writing more than a word or short sentence on the board having the presentation of a lesson is slow and ineffective. The class tends to lose interest while the teacher writes. It is more effective to write the material on the board before class and to cover it until it is needed in the lesson. It is then uncovered at one sweep and the class becomes absorbed with its content."

Some other important points to be borne in mind about the use of blackboard are as follows :

1. The blackboard should be like a clean slate before beginning any new lesson or a new point in the lesson.

2. After finishing his work with the blackboard, the teacher should clean the board, especially before leaving the classroom.

3. The writing on the board should be tidy.

4. The letters should be big and bold.

5. The drawings should bring out the idea to be conveyed to the learner with as little ambiguity as possible.

6.   The presentation should be orderly.

7.   Other devices like underlining important items, use of capital letters, use of coloured chalk etc. may be used, if necessary.

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Visual aids help in searching language to describe things and exercises.

(2)   Teaching aids are more important in second language teaching.

(3)   The blackboard is not very useful for introducing new vocabulary and structures.

(4)   An English teacher should be an expert in drawing.

(5)   Lado's technique of using the blackboard in memorizing things is useful.

15.4 Pictures

Pictures have been used extensively for language learning. By connecting new and unfamiliar items with ideas or concepts symbolized by them, pictures make verbal abstractions real and concrete. They stimulate discussion and free conversation and introduce new ideas, words and structures to pupils. Pictures also help the teacher to avoid verbalism in his teaching by giving reality to what he is explaining. Contexts that cannot easily be created in words alone can be recreated by means of pictures, which thus save much valuable time and energy.

Pictures can either be ready-made, or made by the teachers or the pupils out of school, or bought for classroom teaching, or simply cut out of old magazines.

Pictures for teaching language should show representative objects, especially such objects as are not likely to be familiar to the pupil, which he can hardly come across physically or through any other medium. The teacher should never allow himself to forget that direct experience of objects and situations at first hand is bound to be more effective for entering into a language than second-hand experience arrived at with the help of pictures.

Besides showing objects, pictures should show as much of diversity of situation and action as possible, so that we can say "What is that man doing, and why is he standing there?" and "What is he going to do in a moment?" A good teaching picture should give the teacher an opportunity to make use of what is not visible in the picture at all, but can easily be

inferred from it. "When the bus comes to that bus stop, where those people are standing what will they do, and how will they pay their fare?"

The pictures should not be put up on the walls and left there from lesson to lesson. They should appear to be fresh and interesting when they are put up. They should give the impression that we have caught these people and held them for a moment, busily engaged in their work at that moment. Pictures should not be allowed to become stale by being seen when they are not be used.

The Use of Pictures

Pictures can be used for different purposes. One of them is to teach structures. One way to get plenty of practice in tenses is to ask about what the people in the picture are doing, have done, will do and will have done in a few hours time. Another way that ensures the conversion of all Present Tenses into Past Tenses is to roll up the picture, after we have spent half an hour or so in talking about what is going on in it and ask what the people were doing, whether they caught their train or missed it, whether the man standing by the bookstall bought a book or a newspaper, etc. Or we may keep the picture in front of the class and say. "Of course, this picture was made some time ago, what were these people doing?" "This picture shows the kind of things people do every day. They will do the same thing tomorrow," and the whole lesson then be in the Future Tenses. Or we can say. "This is a scene that has been imagined by the artist. What will the people do if they did what the artist has put into the picture?" and do the lesson in Conditional Tenses. One way to teach the Conditional more naturally will be to say, "That man is just going to get into the train, what would he have done if he had missed the bus, and got here too late for the train?" Or we can say, "What would you do if you were there?"

Pictures can be used to practice structures systematically. Here the sentence patterns are selected beforehand. A model is given or elicited, and then series of pictures provide substitution elements that the student incorporates in the sentence pattern he is practising.

Yet another use of pictures is to elicit conversation on topics such as shopping, a vacation or a party.

Some important points to be borne in mind about pictures are :

1)   They should be properly selected keeping in view the purpose they are to serve.

2)   They should be big and clear enough to be seen by every student in the class.

3)   If a series of pictures is being used, we should be careful about the order in which they are to be presented.

4)   They should be kept carefully and displayed neatly where they can be seen well. They are easy to handle and store if they are mounted on large sheets of brown paper.

15.5   Charts

Wall charts of many types have been used successfully for years. They have great advantages for oral practice. They keep the attention of a whole class together on the same stimulus, whereas individual pictures tend to scatter attention of the class.

One use of the classroom chart is representation of a simple story by means of a series of pictures with only a suggestion of the actions. For example, the story selected represents a school boy's daily programme of work. The first picture can show him getting up from bed in the morning, the second, him taking his morning meal, and so on till he retires to bed at night. If we wish to practise the irregular past forms of verbs, we may point to the first picture and say. "He woke up at six O'clock". After the class has worked through the whole series of pictures, it can be asked to tell what he is doing now, what he is going to do tomorrow, what he did yesterday, what he should / must / has to do / etc. Or exercises involving words like 'every day', 'always', 'after' and 'before' can be set.

In another type of chart, the teacher selects a picture, showing a classroom, railway station, post office, etc. Each of the characters in the picture is drawn on a separate card or cut out. These are then hooked on to a large background frame to form the total scene. As a pupil looks or pegs a picture onto the frame, he describes the action with an appropriate sentence, e.g. 'Here comes the postmaster'.

It will be seen that this aid can be used for many different types of language exercises. For example, substitution exercises can be done by moving word cards into different positions or the tenses can be taught by using calendars and clock diagrams.

15.6   Flash Cards

Flash cards for teaching or self-study have been used for years. They are sets of cards with a word or phrase on one side and its meaning - usually in translation - on the other.

For self-study, the student looks at the word and tries to recall the meaning. If he gets success, he discards the item. If he fails, he puts it at the end of the pile for another attempt when it comes up again. With proper instructions, the student could proceed to write the answers before turning the card over.

For practising pronunciation and the symbols of a phonotic alphabet, the cards may have individual phonetic or phonemic transcription. The cards are shown to the students, who try to pronounce what they are. The back of the cards may give the words in ordinary spelling as a check. When the problem is a single sound, it can be identified by underlining the appropriate letters in the word. If flash cards are properly designed and used they can be very helpful in teaching and studying a language.

Check Your Understanding

II   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Pictures help a lot in making abstract things concrete.

(2)   Pictures should not be used as objects for decoration.

(3)   The order of showing picture is important.

(4)   Charts help in concentrating the pupils' attention.

(5)   Flash-cards are mainly for beginners.

15.7   The Epidiascope

The epidiascope can be used in many ways. A page from a book can be shown to a class so that all can see it at once. Pictures in a book, a magazine or a newspaper which are too small to show to the whole class and which the teacher wants to comment on or discuss can be made large enough through the epidiascope. Even very small objects can be shown conveniently with the help of an epidiascope.

However, it has some limitations. It needs complete darkness and a good screen. Some get hot rather quickly, so that a page of a book or a picture cannot be left in too long as there is a danger of it being burnt.

Even then, it is the best apparatus for showing still pictures on slides to a large audience. It can throw beautiful coloured pictures from encyclopedias and other reference books on to a screen so that a large audience can see it.

15.8   Overhead Projector

The teacher draws and writes on the plastic roll or sheets in advance and can then project these at the desired time on to a screen in an enlarged form. For this a special pencil is required. Thus the teacher does not have to turn his back to the class and write on the

blackboard. OHP can be used for various purposes. For example, if the teacher gives a dictation and wishes to have the class correct their own papers, the material can be projected on the screen at the appropriate moment.

15.9   Slides and Slide Projectors

Slides are transparencies or mounted single picture films for projection on a screen or wall by means of a slide projector. Slides are relatively easy to make with one's own camera. They are also readily available commercially on subjects and places of general interest. Their effectiveness depends on the content of the particular slides to be used. They can depict various situations in full colour and provide the stimulus for controlled speaking practice or free conversation.

15.10 Film Strips

A film strip contains a series of pictures on a scroll of celluloid. It has the advantage of focusing the pupil's attention on the picture while the teacher's voice explains it. This aid can be used for different kinds of language lessons, if the teachers do so with a little care.

The film-strip can be used for any length of time and can be rolled back whenever necessary. A teacher can make his own pictures at very little cost, with a little practice.

With the help of film-strips a good teacher can easily teach language which is far beyond the normal range of comprehension of the class. The teacher can use the Continuous Present Tense for what he is showing, the General Present Tense for generalizations from that, the Future Tenses for what may be expected to be seen in the next frame, and the past tenses for what has been seen in previous frames, and he can turn back to see whether the pupilsS have remembered correctly.

One big advantage of the film-strip projector is this possibility to stop at a picture as long as one likes - to search it for clues, reflect, comment on it, discuss it, as what it is leading on to and recall what came before it - and then turn on to see if one's expectations are to be realized, or back to an earlier picture to see if one had remembered accurately. Thus one has, in addition to the two dimensions of a normal picture, the added dimension of time under one's control.

A few points to be noted about the use of film-strips are :

1.   The teacher should study the pictures and notes before the show.

2. The show should be conducted in the normal classroom so that students do not consider it as something unusual or extraordinary.

3. The lights should be put on and the pupils encouraged to participate in discussions, written work etc. between pictures.

4. The teacher should not show too many pictures in a single lesson. Only a few relevant pictures should be used at a time.

5. The film-strip show should form part of the daily lesson and should not be regarded as a form of amusement. It should fit into the teacher's normal scheme of work.

15.11. Films

Films are one of the most powerful types of aids for teaching as they combine pictures with movement, colour and sound. They bring to the classroom a realism that cannot be attained otherwise. They present new ideas and images to the student's mind and can be used profitably for a variety of purposes in language teaching provided the teacher knows how to use them effectively. The film is only as valuable as the teacher makes it. Research has shown that students do not necessarily learn anything by merely looking at films. With careful planning and preparation they can be made a dynamic teaching aid.

There are three stages involved in the use of films. First, the teacher should spend some time in the selection of a film. The content of the film should suit the subject and be within the comprehension of the pupils. Once a suitable film has been selected, the teacher must make himself thoroughly familiar with it before it is shown to the class. In order to do this, the teacher should screen it several times prior to its use in the classroom.

All important facts, significant actions, learning cues, new words etc. must be carefully noted down for future reference. Next, he must know when and why he is going to use it. Will the film best serve to introduce new material, to review and revise material already known, or to combine both known and unknown material? Before the film is screened, the teacher must prepare the class by briefly discussing the contents, make advance assignments of pupils' activity, such as questions or reference to new material.

The film must be shown more than once. Results of experiments have shown that longer observation results in better comprehension provided it is under proper guidance and instructions. It is not always necessary to show the entire film. The teacher can select the

relevant portion, and if it is a silent film, he can supply the necessary explanatory comments on it. In the case of a sound film, pupils can be asked to give their comments after the show is over. After the show the pupils should be given an opportunity for follow-up activities. These can be in the form of discussions, tests, projects, reading activities, summaries, supplementary reading etc.

There are quite a few difficulties in using films as a teaching aid. It is an expensive aid. So cooperative film libraries can be formed. Another difficulty is that most teachers lack experience and training in the use of films and consider these merely as an aid for spending leisure hours. They should remember that films should be correlated to class teaching and other instructional aids.

Newsreels can also be used for providing the students with great deal of material for writing descriptive, essays, summaries and reports. They often depict recent events. So they are of special interest to students and the contents can provide the necessary interest and stimulus for various types of language work. Films showing extra-curricular activities like athletic meets, sports competition etc. offer excellent opportunities for speech-lessons and written exercises. One important thing that the teacher should do is to imbue his pupils with the right attitude that these films have educational and instructional value and they are there not just for the sake of entertainment. The teacher should so plan the lesson that the pupils may direct their attention towards (i) information, (subject matter) (ii) vocabulary (iii) sentence-patterns (iv) coherence of subject-matter etc.

Check Your Understanding

III   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   The epidiascope is useful for enlarging things.

(2)   The use of an overhead projector saves a lot of time.

(3)   Slides help in making things interesting.

(4)   It is important that films relate perfectly to the area being taught.

(5)   One screening of the film is enough in language teaching.

15.12 Radio

The radio provides the pleasure of strangeness and variety. It is a valuable aid in language teaching and learning, when used intelligently. It is only a teaching aid and no substitute for teaching.

When planning the use of the radio the teacher must first of all keep the three stages in mind viz. preparatory, listening and follow-up. In the preparatory stage the teacher must prepare the class for listening. He may write a few questions on the blackboard for discussion. These questions can be discussed with pictures, posters, sketches, maps, films etc. This makes the class interested and enthusiastic about the radio programme that is to follow and gives useful background knowledge. Before the listening stage begins, the teacher makes the students understand that they should not talk or whisper during the programme. The teacher must set an example by listening carefully to the programme and not do anything else during it. Then comes follow-up work based on the radio experience. This can be undertaken through discussions, assignments, writing of summaries and reports, drawings, dramatization etc. If the programme has permanent value, the teacher may tape-record it for future reference and use.

The teacher can also make use of school radio programmes which are especially based on specific syllabuses and to develop some basic language skills.

15.13 The Tape-recorder

The tape-recorder is also a useful teaching aid. It can be used in many different ways in the classroom. Such as recording radio programmes, for speech-correction work, improving reading, recording speech and dramatic activities. A big advantage of the tape-recorder is that recordings can be played back indefinitely without loss of quality.

One use of the tape-recorder is that the teacher records sounds in which a pupil is weak, and then gets him to repeat the correct sounds until he has mastered them thoroughly. This process of recording the correct sounds and the pupil's incorrect sounds makes the pupil observe his weak points and offer him an opportunity to overcome his difficulties. The tape-recorder can also be used for recording plays, poems, songs and speeches. Thus through the use of the tape-recorder the teacher can add variety and interest to his language lessons.

15.14 Television

In teaching of English as a second language television can play a very important role. Many qualified teachers do not speak the language, well enough to be imitated. Through

television a good teacher and a good model can be used for all the pupils and added to this their superior power of imitation will enable the students to learn well. It may also be argued that the cost of introducing a second language through television on a large scale is relatively small compared with providing qualified teachers.

Classroom teachers may be gradually trained to use the set of materials used on television in the light of their own needs and convenience in the school set up.

The television can become a very useful aid in second language teaching, if television teaching is done by skilled, inspired teachers, backed by sound advice from linguists and by a sound programme in the schools.

15.15 Evaluation of Teaching Aids

Teachers have to learn to evaluate the teaching aids and the basis of their selections and the way they are to be used.

In this connection the following important points are to be borne in mind :-

1. The teaching aids should be affordable and not very expensive.
2. They should be easy to use and handle.
3. They should be easy to store and maintain.
4. Teachers should have been properly trained to use them properly.
5. They should not be used just as decorative pieces.
6. Teachers should know the exact purpose of using them namely the content area of the syllabus and skills that are being taught.
7. They should also know well at what stage of the lesson is a teaching aid is to be used.
8. Teaching aids should help in making the lesson more interesting.

Check Your Understanding

IV   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(1)   Radio can take the place of a teacher.
(2)   The tape-recorder can be used for improving pronunciation.
(3)   Television can provide the services of good teachers at a wide scale.
(4)   Teachers need intensive training in the use of teaching aids.
(5)   Teaching aids can make learning more enjoyable.

15.16 Let's Sum up

In this unit, we began with a discussion of the utility of teaching aids in general and then moved on to various kinds of teaching aids like the blackboard, pictures, charts, flash cards, the epidiascope, the overhead projector, slides and slide projector, film strips, films, the radio and the tape-recorder. We discussed ways of using them and their merits and demerits. Then we analysed the basis for selection of teaching aids.

15.17 Exercises

1.   Describe briefly the main purpose of the use of teaching aids.

2.   Describe briefly how you will use the blackboard to teach a grammatical point.

3.   How will you use the blackboard to teach vocabulary? Give examples.

4.   Mention five most important things about the use of pictures as a teaching aid.

5.   Why are charts useful as a teaching aid?

6.   What are the advantages and disadvantages of an overhead projector?

7.   How can the tape-recorder be used as a teaching aid?

8.   Mention the five most important points about selection of teaching aids.

15.18 Further Reading

(1)   Baruah, T.C. (1985). The English Teacher's Handbook. New Delhi : Sterling Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

(2)   Habbard, Peter et al (1983). A Training Course for TEFL. Oxford : O.U.P.

(3)   Lado, Robert (1971). Language Teaching. New Delhi : Tata McGraw Hill Publishing House Co. Ltd.

(4)   Willis, Jane (1981). Teaching English Through English. Essex, England: Longman Group Pvt. Ltd.

Unit 16

Resources : Classroom, Laboratory, Museum, Community, Environment, Library, etc.

Structure of the Unit :

16.0 Objectives

16.1 Introduction

16.2 Classroom

16.3 Language Laboratory

16.4 Museum

16.5 Community

16.6 Environment

16.7 Library

16.8 Let's Sum up

16.9 Exercises

16.10 Further Reading

16.0 Objectives:

The purpose of this lesson is to define the resources of teaching/learning, especially classroom, laboratory, museum, community, environment and library and also to discuss their role in enhancing the learning of English.

16.1 Introduction

Resources mean "something that can be used for support or help." They are the means to which one turns for help when in need. Resourcefulness, therefore, means the ability and the means to meet situation effectively. A resourceful person, accordingly, is one who possesses the ability to deal with a difficult or troublesome situation effectively in order to make it better. Resources are of vital significance in making learning more fruitful. As the development of a nation is not possible without the resources such as minerals,

wealth, labour, force, etc. a company cannot progress without a plant, labour, raw materials, assets, etc. learning cannot progress without the resources such as classroom, laboratory, museum, community, environment, library, etc. The word 'resources' is often used in plural.

16.2 Classroom:

A classroom is the room in a school/college/university, etc. where lessons take place. A classroom is supposed to provide an appropriate learning environment for the students, including the seating arrangements and location of resources as well as other environmental aspects such as lighting and temperature. Most classrooms have some form of large writing surface on which the teacher or instructor can make notes for the class to see. Traditionally this was in the form of a blackboard. Today these are becoming less common in affluent schools, and are replaced by flipcharts, whiteboards and interactive whiteboards. Many classrooms also have a method of projecting slides or information .Today prepackaged powerpoint disks provided by textbook companies allow teachers to make powerpoint presentations on screens at the front of the classroom. Many places can be used as an informal classroom, and this is quite necessary for lessons that require specific resources or a vocational approach; this is known as situated learning.

The emergence of mass education developed a classroom environment that can be characterized as one that attracted or collected resources. It was a repository of materials which was not easy to replicate. The classroom of the early 1800 had its standard collection of resources with single most important being the teacher. This central figure was the expert in all matters of subjects, the source of other resources such as a small collection of books and the controller of the timetable. As the manager of learning, the teacher monitored not just content but also set student's time and place of learning.

The late 1900s, was a time of transition. Toffler refers to the move from the age of the "smoke stacks" or "rust bucket" technologies to the age of information Technology i,e. the building of information superhighways involving vast global computer network capable of handling massive amounts of data. The most striking feature of the twenty first century classroom is the central position of the learner and the two way connections with "outside" resources including not just the traditional resources of print and pictures, etc. but connections with other learners and teachers. It, however, does not mean that no learning can take place without technology. A considerable teaching and learning, as Postman (1993) rightly says, is likely to continue to occur without technology and any new classroom model must acknowledge this. A teacher of English should also pay attention to the fact that the overlapping second language learner environment is intended to emphasise the continuing role of face to face social interaction and learning for both teachers and students. He should also know that the twentieth century classrooms are moving away from a teacher dominated to learner centered environment. As exhibited in the following figure, the new features of the twentieth century classroom (which have come up in the Metros in India and in the West, especially the USA) include C/T, the computer linked to a network and the notion that an element of this link to "outside" resources might involve virtual reality.
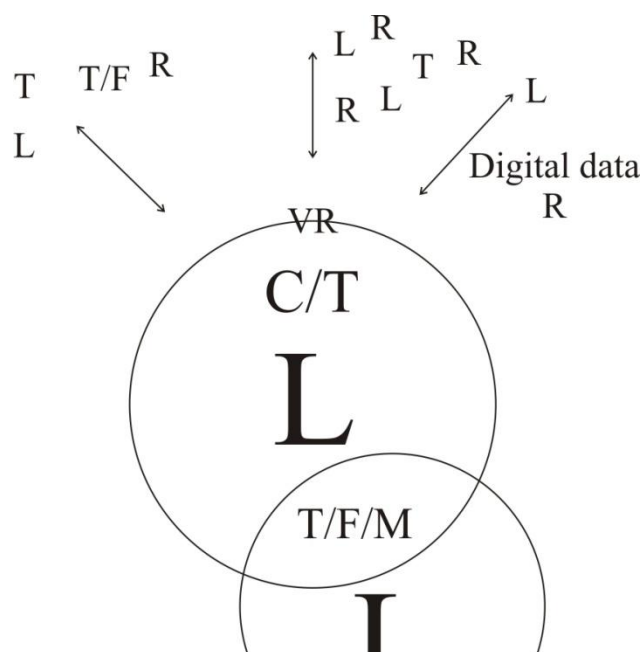
(Source : www.answer.com)
Figure : The Twenty First Century Classroom. L = Learner,
T/F/M/ = Teacher/Facilitator/Manager, R = Resources
(Print, speech, music, pictures, video, etc.), C/T = Computer/Telephone
(network link), VR = Virtual reality (initially the desktop variety)

Discipline of the classroom and the teacher's role largely depends upon the structure of the classroom. A classroom can be of lock step (where all classroom activities are collective as in drills, etc.), pair-work (division of class into smallest groups) and group work (division of class into groups of 5-10 learners). In a classroom, discipline does not necessarily mean tyranny and repression. Instead, it means a code of conduct both for the teacher and the learners. The code of conduct expected from a teacher is that he should be well-prepared, friendly, affectionate in tone and behaviour, impartial and upright. He must be able to understand the psychology of the learners and must praise or punish them discreetly.

16.3 Language Laboratory:

A Language laboratory is a room designed for learning language (especially second/foreign language) and equipped with tape recorders, video cassette recorders, or computers connected to monitoring devices enabling the instructor to listen and speak to the students individually or as a group. A teacher can use varied materials in a language laboratory with individual tape recorders for each pupil and with facilities for the teacher to check learners' work. Most of the suggestion for exercises can also be used with a simple tape

recorder in class, but listening practice is often more effective when the learner has his own machine and can listen to the same piece many times. Tape recorders can be used to help the pupil both to understand and to speak the language he is studying. Computer has brought about a revolution in the field of language laboratory.

Firstly, the most effective use of the laboratory is likely to be in the training and development of listening skills. A very simple analysis of listening would give it four headings: understanding a speaker's accent or pronunciation, understanding his grammar, recognizing his vocabulary and being able to grasp the meaning of what he says. As teachers of a foreign/second language we may then construct exercises to practise each of these aspects of listening one by one. However, effective comprehension depends on our being able to do everything at once and so the learner must also have some chance of natural listening practice that is not directed towards any particular aspect of listening skill but involves them all. Secondly, the language laboratory can also be used in a more limited way to train speech habits. The language laboratory is not as suitable for speaking practice as it is for listening practice. You can listen to and learn from a tape/computer, but you cannot really talk to one. You can only simulate talking. Listening in the language lab can therefore be a real language experience, whereas talking in the lab is only a rehearsal for real conversation. We can discuss speaking exercises in the lab under two headings-intuition and manipulation. Dialogue exchanges can be recorded to practise the pronunciation of particular sounds, stress, rhythm patterns and intonation. The learner can repeat these models in the privacy of the laboratory as many times as he wants to. The learner cannot, practise speaking in a language laboratory, but he can practise using the rules of the language that he will need when he speaks. Exercises or drills for those purposes can be divided into two types-exercises that require substitution and those which require transformation. To be effective, language laboratory lessons need to be carefully planned and

integrated with classroom. Laboratory materials also need to be interesting as well as relevant, if possible amusing as well as systematic.

16.4 Museum:

The word 'museum' comes from the Latin 'Museum', plural 'musea', which is in turn derived from the Greek 'mouseion' which refers to a place or temple dedicated to the Muses (the patron divinities in Greek mythology of the arts), and hence a building set apart for study. International council of Museums statutes define museum as "a permanent institution in the service of society and its development, open to the public, which acquires, conserves, researches, communicates and exhibits for purposes of study, education, enjoyment, the tangible and intangible evidence of people and their environment." Accordingly, a museum means a building, place or institution devoted to the acquisition, conservation, study, exhibition and educational interpretation of objects having scientific, historical, academic, linguistic or artistic value.

Museums define relationship between life, community, the nation, and the world through the interpretation of objects, experience and the environment. These institutions range from community-based museums, such as the Japanese American national Museum in Los Angels to house museums like Mount Veron in USA. Museums collect and care for objects of scientific, artistic or historical importance and make them available for public viewing through exhibits that may be permanent or temporary. Large museums are located in major cities throughout the world and more local ones in small cities. Most museums offer programmes and activities for a range of audience, including adults, children, and families as well as those for more specific professions. Programmers for the public may consist of lectures or tutorials by the museum faculty or field experts, films, musical or dance performances and technology demonstrations. Many times, museums concentrate on the host region's culture. Although most museums do not allow physical contact with associated artifacts, there are some

that are interactive and encourage a more hands-on approach. Modern trends in museology have broadened the range of subject matter and introduced many interactive exhibits which give the public the opportunity to make choices and engage in activities that may vary the experience from person to person. With the advent of the Internet, there are a large number of virtual exhibits available which include web versions of exhibits showing images and playing recorded sounds. An ESL teacher should know that with the help of an interactive electronic museum, the users can move from room to room, and select any exhibit in a room for more detailed examination. To facilitate interaction, teachers of English, as developers, may create a new method for navigating through a pre-rendered 3D space and may interact with objects in that space. The virtual Museum provides a simple and fast way to explore an educational and media rich database. It provides a variety of methods for interacting with images and objects. These are both fun and aesthetically interesting.

Even in the school of rural areas, the monotony and boredom of teaching can be removed by giving the classroom an enjoyable and appealing look. This can be done by the display of pictures of distinguished local people, exhibits of games, patterns of size, learning styles, local festivals, etc. Learners can also be initiated into the learning of English through songs, riddles, folktales, associated with different festivals which slowly merge them into the society of adults.

Check Your Understanding

I   **Say whether the following statements are true or false:**

(i)   The structure of the classroom affects the teacher's role and classroom.

(ii)   Twentieth Century classrooms have moved way from teacher dominated to learner-centered environment.

(iii)   Computer has not brought about much change in the field a language laboratory.

(iv)   Language laboratory in more suitable for speaking practice rather than listening practice.

(v)   Museum does not provide a variety of methods for interacting with images and objects.

16.5 Community:

A community is a group of people living near one another or in a social relationship. A community usually refers to a group of people who interact and share certain things as a group, but it can refer to various collections of living things sharing an environment, plant or animal. A human community is characterized by intent, belief, resources, preferences, needs, risks and a number of other conditions, which affect the identity of its participants and their degree of adhesion.

The word 'community' is derived from the Latin 'communis' meaning common, public, shared by all or many'. The word 'communis' is a part of Latin term 'communitatus'. It Comprises three elements, 'com','-Munis-' and '- Tatus-".Com' means with or 'together' '-Munis-' means the changes or exchanges that link and '-tatus' means small, intimate or local. It is thus evident that community is a tighter and more cohesive social entity within the context of the larger society.

Individuals develop interpersonal relationship and begin to make choices about whom to associate with and under what circumstances. They tend to develop a more sophisticated identity, often taking on a role as a leader or follower in groups. We, teachers of English as humanizers, should understand the fact that the most fertile time of socialization is usually the early stages of life (when a child is normally in a school), during which individuals develop the skills and knowledge and learn the roles necessary to function within their culture and social environment. Socialization is influenced primarily by the family, through which children first learn community norms. Other important

influences include school, peer groups, mass media, the workplace and government. The degree to which the norms of a particular society or community are adopted determines one's willingness to engage with others.

Community building can use a wide variety of practices, ranging from simple events such as small book clubs to large-scale efforts such as mass festivals. Effective communication practices in groups and organizational settings are important for community building. How ideas and values are communicated within communities are important to the induction of new members, the formulation of agenda, the selection of leaders and many other aspects. Organizational communication is the study of how people communicate within an organizational context and the influences and interactions within organizational structure, group members depend on the flow of communication to establish their own identity within the structures and learn to function in the group setting. If you know all this, you can very well make use of community as a resource for further improvement of English language skills of your learners.

Continuity of the connections and followers, between leaders and among followers is vital to the strength of a community. Members individually hold the collective personality of the whole. With sustained connections and conversations, participants in communities develop emotional bonds, intellectual pathways, enhanced linguistic abilities, and even a higher capacity for critical thinking and problem-solving. A teacher of English by establishing successive and restrained contact among the learners can open creative avenues that would have otherwise remained impossible. This sum of the creative energy, often referred to as synergy, helps the learners remove stress and tension and thus expedite learning. Since language is a socio-culturally determined behaviour, the beliefs, preferences, needs, risks, attitudes etc. of a community can also be used as a resource to impart English language skills.

Improved community relations can make school more congenial for learners. The school, where possible, should develop parents education

programmes and bring about greater involvement of the parents of learners in school activities, both as learning resources and as decision- makers. Frequent meetings can be arranged between teachers and parents to discuss problems. By inviting the parents of the learners to school functions, teachers can develop in learners and their parents a positive attitude to school and learning. Teachers should also occasionally invite important personalities to deliver talks or participate in discussions.

A teacher of English working in rural areas must be aware of the fact that the dominant urban culture biases against ethnic minorities reflected in the dominant based textbooks through omission and distortion of the life and culture of ethnic minorities adversely affect the pace of learning and fail them achieve an educational breakthrough. It is proved that the English textbooks (Agrawal, 2002) which seem to assume a culturally and ethnically homogeneous group of learners reflect an ethno-centric approach which turns the ELT a depressing spectacle for the tribal/rural learners of English. Therefore, a teacher should aim at producing the maximum learning/ teaching materials and devising methods of teaching and the evaluation system by using their learners' culture as a positive resource.

16.6 Environment:

An environment is a complex of surrounding circumstances, conditions, or influences in which a thing is situated or in which a person or organism lives, modifying and determining its life or character. Man and environment are inter-related. A man is not rightly conditioned until he is happy, healthy and prosperous being; and happiness, health and prosperity are the result of a harmonious adjustment of the inner with the outer of the man with his surroundings.

Environment is one of the major factors that determine learning. The linguistic and psychological factors, besides the subject matter, have a vital significance for our understanding of language learning. The teacher faced with

decisions on the methods and techniques that he is to adopt has to bear in mind the conditions under which he will be working. In other words, we cannot say that particular methods are good or bad regardless of the circumstances in which they are being used. It would be a bad teacher who did not take into account his own qualities as a teacher, the characteristics of his pupils and the physical and other conditions in which he had to work.

There are factors in the wider social context that influence language learning. Particularly important in the case of language learning are certain attitudes which are characteristics of the society to which the learner belongs. A teacher may be added to or hindered by the factors which are quite beyond his own control. If social attitudes are negative, the overall achievement can be relatively poor no matter how well a teacher does his job. If social attitudes are positive, learning may proceed even when teaching is not efficient. The achievements will be highest where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning and lowest where attitudes are negative and teaching is weak. English, for example, is better learned in those parts of the world where there has been fruitful collaboration for many years than in those countries where the political power of the English speaking world for more than a century is somewhat resented. Of course, many other factors are involved, but it can be difficult for the learner to make the considerable effort required for learning a language if the society to which he belongs continually expresses critical attitudes about the people who speak that language.

In the second language situation, especially if the target language is used as the medium for the teaching of other subjects, the learner will be able to use the language while he is in the process of learning it. This gives him an advantage over the foreign language learner. It is also very likely that the age at which the individual begins to learn the language will be more determined by the status of the language than by any other factor. The proficiency reached in second-language learning should be much higher, and as a result the more

advanced stages of language learning should resemble more closely the teaching of the mother tongue than is likely to be the case in most foreign-language learning situations. The most advantageous learning environment of all should be that of the immigrant, who is a member of a minority language group which is surrounded by a community whose language he needs to learn. He has ample opportunity to use the language he is learning. Indeed, he is frequently obliged to do so. Other factors being equal, he should be able to learn rapidly and reach a higher level of proficiency than either the foreign or the second language learner.

A teacher of English should not forget that the learning of language is not immune from factors that influence other kinds of learning. For example, it has been shown, as D.A. Wilkins (1974), rightly points out "that in the school system, success in language learning, like success in the learning of other subjects on the school curriculum, relates closely to the learners' social background".

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   The dominant urban biases adversely affect the ESL teaching in rural areas.

(ii)   Improved community relations do not contribute to ESL learning positively.

(iii)   Negative social attitude to the target language results into the overall poor achievement.

(iv)   The success in language learning relates closely to the learner's social background.

(v)   The achievements will be lowest - where attitudes and teaching together promote effective learning.

16.7 Library

A library is a collection of information resources and services, organized for use, and maintained by a political body, institution or private individual. In the more traditional sense, it meant a collection of books. This collection and services are used by people who choose not to - or cannot afford to - purchase an extensive collection themselves, who need material, no individual can reasonably be expected to have, or who require professional assistance with their research. However, with the collection of media other than books for storing information, many libraries are now also repositories and access points for maps, prints or other artwork, microfilms, audio tapes, CDs, LPs, cassettes, video tapes and DVDs, and provide public facilities to access CD-ROM and subscription data bases and the Internet. Thus, modern libraries are increasingly being redefined as places to get unrestricted access to information in many formats and from many sources. More recently, libraries are also understood as extending beyond the physical walls of a building, by including material accessible by electronic means.

The origin of library lies in the keeping of written records. The first libraries as repositories of books were those of the Greek temples and those established in conjunction with the Greek school of philosophy in the 4th century B.C. Today's libraries frequently contain periodicals, microfilms, tapes, videos, compact dices and other materials in addition to books. The growth of on-line communication networks has enabled us to search electronically linked databases worldwide.

School libraries play a significant role in imparting education. Can you imagine a language teaching situation characterized by the absence of all or any of the following: textbooks, supplementary readers, workbooks, exercise books,

tape-recorders, audio-visual aids such as slides, filmstrips, cine-films, television, record-players, video-recorders, computers, closed-circuit television, etc? All these things make a library. If teaching is done without some of the aforesaid accessories, it would not yield fruitful results. Today libraries play an expanded role in education by offering enhanced methods of learning via audio and videotapes, printed materials, CD-ROM, the Internet, and reference volumes formerly unavailable. Automation of libraries continues to make these services more widely available.

Computers are increasingly important in the library networks. Language learning can certainly be promoted if learners are provided online access to the library's holdings, as well as data, abstracts and texts. We, as ESL teachers, should ensure maximum use of the technological revolution that has swept through the education scene in recent times to make the teaching/learning process creative, varied, and more charming. It may not be a surprise if you, although the most naturally gifted teacher, are not taken seriously by learners if you fail to incorporate any of the new possibilities offered by information technology.

16.8 Let's Sum up :

In concluding this discussion of ELT resources, we wish to emphasize that the resources should not look alien to the culture of the learners because their alien nature would make them irrelevant. Therefore, the primary task of a teacher is to integrate all these resources with the classroom activity in such a way so that they may become local (although with global implications), interesting and relevant.

Check Your Understanding

III   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Even the alien RLT resources work effectively and promote learning.

(ii) A teacher should integrate all the resources with the classroom activity to maximize learning and teaching.

(iii) Online access to the library holdings do not enhance the pace of learning because most of the time the students misuse the facility.

(iv) The teacher will not be taken seriously if he/she fails to incorporate the new possibilities offered by information technology.

(v) The teacher occupies the central position in the twenty first century classroom.

16.9 Exercises

1. Prepare a sample language laboratory lesson for a group of students who have pronunciation problems.

2. "The material to be useful must be meaningful, relevant and applicable". Do you agree with the statement? Organize a symposium and discuss how far the statement is true.

3. Prepare a list of the resources, besides those discussed in the lesson, and discuss their role in making the teaching of English effective.

16.10 Further Readings :

1. Lado, Robert (1971) Language Teaching. New Delhi: Mcgrani Hill Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

2. The Edinburgh Course in Applied Linguistics. Vol.3.

3. Wilkins, D.A. (1974). Second Language Learning and Teaching, ELBS.

4. www. answer.com

Unit 17

Development of Instructional Material in English; Textbook,

Its preparation and Evaluation

Structure

Structure

17.1 Objective

The aim of this unit is to impart knowledge about the advantages and structure of a Course Reader as well as about the process of selection and gradation of the new language material in terms of structures and vocabulary and that of reading material. Teachers should also know how to evaluate a Course Reader. They will be acquainted with the importance of practice as English is a skill subject and ways to conduct practice in an effective manner.

17.2 Introduction

Textbooks and instructional materials play a very important role in teaching and learning of a second language like English. That is why it is useful for the teachers to know about the need of the Course Reader and the philosophy behind its preparation. Then only they can use it effectively and exploit its full potential. The basis of selection of a good Reader is also discussed in this unit. When the teacher realizes the importance of practice in language learning, he is more likely to make use of the practice material in a proper manner.

17.3 Advantages of the Course Reader

The Course Reader which was formerly called detailed Reader, is written for use as an aid in the teaching of the new structures and lexical items. A Course Reader is not necessary in second language teaching if the teacher has plenty of time to devise his own reading passages and written exercises. In no circumstances is the Course Reader a substitute for the syllabus. At best it provides a useful summary of the ground already covered and saves the teacher's preparation time by giving him ready-made, reading passages and exercises which he can use for the further practice of the material he has already taught. Each new passage in a Course Reader is intended as a reinforcement of what has just been completed orally. It is not planned as the first introduction of new language items.

The passages are intended to give the pupils practice in recognizing the new structures and lexical items in as many contexts as possible. For this reason the authors ensure that these new items are repeated frequently in the reading passage(s) of each lesson, and that the spread of occurence is satisfactory. The items are not left to chance after the lesson in which they are introduced, but are repeated as often as possible in all the later lessons so that each new passage provides real practice in understanding connected writing which includes an ever widening range of words and language patterns, until the stage of reading of unrestricted passages is reached.

There are very few teachers who are fully aware of what has to be taught. The writer of a good textbook is an experienced teacher who has put the best of his knowledge and skill at the disposal of whoever uses his book. He has graded his material so that each structural point follows naturally and easily on the one before it, adds to it, and ensures opportunities for significant repetition. There are exercises for practising language taught in the lesson, and supplementary exercises for points which give special difficulty. Moreover, it helps the teacher avoid unintended repetition or the neglect of essential language patterns.

For the pupil the textbook is a good memory aid. In addition to it, the pupil who has got used to having textbooks in his own language for other subjects, likes to have something in his hand.

A good textbook opens a window on the world for the pupil and becomes a means of extending his linguistic experience beyond the local scene and limited experience. It presents before the pupil the distant and hardly accessible delights that lie beyond the forbidding barriers of strangeness of language. The role of the textbook is to represent, and give the foretaste of, all those books which the learner aspires to read and master.

The textbook can contain further uses, in an unfamiliar setting, of words and sentence patterns which have been learnt and practised in the familiar setting. It can bring into the classroom what otherwise would remain outside. The pupils delight to reach out into the unknown world of the imagination and may be into the world of strange peoples and customs.

The text-book gives the pupil convenient passages for practising reading and provides a good exercise-ground for reading.

The teacher and the pupils are helped by the textbook in keeping a permanent record of what has been taught and learnt.

When the same textbook is used in a wide area, all the schools thus covered have a sort of uniformity and this can help in setting common tests and examinations for the group of institutions.

<h2 style="text-align:center">Check Your Understanding</h2>

I   **Say whether the following statements are true or false:**

(i)   The new language items are used repeatedly in lessons in a Course Reader.

(ii)   Exercises help in consolidation of the new language material.

(iii)   Course Readers help the students to widen their horizon
        of language learning.

(iv)   A Course Reader provides passages to practise comprehension.

(v)   A Course Reader helps in having uniformity in different schools of an area.

17.4 Structure of a Course Reader

Let us, as an example, analyse Courses Reader for Class X, Board of Secondary Education, Rajasthan, Ajmer, 2006.

Components of the Reader

1.   Preface

The preface emphasizes the importance of English language in the present time. It mentions some steps being taken to improve the quality of education in English. In a short paragraph the purpose of the Reader and its approach have been outlined. It is followed by a longish one in which the basis of selection of the lessons, for example, inculcation of values and development of the personality of the pupils has been spelt in detail.

2.   The Lessons

There are eleven lessons and four poems. The eleven prose lessons include six stories. At the end of the book are given separate short sections on the skills of writing, literary terms and practice exercises.

Organization of a Lesson

Prose Lessons

(i)   Reading Passage

(ii)   About the Author

(iii)   About the Text

(iv)   Glossary (Difficult words)

(v)   Comprehension Questions.

They are of three types :-

(a)   True or False

(b)   20-30 words answer

(c)   60-80 words answer

Vocabulary Exercises

There are various types of exercises including those on phrases and phrasal verbs.

Structural Exercises

Various types have been used.

Composition Exercises

They include exercises on paragraph-writing story-writing, notice-writing etc.

Organization of a Poem

(i)   About the Poet

(ii)   About the Poem

(iii)   Glossary of Difficult Words

(iv)   Comprehension and Appreciation Questions

         They are mainly of two types : 20-30 words answers and 60-80 words answers.

(v)   Reference to context questions

(vi)   Activity

17.5 Selection and Gradation of Language Material for the Course Reader

A syllabus and a Course Reader have their own limitation as everything cannot be taught in a year or two. So structures and vocabulary (lexical item) have to be carefully selected and graded. Let us see how it is done before a Course Reader is written.

A language structure is an arrangement of words in a certain order. It is an order, that conveys meaning or an inflection of a word like the suffix-ed added to verbs in English. A structural syllabus concentrates on the handling of "Structural Words" such as prepositions, pronouns, auxiliary verbs, connectives and some adverbs. They form the skeleton of the language while the flesh and blood is provided by 'content words' like nouns, adjectives, adverbs and verbs. Structural words are the most important words in a language but they are

also the most difficult to learn and use correctly. A graded structural syllabus is devised to teach the correct use of these structural words as a means to that end. In such a syllabus the structural words are the same although their order may vary. The content words, on the other hand, are likely to differ considerably according to the environment and age of the students.

The most important structures are then graded in an order considered suitable for teaching. For determining a suitable teaching order, certain points are to be borne in mind.

The first consideration is usefulness. All the structures of a language are not equally useful for some occur more frequently than others. So the principle of selection is applied in just the same way as it is to vocabulary.

We do not set out, in school, to give our pupils complete mastery, but only a working knowledge of it. Moreover, it only becomes practicable to teach certain structures at certain stages. For example, one can hardly introduce the Passive until that particular form of the verb known as the Past Participle - and hence the Present Perfect and Past Perfect tenses - have been taught.

Then comes productivity. Ideally one structure should lead on naturally to the next, so that the complete syllabus becomes a series of interlocking items. We can say, for example, either Mr. Krishnan is there or There is Mr. Krishnan. But in considering which alternative to teach we should be guided by the fact that the first alternative leads on more naturally to other structures. Thus, from Mr. Krishnan is there we can derive He is there, but we cannot derive, from the alternative, There is he. The more a subsequent structure resembles a preceding one, the fewer additional words or forms it has, the better because it reduces the learning load on the pupil.

The third factor is teachability, which is perhaps the most important consideration of all. We must not become so engrossed in the manipulation of the structures that we forget the pupil and the teacher. It should be possible to create round every structure a situation in which the selected items can be taught easily and naturally. We must remember that we learn best by associating one thing with another. The stronger and more vivid the association, the more easily we shall learn and the longer we shall remember. The idea is not just to force the teacher into a strait-jacket, but simply to give him the most effective teaching material.

Check Your Understanding

II   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(a)   A language structure is rigid.

(b)   Structural words are not easy to learn.

(c)   The Structures are graded on the basis of their utility.

(d)   Proper gradation of language material makes learning easier.

(e)   We have to see whether a language item is teachable or not at a particular stage.

17.6   Selection of Reading Matter

Now we will discuss how the content (subject matter) for a Course Reader is selected.

Psychologically the content factor is a very important consideration. If pupils are to be induced to forego their preoccupation with words and forms and immerse themselves instead in the progression of ideas, the content matter must be intrinsically attractive.

We must ensure that the matter is suitable to the mental age and interests of the average pupil. We need not assume, for instance, that the taste of children inclines to highbrow literature. Purely instructive matter is best left to the more advanced stages. The purpose of promoting reading habit may be equally or better served through stories which tell a tale and can point a moral in an entertaining manner. The world loves a story, and children, no less than adults, enjoy suspense, anticipation and climax. Their sense of humour, though less subtle, no doubt, is equally keen in appreciating the unusual and the grotesque. What may need to be avoided is the unduly unnatural atmosphere such as that of fairy tales or fantastic stories, as this may create difficulty of understanding beyond that of vocabulary. There should, in short, be no difficulty inherent in the material itself.

Although the local atmosphere is the most familiar, there is no real necessity to produce local Readers. The best stories are those that have stood the test of time by finding inclusion in the literatures of many countries. The same features of interest appeal to children everywhere.

Owing to the influence of atmosphere on language, some stories with an English setting reflecting as far as possible the English scene and illustrating the English way of life may be included.

17.7   Some More Important Points about the Course Reader

The teacher must be aware that every lesson in his textbook is written around one or more structures, and that the structures appear in a certain order. In other words, a textbook

based on a structural syllabus cannot be treated like other textbooks, in which the material to be taught is not only not strictly controlled, but may well be presented in a haphazard fashion. He should remember that a lesson in a textbook of English as teaching unit is representative of the spoken form, structures, vocabulary, reading, oral expression and written expression of English Language.

Every lesson in the learner's textbook of English, therefore, is a unit for teaching of English lessons in the classroom. The unit is so potential a thing that it is capable of germinating a good number of highly, interrelated lessons in the classroom. Therefore, a lesson in the textbook is not in any way identical with a lesson in class.

It is also to be noted that no Course Reader can provide a complete language course in itself. The teacher will have to supplement it in many ways. The Reader is made for the teacher not the teacher for the Reader.

17.8   Evaluation of a Course Reader

While discussing the advantages of using a Course Reader and how it is designed, we came across some qualities of a good Reader. For example in a good Course Reader there will not always be just one long reading passage for each lesson. In some cases two or three short passages will be given in one lesson if the author thinks this more helpful to the pupils.

Good Course Readers are carefully graded not only with regard to structure and lexis, but also according to the difficulty of the socio-cultural content for pupils whose knowledge of societies and cultures other than their own is as yet limited.

Now let us discuss the basis of evaluating a Course Reader and ask some questions:-

I.   **Content (Subject Matter)**

    (i)   Are the materials suitable for use for this class in terms of difficulty at :

        (a)   linguistic level ?

        (b)   conceptual level?

    (ii)   It there sufficient variety in the range of materials?

    (iii)   Is the length of the reading text too short, too long or all right?

    (iv)   Is the reading material :

        (a)   Motivating for the pupils?

        (b)   Enjoyable by the pupils?

    (v)   Is the reaction of pupils to the materials negative, positive or indifferent?

II.   **Practice Material (Exercises)**

(vi)   Is there variety in types of exercises?

(vii)   Is it adequate for effective learning?

(viii) Is the difficulty level proper?

(ix)   Are the instructions clear and unambiguous?

(x)   Is there a balance across open and closed question types?

(xi)   Is it properly graded?

Check Your Understanding

III   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Mental age and interest of the learner are very important.

(ii)   The most important thing about reading material is the inculcation of moral values.

(iii)   All the lessons should have local colour.

(iv)   All the lessons should be of equal length.

(v)   Language exercises need not be graded.

17.9 Supplementary Reader

Besides Course Reader, which we have discussed in detail, there is another kind of Reader called Supplementary Reader or Rapid Reader. A Course Reader is mainly designed to introduce and practice the new language material in terms of structures and vocabulary whereas Supplementary Readers are essential aids in the development of quick, absorbed silent reading in the individual pupil.

It is often better to use several short Supplementary Readers or an anthology of short stories and anecdotes rather than one long book which will take all year to complete. Good Supplementary Readers are suitable for the individual pupil to read on his own with a minimum motivation by the teacher. They give him a sense of pleasure in his increasing mastery and comprehension of the language in as varied contexts as possible and thus awaken in him a real love of reading.

17.10 Development of Practice Exercises as Instructional Material

When syllabuses are designed on the basis of structural approach some basic structures and important words are selected and graded. Course Readers are then produced to take care of this new language material in the context of the four basic language skills. This new language material is first of all presented orally in the classroom. Then it is further reinforced through the text of the reading lesson. Even now, to make the pupils fully proficient in the comprehension and use of these teaching items, a lot of practice is required. This becomes all the more important as we teach English as a skill subject. And for it to become effective a lot of emphasis is laid on practice. It is important that the pupil gets adequate exposure to correct English and practise it hard. The purpose of exercises is three fold. Consolidation practice is needed to make the initial presentation of a new language item more effective. To make sure that this item is constantly used, revision practice is essential. Remedial exercises are used to set right the errors detected through diagnostic tests.

For using language practice exercises the teacher first of all tells the pupils what they are supposed to do. Then he solves one or two exercises to help the pupils as this is not a test. Now, the pupils begin to work on their own. Then correct answers are provided by the teacher orally. And now it is time for the pupils to write the correct answers.

Now we will have a look at various types of exercises for practice :

Vocabulary

1.　The pupils underline the word that has the same or nearly the same meaning as the key word e.g.

Coffee (bitter, black, beverage, sugar)

(The same type of exercise can be used for antonyms).

2.　If the paired words are similar, write the letter S in the brackets, if different, the letter D e.g.

(a)　beautiful, handsome. (S)

(b)　hot, cold. (D)

3.　Two lists of words, A and B, are given to the pupils, who have to pair off similar words (for each word in list A there should be a similar word in list B), e.g.

List A. animal, vessel.

List B. beast, ship.

4.　From a group of words within brackets the pupils select the most suitable word to complete the given sentence, e.g.

The mother - her son to keep good company.

(took, called, advised, loved)

5. Completing sentences using the correct form of a given verb e.g.

   (a) He - here for many years and he is still working here. (work)

   (b) The professor and his family __ in Rajasthan last month (arrive)

6. In a given passage, certain words are underlined, and the pupils have to select suitable synonyms from a list of words and rewrite the passage inserting the selected words, e.g.

   Last Tuesday we went on an educational tour. There were many talented musicians in our company. In a remote village we halted for the night and entertained the village folk with a variety of songs and dances. The village school master who was present at our show paid a high tribute to our talented artists and wished us every happiness and success.

   Substitute from the following list : compliment, many, teacher, gifted, performance, stopped, distant, skilled, trip.

7. Completion of sentences using words with a given prefix, e.g. dis____

   (a) The thief was ___ as a beggar

   (b) We must learn to help those in ___

   (c) The bus accident was a terrible ___

   (disguised, distress, disaster)

8. Give one word for the group of words underlined in each sentence, e.g.

   We went to see the place where ships lie at anchor. (harbour)

   The teacher took his class to the place where various animals are kept for exhibition. (zoo)

9. Analogy test, e.g.

   (a) School is to teacher as __ is to doctor. (surgery)

   (b) Hot is to cold as __ is to day. (night)

   (c) Book is to page as word is to __ (letter)

10. In the following sentences for each word underlined substitute another word of only four letters, e.g.

    (a) Hari was speechless. (dumb)

    (b) I can do this work without your assistance. (help)

11. The teacher presents a number of common actions and the pupils have to say how to do them e.g.

(a) lighting a fire

(b) sending a parcel to a foreign country

(c) preparing a cup of tea

12. The teacher makes a remark, and the pupils have to respond, add a comment in the form of a stock response e.g.

Teacher : I have got a new book.

Pupil : Oh, you have, have you?

Teacher : I love you dearly.

Pupil : You do, do you?

13. The teacher makes a statement and the pupils ask an appropriate question e.g.

Teacher : Come quickly.

Pupil : Where to?

Teacher : I am writing a letter.

Pupil : To whom?

Teacher : Tell me a story?

Pupil : About whom?

14. The teacher reads a statement and makes a pause suggesting further conversation. The pupils have to ask a question using the stressed word as a keyword, e.g.

Teacher : He is name was Gopal.

Pupil : What was that man's name?

Teacher : She was at home all the time.

Pupil : Where did you say she was all the time?

15. A list of objects of a similar nature is given, and the pupils write down sentences to show in what way they are alike and different, e.g.

How is a chair like a table?

How does a chair differ from a table?

How does / is a(n)	cat boy orange pen	differ from a like a	dog? girl? mango? pencil?

16. Sort out the pairs and insert the necessary punctuation and capital letters.

(a)	a bird in the hand	five boys
(b)	have ten hands	said the teacher
(c)	come here at once	is worth two in the bush
(d)	seized the rope	three boys

17. Arrange these phrases to form a sentence

   (a) slowly to school

   (b) after taking his breakfast

   (c) the lazy boy

   (d) with his sister

   (e) made his way

18. Agreement of subject and predicate

   Complete these sentences by using the correct word.

   (i) It __ look a bright day. (doesn't, don't)

   (ii) Perhaps he __ heard the sad news by now. (has, have)

   (iii) __ you late for class today? (was, were)

   (iv) It __ rained for some time. (hasn't, haven't)

   (v) The teacher asked me if you __ my brother (was/were)

   (vi) Somebody __ stolen my book (have, has)

   (vii) It looks as though everybody __ gone to see the circus. (has, have)

   The exercises given above are just some samples of various types of practice exercises. Many more samples are available at the end of each lesson of the Course Reader for class 10. (Rajasthan Board)

11. The pupils are given a sentence followed by three or four words or phrases. They select the word or phrase which has the same meaning as the selected word in the sentence. This can be done by underlining, or by writing down the appropriate number e.g.

   (a) Have you seen our <u>cat</u>?

   (i) a bird   (ii) an animal   (iii) a toy   (iv) a book

   (b) School <u>began</u> at 8 o'clock in the morning.

   (i) started   (b) closed   (iii) continued

12. Two words pronounced alike but different in spelling and meaning, are given and the pupils complete sentences choosing the correct word e.g.

A herd of elephants ran across the __ .(plain, plane)

We must pray for the __ in the world. (peace, piece)

13. Give one word for each of the following phrases

   (a)   The part of the body by which we hear sounds

   (b)   A person who makes living by fishing

   (c)   A room where children learn

   (d)   A box for keeping money safe

   (e)   A person who sells newspapers

   (f)   An instrument for measuring cloth

   (g)   A place where a king where lives.

14. The teacher points to certain parts of his body and the pupils write down the names of the part.

15. The teacher performs an action and the pupils say what it is e.g. reading aloud, reading silently, hopping, falling down, clapping etc.

16. The teacher displays objects, draws sketches on the blackboard etc. The pupils write down the name of the objects.

17. Similar and opposite

Complete these columns

Word	**Similar**	**Opposite**
beautiful		
joy		
distant		
clever		

18. Underline the words that do not belong to each group of words

   (a)   cheese, eggs, water, rice, pudding

   (b)   shoes, hat, umbrella, shirt, coat

   (c)   eyes, toes, hands, birds, legs

   (d)   hatred, love, enmity, jealousy

19. Write one word for each of the following groups of words.

   (a)   fourteen days   (b)   the day after today

(c)   car, bus, taxi, lorry   (d)   pigeon, crow, parrot, peacock

(e)   lion, tiger, elephant, dog   (f)   a hundred years

20.   The noun formed from the verb attract is attraction. The adjective formed from the verb is attractive. Fill the blank spaces in these columns with the correct words. Write your words in a column, two in each line.

	Verb	Noun	Adjective
(a)	admire	--------	--------------
(b)	---------	action	--------------
(c)	---------	--------	broad
(d)	think	---------	-------------
(e)	---------	beauty	-------------

21.   Below you will see the names of different kinds of sounds, followed by phrases. Opposite each phrase write the appropriate sound.

jingle, clatter, tinkle, creak, patter

(a)   a boy shaking coins together in his pocket

(b)   a door moving on rusty hinges

(c)   raindrops being blown against a glass window

(d)   a small bell being rung

(e)   a horseman galloping down the road

22.   Choose, from each pair of words in brackets, the word which completes the sentence correctly.

(a)   She is busy __ a button on my coat. (sowing, sewing)

(b)   The head of a college is called a __ .(principle, principal)

(c)   The cloth is too __ for making a shirt. (course, coarse)

(d)   This boy has been blind since __ .(berth, birth)

23.   Complete the following sentences with words indicating payment.

(a)   The teacher's __ was increased by Rs. 100 per month.

(b)   My mother sends me a monthly __ of Rs. 250.

(c)   The doctor's __ for the medicine was Rs. 75.

(d)   The judge ordered the careless driver to pay a __ of Rs. 500.

(e)   The __ from Jaipur to Alwar by bus was Rs. 100/-.

24.   In each of these sentences the missing word is the opposite of another word in the sentence. Complete the sentences with the missing words.

(a)   This is a temporary job, but if your work is satisfactory, it will be made__.

(b)   She is a thrifty housewife but her husband is an __ man.

(c)   One of the boys was innocent, but the others were __

(d)   By hard, honest work we can turn defeat into __.

25.   The missing word in each sentence indicates an occupation. Write the missing word.

(a)   The __ taught his pupils English.

(b)   The rich man ordered his __ to bring the car to his office.

(c)   The __ was carrying the bust of a famous poet.

26.   Rewrite the following using words ending with the suffix __ial.

(a)   The rain fall in a torrent. (__ial rain)

(b)   The Minister of Finance deals with matters concerning finance. (__ial matters).

(c)   These buildings are like palaces. (__ial building)

(d)   He has many friends with considerable influence. (__ial friends)

27.   Complete those sentences using words indicating the names of building or rooms.

(a)   I went to the __ to choose another book.

(b)   Mother was in the __ washing the dishes after dinner

(c)   A room just below the roof of a house is called an ___

(d)   The injured man was removed to the __ for an operation.

(e)   We bought our tickets at the railway __.

28.   Write the word which is used for persons who

(a)   travel by bus or train

(b)   watch a cricket match

(c)   buy goods in a shop or market

(d)   receive treatment for various diseases in a hospital

(e)   live in caves

29.   Make compound words by joining one word from column with one from column 2:

Column 1	Column 2
Foot	stick
Match	ball
Post	time
Day	card
Head	ache

30.   Insert the missing vowel in each of the following words -

gl_mm_r = to shine faintly or intermittently

m_ _st = slightly wet or damp

h_rr_d = terrible, frightful

6. The pupils are presented with a number of sentences of the same pattern and they have to make one or two sentences of identical pattern e.g.

(i) This is how __ draw a picture

(ii) This is how he went home.

(iii) This is how the boy ate the apple.

(iv) ....

7. (a) Put into the plural

(i) A fish can swim.

(ii) A pupil is not always bright.

(iii) He is the brightest pupil in the class.

(b) Put into the singular

(i) Dogs are good friends of men.

(ii) Sailors are brave men.

(iii) These exercises are not easy for beginners.

8. Insert the words in the brackets in their correct positions and rewrite each sentence:

(a) The children went (at 8 o'clock, to school)

(b) He was born (in the year 1996 at 6 a.m.)

(c) Shall we go (tonight, to pictures)?

9. Insert 'who', 'which' or 'what' in each of the following sentences

(a) __ is your age?

(b) __ is that boy?

(c) Here are the books, __ is yours?

(d) __ are you doing now?

10. The pupils are given a number of questions which they have to answer in the negative (orally or in writing) e.g.

(a) What did you say?

(b) What do you want?

(c) What are you looking at?

(d Have you seen my dog?

Structures

1. Let the pupil write down what they would say in the following situations:

(a) When they want to know a person's birthday.

(b)   When they want to buy a stamp at the post office.

(c)   When they want to leave the class.

2.   (a)   Changing statements to questions and vice versa e.g.

        This is a book

        Is this a book?

(b)   Changing affirmative to negative and vice versa e.g.

        Hemant came to school yesterday.

        Hemant did not come to school yesterday.

3.   Read the sentence and underline the correct answer e.g.

(a)   Ravi's father has come to see him. He is standing near the school gate.

        'He' refers to :

        (i)   Ravi

        (ii)   Ravi's father

(b)   Do you know his name?

        This is (i) a statement (ii) a request (iii) on order, (iv) a question

4.   Rearrange the following into sentences, putting the words in the proper order e.g.

        garden in the will they work

        plenty in the cup is of there milk

5.   Present a picture showing a single act (a boy at his table reading a book) and let the pupils write down answers to questions involving various tenses, etc. e.g.

        What is he doing?

        He did this yesterday.

        What did he do yesterday?

        This was taking place in a classroom.

        Tell me what took place in a classroom.

        What would happen if his friend came to see him?

        Mention all that can possibly happen.

17.11 Now, some important points about exercises for practice

1.   We should not expect the pupil to write anything that he cannot already speak and read.

2. The aim of these practice exercises is not testing. They are intended to give practice in the writing of correct English. Therefore, they should always be carefully gone through orally in the class with the pupils before being set as written work.

3. Exercises on parsing and analysis are to be avoided. They do not give practice in the use of the language.

4. Translation exercise should not be set as translation is not a language-teaching device. It is quite a separate skill which can only properly be learned after both the languages concerned have been mastered.

5. Mechanical transformation exercises should not be set e.g. from the Passive Voice to the Active, and vice versa as these give pupils a completely wrong conception of the use of these two voices in English. They are not interchangeable but have quite different functions. Similarly, other merely mechanical transformation exercises destroy all feeling for the differing emphasis of the language. Instead, contextualized exercises should be set.

Check Your Understanding

IV   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Supplementary Readers are meant to be read by learners on their own.

(ii)   The main function of a Supplementary Reader is to provide pleasure.

(iii)   Exercises provide practice to develop language skills.

(iv)   Exercises may be first done orally in the class.

(v)   Oral correction saves time.

17.12 Exercises

1. Mention briefly five ways in which you find a Course Reader useful to you.

2. Analyze the Course Reader for class IX of Rajasthan Board on the lines of the analysis of the Reader for class X given in the unit.

3. Discuss briefly the three important criteria for the selection and gradation of structures and vocabulary.

4. Discuss briefly how reading material is selected.

5. Mention briefly some important points about selection of a Course Reader.

6. What is the purpose of a Supplementary Reader?

7. Why is practice necessary in language learning?

8. Study the exercises given at the end of the lessons in the Course Reader for class 10 and mention five different types of exercises each on (a) structures and (b) vocabulary.

9. How will you use practice exercises in the classroom?

17.13 Let's Sum up

We began this unit with a discussion of the need and advantages of a Course Reader. On the basis of an analysis of Course Reader for class 10 we came out with the structure of the Reader. Then we discussed the principles and process of selection and gradation of language material and reading material. After that we moved on to the issue of selection of a good Reader and then onto the need for a Supplementary Reader. This was followed by the importance and use of practice material.

17.14 Further Reading

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Unit 18

Qualities of a Good Teacher of English:
Problems and Solutions

Structure of the Unit :

18.0   Objectives

The objective of this unit is to acquaint you of the qualities that make a good teacher of English. A teacher of English should have linguistic (knowledge of English and of

language in general), pedagogical (techniques, strategies, tasks), psychological (knowledge of second language acquisition/learning, learner development, motivation) Cross-Cultural (awareness of/respect for intercultural differences), and technological (knowledge of multi-media, resources, uses of internet, etc.) Knowledge. Besides, a good teacher of English should be a humanizer also.

18.1 Introduction

There is a saying, "give me a fish and I eat for a day, teach me to fish and I eat for a life time." This must be the philosophy of a good teacher. A good teacher should be creative, deeply perceptive, should possess a sense of vocation for teaching, should be responsible to his students, must have a sense of commitment and above all must be a competent professional. What separates a competent professional from others is that he possesses the constant self-questioning spirit and is always interested in frequent soul searching meetings with other professionals in the field.

18.2 Qualifications for High School Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages

The Modern Language Association of America has published a set of qualifications for High School Teachers of Modern foreign languages. They include the following:-

18.2.1 Aural Understanding

Minimal : The ability to get the sense of what an educated native says when he is enunciating carefully and speaking simply on a general subject.

Good : The ability to understand conversation at average tempo, lectures, and news broadcasts.

Superior : The ability to follow closely and with ease all types of standard speech, such as rapid or group conversation, plays, and movies.

Test: These abilities can be tested by dictations, by the Listening Comprehension Tests of the College Entrance Examination Board-thus far developed for French; German, and Spanish-or by similar tests for these and other languages, with an extension in range and difficulty for the superior level.

18.2.2 Speaking

Minimal: The ability to talk on prepared topics (e.g., for classroom situations), without obvious faltering, and to use the common expressions needed for getting around in the foreign country, speaking with a pronunciation readily understandable to a native.

Good: The ability to talk with a native without making glaring mistakes, and with a command of vocabulary and syntax sufficient to express one's thoughts in sustained conversation. This implies speech at normal speed with good pronunciation and intonation.

Superior: The ability to approximate native speech in vocabulary, intonation, and pronunciation (e.g., the ability to exchange ideas and to be at ease in social situations).

Test: For the present, this ability has to be tested by interview, or by a recorded set of questions with a blank disc of tape for recording answers.

18.2.3 Reading

Minimal : The ability to grasp directly,(i.e. without translating) the meaning of simple, non-technical prose, except for an occasional word.

Superior : The ability to read, almost as easily as in English, material of considerable difficulty, such as essays and literary criticism.

Test: These abilities can be tested by a graded series of timed reading passages, with comprehension questions and multiple choice or free-response answers.

18.2.4 Writing

Minimal: The ability to write correctly sentences or paragraphs such as would be developed orally for classroom situations, and the ability to write a short, simple letter.

Good: The ability to write a simple "free composition" with clarity and correctness in vocabulary, idiom, and syntax.

Superior: The ability to write on a variety of subjects with idiomatic naturalness, ease of expression and some feeling for the style of the language.

Test: The abilities can be tested by multiple-choice syntax items, sentences or paragraphs, and a controlled letter or free composition.

18.2.5 Language Analysis -

Minimal: A working command of the sound-patterns and Grammar patterns of the foreign language, and a knowledge of its main differences from English.

Good: A basic knowledge of the historical development and present characteristics of the language, and an awareness of the difference between the language as spoken and as written.

Superior: Ability to apply knowledge of descriptive, comparative and historical linguistics to the language-teaching situation.

Test: Such information and insight can be tested for levels 1 and 2 by multiple-choice and free-response items on pronunciation, intonation patterns, and syntax; for levels 2 and 3, items on philology and descriptive linguistics.

18.2.6 Culture

Minimal: An awareness of language as an essential element among the learned and shared experiences that combine to form a particular culture, and a rudimentary knowledge of the geography, history, literature, art, social customs, and contemporary civilization of the foreign people.

Good : First-hand knowledge of some literary masterpieces, and understanding of the principal ways in which the foreign culture resembles and differs from our own, and possession of an organized body of information of the foreign people and their civilization.

Superior : An enlightened understanding of the foreign people and their culture, achieved through personal contact, preferably by travel and residence abroad, through study of literature and the arts.

Test : Such information and insight can be tested by multiple-choice literary and cultural acquaintance tests for levels 1 and 2; for level 3, written comments on passages of prose or poetry, that discuss or reveal significant aspects of the foreign culture.

18.2.7 Professional Preparation

Minimal : Some knowledge of effective methods and techniques of language teaching.

Good : The ability to apply knowledge of methods and techniques to the language teaching situation (e.g., audio-visual techniques) and to relate one's teaching of the language to other areas of the curriculum.

Superior :   A mastery of recognized teaching methods, and the ability to experiment with and evaluate new methods and techniques.

Test :   Such knowledge and ability can be tested by multiple-choice answers to questions on pedagogy and language teaching methods, plus written comment on language - teaching situations.

18.3 Qualities of a Good ESL Teacher :

1. Good ESL (English as a second Language) teachers are patient at explaining things. Being comfortable with explaining content and context to students is an essential skill for teachers.

2. Good ESL teachers have a sense of humour and use humour as part of their teaching methods. We as teacher of English, should integrate humour into lessons, explanations and stories to help our students learn.

3. Good teachers have a complete understanding of the ESL content. They teach in sufficient depth to covey the information in meaningful ways to the students. We, as good teachers, should be able to represent information from several perspectives to help students grasp concepts.

4. Good teachers set high expectation for their pupils and hold them to those expectations. If you are thinking of becoming ESL teacher, can you set high expectations for yourself, and demand excellence not only of yourself, but your students as well?

5. Good teachers understand that time is one of the most precious resources of teachings, and have learned to use this resource most wisely.

6. Good ESL teachers learn to improve their teaching by teaching, by making mistakes, learning from them and improving.

7. Great teachers know that they teach as much from their own actions and behaviour as with the content they teach. Prepare a personal inventory of your own values, personality, preferences and goals.

8. A good ESL teacher knows a variety of methods and techniques and uses them in accordance with the nature of the content and other variables, such as the educational background of the pupils, their socio-cultural set up, etc.

9.   Good ESL teachers are detail oriented, and are well-organized in their professional and teaching duties. They cannot take things for granted. This applies to all organizational and instructional duties.

10.   A good ESL teacher knows that language teaching is skill-based, and not content-based.

18.3.1 What a good ESL teacher should know:

In order to be a good ESL teacher, it is not enough to convince yourself that you truly believe that teaching is a basic skill that some people have and others do not, that you have the knack, and you could teach happily ever after without worrying about all these new fangled ideas. It is undoubtedly true that teaching skills provide a good basis, no ESL teacher can afford to ignore the evolution of pedagogical principles. If we cut ourselves off from new ideas and methods, we shall become dinosaurs despite our best teaching capabilities. For example, a good ESL teacher cannot cut himself off from the technological revolution that has swept through the education scene in recent times. How could even the most naturally gifted teacher expect his learners to continue to take him seriously if he fails to incorporate any of the new possibilities offered by information technology? As a matter of fact, no teacher can afford to ignore new publications and developments concerning education and learning. Teaching is a dynamic skill and needs to be updated regularly. It is also true that the indispensable foundation of a good teacher is formed of teaching instinct, a thorough knowledge of his subject, the ability to plan a class, verbal and presentation skills, the ability to interact with people and inspiration to bring variety to his classes and methods.

18.3.2 What a good ESL teacher is to the students

The saying "A good teacher is to the students what the rain is to the field" rightly sums up the spirit of relationship that should exist between a good teacher and students. A good teacher makes the mind of their students fertile and irrigates them with novel thoughts. The teacher-students relationship can be summarized as given below:

-     A good ESL teacher makes himself available to all students, however, knows which students need extra assistance.

- A good ESL teacher is an effective communicator, however, who knows when he needs to change her communicating techniques to be sure students can grasp instructional concepts.
- A good ESL teacher allows students to ask questions, however, does not answer questions without drawing from other students' learning experience first.
- A good ESL teacher follows class room rules and procedures which help students know what is expected from them and how the students can help themselves.
- A good ESL teacher encourages cooperation and sets an example before the students.
- A good ESL teacher is flexible and able to change lesson on "spur of the moment" in order to accommodate the needs of their students.
- A good teacher respects all students and encourages good performance.
- A good teacher has motherly love for their students.

18.3.3 What makes a Successful ESL Teacher:

Freeman (1989) describes language teaching as a decision- making process based on four constituents: knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness. These four elements of language teaching may enable us to decide as to what makes a successful ESL teacher. All of us know more or less successful teachers who are more or less skilful at giving instructions, presenting a language item and practicing it, etc. It is, thus, evident that what makes a successful ESL teacher lies in the other two constituents.

Attitude means "the stance one adopts towards oneself, the teaching activity and learners." Awareness refers to the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one has given to something. If good language teaching is related to these two constituents, it may have to do with having a positive stance towards ourselves, the profession of teaching and the learners. It is this positive stance that leads to increased awareness in all respects. Besides, a successful ESL teacher should have such types of knowledge as linguistic (knowledge of English and of language in general), pedagogical (techniques, strategies, tasks), psychological (knowledge of second language acquisition/ learning, development, motivation) cross-cultural (awareness of/respect for intellectual differences), and technological (knowledge of multi-media resources, uses of the internet, etc.)

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Great teachers teach as much with their own actions and behavior as with the contents.

(ii)   Teaching is not a dynamic skill.

(iii)   A successful ESL teacher need not have the technological knowledge.

(iv)   A teacher of English has the ability to apply knowledge of linguistics to the language teaching situations.

(v)   A good teacher of English should also be creative.

18.4   Teacher as a Humanizer:

A teacher of English should be a humanizer as a professional who believes in the fundamental values such as human rights, justice, peace and dignity, and who applies them in his/ her teaching of English, as well as outside the class room. According to Francisco Gomes de Matos (Dec.2004/Jan.2005), a teacher of English is a humanizer if he/ she:

(i)   Views English language teaching as a system for helping learners grow as individuals and as members of communities.

(ii)   Views assessment of learners' performance in a positive way, by emphasizing their strengths in using English as a means of interaction.

(iii)   Views their students as persons who have both communicative rights and duties. For example, the right to be heard by all in the classroom and the duty to listen to other classmates

(iv)   Uses inspiring literature which exemplifies humanization through dialogues.

(v)   Uses examples of humanizing illustrative sentences from learners' textbooks, dictionaries and stresses the importance of such dignifying uses of English.

(vi)   Prepares students to make humanizing uses of the Internet, through chatting with English-language-using e-friends. The creation of humanizing phraseology for use on the web may be taken as one of the projects for groups in different ESL contexts.

(vii)   Within copyright law restrictions, adapt and / or change materials so that they can contribute to personal and to interpersonal humanization. They use of 'positivizers' (for instance, adjectives, enhancing positive qualities, traits) could be systematized in the learning of humanizing vocabulary.

The list of things teachers of English can do as humanizers is long and other items can easily be added by you.

18.5 Teacher as a Manager:

The Oxford English Dictionary defines 'manager' as "a person who conducts and controls a business." Accordingly, the basics of a good teacher as a manager include initial qualification, and preferably, some classroom experience. However, there are certain other qualities which make the difference. A teacher is a successful manager if he/ she:-

- fits in with the culture of the school. He is keen, and sees teaching as a dynamic process.
- takes interest in - service training and development programmes designed for professional development.
- has a steady previous employment record. He has the ability to achieve rapport, personal skills and interest in the job.
- is open- minded, flexible in approach and to time table- adapting to a new life, the school, new students, syllabuses, etc.
- provides for activity change perhaps something not on the lesson plan; for example scrabble, etc.
- is somewhat unpredictable and keeps the students in suspense.
- aims at variety in teaching. Variety provides for renewed interest in the subject matter. He/she creates a variety of instant involvement techniques that can be used to capture students' attention for what will be presented.
- provides a change of pace. A change of pace is refreshing and helps students re-enter the learning process.
- understands that changes of setting, at appropriate times, is stimulating and interesting for a specific learning task.

So, to summaries, a good teacher is one who adapts well, is dedicated, and has a positive attitude to professional development.

18.6 Good ELT Practice: Problems and Solutions

The learners repose their trust in us when they decide to seek admission in our school. To justify their trust, we as professionals have a duty to maintain a good standard of practice

and care and to show respect for human life. Robin Walker enlists the following five steps to ensure good ELT practice:-

- **Make the progress of your students your first concern:**

    Doctors care for their patients so that they may get better. Similarly, our care and concern as teachers for our students is in order that they get better at English. For this we need to guard against becoming immune to the plight of students who do not progress. It does not mean that lack of progress is automatically attributable to poor teaching. Clearly there are a number of factors that can cause stagnation, and these can act individually or in combination. However, should we detect a lack of progress in an individual student or in a group, it is certainly our responsibility to ascertain the cause of this situation, and to make whatever efforts we can to remedy it.

- **Treat your learners politely and considerately:**

    As good ELT practitioners, we should never employ the strategies, such as irony, satire, abuse of authority, etc. We, on a number of occasions, do not tend to be as polite or considerate as we should have been. We should aim at increasing our awareness of the situations or students that cause us to err in this regard, and then to develop strategies to help us to control ourselves in moments of tension. We as teachers should learn how to apologies should the need arise. The researches have shown that when we have been courageous enough to admit that we acted wrongly, students have invariably seen us in a more positive light.

- **Respect learners' dignity and privacy:**

    Respecting learners' dignity and privacy seems to be easy. However, there are activities that can threaten dignity or invade privacy. For example, role play is something some students take to wonderfully, but not every one of them. Similarly, in some cultures the idea of being somebody else, can threaten a learner's dignity. Compelling students to pronounce foreign words in front of colleagues or classmates can attack their dignity more particularly if the sound is taboo in the mother- tongue culture. Another common classroom activity is that of students asking each other about families, friends, etc. Such exchanges of personal information may seem innocent enough to some but there are cultures in which questions on these topics represent a clear intrusion into the learner's privacy. As teachers we need to be sensitive to even the slightest reticence on behalf of our learners to participate.

- **Listen to learners and respect their views:**

It involves two levels: learners' views during a discussion and learners' views on classroom practice and course contents. As teachers we are in an advantaged position in discussions: we often choose the topic, we speak English better than our students and we are the teachers. This bestows a special authority on anything we say, and, indeed, in the culture like ours it could be very difficult to challenge us. It is, therefore, always wise to leave our opinions outside the classroom, or to avoid topics where we know that we will be incapable of remaining impartial. The second level where we need to respect our learners' views is that of classroom practice and course contents. This, however, does not mean that we have to negotiate both of these with our students on a daily basis.

- **Give learners information in a way they can understand:**

This can be done in more than one way. The two things related to this are: classroom, language and rationale behind the course contents. In terms of the former, we should record ourselves teaching in order to check the clarity of our language. As a good teacher we should always keep in mind that anything that is not stated directly is very often not understood. As far as the second thing is concerned, we should give students a detailed description of course contents in the first session of each new academic year. We also need to explain what we mean when we say, for example, that course will develop the sub-skills of skimming or scanning.

Check Your Understanding

II   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   A teacher of English does not and should not bother about human values.

(ii)   A teacher of English is somewhat unpredictable.

(iii)   A change of pace is always troublesome and obstructs the learning process.

(iv)   Teachers of English should always impose their views on the class.

(v)   Exchanges of personal information always promote the teaching and learning of a second language.

18.6.1 Problems and Solutions

(a)   **Problems:** Some of the things that are challenges in teaching include the following:

(i) Teachers speaking too quickly and loudly; teaching rather quickly especially at the end of period when class time is running out.

(ii) The learners getting bored when a teacher is answering other students' questions.

(iii) Textbooks that are difficult for the learners to understand.

(iv) Teacher's insufficient professional competence.

(v) Teacher's not planning well and having to go overtime.

(vi) Mother tongue interference is a great problem in teaching English.

(vii) Overcrowded classrooms also affect the desirable results adversely.

(b) Solutions: We can ensure good ELT practice by adhering to the following:

(i) respect learner's right to accessible information.

(ii) keep your professional skills and knowledge up to date.

(iii) recognise the limits of your professional competence.

(iv) be honest and trustworthy.

(v) create a comfortable learning atmosphere in the classroom.

(vi) make sure that your personal beliefs do not prejudice your patients' care.

(vii) respect and protect confidential information.

(viii) avoid abusing your position as a teacher, and

(ix) work with colleagues in the ways that best serve your learners' interests.

18.7 Let's sum up

The unit has tried to focus on the international standards or qualifications of ESL teachers. A good ESL teacher makes his/her contribution as informative as required; he says only what he believes to be true; he is always relevant; he avoids ambiguity, obscurity, etc. He is brief, orderly, patient and committed to his profession. As a professional he keeps himself in touch with the latest pedagogical, technological and linguistic developments. Besides, a good teacher of English is a humanizer also.

Check Your Understanding

III Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i) A good ESL teacher is always relevant.

(ii) Mother tongue interference is not always a problem in teaching English.

(iii)   A good ESL teacher is like a doctor who ensures that his personal beliefs do not prejudice his patient's care.

(iv)   A good ESL teacher is brief, orderly, patient and committed to his profession.

(v)   A good ESL teacher is not necessarily a professional who keeps himself in touch with the latest developments.

18.8 Exercises:

1.   How is an ESL teacher different from a social science teacher? On the basis of your reading this lesson, prepare a list of the characteristics that make an ESL teacher different from others. (teachers of social sciences, arts, etc.)

2.   This lesson enumerates certain principles which help one in becoming a good ELT practitioner. Can you enlarge the list by adding some more points?

3.   The list of things teachers of English can do as humanizers is long and other items (besides the items discussed in the lesson) can easily be added by you. Make the list as long as possible.

18.9 Further Reading:

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UNIT - 19

Student Assessment - Tests and Examinations

Structure

19.1 Objectives

In this unit we wish to tell the students about the need for tests and examinations and their relation to teaching. Students will come to know about various types of test items, their advantages, and disadvantages and how to frame them. An attempt has been made to train them in designing test items based on different language areas and skills. They will have a better grasp of diagnostic testing and remedial teaching. It is aimed that they develop a deeper understanding of preparation of multiple question paper sets, and question banks. They will also learn about open book examination.

19.2 Introduction

Tests and examinations exert a direct and powerful influence on how learners study and what they learn. They tell the teacher about the achievement of pupils and adequacy of their own previous preparation. What is more, they also tell us about the teacher's own success as a teacher. Appraisal of outcomes, therefore, provides feedback of teaching and learning.

Tests also motivate and direct student learning. If the pupils know in advance on what they will be tested, if they know the kind of knowledge and ability the test will require, and if the test does a good job of measuring the achievement of essential course objectives, then its motivating and guiding influence will be most wholesome.

Keeping the foregoing in view, questions on a pattern different from the old traditional one have to be framed. This would require the teacher to think clearly about the goals of instruction, which should lead him to define these goals operationally in terms of the kind of tasks a pupil must be able to perform to demonstrate achievement of the goals.

This shows that testing and teaching are not be considered mutually exclusive. They are intrinsically related parts of the total educational process.

19.3 Teaching and Testing

Testing is a measuring device to gauge student - ability and teaching efficiency. It is stock-taking of how much learning has taken place, whether the objectives of teaching have been realized, and if so, to what extent. Teaching and testing go side by side. They have the same focus and are inseparable. Any good evaluation programme should involve a continuous interaction between teaching and testing. It is necessary

to check how far the learning experiences provided to the learner have actually produced the desired results in terms of stated objectives.

19.4 Objectives of Testing

i)   to measure the extent of student - achievement of the instructional objectives (mastery of language skills, communication skills and elements of language such as structures and lexical items.)

ii)   to reinforce learning.

iii)   to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching.

iv)   to help the teacher plan his future programme.

v)   to motivate students.

vi)   to diagnose student - weaknesses and strengths, and plan remedial work.

vii)   to assess the student - potential and predict future performance.

viii) to place and classify on the basis of current levels of competence.

ix)   to rank and promote on the basis of merit.

x)   to inform the parents about the performance of their children and to activate the parents.

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Tests help teachers to assess their own performance.

(ii)   Tests do not motivate pupils to learn.

(iii)   Goals are to be expressed in 'double' terms.

(iv)   Teaching and testing are closely related.

(v)   Testing helps in evaluating how far objectives have been achieved.

19.5 Class Tests

1.   Classroom tests play a central role in the evaluation of teaching-learning activities.

2.   Objectives of class tests

        (i)   to evaluate student's

                (a) progress. (b) attainment of course objectives.

(c) performance in relation to that of his classmates.

(ii) to make teaching and learning more effective.

3. Types of Class Tests

a) Based on Function

1. Placement tests (pre-tests)

They try to ensure whether or not a pupil has suitable skills for a particular job/assignment.

(i) They measure whether pupils possess the pre-requisite skills needed to succeed in a unit/course.

(ii) They measure the extent to which pupils have already achieved the objectives of the planned instruction.

(iii) They determine the best mode of teaching and learning.

2. Formative tests

They assess the extent to which the learner is making progress during the course.

(i) They determine learning progress.

(ii) They provide on-going feed back to pupils and teachers.

(iii) They provide reinforcement of classroom learning.

(iv) They reveal learning weakness in need of correction.

(v) They provide incentive for further learning.

3. Diagnostic tests

They give a profile of the pupil's strengths and weaknesses to find remedies. They

(i) identify the strength and weakness of a learner.

(ii) determine causes of learning difficulties.

4. Summative tests. They are tests given at the end of the course and aim at finding out the level of achievement. They help in categorizing the pupils on the basis of their performance. They

(i) determine the achievement of course/instructional objectives.

(ii) assign grades.

(iii) certify mastery of objectives.

(iv) give promotion.

b) Based on content

1. Unit Tests : Informal Tests which are given immediately after teaching a particular unit.

2. Terminal Tests : Tests which are given at the end of a term - tests based on units that have been taught during the term a period of time.

3. Final Test (Examination) :

   A formal test which is given at the end of the academic year/course - i.e. a test based on the units in the syllabus for the course/class.

Check Your Understanding

I   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Class tests are not meant to rank the pupils.

(ii)   Formative tests are not diagnostic.

(iii)   Diagnostic tests tell us mainly about strong areas.

(iv)   Summative tests are taken periodically.

(v)   Terminal tests cover areas taught during a definite period.

19.6   How language Testing is Different

Language testing is different from testing in other subjects. Here the focus is on testing of the four basic language skills viz listening, speaking, reading and writing. Pupils are tested to find out whether they comprehend the meaning of structural and lexical items in context in speaking and writing at different levels. The skill of reading with understanding is tested through various kinds of questions. The ability in connected writing is assessed through composition exercises in which organization, relevance to topic and correctness and appropriacy of language get credit marks.

19.7   Characteristics of Good Tests

A good test should have the following characteristics :

I.   Validity

The accuracy with which the test measures the true ability of candidates is called validity.

It means the test should really measure what it actually aims to measure and nothing else.

The relationship of a test with the syllabus and teaching objectives makes it valid.

In other words, each question paper is set to test some specific objectives through a definite content area. If it accomplishes both these objectives, well, it is said to be a valid test. To ensure high validity of a question paper, it is desirable that it has a wide coverage of both objectives and content.

2. **Reliability**

Specification of the answer required, definiteness of the instructions regarding the scheme of marking are essential to ensure high reliability of question papers.

Putting it differently, we, can say that a test is said to be reliable if on repeated administration the pattern of responses given by a group of students does not change from occasion to occasion. The precaution such as clarity of language, specification of the answer required, definiteness of the instructions regarding the scheme of marking are essential to ensure high reliability of question papers.

By and large, essay type questions have a much lower reliability than short answer type of objective type questions. Therefore, if possible, we may reduce the number of essay type questions and replace them by short answer and objective type questions.

3. **Objectivity**

The Only one answer to a question is possible. Same mark is scored by the candidate in the hands of different examiners and there is no place for examiner's subjectivity or personal judgement. For this, objective type questions and detailed marking schemes are needed.

Examples :

(i)   Choose the correct answer :

If it .... in time the crop will be good.

(A)   is raining   (B)   will rain

(C)   rains   (D)   rained

(Answer - (C))

(ii)   Fill in the blanks with 'a', 'an' or 'the'.

Put a cross (x) if no word is needed.

Write - article on - uses of oxygen.

(iii)   Write a letter to your father asking him to raise your monthly allowance, giving reasons.

Marking scheme

Credit points	5 marks
Salutation, address and date, polite ending,	
subscription	2 marks
Relevance to the topic	1 mark
Appropriate & correct use of structures	
& vocabulary	1 mark
Spelling & punctuation	1 mark

IV.   Practicability (Usability)

Practicability is the degree to which the test can be successfully used without undue expenditure of time and energy.

A test should be easy to give and score and the cost should be low.

Practicability has three aspects :-

a)   economy

b)   administrability

c)   scorability

V.   Discriminating Power

Discriminating Power aims at finding out the small differences in achievement. Responses of test items help ranking of candidates according to their merit. This needs a wide range of scores and questions at all levels of difficulty.

VI.   Difficulty Value

Difficulty value means the extent to which the candidates fall short of achieving correctness of response to the test item. Questions can be difficult, of average difficulty, or easy.

VII.   Continuous

There should be tests at regular intervals to assess whether the areas covered in a particular integrated unit of so many periods of testing have been mastered.

VIII. Comprehensive

Tests should be comprehensive and widely spread over the syllabus. They should cover the whole syllabus including the four basic language skills.

IX. Focused

Only one thing should be tested at a time and marks given solely according to the particular point being tested.

Example :

Supply the correct form of the verbs given in brackets :

(i)   The bridge (complete) two months ago.

(ii)   The hot I (build) last year.

X. Grouping

Tests should not include different items indiscriminately but should group them into sections so that it is clear which of the four language skills or language areas each section is intended to assess. For example, all items related to one area of applied grammar viz tenses can be grouped together. Another section may cover reading comprehension.

Check Your Understanding

III   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Language testing focuses mainly on content.

(ii)   Validity means really testing what the test sets out to test.

(iii)   Reliability means consistency in testing.

(iv)   Objectivity just requires setting of objective type questions.

(v)   Comprehensiveness requires the coverage of wide area of content as well as skills.

19.8 Types of Test Items

The following are main types of test items :

I.   Essay type Questions

In such questions the length of the answer may vary from a couple of sentences to a full-fledged piece of composition.

Advantages

1.   Free expression

2.   Original thinking

3.   Consolidation of ideas

4.   Arrangement of ideas

5.   No guessing in answering

6.   Suitable for measuring complex learning outcomes

Limitations

1.   Subjectivity.

2.   Low reliability

3.   Unsuitable for measuring simple learning outcomes

4.   Scoring is time - consuming

5.   Difficult to discriminate

Suggestions for construction

1.   Give clear instructions and indicate the pupil's task clearly.

2.   Specify the length.

3.   Specify the time limit for each question.

4.   Prepare scoring guidance and prepare a good answer that can be awarded at least 75% marks.

5.   Evaluate all the answers to one question before going on to the next questions.

6.   Restrict the use of essay type questions to those learning outcomes which cannot be satisfactorily measured by objective items.

Examples :

1.   Write a paragraph of about 125 words on your hobby. The first sentence and some questions are given to help you.

Every person has some hobby.

(i)   What is your hobby?

(ii)   Why did you choose it?

Short Answer Type

Such questions are to be answered in a sentence or two.

Advantages :

1.   Suitable for measuring simple outcomes.

2.   More reliable and valid than essay type.

3.   Easy to score.

Limitations

Not suitable for measuring complex learning outcomes.

Suggestions for construction

1.   Questions should be simply worded.

2.   Questions are to be unambiguous.

3.   Answers should be definitive.

Examples

(i)   What did Hans do for country?

(ii)   Why could the soldier not answer Napoleon's questions?

(iii)   Write an essay in about 250 words on 'Pleasure of Reading'.

Very Short Answer Type

Advantages

1.   Suitable for measuring simple outcomes.

2.   Reduces the possibility of guessing.

3.   More reliable and valid than essay type.

4.   Easy for scoring.

Limitations

Unsuitable for measuring complex learning outcomes.

Suggestions for construction

1.   Blanks for answers should be equal in length.

2.   Don't use too many blanks.

Examples

Complete the following words :

(i)   Ravi was punished because he was late.

(ii)   She did not receive my letter.

Short Answer Type

Such questions have a fixed response so the marking is objective.

(iv)   Objective Type

(a) Alternative Response items/True-False

The candidate has to choose the right answer from the two choices provided to

him.

Advantages

1.   Identify correctness

2.   Easy to construct

3.   Wide coverage

Limitations

1.   Limited to more elementary learning outcomes in the knowledge area.

2.   Likelihood of guessing.

3.   Validity is questionable.

4.   Low reliability

5.   No diagnostic value.

Suggestions for Construction

1.   Avoid broad general statements/trivial statements/negative and double negative statements.

2.   True and False statements should be approximately equal in length.

3.   The number of true and false statements should be approximately equal.

Examples

Tick off 'True' or 'False' -

(i)   Aunt Mabel packed her bags and left. (True/False).

(ii)   The author liked Miss Beam's new educational system.

(True/False).

(b)   Matching

Here the pupil has to match words, groups of words or sentences given in one column with those in other.

Advantages

1.   Compact form

2.   Measure a large amount of related factual material

Limitations

1.   Measure factual information based on rote memorisation.

2.   Difficult to find out homogenous material.

Suggestions for construction

1.   Use only homogeneous material.

2. Include an unequal number of responses and premises.

3. Arrange the responses in logical order.

Example (text-based)

Match groups of words under 'A' and 'B' to get correct answers

A	B
Rashmi fell in love with	the animals
Rajesh spent a lot of money on	Rina
Rajni cared a lot for	Suresh

(C) Multiple - Choice Form

A number of choices are provided out of which the candidate has to choose the correct one.

Advantages

1. Measure a variety of learning outcomes.

2. Suitable for measuring achievement.

3. Unambiguous.

4. Restrict pupil's response.

5. Very useful for diagnosis.

Limitations

1. Not suitable for problem - solving.

2. Difficult to locate sufficient number of incorrect but plausible distracters.

Suggestions for construction

1. The stem of the item should be meaningful by itself and should present a definite problem.

2. The item stem should be free of irrelevant material.

3. All the alternatives should be grammatically consistent with the stem of the item.

4. An item should contain only one correct or clearly best answer.

5. All distracters should be plausible.

6. The correct answer should appear in each of the alternative positions approximately an equal number of times, but in random order.

7. Do not use multiple choice items where other types are more suitable.

Examples :

Write in brackets the letter of the correct answer. ('A', 'B', 'C' or 'D')

(i)   I have been suffering from fever - Monday.

(A)   from   (B)   since   (C)   for   (D)   on

(ii)   Unless you - hard, you will not succeed.

(A)   work   (B)   have worked   (C)   worked   (D) will work

Check Your Understanding

IV   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   In essay-type questions the length of the answers is rigidly fixed.

(ii)   The reliability of essay type questions is not high.

(iii)   Short answer type questions measure only simple learning outcomes.

(iv)   Through multiple choice items a large variety of objectives can be covered.

(v)   Very short answer type items help a lot in diagnosis.

19.9   Common Testing Practices

In the context of testing we are generally more concerned about the techniques rather than the linguistic problems involved. We discuss the use of composition or translation as a testing device or objective tests being easier or valid or the giving of oral examinations objectively. It would be more meaningful to ask ourselves whether translation measures listening comprehension or whether grammatical analysis measures speaking ability. These are questions of validity and administration.

Now let us look at some common testing practices from the viewpoint discussed above.

(i)   Translation

Translation has the following limitations as a test of ability in speaking, listening, reading and writing :-

(a)   The most proficient students do not translate when they use the language.

(b)   There are various ways to translate and to judge a translation; for artistic purposes, for accuracy of information, for grammatical exactness, or for vocabulary equivalence. A translation can be judged from these and other points of view.

(c)   The grading of translation is likely to be unreliable because of the various ways to translate and the variations that the examiners may or may not allow.

(d)   Translation is a special skill different from speaking, listening, reading and writing.

(e)   Translation is slow as a test. A student takes longer to translate say a letter than to write one.

(f)   Translation is slow to grade, since the examiner has to weigh each response to see if it is allowable.

Perhaps the only favourable things to be said for translation as a test of language proficiency are that translation questions are easy to set and are compact. But the price paid for these is high.

(ii)   Grammatical Analysis

Labelling the parts of speech, defining grammatical terms, giving the rule, supplying examples for grammatical terms were used as tests, probably because these were the tasks regularly performed in class. They are of doubtful validity as a measure of proficiency.

(a)   The ability to analyze a language and the ability to use it are very different things.

(b)   Most of those who use the language well cannot analyze it accurately or completely, and those who can analyze it, cannot often use it.

(c)   Differences in terminology among grammarians and linguistics are to expected, but they complicate the instructions to the students and scoring of their answers.

Partly because of these considerations, grammatical analysis is no longer widely used in tests.

(iii)   Words in Isolation

Words in isolation are used extensively in language tests. To predict school success and measure general ability, such tests show good results. Yet, as measures of proficiency in a second language, one can find objection to them. Meanings change subtly and radically from sentence to sentence, according to the context. Thus to identify a word in isolation by a synonym, an antonym, a translation, or even a dictionary definition, tests only a fraction of the control of that word in its full range of use. To identify, for example, the word 'right' out of context as the opposite of 'left'

is no indication that the student will understand the expression, 'yield the right of way,' in connection with driving an automobile.

The technique is also faulty because it does not force a choice between two possible meanings of the word. Right means "opposite of left" but it also means "legal privilege" and several other things. Listing these meanings as choices still leaves the student helpless to decide which one applies since there is no context.

(iv)   Objective Tests

Objective and short-answer type tests are widely used. But we have to look at them not just as a technique but with reference to linguistic content. Objective items may have the appearance of a good language test but it may or may not be fully effective.

Let us take an example of auditory comprehension. The examiner reads aloud the sentence, "The man is looking at a new car", and the student is asked to indicate which of four pictures the sentence describes : in one a man is looking at a car, in another, at a ship, in a third, at a house, and in a fourth, at a train. On the surface this is a good item to test auditory comprehension. Here, the students listens to an utterance and shows that he does or does not understand it by the picture he chooses. On closer inspection, however, one realizes that to choose the picture of the car, the student need only to identify the word Car, which is so different phonologically from house, ship and train that he might do it even if his contact with English has been only through reading. This item is not valid as it does not really test auditory comprehension which we set out to test.

In contrast, such items can be made to test important phonological problems. If, for example, the sentence is "The man is washing a dog", the students can be asked to choose between pictures representing respectively, a man washing a dog, and a man watching a dog. The student then has to hear the difference between the two different sounds in watching (च) and washing. (श)

Another example illustrates how an objective technique for testing comprehension becomes invalid and useless as a result of proper choices. In this test the students were given a reading passage dealing with fire in Greek mythology. After reading the passage they had to answer a series of three-choice items that supposedly tested their understanding of the passage. Here is one item that can be answered even without reading the passage, since only the third choice is possible : (A) A man can

lift a mountain. (B) A bird can lift a mountain (c) A bird can lift itself into the air. It is difficult to know what this item was supposed to test.

The validity of objective tests cannot be judged on the appearance of the items but must be determined on the basis of linguistic content it really tests.

(v)   Dictation

Dictation is an auditory technique and involves writing. So it is liked by many and is a well established technique. Yet when we look at it critically we are surprised to discover its limitations.

(a)   It does not test word order because the examiner reads the words in their proper order.

(b)   It does not test vocabulary recall because the examiner gives the words.

(c)   It does not test sound discrimination sharply because (i) the context often gives away the difficulty sounds, (ii) the examiner reads more slowly than he speaks and (iii) he frequently repeats the reading. Dictation does test spelling, recognition of the forms of words, and some problems of inflection, but is slow for these purposes, since, they can be tested rapidly by other techniques. Dictation is not a bad technique and should not be abandoned, but there are better ways.

Check Your Understanding

V   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Translation is skill of its own kind.

(ii)   One who can analyze grammar can use it well.

(iii)   Words are to be tested only in context.

(iv)   Items testing auditory comprehension are easy to frame.

(v)   Dictation is the best technique to test vocabulary.

19.10 Commonsense Techniques

Some people are still preoccupied with the appearance of outward reasonableness of the test rather than with its linguistic content. They think of the commonsense tests of speaking, listening, reading and writing as the total and final answers to the problems of

language testing. The validity of a test cannot be judged on the superficial appearance of the task but on the linguistic content and on performance. Let us look at these commonsense techniques separately.

(i)   Speaking

In tests of speaking the attempts move blindly in the direction of having the student speak. This reflects again the tendency to think of the technique itself and its appearance of validity rather than on the linguistic problems involved. The unreliability of general impressions of speech restricts the value of these tests.

(a)   The personality of the student colours the impression of his ability to speak.

(b)   The tense situation under which the student is tested produces non-typical performances that unduly influence the over-all impression.

(c)   Scoring oral responses is a highly subjective affair even under well-controlled conditions. The differences are great among different examiners and for the same examiners at different times. This has an adverse effect on reliability.

(d)   Individually administered test are time-consuming for the examiner and as a result tend to be made so short that they become useless.

(ii)   Listening

The examples given earlier show that listening to an utterance and understanding it, though having the outward appearance of a valid test, may not be a good indicator of auditory comprehension. The fact of listening is not enough. The utterance heard and the choices of the response must be such that the right answers reveal the control of the crucial elements of listening comprehension.

(iii)   Reading

The comments made about listening tests apply also to tests of reading. It is not simply a matter of having the student read and checking his comprehension. It is a question of what he is asked to read and what items of comprehension we ask.

(iv)   Written Composition

It is generally believed that the use of composition as tests make the students think, organize what he knows, and deal with mature topics rather than trivial detail.

However, under linguistic scrutiny some limitations appear :

(a)   A single composition is usually a poor sample of the sentence patterns of the language, its vocabulary and problems of spelling and punctuation. The usual composition test may not elicit a single

response. The particular vocabulary needed for one essay may be limited and specialized. The spelling and punctuation problems are similarly restricted, and the students avoid those that trouble them.

(b)   A single composition is a poor sample of the student's ability to organize his thoughts or to deal with mature topics. It so happens that the topics set for composition tests have to deal with matters that are familiar to the students, and differences in amount of information the students may have on the topic will be reflected in his organisation and treatment of it in his essay.

(c)   From a practical point of view, the scoring of compositions is a very complex problem, and as a result it is slow and inaccurate. In his article on "The Plight of the English Teacher", Henry Chauncey says If the essay examinations are somewhat unreliably written, they are even less reliably read. The basic problem is that teachers do not agree with themselves when they read papers, much less with other readers. In one study, for example, a composition was graded twice by 28 teachers. Fifteen who gave it passing marks the first time failed it on the second round, while eleven who failed it the first time passed it on the second. As for different readers' opinions of the same paper, they have on one occasion provided grades ranging from 50 to 98 on the same paper, as read by 142 teachers..."

19.11 Testing of Problems

We should attempt to test mastery of the units and patterns that are different from those of the native language and constitute learning problems. The first consideration should be not how to test, but what to test.

On the basis of comparison of the native language and the target language we should try to list problems of pronunciation, grammatical structures, vocabulary and cultural meanings related to language. We the prepare tests that measure the degree of mastery of these problems. Following are some samples of newer techniques used to test problems.

SAMPLE TECHNIQUES TO TEST PROBLEMS

If we know the specific consonants and vowel phonemes that will be difficult to learn, and if we know the learning problems in intonation, stress, rhythm etc., we can test these problems in a variety of ways. We can test the students on hearing the difference through understanding of spoken sentences or by stating "same" or "different" without having to go through their meaning

PRONUNCIATION THROUGH AUDITORY COMPREHENSION. The example of 'washing' and 'watching', given earlier, illustrates the technique that goes through meaning: the student hears the two sentences and has to understands the words and hear the difference between the two sounds.

(i)   Auditory Perception

An example of the same-versus-different technique to test auditory perception is as follows :

The examiner reads aloud the three sentences -

(a)   The man is watching the dog.

(b)   The man is washing the dog.

(c)   The man is watching the dog.

The student has to give the letter of the alphabet of the sentences that are the same. Sentences (a) and (c) are the same, so he says, or marks (a) and (c).

An easier variation gives the key words only 'watching', 'washing', 'watching'. Even easier is a minimal pair, 'watching', 'washing' instead of the three items. In this case, the student merely says 'same' or 'different'.

(ii)   Production Technique

When we know what the problem is, we can test it accurately. We elicit an utterance that contains the problem sound, say 'स' or 'श', and listen only for this sound.

(iii)   Paper and Pencil Techniques

Since, it is not always possible to have a qualified examiner to read the test and listen to the students responses, there are paper-and-pencil techniques which are reasonably valid and simple to administer. The techniques consist in comparing sounds in words in which the letters that represent them have been omitted. For example, the student is given three sentences :-

(1)   Everything was unders_ _d.

(2)   The cook would prepare f_ _d.

(3)   We start a fire with dry w_ _d.

The student is asked which of the sounds represented by the missing letters are the same. He indicates his response by giving the number of the sentences. In this example, the response would be (1) and (3) since the last vowel of 'understood' and 'wood' are the same. The vowel of 'food' is a different phoneme even though it is represented by the same letter.

A rhyming technique asks the students if two words rhyme, or which of three choices rhymes with a model. Still another variation asks which of the several choices is the most like a sound omitted in the lead word. The choices are words with underlined letters.

The position of word and sentence stress can be tested by a paper-pencil technique also. Numbers are placed above the syllables which are to be compared. The numbers serve to refer conveniently to the syllables on a separate answer sheet. The student decides on the basis of his pronunciation which syllable receives the most prominent stress and checks or circles the number representing the syllable on the answer sheet.

Example :

1 2 3   4 5

I saw his sister, but I didn't see him. In this context, the peak of prominence among the numbered syllables is on him. They circle number 5 on the answer sheet.

Correlation between scores obtained through these paper-pencil techniques and the scores given by the examiner when the student reads the test aloud are high enough to make the technique useful under proper conditions.

(iv)   Grammatical Structure

The new recognition techniques for grammatical structure test understanding of the grammatical signals in utterances. In English the single-word modifier precedes the head word : the sky blue is a colour, and blue sky is a sky. We check to see if the student understand blue sky to mean sky or if he is confused by the word order signal and takes it to mean a colour. Such checking can be made through multiple-choice items. The choices can be given in writing, e.g. "(1) a colour, (2) the heavens". They can be given in pictures or in the mother tongue.

(v)   Vocabulary and Cultural Meaning

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In testing vocabulary we force a choice between minimally different items in context. For production items involving partial recall of a limited vocabulary are useful. Items checking comprehension of a wider range of units are needed to test vocabulary in reading or listening. Here is an example of a partial production item.

To cook something by dry heat is to - it.

(1) f_ _ (2) b_ _l (3) r _ _ _t (4) b _ _ e.

The best choice is roast, represented by "(3) r _ _ _t"

The other choices fly, boil and bake are not quite satisfactory.

A recognition item searching an extended meaning of a common word is the following :

He read the expression on their faces carefully.

(A)   spoke words

(B)   understood spoken words

(C)   studied

(D)   understood printed words

The Basic Language Skills

Testing the four basic skills consists of controlled samples of those skills containing the specific learning problems that the students are likely to have. Under auditory comprehension we include pronunciation, grammar, lexical items, and cultural meaning, if relevant. All of these are tested in utterances under essentially normal conditions. In speaking, the same elements are involved, and the test elicits utterances from the students. Techniques which correlate highly with those skills but are less elaborate can be used effectively under special conditions.

In writing, the primary elements are grammatical structure and lexical content, with spelling and punctuation as additional criteria. In testing spelling a better technique than dictation is one in which a sentence identifies an incomplete word which the student is asked to complete from memory or from several given choices. The letters omitted are those that constitute the spelling problems, thus giving more density of test elements.

Example :

Write the missing letters.

He teaches at the university, he is a pro_e_or.

He is riding his b_c_cle.

Please accept my sincere a_ology.

Example :

Write the number of the best choice.

The room has good a_oustics for music.

(1) q　(2) k　(3) c　(4) cc

Check Your Understanding

VI　Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)　Testing spoken skill is always objective.

(ii)　In listening, comprehension is very important.

(iii)　Written composition evaluates the skill of organization.

(iv)　Paper pencil techniques for differentiating sounds are quite effective.

(v)　Completing an incomplete word is a better way of testing spelling than dictation.

19.12 Diagnosis and Remedial Teaching

To diagnose means to discover and identify exactly what is wrong. A teacher can diagnose the weaknesses of his pupils in different ways. One of them are tests and examinations. In other words, the test which has been designed to measure the class's ability to understand, or use certain specific items of the syllabus, can also be used to diagnose what features need remedial teaching, or even the areas that individuals need to do more work on.

Another means to diagnose the pupils' areas of weakness is classroom teaching. Any intelligent teacher will know from his classroom teaching experience what the common problematic areas of his students are. For example, they may be confused about the use of prepositions. They may find difficulty in producing certain sounds, or they may not grasp the difference in meaning between the Past Simple and Present Perfect tenses.

Yet another device to locate common weaknesses of the pupils is Diagnostic Tests which have a battery of test items to test the various items in the syllabus in terms of their recognition and their production or use.

Whatever may be the basis of diagnosis of common errors - ordinary tests, classroom teaching or specifically designed diagnostic tests - it is imperative that they are timely

remedied otherwise they may be firmly established and it becomes difficult to remove them.

Remedial Teaching

A remedy should be based on the identification of the malady and its causes. For determining the common areas of weakness we can analyse written work done both in the class and at home, common mistakes noticed during classroom teaching, and responses in test and examination. Of course, diagnostic test are very important. One thing that is of great help is the use of Error Analysis Charts. Here different types of errors are classified and each one put under a separate column. For example, errors in usage may be classified as those in word-order, agreement, verb forms, sequence of tenses, determiners etc.

Students tend to make mistakes and for this one reason is lack of proficiency and commitment in teachers. The large size of classes and heterogeneity are causes due to which teachers cannot pay individual attention to the pupils.

Lack of proper correction work is also an important reason. Some points to be borne in mind about proper correction work are :

(1) Correction work should be done promptly by the teacher.

(2) It should be ascertained that follow-up work has been done by the pupils.

(3) Only one or two types of errors should be corrected at a time.

(4) Correction work should be done with the use of symbols for various kinds of errors e.g. - sp. for spellings.

(5) In large classes the teacher can take the help of bright students to correct the work done by of others. These leaders should first be familiarized with the symbols for correction. Finally, sample checking should be done by the teacher himself.

Different kinds of errors need different treatment. For example, for correcting pronunciation the differences between the sound system in English and the mother tongue should be clarified and then practised vigorously. Devices like question-answer sessions, and use of short dialogues will be helpful. For teaching correct word order, first of all the main differences in the word order in the two languages are to be highlighted and then practised. Improvement in spelling can be made by preparing a

list of words often misspelt. The words should be put in classified lists. These words should be dictated followed by correction.

As it is not easy to tackle large classes, we can divide the class into small groups and have a bright boy as a leader who after being briefed about a particular common weakness can help others in the group. Of course, the teacher is rotating in the class to help and guide the groups.

For remedial teaching we can use drills, charts, etc.

Remedial materials should comprise an adequate number of suitable items for each weak area.

It is to be arranged in the order of easy to difficult and from known to unknown.

Remedial exercises are done by the students. They are promptly checked by the teacher and follow up work is done in time. This process goes on till correct forms are established well.

Check Your Understanding

VII   Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Errors can be spotted out in routine teaching also.

(ii)   A diagnostic test has to have a set of a large number of questions.

(iii)   It is important to find out why common mistakes are made.

(iv)   Peer-help is not effective in remedial teaching.

(v)   Meaningful drilling helps a lot in remedial teaching.

19.13 Development of Multiple Question Paper

Let us begin by discussing how to develop a question paper. The preparation of a question paper starts by deciding.

(a)   the objective tested by each question

(b)   the content area covered by each and

(c)   the form of question which is most suitable for testing (a) and (b) above

We also decide :-

(a)   Weight in terms of marks for each question individually and

(b)   Scheme of option to be adopted in framing the questions.

Thus we prepare a detailed plan for a question paper.

The next step is the preparation of questions on the basis of this plan.

The framing of questions based on this plan would need the knowledge of the objectives and their specifications, a mastery over the subject and the skill in framing different forms of questions.

While writing or selecting questions for the paper it may be kept in mind that each question :

(a)   is based on some specific objective of teaching

(b)   relates to specific content area

(c)   is written in the form as laid down in the plan and satisfies the rules for framing that form of question

(d)   is at the desired level of difficulty

(e)   is written in clear, correct and precise language which is within the comprehension of students.

(f)   Clearly indicates the scope and length of the answer

Assembling the questions into sections, if any, is done on the basis of their form i.e. the fixed response type questions (the objective-type and/or the one-word answer and very short answer type) may be put in one section and the free response type questions (the short answer and the essay type may be placed in another section.

Within each section again, there could be sub-sections based on the content area. The questions may preferably be organized in a graded order of difficulty.

Then scoring key and marking scheme are to be prepared.

When these steps are followed sincerely, we have a good question paper which serves a model for multiple question paper sets. Any number of good question papers can be set on this basis. Some important points to be kept in mind for setting multiple question paper sets are :

(i)   all them should have uniformity and for this we may have questions on the same broad units of the syllabus.

(ii)   the number and type of questions is the same in all sets.

(iii)   in all the papers equal number of marks are allotted to each objective and to each content area.

(iv)   the difficult level of questions in all the sets is similar.

In case, the same question paper is used for all the students in an examination, the questions are arranged in different order in each set so as to minimize chances of copying and other unfair means.

19.14 Development of Question Banks

What is a Question Bank?

A question bank is a large pool of test items of high quality which may be used for framing question papers.

What is the need of a Question Bank?

When question papers are set, generally speaking there is not much time to frame items of a high quality or to refine and moderate them properly. So it is always a good idea to get good items framed by individual setters and then get them moderated by an expert team after discussions. For this, some agencies extend open invitation to item-writers and pay for each selected items.

Refined test items from such pools may be used in two ways :

(a)   They are used in framing question papers. In this case they are kept confidential.

(b)   They may be issued for guidance of and use for practice by students.

So we can sum up by saying that these banks can be used by paper setters as a handy resource and by students for practice. They provide good guidance to students by letting them know the type of questions they have to answer in the examination.

Characteristics of a Good Question Bank

A good question bank :-

(a)   is a large pool of fully refined test items

(b)   has valid, objective and reliable set of questions

(c)   should cover all the basic language skills

(d)   should have items on all the areas of the syllabus

(e)   has all the questions properly classified skill-wise, and/or according to the units in the syllabus.

(f)   has questions arranged on the basis of their type e.g. items on a particular area follow an order - objective type questions (multiple choice, very short answer, short answer, essay type)

(g)   has the items graded difficulty-level-wise (from easier to difficult)

(h)   have the objective of each item mentioned (recognition, production)

(i)   provides a key (answer to all the questions)

Suggestions for Teachers

Teachers may not only set various types of questions themselves but also collect good items from various sources like question papers of CBSE, State Boards of Education and test materials produced by NCERT and other agencies.

19.15 Open Book Examination

Open Book Examination is a new trend in evaluation. It is a departure from the traditional method of measuring a students ability to mug up content and reproduce it in the examination. So rote learning and good memory have become les important factors in one's performance. The measurement of degree of acquisition of language skills is being ignored.

To discourage this trend, the system of open book examination was introduced. In this system there is no time limit and books can be consulted.

The skills which are tested in this system include the ability to read and comprehend the material, select the portion which is relevant to the answer; organize it properly and then express it effectively. So questions in this method have to be so designed that they test these skills.

Check Your Understanding

VIII Say whether the following statements are true or false:

(i)   Items in a question paper are to be grouped form-wise.

(ii)   Detailed scoring key and marking scheme add to objectivity.

(iii)   Questions in different sets of papers should be of similar difficulty level.

(iv)   Questions Banks are useful for paper setters.

(v)   The focus in Open Book Examination should be on testing of skills.

19.16 Exercises

(1)   Mention briefly some objectives of tests and evaluation.

(2)   How are teaching and testing closely related?

(3)   What is validity? Give one example of your own.

(4)   Explain the term reliability and give one example of your own.

(5) Frame two items each of your own of objective type, short answer type and essay type.

(6) In what ways are the following ways of testing defective:

(i) translation (ii) dictation (iii) grammatical analysis.

(7) Discuss briefly two commonsense techniques of testing with their main shortcomings.

(8) Select any three techniques to test problems and give your own examples, different from the ones given in the unit.

(9) How are common errors identified?

(10) Take one example of common grammatical error and one common error related to vocabulary and discuss briefly how you will remedy them.

(11) Mention four things that are needed for developing multiple question paper sets.

(12) How are question banks developed?

(13) Mention five things that a good question bank should have.

(14) Write a brief note on Open Book Examination.

19.17 Let's Sum up

We began the unit by discussing the need, importance and objectives of tests and examinations and their impact on classroom teaching. We had a brief look at the three main types of tests based on their function. This was followed by a discussion of characteristics of good tests validity, reliability, objectivity, practicability (usability) discriminating power, difficulty value, continuous, comprehensive, focussed, grouping. Then we took up the different kinds of questions with their advantages, limitations and suggestions for construction. After this we analyzed certain principles of testing e.g. emphasis on linguistic problems and skills and not so much on testing techniques. Common testing devices like grammatical analysis, translation, dictations are testing words in isolation were examined in this light.

This was followed by discussion of various effective devices with examples. Then diagnosis of errors and remedial teaching were touched upon. Later on development of multiple question papers, Question Banks and open book examinations were taken up for discussion.

19.18 Further Reading

1.   Baruah, T.C. (1985). <u>The English Teacher's Handbook</u>. New Delhi : Sterling Publishing House Pvt. Ltd.

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3.   Lado, Robert (1961). <u>Language Testing</u>. Longman.

4.   Mackey, W.F. (1965). <u>Language Teaching Analysis</u>. Cambridge : C.U.P.

5.   Willis Jane (1981). <u>Teaching English Through English</u>. Essex. England : Longman Group.