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PACKAGE - 1

DEGREE OF BACHELOR OF EDUCATION

OPTIONAL ENGLISH - I

LESSONS - 1 TO 25

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1996

SCHOOL OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

BHARATHIAR UNIVERSITY

COIMBATORE

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BHARATHIAR UNIVERSITY

B.Ed. Degree Course

OPTIONAL ENGLISH – I

(Content and methodology)

Dear Trainee,

We welcome you to a course in **Technology of Teaching English (Content and Methodology) – Optional I,** which will help you to become a successful teacher in English. Consequently, you will be placed on a firm footing to face the problems arising in the task of teaching English as a second language.

You will receive your lessons in the form of modular packages. These Modular Learning packages will cover the syllabus both in Content and Methodology. Please go through all the packages carefully.

What perhaps, you would do is to go through the units and jot down important points as you read. This will help you keep track of and assimilate what you have been reading in a unit and answer the self - check Exercises. These exercises are to function as study tools to help you keep on the right tracks as you read the units.

We are sure you will enjoy the course.

With good wishes,

School of Distance Education,
Bharathiar University.

OPTIONAL – 1

TECHNOLOGY OF TEACHING ENGLISH

LESSON – 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE COURSE

The purpose of this lesson, the first in the course of ***Technology of teaching English (Optional – 1),*** is to tell you somethingaboutthe importance and nature of language with educational implications and briefly surveythe English Language TeahingSituation in India fromMacaulay's Minutesto the present state.

Please read the following objectives which are stated in behavioural terms.

After working through the lesson, the trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

* i) define language.
ii) discuss the importance and nature of language with educational implications.
iii) describe the English Language Teaching situation in our country.
iv) explain the continuation of English in the Indian context.

THE IMPORTANCE OF LANGUAGE

Language is a very essential element in the culture of a society. Infact, it is the basis of all cultural activities of a social organism. Each community, to quote Leonard Bloomfield, is

formed by the activity of language, and speech utterances give us the most direct insight into its working and play a very significant part in every thing that is done. In order to understand and appreciate the culture of a human society we must understand its language. It is through language that human beings communicate to each other and share each other's thoughts, feeling, and emotions. Language is the vehicle of all human experience, and as such, is the only foundation of human culture and civilization. Without language a human society would be unthinkable.

We are not usually very much conscious of the importance of language to us. It has become a part of the various habits that we possess, e.g., those related to the use of legs, hands, feet, eyes, etc., and we are no more conscious of the significance of language for us as we are not conscious of the utility of hands, eyes, ears, feet, etc. A person who cannot use any of these organs or has lost them, realises how important they are; so also a person who cannot speak, is deaf and dumb or is suffering from loss of speech - can well realise the importance of language though he is not able to express what it is.

The activities of a society constitute its culture. These activities may include the material accomplishments of that society, e.g., buildings houses, furniture, roads, tools, ornaments, machines, and the like; they may also relate to its non - material achievements in the form of habits, beliefs, faiths, knowledges, religion, ambitions, idea, standards, etc., including language. No society can build up and transmit its culture to future generations if it does not have a language. That is why it has been observed above that language is not only an element in the culture of a society, but it is also an essential basis for building it up.

THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE

Language is a learned arbitary system of vocal symbols *through which human beings interact in terms of their common cultural experience, and language habits are more than motor skills of tongue and lip; they are units of sound and units of thought*

established in physical form within the brain.

These two quotations very succinctly define the nature of language and the formation of language habits. The words *system, arbitrary, symbols,* and *vocal* in the first quotation refer to four important, and the very basic, assumptions regarding language.

EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE ABOVE AND SUGGESTIONS TO TEACHERS

The nature of language reveals the following features which are significant from educational point of view :

(i) Since language is a learned form of behaviour, its teaching should start early. The Canadian neurologist, Dr. Penfield, has emphasised on the basis of brain physiology that a child can learn a language better and quicker before he is ten years old. This statement is also supported by psychological findings, and an informant with limted experience can learn a language better than one with greater experience. An adult cannot learn a new language as quickly as a child can because in the former's case there is greater interference of the first language and the experiences he has developed through that language.

If you want to give a child a good command over a language start teaching him that lanugage as early as you can. He will learn it, however, later on too, but only with greater care, attention, and amount of labour and time.

(ii) Since language is a set of vocal symbols, the approach in the beginning should be aural - oral, i.e., hearing and saking should be the focal points in any method

adopted for beginners. This is the way how one learns one's native language, and the same method would be useful for a foreign language as well. The natural order is : hearing before speaking, speaking before reading, and reading before writing. A person who can hear can also speak and he will speak as he hears; a person who can speak well can read well, and a person who can speak and read well can write well. As are the habits of speech so will be the habits of writing.

(iii) As the components of a language are its phonologyh and grammar (Morophology and syntax), so learning a language does not mean learning the vocabulary of that language, but it implies a mastery of the sound system (vowel and consonant sounds, stress, pitch, and intonation) of that language and a mastery of the structure of that lanugage, which implies a command over the use of those features of arrangement of words and use of function words that are characteristic of that language and convey meanings. vocabulary in the beginning would be strictly limited and confined only to those words that are essential for operating the structures. To quote Dr. Charles Fries, A person has *learned a foreign language when he has thus, first, within a limitd vocabulary mastered the sound system (that is, when he can understand the stream of speech and achieve and understandable production of it) and has, second, made the structural devices (that is, the basic arrangement of utterances) matters of automatic habit.*

(iv) Since language is habit, sufficient practice should be given to children to acquire and confirm language habits. Drills would be very much useful and should form a very important feature of methods of teaching.

(v) As languages change, children should be taught that form of language which is in use.

(vi) Rules of grammar are descriptions about the language. So grammatical rules and paradigms cannot be helpful in teaching a language. A child should be taught language first before he is asked to learn rules about its functioning.

(vii) Like grammar, translation has also no place at the initial stages. Translation is a special mental exercise and a person who knows two languages may not be a good translator. Besides, translation is an ability that a student after learning a language may aspire to acquire ; it is not a teaching method. The traditional translation grammar method is frequently criticised on this very ground as well.

(viii) Writing is a secondary representation of language, and consequently, should come last. After a child has learnt the language, the problem of writing is only a problem of transfer from speech to hand. If speech habits are good, writing habits will also be good.

(ix) Since no single word in a language has an exactly corresponding word in any other language, it is not wise to use the method of translation indiscriminately. In the language of Eskimos, for example, there are as many as twenty words for snow ; in English there are not so many, in Tamil still a less number. The reason is obvious : the entire physical environment of the Eskimos is predominantly of snow and they use it in different forms and different ways ; most of the people in plains in India have not even seen snow ; all that they know is ice and for Tamilians only one word serves the purpose in all situations.

(x) Since language is a learned form of behaviour you can teach language to a child by giving him opportunities to use the language. To a child you cannot teach cycling or swimming or walking or running by talking about these. It is only when he does these different activities that he gradually comes to learn them. Proficiency comes only through constant practice. In the beginning much care is needed to give necessary assistance and gudiance. Later on a learner can help himself and he can acquire greater proficiency by practice.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING SITUATION

India is a country with many languages. In any multilingual society, decisions have to be made about the roles of the language to be used in communication.

It is an accepted fact that an individual can function best through the language which he acquires naturally, as a part of the process of growing up : usually, this is called the mother tongue. The social aspirations of the people can be fulfiled best when they are allowed to function through the mother tongue. It is quite natural, therefore, to think of using the mother tongue for such public purposes as education. However, in the interest of national integration, it is necessary to have a common language for the whole country. For a multilingual country, it is a different problem to reconcile to the use of the regional languages with that of a common language.

For several hundred years, English has functioned as a common language for this country. But even before independence, the rulers of the country had to make certain decisions about the uses of English and that of the Indian languages.

Lord Macaulay,in his famous Minutes of1935,recommended the use of English in education. For him, the basic objective seemed to be the revival and improvement of literature and the promotion

of the knowledge of the sciences. However, Macaulay realised the impossibility of educating millions of Indians through English. He wanted the creation of a small class of indians who could refine the Indian languages and make them fit vehicles for the transmission of Western knowledge and scientific attitude among the Indian people : but this small elite group was to receive. Western knowledge through the Western language - English.

Although Macaulay 's Minutes decided the context and medium of education, the problem of the dissemination of education still remained unsolved. Sir Charles Wood 's Despatch of 1854 noted that while English could be a suitable medium at the higher level of education, instruction at the lower levels would have to be through Indian languages. However, as entry to the university would depend on a sound knowledge of English, the secondary schools adopted English as the medium of instruction for Natural Sciences and Mathematics. This resulted in the rapid growth of secondary and university education, particularly in the towns and cities, and neglect of primary education, particularly in the rural areas. Realising this, the Hunter Education commission of 1882 recommended that priority be given to primary education through Indian languages. Lord Curzon 's Resolution of 1904 declared the extension of primary education to be the duty of the state.

With the attainment of independence, the role of English in our education as well as in our national life came to be seriously questioned. It became apparent that English could not continue to occupy the privileged position it had been occupying under the British. There was a lot of controversy over the status of English in the changed context and the dust raised by that controversy has not settled down yet. It is unfortunate that many of our leaders equated English with an instrument of colonial exploitation and saw it as a shameful badge of our slavery. Worked up by this conviction, and in some cases guided by the political motive of gaining cheap popularity with the masses, they raised a great hue and cry to banish English log, stock, and barrel from the Indian soil. However, wise counsel preveiled and the continued use of English for the following purposes seems to have been recognised by all.

a) As a national link language

b) As an international link language

c) As library language

ENGLISH AS A NATIONAL LINK LANGUAGE

The Constitution of India, adopted in 1950 had envisaged Hindi as the only official language of the Union of India and English was to continue for 15 years from the date of adoption of the Constitution. This was vehemently opposed by the southern States. As a result, Parliament enacted in 1963 the Official Languages Act, 1963, providing for continued use of English for an indefinite period. Prime Minister Nehru also assured the southern States that English would continue to be the Associate Official Language until such time as the non Hindi States agree to accept Hindi as the only official language of the country.

Besides being the Associate Official Language for Inter State communication and communication between the States and the Centre, English is the only language which is understood by the educated people all over the country. Without English, both official and private communication between many parts of the country will be completely cut off. In this connection, the clear and emphatic opinion of Jawarhalal Nehru is worth quoting : If you put 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 unifying factor being pushed out without another unifying factor fully taking its place. In that event there will be a gap, a hiatus. The creation of any such gap or hiatus must be avoided at all costs. It is very vital to do so in the interest of the unity of the country. It is this that leads me to the conclusion that English is likely to have an important place in the foreseeable future.

The Indian Education Commission (1964 -66) has also recommended the continuance of English in the interest of national integration and for higher academic work. It is therefore apparent that English must continue as a national link language for quite some time to come.

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LINK LANGUAGE

English is the most widely spoken language in the world. It is the mother tongue of more than 320 million people and another 200 million use it as their second language. Until recently it was believed that Chinese, which was supposed to be the mother tongue of over 700 million people, had the largest number of speakers in the world. But it has now come to light that Chinese consists of a number of mutually unintelligible dialects and Mandarin Chinese, the Official language and the most widely spoken variety, can claim no more than about 400 million speakers. English therefore occupies the unique position of being the language used by the largest number ofpeople in the world. But the more significant aspect of English is its distribution. While Chinese is confined only to the Chinese sub-continent, English is spread throghout the globe. Apartfrom being the native or the first language in countries as widely apart as the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Australia, Canada. New Zealand and South Africa, English is an important second language almost everywhere in the world. Even in India it is not only a popular second language but also the mother-tongue of a small Indian community, the Anglo-Indians. According to the 1971 census nearly two thousand Indians use English as their mother - tongue. Besides, quite a few Indian states and Union Territories. viz, Nagaland, Meghalaya, Arunachal pradesh, mizoram and Sikkim, have adopted English as the official language. Mr. M.C. Chagla, when he was chief justice of the Bombay High Court, once ruled that English was an Indian language, and the Supreme Court upheld this judgement. The Sahitya Academy of India recognizes English as one of the Indian languages; and Jawaharlal Nehru even wanted to include it in the Eight Schedule of the Constitution, thus giving it statutory recognition as an Indian language.

The same situation obtains in many countries in Asia and Africa where English is not spoken as a native language. Even

in countries like Russia and China the demand for learning English as an important foreign language is increasing . In Italy, the birth-place of most of the languages of continental Europe, there is now a strong movement make English an associate official language of the country.

Because of this great popularity and world wide distribution. English has the pre-eminent claim to be the medium of international communication. In fact, English can be still aptly called as the Interplanet Language. English has ceased to be the language of its native speakers only - it has already attained the stature of a world language. If a person knows English, he is sure to be understood anywhere in the world. With the tremendous advance in modern transport and communication systems, the world is growing smaller and smaller. Today we are in closer contact with the different parts of the world than our forefathers could even dream of. To express our views in the comity of nations and to develop trade, commerce and diplomatic relations with other countries we need to have a common medium of communication. A common language is also a great cementing force, for it is through a mutually intelligible language that nations can better understand each other.

English is therefore going to play an important role in world affairs and it will be to our own advantage if we continue to learn English as an important foreign language.

VIEWS OF KOTHARI EDUCATION COMMISSION (1964 -66)

ENGLISH AS LIBRARY LANGUAGE

Whatever has been said in Kothari Education commission Report regarding the place of English is perfectly true because they have taken into consideration its present position in the country. The point is that at present eveybody is talking against this language. The conditions prevailing in the schools are not favourable. The politicians, the parents and the public in general are saying not about this language.

Their inner desire is to uproot this language from the country. So many teachers are seen finding faults with the students. Sometimes they say that is next to impossible to show good results in English. The authorities have also expressed the view that it would be difficult to progress without the knowledge of English. So Kothari Education commission has suggested that English should be made a library language in our country. That way, our scholars who are doing advanced studies in the field of Scienc, medicine, Engineering etc, will be able to consult library books. Advanced knowledge and excellent literature of the world lie in books which are in English. Indian readers must have atleast as much knowledge of English as is required to understand those books lying in the library. without the study of English books, there can be every possibility of duplication in labour. Only the study of English books reveals the degree of advancement that has taken place so far in the world. Our scholars by the study of those books, can acquaint themselves fully with the subject matter and they may think of going ahead in that direction or a new era of researchers may be found out by them.

Thus Kothari Education commission has said that if we cannot learn English as a living language in our country, in that case it would be rather advisable to make it a library language. In fact, making English a library language in the country will be nothing short of accepting defeat in the teaching-learning of this language.

By library language,we mean that the learners must study that much English which should help them tounderstand the subject matter contained in library books.They may not even acquire the ability of writing nicely in correct English. But they must learn English which should ensure them comprehension of the reading material.So the ultimate aim here is to teach reading. Now the question ariseswhether reading can be taught without starting with speech. No, it is not possible. For all purposes, we must begin with speech. practice in listening is needed which will help in speaking. Speech is important for learning reading of the language. The ability to recognise the written symbols, comes through

continuous practice and for reading out those very symbols, speech is required. So, by starting with speech, language should be learnt and the ultimate aimshould be reading with comprehension. Only then a person will be able to use English as a library language.

English is, therefore, an important language and it must be studied. A few words from Kothari Education Commission Report are worth quoting. English as an important library language would play vital role in higher education. No student should be considered as qualified for a degree, in particular, a Master 's degree unless he has acquired a resonable proficiency in English.

So it is a decided fact that English is an important library language. If some people say that it is a difficult language and hence cannot be taught well in our country, it is their fault, their weakness. As a teacher of English I am of the opinion that English can be taught and it should be taught as a living language in the country. If all teachers of English determine and fight against the bad situation, there is no reason why they will not be able to succeed in this direction. The newly evolved approaches may be made use of and by applying sincere and honest efforts, the English language can be taught as it should be taught for its success and bright future in the country.

WORK SHEET

ACTIVITY – 1

Every language is unique. Illustrate

ACTIVITY – 2

Learning a language is a matter of habit formation. Discuss briefly.

ACTIVITY – 3

State clearly the causes which impel us to retain English in Indian curriculum.

ACTIVITY – 4

Assign a suitable role to English language in India under the prevailing situation.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answer to each question. Tick mark the one you feel is the correct.

1. Language is a system of systems because

   (a) Language is the product of society and culture.

   (b) Language goes on changing.

   (c) Language is a skill subject.

   (d) Language is a system in which phonology, morpho–logy and syntax and they themselves from their own systems.

2. English has been given the status of the Associate Official Language of the country, because

   (a) English is a foreign language.

   (b) We had so many years of intimate contact with English.

   (c) English is a world language.

   (d) English is a world language.

3. If you push English, there will be a dangerous gap of one unifying factor being pushed out without another unifying factor fully talking its place. These popular words are of

   (a) Mahatma Gandhi

   (b) Jawaharlal Nehru

   (c) Dr. Radhakrishnan

   (d) Dr. Kothari

4. The suggesion that English should be made a library language in our country was made by

   (a) University Education Commission

   (b) Secondary Education Commission

   (c) Kothari Education Commission

   (d) Study Group on the Teaching of English

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Language learning is acquisition of skills. Discuss.
2. What is the place of English in India today ? Does it clash with the development of regional languages ?
3. What are your arguments for and against the teaching of English as a Library language in India ?

SUGGESTED REFERENCE BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Baruah, T.C. The English Teacher's Handbook, New Delhi : Sterling Publishers Ltd., 1988.
2. French F.G. The Teaching of English Abroad - Part I. London: OUP, 1969.
3. Lado, R. Language Teaching - a Scientific Approach, New Delhi : Tata McGrawHill Publishing Co. Ltd., 1974.

LESSON – 2

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, the trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

(i) describe the inevitable process of learning a native language

(ii) list the disadvantages of a second language learner.

(iii) explain the purpose of learning English as a second language.

(iv) identify learning English as a skill rather than a knowledge of the subject.

TEACHING ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE

The teaching of language is a very complicated process. We are not conscious of the problem in the case of our mother tongue. When we start teaching little names of objects to our children before they are three years old, or a little later when we begin asking them to repeat short meaningful units, we are not conscious that we are teaching them language. The child also does not know that he is learning language. At the age, he is not conscious of what he is saying or doing. Nevertheless the process of teaching and learning is there thought neither the one who teaches nor the one who learns is conscious of what one or the other is trying to do. It is all so natural for the grown up members of the family to play and talk with infants and little children and let various situations come up in which the latter catch the language. The habits in other tongue are acquired and confirmed quite unconsciously and by the time a child comes to the age when he becomes conscious of what he is doing he has already learnt his mother tongue and he can express his ideas

and feelings to others and can understand theirs. The courses in mother tongue in schools are not designed, therefore to teach the youngster language rather. they give him greater proficiency in the use of language by increasing his experiences and the necessary vocabularly to communicate them to others. The fundamental items of the structure of the language which mean a command over the sound system and form and arrangement of words and the use of function words if it is a characteristic of the language, are all mastered by the child before he starts getting formal lessons in school. hence it is not a problem for the teacher of mother tongue to select and arrange the material in mother tongue and to present that to the child scientifically so as to give him a command over the language. His problem in this respect boils down to helping the child increase his experience and vocabulary, develop reading habits and read extensively and acquire greater and greater facility in speech and writing. The problem of the teacher of a foreign language is, however, different. In stating this we have the formal teaching of a foreign language in mind. There might be some bilingual people in the world in the sense that they learnt the two languages simultaneously and in a similar way. They are exceptions, however. Usually the teaching of a foreign language is a formal affair - a business of some formal educational agency, the school for example, where the teaching of the language has to be taken up with definite objectives and the material and methods of teaching are scientifically selected and adopted to acquire the desired objectives with economy of time and acccuracy of performance. A child may have an atmosphere and facilities for learning a foreign language at home, but in that case too, the teaching and learning activities would have to be formally taken up by which we mean recognition of certain objectives and working up material and methods to reach the goals. This is how we distinguish between teaching a mother tongue and teaching a foreign language. A mother tongue is caught, not taught; a foreign language is taught so that it can be caught. The process of learning, however, in both the cases is the same. A child is to hear first before he can speak and speak before he can read, and read before he can write.

TEACHING A SECOND LANGUAGE AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE – DIFFERENCE IN THE STRATEGIES

WHY TEACH ENGLISH ?

What is the case for the learning of English ? This has been discussed so often that any repetition may seem odious; but without such discussion, a clear understanding of what is involved in the teaching of English will not be possible.

First, we in India are concerned today with English as a mode of communication or as a record and expression of literary and cultural values, or both. When Lord Macaulay advocated the propagation of English in this country, he seemed to be concerned more with the culture represented by the language than with the use of the language in communication. he failed to make a distinction between the way a society makes use of its first language, and the way it uses all the additional languages that it is obliged to adopt for reasons of convenience. The first language becomes the natural medium for all introspective thinking, for all creative or cultural expression. Since the communicative function of this language is almost taken for granted, its uses for intellectual activity becomes more pronounced. but any additional language which the society adopts - either viluntarily or under pressure - remains primarily a vehicle for communication of rather practical kinds. It was hoped by Lord Macaulay that the Indians - some of them, atleast - would take to the English language naturally and learn to use it in the same way as native speakers of language; that English would serve the cultural functions which a mother tongue normally serves, and be more than just a mode of communication. The tendency was to think of English as the first language for its Indian learners, nearly the same as that adopted in England. This is why the study of English literature began to be emphasised - not as an aid to the learning of the language but as a valuable intellectual and cultural discipline in itself. Learning the skills of the language for purposes of communications was never seen as the primary objective in the teaching of English. If the teaching of English in India has remained unsatisfactory, it is largely because of this failure to see English an additional language, to be learnt entirely

for its practical benefits and language, some of which were available long before the modern reforms began, were never given a fair trail. The teaching of English has remained doctrinaire and idealistic to this day.

Even now, many people refuse to see clearly that our decisions in regard to the teaching and learning of English must be based entirely on practical considerations and should not be clouded over by emotion. We in this country have developed a unique love - hate relationship with the English language. To some, it is a disgraceful relic of our slavery which must be banished at one. There are other who still feel, as Raja Ram mohan Roy felt, that India's progress and modernity is forever linked to the English language. Some people feel that today English should be treated as just a foreign language, like French or Russian ; in face, some of them would prefer, as a relation to two centuries of enforced learning of English to learn Chinese rather than English. There are others who proclaim that English is as much a language of the Indian people as Hindi or marathi, and should be treated at par with them.

Both these are extreme. The fact is that in India, English is something more than a foreign languge and something less than a second language. it has more users and many more uses, than a foreign language has. At the same time, the predominant role which English has in many areas of communication is gradually being taken overby other language. Both these facts must be considered in the plans for the teaching and learning English. The strategy for learning second languages is different from that adopted for learning foreign language. In the first place, second languages have to be taught on a more extensive scale, to much larger numbers, since they are likely to be used by many more people. A foreign language, on the other hand, need to be learnt and taught only on a milited scale. Further, the people who do make use of a foreign language are rarely required or expected to use it as well as they can use a first language. If a foreigner seaks to you in your language, you are usually so flattered that you pardon him most of his mistakes. You do not except him to speak perfectly -but you are

agreeably surprised if he does. In a foreign language, one seldom requires all the four skills. A scientist working in a theoretical field may, for example, need to be able to read in that language; a technician deputed to a foreign country and required to work with semiskilled labour may have no use for the skills of reading but will certainly require the speech skills. Therefore, in teaching the foreign language, some scale of priorities has to be decide on for teaching the communication skills, and this may be varied according to the requirements of the learners.

The learner of a second language, on the other hand, should ideally - be able to use it as effectively for communication as he uses his first language. We say that the aim of second language teaching is to produce bilinguals who are almost ambilinguals (people who command two languages equally well). Of course, it is seldom possible to attain this goal ; but clearly, the learning and teaching of second languages need to be highly intensive, more so than of foreign languages. As all the four skills are likely to be required in the second language, a multi - skill approach has to be adopted in teaching it.

However, it has to be recognised that English will, in future, be called upon to lay a more restricted and more specialised role than hitherto assigned to it. Though it will not be the dominant language, (to quote the extent that it has been in the past) it will be irreplaceable in at least one of its functions - that of a library language. *(A library language is one which is in use primarily for purposes of reference, in all the spheres of education. With the almost complete replacement of English as the medium of istruction, it is already the recognised library language and is likely to remain so for quite some time to come).*

This implies that the skills of reading (and to a lesser extent, writing) may have to be more strongly emphasised than the speech skills. If English were required only as the library language then one could minimise, but not eliminate, the learning of the other skills except reading - but such is not the case. As Jawaharlal Nehru

has rightly pointed out, English occupies a rather unique position. To quote his words which are relevant even now : *Obviously, without going into the merits of various foreign languages, English is more convenient for us than French, german, Russian or Spanish, ... and a part from the fact that English has a background in India which should be nourished and the fact that English is a very important and very great language, spoken by a great many people all over the world, ... it is clear that if we want a foreign language, English in the circumstances is the most convenient one for us.*

AIMS OF TEACHING ENGLISH – A SKILL BASED APPROACH

When we talk about the teaching of a certain language we have in mind certain skills that we want our children to develop and an acquisition and command of which gives them the necessary ability to use the language for expressing their ideas in speech and in writing and to understand others when expressed through both these media. In general, therefore, the aims of teaching any language may be broadly categorised under two heads, viz., understanding the language when spoken or written, and expressing one's thoughts, feelings and ideas in speech as well as in writing. The four abilities, viz.

(i) understanding language when spoken,

(ii) understanding it when written,

(iii) expressing through speech other's thoughts and ideas, and

(iv) expressing through writing what one thinks and feels,

are the fundamental aims that deserve consideration when a discussion is held of teaching a language. There is a fifth aim as well, the cultural aim as it is called, which relates to

acquisition and development of a taste for literature in that language and all that is found in the form of prose, poetry, drama, etc. But study of literature is not a fundamental aim of teaching a language and as has been discussed in the previous chapter, literature is only one of the functions of language, which implies that a study of literature, though a desirable objective, is not be desired objective in teaching a language.

The aims of teaching a language, like those of teaching any other subject, are not absolute goals towards the realisation of which one must assiduously make efforts. The aims are in all situations to be relevant to the needs and demands of those situations as well as the need and capacities of the learners. Aims of teaching a subject do not have any inherent worth of their won so as to be pursued for their own sake. From a practical point of view aims are specific activities that are to be pursued for enabling the learners to obtain the desired outcomes which would equip them for certain specific purposes in life. That is why we mentioned in the beginning of the chapter that our teaching of English has suffered because we have failed to define our aims clearly. We do undoubtedly lay them down for other and hear and talk about them in formal and informal meetings of teachers and educationists but we seldom attemt to analyse what all that discussion means for practical purposes and how it goes to help a classroom teacher. A bare enumeration of the four fundamental skills in the teaching and learning of a language does not help the teacher or the learner as a mere enumeration of the four fundamental rules of arithmetic does not help the teacher of arithmetic to teach and the student to learn arithmetic.

A discussion of the four skills with regard to language learning might be useful in respect to the teaching of English in India as well. We have stated earlier in this chapter that though English does not occupy today the privileged position that is used to occupy previously, yet in social and political life, it has even now good *market,* if not any other value (though it has several others as well). A good command of the English language carries even

now a good prestige with it and it opens vast opportunities to a person in various walks of life. whosoever, therefore, chooses to learn English must learn it well. He might not decide to study English and choose to follow other courses which his interests and abilities permit him to do, but once he has decided to study English he must learn it well, if he has to benefit from its study. In other words, a student who has offered English and has a desire to study it must acquire all the skills in using the language so that he can derive beneift out of all the labour he puts in and the time he devotes to learn the language. There are people who believe that for Indian students all that is necessary is to acquire a passive knowledge of English, which means an ability to understand English, when spoken or written and that a second language, since it has in all countries of the world a secondary place, should not be taught for giving an active command of it. such a conviction might be very true in the case of English in India, specially in the context of modern situation. We do not say that all students should be taught English and they should acquire an active command over it, but we do emphasise that whosoever are taught English must be taught in such a way that they acquire an active command over the language.

A foreign languagein England, whether it is French, or any other language, or a foreign language in U.S.A., whether it is Spanish or French or German or any other, does not have the same status and importance in those countries as English has at present in India, not from any other point except that it is still being used for many purposes and it has yet the supreme monopoly as compared with any other Indian language of presenting higher and advanced courses in many branches of science, technology, engineering, medicine, etc. With the gradual introduction of regional languages as media of instruction at the university stage, it is certain that the importance of English will slowly and slowly diminish, yet it is observable at present that there still are several universities and very prestigious ones, that still use English as medium of instruction and propose to continue with it until such time when the switch - over to regional languages would not lower the standards. The discipline of English and its potential do guarantee a certain level of academic standards and though we do

not present any move to switch over to regional languages, we do very sincerely believe that such a switch - over should not be carried out in a mood of linguistic frenzy or political game. The academic value of the subject and its usefulness to our youths should be clearly recognised before slashing it outright. A good command over the English language for those who study it is not a matter of convention or any dogmatic belief, but is a matter of sheer necessity. To those who believe that a merely perfunctory knowledge of English would give them a chance to pass the examination or might help them in some way, we shall argue to advise that their views are unscientific and impractical and that they would utilise their energies and time better by devoting them to some other studies than fritter them away in trying to acquire a scrappy hold over the language.

The situation today is that quite a good many parents and students want to learn English and learn it well, because they know that the learning of English might be useful for them. If that is the position our schools must have an adequate programme so long as the situation remains unchanged. This implies that they should attempt to give boys and girls an active command of the English language and develop suitable materials and tools so that it could be possible. The first step in that direction would be to attemt an analysis from the practical point of view of the basic skills that they would aim at giving. We shall discuss in a separate chapter how the four skills are related to each other, and how acquisition of one skill facilitates acquisition of others. Suffice it to mention here that in the process of learning a language it would be futile to separate the fundamental abilities in respect of language - learning into any water - tight compartments. We have not only to recognise that these abilities are important, but have also to realize that they are inter-related, and proficiency in one is dependent upon, and also so leads to, proficiency in others.

The general aims of teaching English would, therefore, for the moment, be not other than those relating to the teaching of a language which has practical value from social, political, cultural, and economic points of view, which means that for several years to come English has to be taught to children for giving them a fairly good command of the language ; What does that mean ?

The following chart should make the point clear :

Aims

Understanding (Receptive)		Expression (Productive)	
Spoken English	Written English	in speech	in writing
Passive Command		Active Command	

Development of the following abilities in general :

1. Listening properly.
2. Associating with meaning what is heard.
3. Responding properly to what one hears.

1. Ability to read in proper meaningful unit and understanding what one reads.
2. Reading with speed and without misunderstanding.
3. Reading with proper pauses, intonation, etc.
4. Ability to assimilate thoughts while reading.

This ability includes the following :

1. Speaking with an accetable pronunciation of sounds and stress, pitch, and intonation.

2. Speaking with accuracy and fluency.

This implies mastery of the mechanics of writing, e.g., spelling, punctuation, paragraphing, etc., and writing legibly, clearly, coherently, and purposefully.

Observing the above chart carefully we can come to the conclusion that a mere enumeration of the general aims of teaching English would not be enough and that from a practical point of view, we shall have to examine each aim in terms of the abilities that we would like our children to develop. The following abilities are significant in the context under reference.

1. *Listening Properly :* Recognition of the sounds, ability to distinguish between distinct sound units, proper training of the ear.

2. *Speaking Properly :* Speaking with clear pronunciation, articulation, and with proper stress, pitch, and intonation that should be acceptable, also speaking with accuracy and fluency.

3. *Reading Properly and building up reading habits :* Reading with intelligence, effectiveness, expressiveness, and purpose; also reading with proper pauses, acceptable pronunciation, and intonation; reading loudly as well as silently with comprehension, building up good reading habit and acquiring a taste for reading.

4. *Writing accurately and legibly :* Mastering the machanics of writing, formation of letters spelling and punctuation, and writing neatly and legibly.

5. *Speaking and writing abilities* involve, in addition to speaking properly and writing correcly, th following.

   i) Speaking and writing distinctly and also coherently and systmatically.

ii) Selecting right words, phrases, structures, etc., to express what one wants to express so as to avoid misunderstanding and ambiguity.

iii) Encouraging precision, which means using language in such a way that what one says or writes has meaning, and there are no unnecessary repetitions either in language forms or in thought sequence.

6. *Translation from English into mother - tongue and vice versa :*

The ability to translate is not a part of language learning process. It is a separate skill. Nevertheless, for a child who is learning a second language, the ability to translate is an important skill. It depends upon training pupils to compare the structures of two languages and selecting proper words and phrases to express the same idea in different languages without changing the meaning and through a similar structure. Literal translation is never possible, nor is it desirable. a vigorous attempt to do that brings up such ridiculous expressions as for *An old man kicked the bucket.* As has been mentioned in the previous lesson, the meaning that we give to the language symbols and the way we use them are all evolved in the context of our respective cultures and therefore any attempt to find a word - to - word or phrase - to - phrase correspondence would yield only such ridiculous results as the on quoted above and would defeat the essential purpose of teaching translation. The real purpose is to enable students to avoid too much licence in the use of structures and words and translate as faithfully as they can, from one language into another.

For the development of the above - mentioned abilities, two points in general have to be stated here clearly, viz., (i) a teacher should know how and with what materials and tools he can enable his pupils to acquire a particular ability, and (ii) in what respects the different abilities are depedent upon each other and how, and in what order, they are to be developed to avoid wastage and also

to secure economy of time or energy or both. Both these problems are related to a discussion of the approach to teaching English and since the discussion requires a critical scrutiny we defer it to a separate lesson.

We shall conclude with a classification of different areas of Language Competence that was proposed by the psychologist John Carroll. He proposed a two - way classification (Table) which indicates boxes or cells. Each cell suggests a distinctive class of sub - skills or objectives.

Table : A

SIMPLIFIED VERSION OF CARROLL'S CHART OF LINGUISTIC COMPETENCES

	Spoken Language		Written Language	
Skills	Receptive	Productive	Receptive	Productive
Levels	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Phonology / Orthography				
Grammer				
Lexicon (Semantics)				

In this table, the columns represent the four possible modes or channels of language activity – listening, speaking, reading and writing. The rows represent rule - governed features of language designated as levels. Each of the twelve cells thus indicates a particular combination - of a level of the rules of the language and the skill dimension primarily involved. We can only say (primarily because writing involves some reading, and speaking involves some listening) for learners who are virtual beginners, a language syllabus normally covers most of the areas suggested by the 12 cells. Of course there is usually no one - to - one correspondence between these cells and various units of a first course in English (or French or Hindi) as a foreign language. The objectives that may be generated from these cells should account for large chunks for layers of a typical language syllabus.

It is important to note here that the Table as it stands is only an inventory : it does not have built into it any developmental sequences or scale of priorities. Its usefulness lies in the clarity and precision that it both facilitates and demands in the statement of objectives. Given these 12 distinguishable cells, the objectives that are generated should also be distinguishable one form the other. These objectives in turn should indicate specific types of task or item. Having this Table as a frame work thus gives us a much finer set of categories to work with than grammar items or vocabulary items which are almost conventional.

WORK SHEET

ACTIVITY – 1

Differentiate between the learning of mother - tongue and learning English as a second language.

ACTIVITY – 2

Mother tongue can help or create difficulties in Teaching of English in India - give suitable examples.

ACTIVITY – 3

Suggest some activities to develop the four major skills in English among the high school students.

.....

ACTIVITY – 4

Is the learning of English more like the learning of

(a) History (b) Swimming.

Give the examples in support of your answer.

SELF – CHECK

1. In the Indian context, English can be best called as the

   a) foreign language

   b) popular language

   c) second language

   d) ornamental language

2. The stimulant in the learning of mother tongue for a student will be

   a) less than that of a second language

   b) equal to that of second language

   c) greater than that of a second language

3. Learning English language is acquisition of

   a) listening skill

   b) speaking skill

   c) reading skill

   d) writing skill

   e) all the four

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the various factors to which a pupil 's facility in his mother tongue is attributed ?
2. Explain the purpose of learning English as the second language
3. What do you understand by reception and expression as the twin aims of teaching English ?

SUGGESTED REFERENCE BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Bright, J.A., and Mc Gregor, G.P., Teaching English as Second Language, Longman, 1976.
2. Hill, L.A., Selected Articles on the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language, 1967

LESSON – 3

STATING BEHAVIOURAL OBJECTIVES FOR CLASSROOM INSTRUCTION IN ENGLISH

OBJECTIVES

After reading this lesson, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i) differentiate between aims and objectives.

ii) define the general instructional objectives in terms of specific learning outcomes.

iii) identify the specific types of learning behaviour that are most appropriate for English.

OBJECTIVES : THE CORNER STONE OF INSTRUCTIONAL SYSTEM

Although some educators consider interest in objectives to be only a recent phenomenon, objectives were used in the Eight - year Study conducted in the 1930s. The objectives for the instructional programmes were written in behavioural objectives, and as World War II began, the project terminated with little notice. During the 1950s interest in objective writing was rekindled when Robert Mager published a programmed text describing how to write bahavioural objectives. his model continues to be used widely. According to Mager, a well - written objective has three components :

1. A specific objective written in terms that allow a teacher to watch the student and know when the objec tive has been mastered for example, *List the steps ...*

2. The conditions under which the behaviour is to occur (such as, *The student can use the textbook in listing the five steps ...)*

3. The criterion or degree to which the learner must perform the behaviour, for example, *List four of the five steps in a criterion test following the instructions.*

Mager believed that it was time for instructional technology to evolve from its audio - visual aids roots. using bahavioural objectives to design programmes with observable outcomes allowed materials to be revised or *programmed* until specified objectives were attained, which permitted a critical analysis of how well the instruction worker, that is , how the student's behaviour were changed. We believe a useful definition for learning is a *change of behaviour.*

Today, we continue to see interest in objectives at all levels of education from kindergarten to the twelfth grade to higher education as well as in business and industry training programmes. While there is no universal definition for the word *objective,* there is general recognition of the requirement to state measurable behaviour or the products of that behaviour. This widespread interest in objectives provides a cornerstone for the growth of instructional technology.

After an instructional problem has been examined, it is then possible to develop a set of objectives that further refine the problem. The broad objectives are called terminal objectives, while their subordinate elements are called enabling objectives. After the objectives have been written, it is then possible to logically specify instructional stategies.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES AS LEARNING OUTCOMES

Instructional objectives can be stated in many different ways. One common type of statement is in terms of what we,as teachers are going to do.Thus, we might have a statement like the following.

· *To demonstrate to students how to translate from the mother tongue to English.*

The difficulty with a statement like this is that it focuses attention on the teaching activity rather than on the learning outcomes to be attained by the students. Literally speaking, we have achieved the objective once we have completed the demonstration - whether or not the students have learned anything from it. A more fruitful way to state instructional objectives is in terms of the types of outcomes we expect from our teaching; therefore, after we demonstrate how to translate from mother tongue into English, we might expect a student to be able to do the following :

1. understand the vocabulary and structures used in the passage as a whole.
2. change words, phrases and sentences into functional equivalents in the language of translation.
3. add words that are necessary to make the structures functional in the target language.
4. omit words that are unnecessary for rendering the structures of the mother tongue into English and *vice versa*.

Note that when instructional objectives are stated in this manner, they direct attention to the student and the types of behaviour he is expected to exhibit as a result of the learning experience. Thus, our focus shifts from the teacher to the student and from the learning process to the learning outcomes. This shift in focus clarifies the intent of our instruction and sets the stage for an evaluation of that instruction.

The distinction between stating objectives in terms of what you are going to do as a teacher and stating them in terms of the learning outcomes you expect from your students is an important one. To check on your grasp of this distinction, look at the following two objectives and decide which one is stated as an expected learning outcome.

1. *instills an appreciation of the poem.*

2. *Visualises images in the poem.*

You should have selected the second objective, which clearly specifies how a student will demonstrate, at the end of the instructional period, that he has learned. Note that the statement begins with a verb that implies an activity on the part of the student. There is no need to add such refinement *as the student has the ability to visualise the student can visualise*. The less wordy the objective, the better. Our aim is to indicate clearly the intent of our instruction in terms of the type of behaviour (visualises) that the student is expected to show.

The word *instills* in the first statement implies that the teacher, not the student, is engaging himself in an activity. By omitting this word, you can restate this objective in terms of a learning outcome, as follows :

Appreciates the poem

Note that although this objective is now stated as an outcome, the term *appreciates* is much more general than the term *visualises*. To indicate clearly the intent of our instruction, it would be necessary to futher define this objective by listing the specific student behaviour we are willing to accept as evidence of their appreciation. This process of stating general objectives and then of further defining them in terms of specific statements of behaviour has some advantage over the use of single statements of objectives, as we shall see shortly. We can further clarify the meaning of *instructional objectives as learning outcomes* by taking a look at their role in the instructional process.

LEARNING OUTCOMES AND THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS

The relation of learning outcomes to the learning experiences provided during the teaching - learning phase of instruction is shown in the figure.

student TEACHING LEARNING	LEARNING OUTCOMES
PROCESS	(End products)
(learning experiences based	Knowledge understanding
on interaction of subject matter	Understanding
teaching methods, and	Thinking skills
instructional materials	Performance skills
	Computational skills
	Work study skills
	Social skills
	Attitudes
	Interests
	Appreciation
	Adjustments

FIGURE: Relation of Learning Outcomes to Learning Experiences

This diagram makes clear the fact that the learning experiences provided during the teaching- learning process are not ends in themselves but means to ends. The subject matter; the teaching method, and materials used in instruction are to be viewed as tools to bring about desired learning outcomes.

It should be apparent from the figure and from our discussion that the first step in instructional planning is to identify and define our instructional objectives as learning outcomes. That is, we want to indicate the types of performance (i.e. knowledge, understanding, skills , etc) students are expected to demonstrate when they have successfully completed a course of instruction.

Stating instructional objectives as learning outcomes contributes to the instructional process in the following ways:

1. It provides direction for the instructor, and it clearly conveys his instructional intent to others.
2. It provides a guide for selecting the subject matter, the teaching methods, and the materials to be used during instruction.
3. It provides a guide for constructing tests and other instruments for evaluating student achievement.

If the expected learning outcomes are conveyed to the student, these outcomes also serve as a guide for the student's learning activities both in and out of the classroom.

STATING INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES AS LEARNING OUTCOMES

As noted earlier, there are two ways of stating objectives as learning outcomes. One is to list the specific behaviour students are to exhibit at the end of the instructional period. For example, we might start a list as follows:

1. Defines each technical term in his own words.
2. Identifies the meaning of each technical term when used in context.
3. Distiguishes between technical terms that are similar in meaning.

A second method is to state first the general instructional objectives and then to clarify each objective by listing as sample of the specific behaviour we are willing to accepts as evidence of the attainment of that objective. This procedure would result in statements such as the following :

1. Understanding the meaning of technical terms.

   1.1 Defines the term in his own words.

   1.2 Identifies the meaning of the term when used in context.

   1.3 Distinguishes between term that are similar in meaning.

Note that the specific behavioural statements are the same in both instances. The first list, however, implies that these behavioural statements are ends in themselves and that instruction is to be given directly in the specified behaviour. For example, we teach a student to define a technical term in his own words, then, to test his achievement of the outcome, we ask him to define the technical term in his own words. This one-to-one relationship between the behaviour taught and the behaviour tested is characteristic of the training level and is widely used in programmed instruction. For regular classroom instruction, however, this procedure is useful only for teaching the simplest skills and the lowest level of knowledge.

Stating the general instructional objective first and then clarifying it further by listing the types of specific behaviour that characterise the objective is more than a matter of literary form. This procedure makes clear that the instructional objective is understanding and not defining, identifying, or distinguishing between. These latter types of behaviour are simply samples of the types of performance that represent understanding. A different sample of specific types of behaviour could serve equally well. For example, we might list the following types of behaviour instead of those cited earlier.

1. Understands the meaning of technical terms.

   1.1 Relates technical terms to the concepts they represent.

   1.2 Uses each term in an original sentence.

   1.3 points out similarities and differences between terms.

Note that the instructional objective is still understanding. We have merely listed a new sample of specific types of behaviour to characterize what is meant by the statement understands the meaning of technical terms. It would be impossible to list all types of behaviour that might show understanding: therefore, we must settle for a representative sample of the types of behaviour that describe the goal.

STATING THE SPECIFIC LEARNING OUTCOMES

Our task now is to define in terms of specific student behaviour what is meant by each of these general outcomes. Unless the general objectives are further defined in this manner, they will convey only a fuzzy notion of the learning outcomes to be expected from the instruction.

OBTAINING A REPRESENTATIVE SAMPLE OF BEHAVIOUR

It is obvious that simple knowledge and skill objectives would require fewer behavioural statements then more complex ones. In fact, some of the more complex objectives, such as critical thinking, encompass such a large number of specific types of behaviour that only a relatively small proportion of them can be listed. All we can reasonably expect is a fairly representative sample of the types of behaviour that the students are expected to

demonstrate when they have satisfactorily achieved the goal.

Let's examine a list of specific learning outcomes for such a complex objective as the following :

Uses critical thinking skills in reading.

1. Distinguishes between facts and opinions.
2. Distinguishes between facts and inferences.
3. Identifies cause - effect relations.
4. Identifies errors in reasoning.
5. Distinguishes between relevant and irrelevant arguments.
6. Distinguishes between warranted and unwarranted generalisation.
7. Formulates valid conclusions from written material.
8. Specifies assumptions needed to make conclusions true.

Although this list of types of specific behaviour is by no means complete, a careful reading of the statements will provide a fairly good indication of what students are like when they are able to use critical thinking skills in reading. Thus, this list is comprehensive enough to clarify the instructional intent and short enough to be manageable and useful.

This list of types of specific behaviour is, of course, intended only to indicate the approximate number of items needed to clarify the goal. The specific statements of behaviour would vary with the nature of the subject to be taught and with the grade level at which the instruction is give. For example, a science teacher would probably include some statements concerned with interpretation of charts, graphs, and experimental data; on the other hand, an English teacher would be apt to include statements regarding the interpretation of the tone, mood, and literary quality of books. Similarly, an elementary teacher would be likely to state fewer and simpler specific types of behaviour.

USING THE TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

One of the most helpful guides in identifying and defining instructional objectives is the taxonomy of Educational objectives (Bloom, 1956; Krathwohl, 1964). The taxonomy provides a classification of educational objectives that is analogous to the classification scheme used for plants and animals. It consists of a set of general and specific categories that encompasses all ossible learning outcomes that might be expected from instruction. The classification system was developed by psycholgists, teachers and test experts for use in curriculum development, teaching and testing. Because the system is based on the assumption that learning outcomes can be best described in terms of changes in student behaviour, it is especially useful to teachers who are attempting to state their instructional objectives to behavioural terms.

The taxonomy is divided into three parts :

1) The congitive domain,

2) The affective domain, and

3) The psychomotor domain.

The congitive domain includes ourcomes such as knowledge, understanding and thinking skills. The affective domain includes those objectives that emphasise feeling and emotion such as interests, attitudes, appreciation and methods of adjustment. The psychomotor domain includes those objectives that emphasise motor skills such as handwriting, typing swimming and operating machinery.

Given below are the descriptions of the major categories in the congitive domain, followed by the examples of General Instructional Objectives and behavioural Terms for the Congitive Domain of the Taxonomy.

Table I : Major Categories in the Cognitive Domain of the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom, 1956).

DESCRIPTION OF THE MAJOR CATEGORIES IN THE COGNITIVE DOMAIN :

1. *Knowledge :* Knowledge is defined as the remembering of previously learned material. This may involve the recall of a wide range of material, from specific facts to complete theories, but all that is required is the bringing to the mind appropriate information. Knowledge represents the lowest level of learning outcomes in the cognitive domain.

2. *Comprehension :* Comprehension is defined as the ability to grasp the meaning of material. This may be shown by translating material from one form to another (words to numbers) by interpreting material (explaining or summarising) and by estimating trends (predicting consequences or effects). These learning outcomes go one step beyondthe simple remembering of material and represent the lowest level of understanding.

3. *Application :* Application refers to the ability to use learned material in new and concrete situations. This may include the application of such things as rules, method, concepts, principles, laws and theories. learning outcomes in this area require a higher level of understanding than those under comprehension.

4. *Analysis :* Analysis refers to the ability to break down material into its component parts so that its organizational structure may be understood. This may include the identification of the parts, analysis of the relationships between parts and recognition of the organizational principles involved. Learning outcomes here represent a higher intellectual level than comprehension and application because they require an understanding of both the context and the structural form of the material.

5. *Synthesis :* Synthesis refers to the ability to put some parts together to form a new whole. This may involve the production of a unique communication (theme or speech), a plan or operation (research proposal), or a set of abstract relation (scheme for classifying information). Learning outcomes in this area stress creative behaviours, with major emphasis on the formulation of new pattern or structures.

6. *Evaluation :* Evaluation is concerned with the ability to judge the value of material (statement, novel, poem, research report) for a given purpose. The judgements are to be based on defind criteria. These may be internal criteria (organization) or external criteria (relevance to the purpose) and the student may determine the criteria or be given them. Learning outcomes in this area are the highest in the congitive hierarchy because they contain elements of all of the other categories, plus conscious value judgements based on clearly defined criteria.

Table II : Examples of General Instructional Objectives and Behavioural Terms for the Cognitive Domain of the Taxomony.

Illustrative General Instructionl Objectives	Illustrative Behavioural Terms for Stating Specific Learning Outcomes
Knows common terms Knows specific facts Knows methods and procedures Knows basic concepts Knows Principles	Defines, describes, identifies, labels, lists, matches, names, outlines, reproduces, selects, states
Understands facts and principles Interprets verbal material Interprets charts and graphs Translatives verbal material to mathematical formulas Estimates future consequences implies in data justifies methods and procedures	converts, defends, distinguishes, estimates, explain, extends, generalizes, gives examples, infers, paraphrases, predicts, rewrites, summarizes
Applies concepts and principles to new situations Applies laws and theories to practical situations Solves mathematical Problems Constructs charts and graphs Demonstrates corrects usages of a method of procedure	Changes, computes, demonstrates, discovers, manipulates, modifies, operates, predicts, produces, relates, shows, solves, uses
Recognizes unstated assumptions Recognizes logical fallacies in reasoning Distinguishes between facts and inferences Evaluates the relevancy of data Analyses the organizational structure of a work (art, music writing)	Break's down, diagrams, differentiates, dicriminates, distinguishes, identifies, illustrates, infers, outlines, points out, relates, selects, separates, subdivides.
Writes a well organized them Gives a well organized speech Writes a creative short story (or poem, or music) Proposes a plan for an experiment Integrates learning from different areas into a plan for solving a problem Formulates a new scheme for classifying objects (or events, or ideas)	Categorizes, combines, compiles, composes, creates, devises, desings, explains, generates, modifies, organizes, lans, rearranges, reconstructs, relates, recorganizes, revises, rewrites, summarizes, tells, writes.
Judges the logical consistency of written material Judges the adequacy with which conclusions are supported by data Judges the value of work (art, music, writing) by use of external of excellence.	Apparaises, comares, conduldes, contrasts, criticizes, describes, discriminates, explains, justifies, interprets, relates, summarizes, supports.

A list of illustrative verbs for stating General Instructional Objectives and specific learning outcomes is given below :

ILLUSTRATIVE VERBS FOR STATING GENERAL INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

Analyse	Compute	Interpret	Perform	Translate
Apply	Create	Know	Recognise	Understand
Appreciate	Demostrate	Listen	Speak	use
Comprehend	Evaluate	Locate	Think	Write

ILLUSTRATIVE VERBS FOR STATING SPECIFIC LEARNING OUTCOMES

Creative Behaviours

Alter	Paraphrase	Reconstruct	Rephrase	Rewrite
Ask	Predict	Regroup	Restate	Simplify
Change	Question	Rename	Restructure	Synthesise
Design	Rearrange	Reorganise	Retell	Systematize
Generalise	Recombine	Reorder	Revise	Vary
Modify				

To conclude this lesson, you are given below the General Instructional Objectives of English with their related specifications at the high school level.

INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES OF ENGLISH

The student

I. Understands simple English when it is spoken.

II. Speaks simple and correct English.

III. Reads simple English with comprehension.

IV. Writes simple and correct English.

V. Acquires a knowledge of the elements of the language.

VI. Appreciates simple poems in English.

VII. Translates from mother tongue into English and vice versa.

VIII. Develops an interest in English.

SPECIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES :

OBJECTIVE – 1

The student

1. Recongises characteristic English sounds in speech.
2. Recongises contrasts in the sound systems of English and the mother tongue.
3. Recongises the significance of stress and intonation in sentences.

OBJECTIVES – II

The student

1. Reproduces the sounds in sequence in words, phrases and sentences.
2. Uses appropriate stress and intonation.
3. Uses vocabulary and sentence patterns appropriate to spoken English.
4. Uses appropriate pauses in speech.
5. has ease and fluency in speech.
6. Puts his ideas in proper sequence.

OBJECTIVE – III

The student

1. Locates key words and key sentences in a passage.
2. Locates significant facts and ideas.
3. Finds a suitable title.
4. Grasps the central idea.
5. Infers the mood of the author or character in the passage from the key words, phrases and sentences.
6. Recognises relationships between significant ideas.
7. Grasps the sequence of facts, events and ideas.
8. locates a statement which is explained / not explained by facts.

9. Discriminates between the main and the subsidiary ideas.
10. Discriminate between statements of facts and statements of views.
11. Grasps the meaning of words, expressions, etc., in context.

OBJECTIVES – IV

The student

1. Writes legibly and distinctively.
2. Uses appropriate words and phrases.
3. Uses correct structures.
4. Has command of a variety of sentences, (simple, complex, compound, affirmative, exclamatory, interrogative, etc.)
5. Spells correctly.
6. Punctuates and uses capitals correctly.
7. Organises ideas into paragraphs.
8. Presents ideas and thoughts coherently and logically.
9. Makes a proper use of sequence clues (e.g., however, besides, nevertheless, in the mean time, etc.)
10. Gives a suitable introduction wherever necessary.
11. Gives an effective conclusion wherever necessary.
12. Uses appropriate techniques in different types of writing, precis, essay, letter, notes, summaries etc.)

OBJECTIVES – V

The student

a) Recognises, b) recalls, c) locates errors in respect of the function of important grammatical categories :

i) grammatical items like noun, verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, preposition, conjuction, articles, anomalous finites, noun phrases, clauses etc.

ii) sentence patterns of different types.

iii) concord

iv) vocabulary (synonyms, antonyms, derivatives)

v) spelling (difficult letter combinations)

vi) punctuation.

OBJECTIVE – VI

The student

1. Reads a poem effectively, i.e., with proper pronunciation, rhythm and intonation.
2. Graphs theme and the ideas of the poem.
3. Visualises images in the poem.
4. Recalls parallel lines from the poem.
5. memorises beautiful lines from the poem.
6. Locates words which are specific to poetry.
7. Understands the mood of the poet.

OBJECTIVE – VII

The student

1. Understands the vocabulary and structures used in the passage as a whole.
2. Changes words, phrases and sentences into functional equiva lents in the language of translation.
3. Adds words that are necessary to make the structures functional in the target language.
4. Omits words that are unnecessary for rendering the structure of the mother tongue into English and vice versa.
5. Slits involved structures into short and simple ones, if necessary.
6. Joins sentences for better expression in the language of translation.
7. maintains the sequence of ideas as given in the original piece.
8. Maintains the spirit of the passage.

OBJECTIVE – VIII

The student

1. Reads books in English other than the prescribed ones.
2. Reads the daily news in English.
3. Listens to radio broadcasts in English.
4. Joins reading clubs.
5. Reads English magazines.

6. Contributes to English magazines.
7. Takes part in debates and plays in English.
8. Recites English poems.
9. Sees English films
10. Collects good quotations and memorable lines.
11. Develops skill in using dictionaries and other reference books.

N.B. Objectives III, IV, VI, and VII come with the scope of written examinations. Internal evaluation may take care of objectives I and II and organised school activities of objective VIII.

WORKSHEET

ACTIVITY – I

1. Write at least four behavioural objectives in a content area of your choice.

2. Identify the objective taxonomy and level for each of the objectives developed in the above activity.

3. List some of the illustrative verbs for stating General Instruc tional objectives.

.....

4. List some of the illustrative verbs for stating specific learning outcomes

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question, Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

1. Who developed the most widely used cognitive taxonomy?

   a) Elizabeth Simpson

   b) Krathwohl et.al.,

c) Benjamin Bloom et.al.

d) F.G. French

2. Which one of the following most clearly indicates an instructional outcome?

a) To increase the students reading ability.

b) To increase the students rate of reading.

c) To improve the students skimming ability.

d) Comprehends assigned reading material.

3. Which one of the following statements represents the most general objective ?

a) Communicates effectively in English.

b) Writes clear, effective English.

c) punctuates sentences properly.

d) Uses appropriate words and correct structures.

4. Which one of the above statements represents the most specific?

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Why should the teacher trainees be taught how to write behavioural objectives?

2. The ultimate aims of teaching English are good listening, good speaking, good reading and good writing. Enumerate the specific objectives that need to be kept in mind to achieve each of these aims.

SUGGESTED REFERENCE BOOKS FOR FURTHER READING

1. Bloom, B.S., et. al., Taxonomy of educational Objectives, Handbook1 : Cognitive Domain, New York : David Mckay.

2. Gagne, Robert, principles of Instructional Design, 4th Ed. New York : Holt, Rinehart and winston.

LESSON – 4

COMMUNICATION SKILLS AND THEIR RELATIVE IMPORTANCE

OBJECTIVES

After reading the lesson, the trainees are expected to realise the following objectives:

i. understand the process of communication

ii. define the term communication skill.

iii. analyse the four specific verbal activities of communi cation skill namely speaking, reading, writing and listening.

iv. describe the mutual relations of these skills.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of:

-Badcock, C.M., The Harper Handbook of communi cation Skills, New York: Harper & Brothers Publish ers, 1957.

iii. Completion of worksheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Introduction :

Communication skills is a new look in language study, designed to satisfy the needs of students who are faced with linguistic problems peculiar to the present. The erstwhile notion that language is a social heritage to be protected at all costs and guarded against all innovators, that it is regulated, and must be regulated, by a set of fixed and unchangeablerules and conventions, has been replaced by the practical notion that language is the currency of communicative exchange, and that it should be regarded as an instrument for the transmission and reception of thoughts rather than mere expression.

Communication is the science and art for making sense with words. As a science it consists of a set of principles for discovering truth. As an art it offers abundant opportunities for self - expression and self realization. The ability to manipulate words undoubtedly heads the list of requirements for success in any field of cooperative endeavour. Its basic importance in vocational success is well recognized :

As soon as you move one step up from the bottom, your effectiveness depends on your ability to reach others through the spoken and written word. And the farther away your job is from manual work, the larger the organization of which you are an employee, the more important it will be that you know how to convey your thoughts in writing or speaking. In the very large organizations, whether it is the government, the larger business corporation, or the Army, this ability to express oneself is perhaps the most important of all the skills a man can possess. (Peter F. Drucker).

In addition to its vocational value, communication skill is probably the most important prerequisite to learning in any field of academic study, and to growth and development in the community. If you are to acquire intellectual, social, moral, aesthetic, and

spiritual capacities; if you are to make any notable contribution to society, or if you are to benefit from participation in community activity, you must learn to clarify your thoughts, to express them efficiently and effectively, and to examine the expression of others in order to comprehend its meaning and significance.

Communication skill is skill in the clarification, transmission, and reception of meaning. it involves ideas, people, and words. This means that communication skill includes :

(a) *the ability to think constructively : to reflect, to imagine, to create ideas ;*

(b) *the ability to adopt ideas to particular people : to cooperate, to promote mutual agreement and under standing ;*

(c) *the ability to clarify thought by the use of accurate, precise, and meaningful diction.*

Dynamics of Communication :

A dynamic system is one in which all elements are so interrelated and synchronized that whatever affects one part of the system affects all other parts. The human organism is such a system; psysical incapacity causes emotional disturbances, and *vice versa*. Shakespeare's Richard III is a dramatic example of psychosomatic behaviour :

Cheated of feature by dissembleing nature,

Deform, unfinished, sent before my time

Into this breathing world, scarce half made up ...

I am determined to prove a villain.

A communication system is dynamic in the sense that the meanings of particular words depend upon the circumstances in which they are employed. One way to isolate the factors that alter meanings from situation to situation is to think of a communication

event as a dramatic episode. The elements of drama - act, scene, agent, agency, and purpose - may be used to explain verbal transactions. They are the what, who, when, where, how, and why of communication. Ideas conceived (act) by an individual or individuals (agent) under specific circumstances of place and time (scene) are expressed and transmitted in language (agency) for desired ends (purpose). This is a way of saying that effective communication is intellectually sound, or rational, emotionally controlled, or poised; socially and culturally oriented, or appropriate; verbally accurate, or clear; and purposefully directed or intentional.

Analysis of Skills :

Communication skill includes proficiency in four specific verbal activities - speaking, reading, writing, and listening. Two of these activities - speaking and writing - are skills of transmission; the other two - listening and reading - are skills of reception. All four activities require the ability to think straight, clearly and critically.

Listening :

Most of us are on the receiving end of oral communication about 40 percent of our waking hours. We are not actually listening all of this time, but we are exposed to the spoken word. Anyone with open ears can hear what is going on about him, but it requires an open mind to comprehend and judge the significance of what is said. Listening is a verbal skill which requires thoughtful, constructive, purposeful, and critical powers of mind.

The kinds of reception that pay small dividends in communication are ;passive reception, spasmodic reception, and submissive-reception. passive reception is best described as *in one ear and out the other*. Spasmodic reception is *off* and *on, hit and miss, touch and go*. Submissive reception is hook, line, and sinker reception. Some people sit quietly and offer no overt resistance to

spoken discourse but at the same time do not actually *turn* in on what is being said. Their own preoccupation jam the communication channel and nothing comes through. Others *turn in* from time to time as interest directs, but take frequent mental side trips and wind up with a very hazy and foggy notion of what was transmitted. Still others prepare religiously a transcript of every word that is uttered but do not bother to assemble the verbal elements into ideas or to question the validity and practicality of the speaker's convictions.

Effective listening is similar to working a juigsaw puzzle. Words, sentences, disciplined, and directed effort to produce a complete picture or idea. The pieces of verbal elements do not automatically fall in place. They must be carefully and constructively managed. Such management requires thinking.

Listening may be defined as hearing with comprehension. Many people confuse hearing with listening. You might audit an address uttered in a foreign tongue and, while hearing every word, understand and comprehend nothing. You might also hear the words of a language you do understand without comprehending the meaning and intent of the words. Effective listening is an active, not a passive, skill. It requires alertness and cooperation. An acquiescent and disinterested attitude toward the speaker is not enough. An effective listener is one who has developed the ability to attend thoughtfully to spoken discourse, to grasp the meaning intended by the speaker, and to respond critically to the total impact of the talk or address.

Since listening is an instantaneous activity, there can be no backtracking to check the exact phraseology of a passage once uttered. Conscious physcial and mental alertness are required. A listener is a partner in the communicative act or experience. he must, therefore, keep his attention focused on what the speaker is saying, not allowing himself to be sidetracked by distraction of any kind.

Concentrated attention, however, is not all that is required. The speaker 's message comes to you in the form of words. These words must be structured into ideas in your own mind. The speaker cannot do it for you. A few rare individuals in this world can listen to a speech of extended length and then repeat verbatim the exact words employed by the spaker. But good listener hears what a speaker says, comprehends the meaning of the words in context, identifies the central idea of the speech, and evaluates its merit by noting the adequacy or inadequacy of supporting details.

An effective listener is able to :

Distinguish between central ideas and supporting examples.

Recognize methods of argument both logical and psychological.

Recognize controlling and ulterior purposes of a speaker.

Recognize basic patterns of development.

Recognize various arrangement of details.

Recognize cues to meaning offered by speaker 's vocal quality and physical activity.

Recognize meanings of words in new and unfamiliar contexts.

Specific Types of Listening:

Purposeful listening, like any other skill in communication, may be any one of the following types:

a) *Informative :* Listening for information, facts, direction, specific details. Emphasis is on reception.

b) *Creative :* Listening for ideas and problem solutions. Emphasis is on comprehension.

(c) *Critical :* Listening in order to evaluate the validity and use fulness of a speaker 's ideas and judgements. Emphasis is on sound reasoning.

d) *Appreciative :* Listening for pleasure and entertainment, for escape or relaxation. Emphasis is on appreciation.

Reading:

The ability to read entails much more than mere recitation of words or recognition of their standard meanings. Effective reading, like listening, requires disciplined, creative and critical thinking. A skillful reader digs beneath the surface meanings of words to their subtle associations and hidden implications. He comprehends not only what appears on a page, but also how it is put together and for what precise reasons. The real problem of reading as one writer put it, lies back of the eyeball where comprehension taken place in mysterious ways. Before a college student can say his training in reading is adequate, he must be able to read with comparative ease the various types of written discourse which confront him in school, in this vocation, and in civic and domestic life.

Reading skill has three facets or dimensions : speed, comprehension, and critical appraisal. A reader who ponders too long over simple arrangements of words in ordinary prose contexts wastes valuable time. A reader who also misconstructs the author 's intended meaning wastes both time and effort. A reader who is unable to distinguish between true, partly true and false statements in written discourse is at the mercy of a writer. A reader who accepts whatever appears in rint as gospel is an easy mark for unscrupulos propagandists. Effective reading is an active, aggressive acquisition of ideas.

Conservative estimates showthat duringfouryearsofcollege an average studentwill read above thrity million words.Faced with such an assignment, you should try to make the task as simple and

time conserving as possible. Several reasons may be advanced to urge the importance of reading in the college curriculum.

How efficiently do you read? Efficiency is a matter of reading mechanics. The faster you can read without loss of comprehension and sound judgement, the more will be your intake. An average college student should be able to read average subject matter 250 words a minute. Slow readers get through 165–200 words. Fast readers may exceed 375 words a minute. With easymaterials such as short stories or fiction, the rates go up to 600words per minute. Efficiency demands that you make the best use of your time. Follow these suggestions:

(1) Control your eyespan. Reading whole phrases or clauses at a single fixation of the eye on a page is much more economical of time than focusing attention on single words. It also aids comprehension. Try reading the following passage pausing at each slant line.

Now,/in / the/ dog /days / of /summer/when / pavements / buckle /and /cities /become /ovens ,/let /us /think /of /cool /things /of /seascapes/and /ice-cold/ watermelons,/ of/polar/ bears/and/ all/ green/ trees./

Now try reading the same passage.pausing at the slant lines as indicated here. Read each group of words at a single glance.

Now./ in the dog days/ of summer/ when pavements buckle/ and cities become ovens./ let us think / of cool things./ of seascapes / and ice-cold watermelons. /of polarbears /and tall green trees./

(2) Separate the context into thought units, such as:
subject -such predicate

A twenty -year-old youth/ has just killed/ a policeman. / subject predicate:

Fast readers / are good readers./

subject-modifier-predicate - modifier:
A boy of theirteen is a problem/ at home and at school/

Who - what - when - whee - how - why:
The other day / an army general/ askedme bluntly/ what I thought was wrong/ with us Americans./
In a day or so Claudia had the yard/ looking neat and clean/ without a weed in sight./

(3) Read a whole group of words without moving eyes, lips, or head. Seal your lips. Lock your head between your hands. don't go back and reread what you have read. keep going. don't follow the lines with a finger or pencil. Don't pronounce the words in your mind. picture them

(4) Pace yourself on easy materials like fiction or news stories. Keep track of your rate and gradually increase the difficulty of the material. Don't expect to read all types of reading matter at the same rate of speed.

(5) Try skimming a passage hurriedly, looking only for key words and phrases, and see how well you can comprehend the meaning without fixing on every word.

Speaking:

The spoken language is much more frequently employed in communication than in the written language. The ratio, even among professional writers, is better than 99to1. People invariably learn to speak before they learn to write. In fact, written symbols are merely graphic representations or pictures of spoken symbols. A pictographic language was designed for recording the spoken word and for permitting communication among people widely separated by space and time. The spoken word has ever been the great carrier of culture and tradition.

No wonder some people argue that the way we talk is more personal, more authentic, more communicative, and therefore more important than the way we write. Spoken words are experimental revolutionary, and daring: they are unretentious, elemental, and disarming. Speech idioms blaze trail for written idioms to follow. Colleges and books only copy the language which the field and work-yard made. Telephone messages are eminently more communicative than are telegrams. Personal interviews are preferable to written messages of any kind when the aim is to transmit meaning from one person to another. Oralcommunication is characterized by an intimacy and genuineness that can only be simulated in writing. people understand each other better when they meet face to face. Extra verbal factors - personal appearance, gestures, facial expressions, mannerisms, vocal qualities, and physical bearing - play an important part in communication, especially when they are employed to clarify meaning rather than to cal attention to the speaker himself.

Qualifications of an effective speaker:

The basic qualifications of an effective speaker include engaging personal qualities, adequate preparation for the occasion, and skillful delivery.

Personal Qualities:

An effective speaker must have an open personality. He must be able to sell himself in order to get acceptance of his ideas. Perhaps the most important personal assets to effective oral communication are emotional poise, honesty and integrity, and sincerity.

Emotional Poise: A poised speaker is able to control his own behaviour in such a way as to invite appropriate responses from his audience. Quite often how an idea is expressed has greater influence then what is said. Listeners are affected by signs and mannerisms of which a speaker himself may be unaware. They know without being told that a speaker is friendly or hostile, natural or hypocritical, relaxed or frightened, sincere or affected.

A speaker needs a sense of security and self-confidence if he hopes to achieve his purpose and engage his audience. Stage fright can block all efforts to communicate meaning by interfering with both transmission and reception of thoughts. Stage fright is a kind of emotional panic which makes rational thinking all but impossible. It is usually caused by the speaker's giving too much attention to himself and not enough to his subject and his audience. Everyone has a desire for social approval, and this desire alone causes emotional tention, when personality is put on trial, which ironically enough may find release in modes of behaviour which are anything but flattering. The most experienced speakers, as well as beginners, have moments of emotional panic before audiences. And apparently there is no sure cure for such difficulty. But it can be directed so as to produce positive rather than negative results.

Honesty and Integrity : The effectiveness of what you say is partly determined by what you are. Instantly we know, says Emerson, whose words are loaded with life, and whose not. I learn immediately from any speaker, he says, how much he has already lived, through the poverty or splendour of his speech. The attitude you assume while speaking is a reflection of your character. You can't expect an audience to accept ideas which you yourself do not understand or believe. Talk from your own experience and your words will fall on fertile ground. Say what you feel and think, and your character will teach above your will.

Sincerity:

Sincerity, as we have said before, is the very essence of successful communication. Affection pays small dividends in audience response. The important thing is to be yourself. Let the sparkle,the vitality, the spontaneity of normal conversation characterize all your attempts to communicate orally. Choose topics for speaking that you are sincerely interested in, not ones that you imagine might impress your instructor, one should never be allowed to talk about a ubject which is of no real concern to him.

Talk from the heart, not off the top of your head. Listeners know instantly when you are putting on something you don't really feel.

WRITING

Writing differs from speaking in its rigid conformity to standards, in its permanence of form, and in its characteristic formality. Speaking is self-corrective. Writing is immutable. If a listener fails to grasp the meaning of a statement, a speaker can repeat his thought in different words and clear up any ambiguity, which in writing must stands as stated. A writer must, therefore, be critically aware of unity, of organisation, of diction, as well as of mechanical matters such as spelling, punctuation, paragraph structure, and grammar.

many people think writing as almost solely a matter of grammar, sentence structure, and syntax. Such people have a great difficulty developing or acquiring verbal skill, you can't as Wendell Johnson has said, write writing. The focus in communication must be on ideas: their clarification and transmission. Grammar and syntax are important, but not more important than other considerations.

Because of its disciplinary value, writing not only functions as a specific means of communicating ideas but trains one to think clearly and to express thoughts in a rational, orderly manner. Writing is excellent training for effective speaking. Words on paper show up their inadequacies more clearly than they do when spoken. Improper word choices, tangled sentences, and misplaced phrases glare at you and demand correction. Since writing is less frequently employed than other forms of communication, a great deal of practice and critical judgement is necessary for acquiring skill and proficiency.

The physical absence of the reader in written communication creates a problem for a writer that is not easily surmounted. When

you sit down to write a letter to your parents, or your brother or sister, your experience no particular difficulty. But when you prepare to set forth ideas on paper directed to everyone in general and no one in particular, thetask becomes quite different. If writing were a purely mechnical matter, this absence of reader would cause no difficulty. But, as Wendell Johnson has said, You can't write writing. You must write something for somebody to read Perhaps the best way to explain this is to make a distinction between expression and communication. Expression is the transferral of thoughts to paper and ink with no thought of a reader in mind. Many student themes turn out to be mere expressions of thought. Communication is directed to an audience and makes adjustments to interests, attitudes, language habits, and vocabulary of actual people. The first requisite in effective writing, then, is to write with a definite reader in mind. Choose someone you know to write to, and much of what might be called drivel will disappear from your communicative efforts.

Essential steps Writing:

While every task or assignment in writing has unique characteristics, a number of safe generalizations can be applied to all writing, whether formal or informal, objective or subjective, factual or nonfactual. Three things which every writer must be equipped with before he can transfer his thoughts to paper are: an idea (something to say), a purpose (some reason for saying it), and medium (language forms which will represent the idea). If you are equipped with these minimum essentials, you can proceed on a given assignment.

Specific Forms of Written Discourse:

The traditional classification of discourse into four forms exposition, description, argumentation, and narration- has been largely supplanted by a more precise specification of functional

forms, stories, editorials, book reviews, informal and formal essays, short stories, personal letters, scientific reports, biographical sketches, and so on.

Communication Skills and their relations:

Language is a tool we use for the communication of meaning. This means that language is used to convey one's meaning to others or to understand the meaning someone else wants to convey. Language skills can therefore be divided broadly into

(i) Skills of understanding or comprehension and

(ii) Skills of expression.

Along another axis we can divide language skills according to the medium of communication.

(a) the spoken medium or

(b) the written medium.

so we have a four-fold analysis of language skills like this.

		Aspect
Skills of	(i) Skills of Comprehension	(ii)
Expression M Medium	(a) Spoken	Listening Speaking
	(b) Written	Reading Written

Mutual Relations of these Skills:

(a) Writing in most languages is a representation of speech sounds, which in turn represent meanings. So in the early stages the written medium (used in reading and writing) cannot be taught meaningfully without refer ence to the spoken medium.

(b) Since the learner has to learn language from others, he has to gain language experience first through the com prehension skills (listening and reading) before he can learn the corresponding expression skills. For ex ample, if one has not listened it is difficult to learn to speak: a person born deaf is usually mute.

(c) A related point is that the comprehension skills can develop ahead of the expression skills, often very far ahead indeed. A student , for example, learns to under stand his teacher 's speech (or a book by an author) long before he can speak like his teacher (or write like the author). Such a development of the comprehen sion skills is natural and desirable.

(d) We said under (a) above that the written medium is dependent on the spoken medium. But this applies only at the elementary stage, when the two mediums themselves are being learned. But once the essentials of the two mediums and their mutual relations are mastered, language experience may be ac- quired through either medium. And what is learned through one medium may be transferred to the other. For example, you at your stage can learn new words or terms through reading, which you can then put into your speech. Similarly what is learned through a comprehension skill may get transferred to an expression skill: what you learn through reading can later be used in your writing.

(e) While the four skills are related in the ways mentioned above, the fact remains that the most effective way of developing a particular skill is to practise it by itself: this is called the principle of ' specific practice.' It is like saying that if you want to be a good swimmer the most economical way of doing it is by swimming; other physical exercise may help, but not as much as swimming.

WORK SHEET

ACTIVITY – 1

Bring the similarities and differences in spoken and written discourse by comparing a printed speech and an editorial or magazine article on the same subject. Pay special attention to the author 's awareness of audience, method of approach, style vocabulary, tone, devices used to create interest, and patterns of development.

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ACTIVITY – 2

Write a paper in which you explain to your instructor the nature of any difficulties you have experienced heretofore in listening, reading, speaking and writing. Be clear and precise.

Describe the difficulties in detail. Mention such things as stage fright, incapacity to pay attention, inadequate vocabulary, paucity of ideas, etc.

ACTIVITY -3

Take notes on a radio or television speech. Then write a brief evaluation of the author 's ideas and his method of supporting them.

ACTIVITY – 4

Write a paper in which you try to persuade your readers to your way of thinking about a subject of current interest. use both logical and emotional appeals in dealing with the subject.

SELF - CHECK

1. Listening may be defined as

   (a) learning a talk

   (b) attending a talk

   (c) hearing a talk with comprehension

   (d) responding to a talk.

2. Skimming a passage means

   (a) reading a whole group of words without moving eyes, lips or heads.

   (b) separating the context into thought units.

   (c) controlling your eyespan with a single fixation of the eyes on a page.

   (d) reading hurridely, looking only for key words and phrases and comprehending meaning.

3. A student learns to understand his teacher's speech long before he can speak like his teacher - This shows that

   (a) expression skills can develop ahead of the comprehen sion skills.

b) comprehension skills can develop ahead of the expression skills.

c) expression skills and communication skills can develop simultaneously.

d) development of the expression skills is natural.

ENRICHMENT ACTIVITIES

1. Explain the relative importance of communication skills in English with specific reference to the Indian context.

2. How would you organise cocurricular activities to improve communication skills ? Explain the role of an English Teacher as a model in this.

LESSON – 5

THE ENGLISH READERS

OBJECTIVES

After reading the lesson, the trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. describe the need for text - books in English.

ii. explain the basic principles for the preparation of textbooks in English.

iii. list the characteristics of a good English Text - book.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of :

– Newton P.D., T*eaching With Text, London : Kogan page , 1990.*

iii. Completion of Worksheet and Self Check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Even in this age of computers and satellite communications, the most powerful and pervasive educational technology is the textbook. It is generally agreed that textbooks are an essential part of the educational enterprise. Yet, there has been little analysis of how textbooks are chosen, prepared and used. The situation is particularly unclear in the Third world, where texts are especially important to effective schooling. Textbooks are, in a way, an illustration of national will and of national policy in many

countries. Textbook assumes considerable importance and are sometimes the subject of controversy. When Japan altered the interpretation of the World War II in its textbooks, there were protests and even street demonstrations in China and South Korea. The text is no simple teaching aid, like a globe. The text can be self - contained teaching unit. It frees teaching and learning from the spoken word; used in independent study, it is the teacher. As a tool of educational technology it has few equals.

With the exception of the teacher, and perhaps of the blackboard, the textbook is the universally accepted educational support of children both in the classroom and at home. In the classroom, the textbook becomes an effective tool of learning by generating educative interactions between the teacher and the learner, as also between the learner and other co - learners. At home, besides immediately helping the learner in revising and reinforcing his previous learning, it stimulates his interest and beckons him beyond its printed pages so as to extend and enrich his learning experience. For the teacher too, it is equally important, since he looks upon the textbooks as a *de facto* syllabus, and it is with its help he defines and delimits the context of teaching. So the techniques that are built into the textbook are most helpful to the teacher in organizing his teaching task and the student in his will and effort towards independent learning. In view of its importance the need for the quality control of school textbooks undeniably deserves to be treated as an item of top priority in any planning for improving education.

NEED FOR TEXTBOOKS IN ENGLISH

Viewed in this light the need for good textbooks, providing the essential quantum of the English language, abstracted from its total manifestation, which will equip the child with reasonable competence to use it accurately and flexibly in different situations within the range both of his experience and interests, cannot be too strongly emphasized, ideally, the correct emphasis should be on

the learning of a language, and not on the teaching of it, and the teacher should involve children more and more in life situations which will evoke their language behaviours. But most teachers are not that competent to ascertain what has to be essentially learnt and what give the most t rouble in learning, so that textbooks will serve as a handy instructional material and a welcome support and guide. It will no doubt be a tool for formal teaching in the hands of a teacher, but it is more a means of self - appropriated learning for children, which essentially calls upon the course to offer a structural progression, yet so much embedded in a situational context that the children need hardly be aware of the structures which they want to coordinate, control and internalize. So the English language textbook should be a composite of three important components - linguistic and thematic, pedagodical and organizational. While the linguistic component of the textbook presupposes a framework of linguistic categories, in terms of the immanent but practical aspects of the language, ready for use in various situations and contexts, the pedagogical component envisages an array of classroom techniques and a range of supportive and correlative instructional materials likework books, supplementary readers and aural, visual and other teaching aids. And these components will hardly click if the organizational component of the textbook does not hold them together and present the linguistic elements and the inbuilt techniques in an interesting and stimulating way. Infact, it is organizational component which makes the learning of language an increasingly self - sufficient and self rewarding pursuit. This also underscores the need for considering proper particulation of textbook material both within stages and in the transition from stage to stage interms of seqence and learning difficulties to ensure that at no stage the textbook material comes bang upon the learner. Psychologically speaking, this creates among children an appropriate attitudinal orientation towards the language and a determined motivation to learn it. Thus viewed, the textbook is not just the neutral thing directed by the mere need for it but the outcome of conscious and cooperative efforts of the subject specialist, the pedagogical expert and psychologist and the subject teacher. This naturally calls for the need for formulating the basic principles for

BASIC PRINCIPLES FOR THE PREPARATION OF TEXTBOOKS IN ENGLISH

NEED FOR THE BASIC PRINCIPLES

The need for formulating the basic principles should not seek to create an impression that they are not there, and that the textbooks are written without them. In fact, the principles are there, so also are the textbooks. In spite of them it is a fact to reckon with that children do not learn well and leave school with an inadequat mastery of it. Perhaps no systematic study has been undertaken to investigate how far these textbooks have been based on some well defined aims and porposes for which they are meant, how far they are teachable and learnable, to what extent the help of the linguists has been sought to delimit and size up the scope of the course, of psychologists in seeing that a particular quantum is suited to a particular level of learners and of teachers in selecting out the elements, ordering them into a pedagogically effective sequence and presenting them in a meaningful and interesting way. So the textbooks, as they obtain today, are more or less *adhoc,* being just the comendia of lesson materials to reach the hands of teacher and student. In the absence of empirical evidences, the general belief is that the textbook will be more or less an effective instrument for the teacher and a potential natural incentive for the student, which, however, is not always the case.

For the majority of students this is the only instructional material available to him. So the quality of the textbook should be so assured that the children, teacher or no teacher, will feel the irresistible urge to fall back upon it and learn from it. Understandably the preparation of the English language textbook is by no means an easy and unenviable task, since the question of gripping and sustaining the interest of children, which is likely to wear off as the language appears in its most complicated aspects, is of paramount importance. This does not only resuppose control and balance of language elements over long - range perspectives and synthesizing of instructional objectives, language elements and edagogy in

perfect harmony but also good craftsmanship and artistry in the choice and presentation of materials. The entire process is a delicate one and is susceptible to sundry checks and balances. It is, therefore, not just enough for the textbook author to draw upon some broad, general principles and summarily finish off the job. He needs to probe deeper into the instructional potential of each principle in terms of its specific criteria and validate each and every lesson against them at the stage of preparation. So the need for defining and redefining the basic principles in terms of their specific criteria is imperative. They should be systematically presented, and their functional importance highlighted, so that the textbook writer may like to constantly refer to them, while writing the textbook.

BASIC PRINCIPLES

As an important step towards the preparation of textbooks on scientific lines, the following four basic principles should receive primacy of attention :

a) Selection

b) Grading

c) Presentation

d) Repetition

While selection and gradation are concerned with the planning of a textbook, in which the services of the subject specialist, the pedagogical expert, the psychologist and the subject teacher may be utilised to the best advantage; presentation and repetition are concerned with the actual preparation of textbooks, in which the textbook writer, prefrably the subject teacher, has a major role to play. At this stage also, as a means to formative evaluation, the services of the subject specialist, the psychologist

A. SELECTION

Selection is a process of arriving at an inventory of teaching items in terms of *What and how much*, out of the total ; manifestation of language. The *what and how much* comprises of three important components - vocubulary, structures and themes - which need to be properly harmonized since they do not exist in isolation from each other. The what and how much are also contingent upon the instructional objectives, the grade and maturity level of the learners, their needs and interests, the time available to the course, and the scope of learning experiences for an adequate feel for the language. The entire process of selection should be basically synthetic and interdependent and present a practical but self - contained perspective of language. So the selection will be based upon the following considerations :

i) The purpose, level and duration of t he course spread over the child's entire school career.

ii) The choice of specific linguistic items covering :

a) Phonological selection, which means the sounds and letters of early lessons will present the least difficulty to students.

b) Grammatical selection, being made up of syntactical patterns, including clauses, phrases and collocations, inflections and function words, which ensure that sentence structures can be vividly demonstrated and practised so that they will be absorbed and begin to form part of the learner's new language habits.

c) Vocabulary selection, including concrete nouns, abstract nouns, modifiers, verbs, which will enable the learners to say something they want to say, to hear or read or write something they want to hear, read or write - something suited to their level of understanding and

d) Semantic selection, i.e. lexical meanings, structural meanings, and phonetic meanings, which of the many meanings of the lexical, structural and phonetic items will be approximately included.

The choice of linguistic items should be determined by :

a) the frequency of occurrence,

b) the range and usefulness,

c) the coverage in terms of inclusion, extension, combination and definition,

d) the learnability covering such factors as clarity, brevity, regularity and learning load.

iii) *Situations and types of context which may include register, style and the media.* The textbook writers should visualise the relevant situations to couch the structures and vocabulary selected. While selecting the situations, he should bear in mind the inner life of the child, his feelings and reactions. They should be selected in terms of their potential presentation which will not affect naturalness and spontaneity. Local aspects like fishing in the south and snowy mountains, skating, etc., in the north should have appropriate place in the selection. The simple cultural background of the target language like English shopping, English home, etc. should have a reasonable distribution in the selection. To be specific, the selection should cover school, home, games, village, town, city, country, extending society of the child, writing a letter to the pen friend in England, marvels of the modern science, fantasy, etc.

The entire selection will have to be made with the following four inter - related basic skills being kept in view.

1.	Listening	(a)	Auditory recognition
		(b)	Auditory Comprehension
2.	Speaking	(a)	Pronunciation
		(b)	Oral expression
3.	Reading	(a)	Visual recognition
		(b)	Reading comprehension
4.	Writing	(a)	Graphics
		(b)	Spelling
		(c)	Composition.

B. GRADING

After the selection is made, proper grading and ordering of the lanugage elements into the most practical teaching learning sequence is held to be of prime importance. At any stage of the learning process, new items must be introduced when and only when the child is ready for them. In that case, no item will present any real difficulty, for difficulty is only relative to the learner's state of readiness.

Grading should have two distinct operations. The first of these takes the list of teaching blocks of the right size for the various years, terms, months, weeks, days and classes of teaching course, while the second operation deals with the problem of sequence in which items and the blocks are to be presented. The first one is called staging, i.e. the division of the course into time segements and the second is called sequencing, i.e. the order in which the items may be prepared.

Under staging the major consideration will be : what goes with what ? What sounds, grammar, vocabulary and contests (meanings) are taught together as blocks.

Under sequencing, the major consideration will be a sequence of individual items within each system, phonology, vocabulary, grammar and contexts (meanings and the sequence of combinations of these items into various structures.

It is important to bear in mind that grading must start from language and from teaching circumstances but most of all should consider the learner. It is not merely a matter of what we grade and whre, but also of who we grade for. In grading, the same criteria which hold true for selection, i.e. frequency, range, usability, teachability and classroom needs, hold true also.

C. PRESENTATION

Presentation means communicating something to somebody, and herein lies the crux of the problem. The most carefully graded selection of language is useless unless it gets into the minds of the learner. The right technique of presentation has much to contribute to gripping and sustaining the interest of the learner. It is not simply a question of combining linguistic material with the thematic. It is much more than that. It is of vital importance to see how ingenuously linguistic material is woven into the thematic and artistically presented. Really so much depends upon good craftsmanship and artistry in the choice and presentation of materials. Presentation should be considered in terms of the textbook, the teacher's handbook, supplementary books and workbooks which are important inter - related in the teaching - learning continuum. The components of each may be discussed.

TEXT BOOKS

1. A text book should be suited to the syllabus, the objectives, *the teacher and the learner using it at a particular level.*

2. The entire language course should be presented in a series of textbooks sequentially integrated from thebeginning class to the terminal. It is, therefore, highly desirable to have one set of authors working on the textbooks of the series.

3. The book for the second year should not be written before the one for the first year is finished, and this precedure should be followed with regard to the subsequent books of the series.

4. The materials should be so presented in text book that they provide systematic practice in listening, speaking, reading and writing.

5. Presentation of situations and language should be meaningfully interwoven.

6. The materials in the introductory book and the primer should be so presented that they help language receptivity and speech training through day -to-day child activities. Different methods may be suitably adopted ; the phonic method, the whole word method and the sentence method.

7. The design of the lesson should not materially vary from one part of the text to another. But the length and complexity of the lessons may vary progressively from lesson to lesson.

8. Presentation in the subsequent textbooks should stress silent reading for comprehension and simple composition, along with listening and speech. This approach should be stepped up in a spiral way as the language course proceeds.

9. The materials presented should be well - proportioned, well balanced and well unified.

10. Presentation of topics should centre on children 's interest, need and environment. Since there is no compulsion to learn English, and since no language has the thematic content of its own, it is desirable to see that the topics chosen are of gripping interest and highly motivating i.e., topics dealing with immediate experience of children, experiences beyond the home, a certain amount of wider experiences beyond the immediate vicinity of the home and school, information about children in other lands, etc.

11. The materials presented should maintain sequnce and inte gration from book to book.

12. Some of the materials presented should have the potential for dramatisation.

13. Stories, dialogues, descriptions and narrations, etc., should be judiciously distributed over the entire textbooks. Some simple rhymes and poems may also be given at appropriate places, not for language study but for light relief and interest. In these materials the element of humour should be given due place.

14. The presentation should be of such a kind that the use, practical utility, the application to reality of the linguistic unit is demostrated, dramatised, explained, or made vital to the student. In other words, the student should personally be involved in what is presented.

15. The number of new vocabulary and structural items should be controlled from lesson, and adequate provision should be made for repetition of old ones so that there is maximum reinforcement. The number of new words should be spread over the entire textbook.

ILLUSTRATIONS

Illustrations intextbooks are vitally important. Illustrations should be realistic. Vigour, action, realism with potent content value in relation to the text should be the basic principle underlying illustrations. A textbook should have illustrations in terms of appropriateness, atmosphere, liveliness, technical perfection and personal appeal. Proportion of illustrations to the presentation of topics should be appropriate.

EXERCISES

Since the individual classroom teacher needs a feedback mechanism to monitor the effectiveness of teaching, exercises are very important in a textbook.

1. The textbook should present exercises in a carefully planned way, keeping in view the objectives of the particular course.

2. The textbook should present exercises in a carefully planned way, keeping in view the objectives of the particular course.

3. Practice exercises should precede testing exercises and preferably be more than testing exercises. The last of the practice exercice should preferably be a simple composition involving the use of the structural and lexical items in different contexts.

4. The exercises should be exhaustive enough to comprehend different aspects of language material presented in the text, phonology, vocabulary, syntax, reading comprehension, etc.

5. They should be developed, keeping an eye on individual differences, ie., from simple to difficult.

6. Since English will be used mroe and more for written commu nication and reading (decoding), the exercise given should promote these skills thoroughly.
7. The exercises should not be over-weighted with context aspect the cost of the exercising of language skills.
8. assignments should spring from the lesson rather than from the arbitrarily selected topics extraneous to the lesson.
9. Review execises should be given after three or four lessons.
10. Text exercises should be so designed that they provide a means of diagnosis for reteaching.
11. Exercises should stimulate interest and initiative of the pupils.

TEACHERS HAND BOOK

No text book should be worth its existence if it is not accompanied by a teacher's handbook. It will contain objectives of teaching English as a second language, objectives aimed at in a particular grade, content analysis, diagnostic exercises to ascertain how far expectations have been fulfilled, a statement of exceptions by the end of the grade, suggestions for presenting each teaching point in meaningful situations, material for ear and speech training, procedure for teaching, reading, silent reading for comprehension, approach to composition, etc. The first chapter should contain general suggestions for teaching various aspects of language and the approach to each lesson.

SUPPLEMENTARY BOOKS

One of the basic assumptions, pedagogically and psychologically, is that whatever competence has been gained in the child's initial learning can be strengthened and extended in

various ways. One such way is the provision of carefully planned supplementary reading books, to accompany the course book for detailed study, in order to consolidate the pupil's language competence. Each supplementary books be simpler in language content than the text book. It should preferably be of the same standard of language difficulty as that of the course book of the previous year. It may contain a limited number of new lexical and vocabulary items. Supplementary readers should contain short interesting stories, anecdotes, dramatic scenes, humorous incidents, etc. There should be more than one supplementary reader of graduated language difficulty so that the needs of students of varying abilities may be catered to. The new vocabulary items be glossed either at the foot of the page or at the end of the book.

WORKBOOKS

The workbook is a useful teaching aid and exceedingly helpful supplementary teaching device with slow learners. The workbook contributes immensely to aiding in both the teaching and the testing of reading book. A workbook provides further practice in sound, pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, structures, short controlled composition and should be available with each textbook.

REPETITION

Last but not the least, is the role of repetition in the total scheme. The ultimate aim of language teaching course is to teach the learner to use the language accurately, reasonably fluently and independently. Competence in a language cannot be achieved if there is no sufficient exposure to the use of it. So a great deal of practice is needed to stamp in habits, with the minimum of mistakes.So the textbook writer has to exercise a great deal of ingenuity to provide an increased amount of natural repetition in a natural situation. Appropriately, repetition and contextualization are two of the most important aspects of language teaching to gain the learner's attention and participation and to help towards his uncounsciously absorbing the language.

It is well worth mention in this context that, when an author is writing a course book, he should build up two frequency charts one for the new lexical items, and the other for the new structures so that he can maintain a proper control over repetition of new language items. If he finds that certain items have not been repeated sufficiently in succeeding lessons, he will try to write in more of them before continuing further with his textbook. As far as possible the last two or three lessons in the course book should not contain any new structural or lexical items for obvious reasons.

The entire process, as outlined above, is for children who want to learn but unfortunately too many of them lose this initial enthusiasm through failure and discouragement. Textbooks prepared on these basic principles and criteria will, it is hoped, not only sustain this initial enthusiasm but also quicken and deepen it. The last child should be the first concern.

WORK SHEET

ACTIVITY 1

The textbook is made for the teacher, and not the teacher for the textbook. How would you supplement the textbook in order to provide a complete language course in itself?

ACTIVITY 2

A good English textbook, in addition to being readable, should be based on sound principles of selection and gradation. Critically examine, in the light of this observation, the English textbook that you taught during teaching practice period.

ACTIVITY 3

A good book must be readable, critically examine.

ACTIVITY 4

Differentiate between Text Book and Supplementary Book.

SELF - CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each questions. Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

1. The English language textbook should be composite of '
   (a) linguistic and thematic components.
   (b) pedagogical components
   (c) Organizational components
   (d) all the above three components.

2. The sounds and letters of early lessons which will present the least difficulty to students are based on
   (a) Semantic Selection
   (b) Grammatical Selection
   (c) Vocabulary Selection
   (d) Phonological Selection

3. The four basic principles which should receive primary of attention in the preparation of text - books are .....

KEY

1 2 3

d d Selection

Grading

Presentation

Repetition

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the chief characteristics of a good textbook of English ? In the light of these assess the merits of the textbook that you taught during your teaching practice.

2. Discuss the importance of Supplementary Readers, Teachers ' Handbook and Workbooks.

SUGGESTED REFERENCE FOR FURTHER READING

Douglas Newton, Teaching with Text, Kogan page Ltd., London, 1990.

Samalonis, B.L. Methods and Materials for Today's High Schools, Litton Educational Publishing Company, New York, 1970.

LESSON - 6

METHODS OF TEACHING STRUCTURES

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

(i) describe the principles of structural approach.

(ii) list the merits and limitations of the structural approach.

(iii) describe the principles of selection and gradation of structures.

(iv) list the various approaches to present the new structures.

ACTIVITES :

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of;

- French. F.G. The Teaching of English Abroad -Part I&II, London : OUP 1969.

- Hornby, A.S., The Teaching of Structural Words and Sentence patterns - Stages 1, 2, 3, & 4. London : ELBS & OUP, 1973.

iii. Completion of work sheet, self-check and enrich ment activities.

LEARNING ACTIVITY:

Introduction:

Formerly it was thought that English could be best learnt by working through its grammar and doing translation exercises. Everything in the textbooks was arranged in a strictly grammatical order without any regard to difficulty or ease of learning. Some teachers succeeded in teaching English in this way, but the sort of the language they taught was far removed from the English needed for real life and the learner had to re-learn it.

Different Approaches :

As a reaction to this, the Direct Method was adopted. This method banned the use of translation and stressed practical work. The pupils learnt to speak by Speaking, to understand by listening and to read by reading. They were plunged straight into the language at first in a simple form, and then in a progressively more difficult ones. Unfortunately. this methods also did not seem to work too well. The pupils could not assimilate the large doses of English given to them. So the next step taken was to select and grade vocabulary very carefully. Researches were made to discover the frequency of words and phrases and text books were written with a vocabulary which was graded according to its frequency, utility and teachability. The controlled vocabulary was also found not to work as well as had been hoped. The pupils knew all the words in a sentence, but they could not understand what the sentence meant, as most of the words have more than one meaning and then there is a large number of idioms. What causes the greatest difficulty in the learning of a language is not the actual words, but the ways in which they combine into sentences. For instance, a pupil may have learnt the words, if you, had, been, reading, be would, not, have, come, in etc., but he would not be able to combine them into a sentence, unless he has learnt the structure:

If ... had been ... ing ... would have ...

A language has primarily two constituents :

(1) *Structures or sentence - patterns*, i.e., arrangements of words in certain orders, and (2) Vocabulary. It is affirmed that English has 250 well - graded structures and 2,500 words, which if learnt and assimilated effectively, will give practical command over the English language. The aim of the structural approach is, therefore, to give the learner, as economically as possible, a facility of communication in English. When a child learns his own language, his thoughts are not upon words but upon sentence-patterns. In learning a foreign language, the child unconsciously forms and selects patterns of experience.

Structural teaching is not a method but an approach to the teaching of English. It would not be correct to call the Structural Approach a method of teaching. Any method can be used with it. Methodology is concerned with the presentation of the selected and graded material. Structural approach refers not to a new method but to the present - day emphasis on the needs for analysing language difficulties, and then for presenting the basic patterns or variants one at a time and in order of difficulty.

What is a Structure ?

A Structure is the particular word - order of arrangements of words peculiar to a language. In English, for example, each of the sentence - patterns ;He is speaking. He is not speaking.Is he speaking ? Will he speak ? is a different structure, though they all refer to the act of speaking in one form or the other. It is the peculiar pattern of the language that must be differentiated and firmly established. The pupil listens to a pattern as pronounced by the teacher, repeats it himself, thus learning it orally first before he encounters it in his reading or writing. The teacher has got to explore the environment and gear much of his teaching to the situation itself till the pattern is mastered first in the context of the

situation, then to be wielded more flexibly. In the sentence : He is reading a book, it is the subject - verb - object pattern of sentence structure that has to be grasped by the pupil. Once that is done a number of other action words can be subsituted for is reading and a number of other words, used in place of book thus to include a variety of situations. Situational teaching, far from being mechanical and dull, can be a great fun if understood and interpreted properly by the teacher.

Structural Approach :

The structural approach consists of selecting and grading the structures of a language rather than its words. Of course, words are also selected and graded, but the main emphasis is placed on teaching the pupils is the important structures. Once the pupils know these frames or patterns, they can fit words into them easily.

In the learning of a new language, it is not the acquisition of vocabulary alone that matters. In learning a new language, the chief problems as pointed out by Fries centre round –

(a) the mastery of the sound system in the acquisition of the ability to hear distinctive sound features, to under stand the stream of speech and to approximate their production, and

(b) the mastery of the arrangement that constitutes the structure of the language. Every language has a par ticular word- order which should be acquired as an un conscious habit by the native speaker. He has to make its acquisition a matter of automatic habit. Learning a language is not the learning of its contents, it is the acquisition of a skill.

A larger vocabulary does not necessarily mean a greater command of the language in the absence of a mastery of the other

essentials of the language concerned. Again if we emphasise vocabulary alone, pupils begin to think that for every mother tongue word, there is a corresponding word, and that what is needed is to replace English words for the words in the mother tongue in sentences : -

The structural approach overcomes most of these difficulties and naturally. In it a sentence or a phrase is taken up as a whole, and then the pupils are required to practice it in suitable situations. The pupil actually walks and says, I am walking, or says to a friend, You are walking, when his friend is actually walking. The situation may be real or imaginary. The structural approach discourages the mechanical memorisation of the paradigms of the grammatical method. In the structural approach we have a graded list of structures, and ensure the mastery of one structure before the pupils goes on the next. This approach is called structural, because the main emphasis is laid on the mastery of the structures or patterns of sentences and phrases and also on those special features of the languages which help in sentence construction, such as, word - order, structural words and a few inflexins in English.

The Structural Approach allows the use of the mother tongue at the initial stages for such instructions as may be needed to explain a situation where a certain sentence pattern is to be practised. But it does not allow the translation of the structures which are to be practised. The structures are drilled till the pupils can use them automatically without making a conscious effort on their part.

Principles of Structural Approach :

According to French, the Structural Approach is based on the following principles :

1. The importance of forming language habits, particularly the habit of arranging words in standard

Patterns of English, and to replace the sentence pat terns of the pupil's own language.

2. The importance of speech as the necessary means of fixing firmly all ground work.

3. The importance of pupil's activity rather than the activity of the teacher.

4. A language can be mastered by first mastering it orally. Oral work is a cardinal principle of teaching a modern foreign language. It is the quickest way of getting started. It gives a sense of achievement that stimulates learning.

5. Language is a skill and can be learnt by practice. It cannot be learnt through analytical methods. Through drill, structures of the language can be made automatic.

6. Learning to speak a language is always by far the shortest road to read and write it.

7. By listening carefully to the particulation of foreign sounds and then by practising them, we can train both our ears and vocal organs.

8. In the learning of a foreign language, mastery of structures is much more important than the acquisition of vocabulary. Unless the learner becomes familiar with the patterns of English, he will not be able to use his vocabulary effectively.

Strictly speaking, Structural Approach should deal not only with sentence- patterns, but also with sound patterns. Care should be taken not only in the selection of the structural items, but also in their proper gradation, as they must be presented in a

particular teaching order most natural to the language. Obviously, there can be no one order alone in the listing of the structures. The teacher can make his own selection.

Selection & Gradation of Structures

All the structures cannot be taught at once. The learner should be taught some selected and graded material earlier and some later. Selection and gradation are, therefore, very necessary.

Selection of Structures :

The selection of structures should be judiciously made. Selection involves as assessment of the ability of the average learner under average school conditions, bearing in mind the age of learner, the time given to the teaching of the language, the capacity of the teacher and the availability of the material. In the selection of structures account has also to be taken of the fact that many structures have more than one meaning.

In making selection, the following principles should be followed :

1. Usefulness :

The usefulness of a structure depends partly on how frequently it occurs in both the spoken and the written language, and partly on the basis it provides for the further building up of the language.

2. Productivity :

Some structures are productive, i.e., other structures can be built on them. Consider the two statements : Mohan is here:

Here is, Mohan. The former patterns is productive, because we can make many other sentences from the pattern : Here is, Mohan. We cannot say : Here is he. Thus some structures are more productive than others in building sentences.

3. Simplicity :

The simplicity of a structure depends on its form and meaning. For example, I am reading is not only simple in its form, but also in meaning, whereas the structure If you had come to me, I would have helped you is simple neither in form nor in meaning.

4. Teachability :

One structure is more teachable than another, if it can be more easily demonstrated in a realistic situation. For example, I am walking is more easily teachable than i come to school at 10 every day, because the first structure can be easily demonstrated by performing the action in the classroom, whereas the second structure cannot be demonstrated in a realistic situation.

Grading :

Gradings means putting the teaching material in a suitabı order. The teacher starts with elementary structures. He has to grade his material, by putting more important things first and less important ones afterwards. The grading should be gradual. Although gradual grading means a restriction on the amount of the material to be taught, yet it is better to teach a comparatively small but useful amount of the language really well than to attempt to teach a larger amount without much success.

Gradation should be based on the following principles.

(a) The sentence pattern should be graded from the

point of the view of their complexity. Simple patterns should be taught first, and then more complex ones.

(b) The sentence patterns should be arranged according to their relative difficulty from the point of view of the influences of the pupils, mother-tongue. items of speech sounds, word-order, and other which are common to the foreign language and the pupils, mother-tongue will be found easier. These may be taken up first, and also used to space apart items which are more difficult and which take a longer time.

(c) The sentence patterns should be arranged according to their relative usefulness at the various stages of the course.

(d) The sentence patterns should be arranged according to the relative ease with which they can be taught and learnt, one new item at a time.

It is clear from these criteria that a central body cannot lay down a satisfactory arrangement of sentence patterns for teaching all children living in different conditions and speaking different languages. The teacher will have to modify the order of the sentence patterns in keeping with the pupils, difficulties and with the needs of the situations in which they study.

The begin with, we first identify things and persons. Then we locate them in space, and then fix them in them.

The sentence patterns may be arranged as :

1. Two-part patterns :

I/Worked.

2. Three - part patterns :

   I / wrote / a letter.

3. Four - part patterns :

   I / gave him / a pencil.

4. Patterns with there :

   There are forty boys in this class.

5. Question beginning with an asking word :

   Where did you go ?

6. Questions beginning with a helping verb :

   Will you go there ?

7. Commands or requests :

   Keep quiet. Please help me.

Methods of Teaching Structure :

1. Oral Teaching

The structures should be dealt with orally before the pupils can read or write them. The pupils should be given a good deal of practice in speaking. Every pupil should be given ample opportunity to speak.

2. Situational Teaching

A Structure becomes meaningful to the learner, when it is used in an appropriate situation. The teacher should use a particular situation in order (a) to practise the structure and to relate it to is

meaning, and (b) to build up a vocabulary of content words. In the early stage, for example, the everyday classroom situation should be used, and in that situation such words as *boy, girl, teacher, desk, table, pen, pencil, door,* etc., would naturally suggest themselves.

The teacher should take care that the situation is appropriate to a particular structure, and there is no possible chance of confusion. If, for example, the structure *I am putting a book on the table* is being taught, the action demonstrating it must be performed at the same time as the words are spoken. To complete the action before saying the words would indicate a different situation - *I have put the book on the table.*

Situation can be built up in the following ways ;

(a) By using the objects in the classroom :

A classroom has certain objects which can be used with advantage. The child should learn the names of the objects by the close association of name and object. Let him look at the object, touch it, feel it, push it, etc., objects should be frequently changed, otherwise classroom teaching will become dull. Children may be asked to bring some objects from their homes for the next day's lesson.

(b) By using classroom window :

A classroom window can serve the purpose of teaching many words like *tree, sky, cloud, bird ;* and a number of structures like *There is ....., There are ....., That is ....., Those are .....,* etc.

(c) By using gestures and actions :

Suppose the teacher has to teach the structure : *All the books on my table are green.* The teacher points to each of the

four green books lying on his table with his finger. As he points to a book; he says, *This book is green.* Then he points to each of the remaining books in the same way in quick succession and says, Every book on my table is green. He will make a sweeping movement of the arm to encircle all the four books (without pointing to an individual book) and will say, *All the books on my table are green.*

(d) By using pictures :

A wall picture proves very useful in creating a situation. If there is no girl in a classroom, a wall picture showing a girl and a boy can be used. The teacher can point to the girl and the boy in turn and say.

That is Sita. She is a girl. That is Rama. He is a boy.

(e) By Drawing on the blackboard :

The structure : *He is riding a horse* can be demonstrated quickly by drawing a picture of a man riding a horse. If the drawings are simple, the pupils will find great pleasure in trying to copy them. French suggests that match - stick drawings are easy, and with a little practice can be drawn quickly.

(f) Repetition Drill :

In this drill the pupil repeats a sentence spoken by the teacher. This is the easiest drill and is very useful at the early stage. While the pupil is repeating the sentence, th teacher should see that the pupil is using the right pronunciation, strees and intonation.

Example :

Teacher	*This is a book.*
Pupil	*This is a book.*

While introducing a new structure, the teacher should construct it with the old one.

Example :

Teacher	*This ia a book.*
Pupil	*This is a book.*
Teacher	*These are books.*
Pupil	*These are books.*

(g) Substitution Tables :

In this device, pupil substitutes other words for the words given in the structure. Substitution may be of different types. The important ones are :

(a) Single Substitution :

In this case only one word is substituted.

Example :

This is a book.

The words *pen, pencil, slate, map, door,* etc., may be substituted for the word *book.* The above sentence can be shown in a table as

1	2	3	4
This	is	a	book .

There are four slots in the table. The teacher gives a new word to a pupil and asks him to change the word in the 4th slot.

(b) Double and triple substitution :

Here words in two or three slots are substituted with other words.

Example of double substitution :

Teacher :	**Pupil :**
My turban is Red	*My turban is Red.*
Yellow	*My turban is Yellow.*
Green	*My turban is Green.*
Your	*Your turban is Green.*
Yellow	*Your turban is Yellow.*
His	*His turban is Yellow.*
Red	*His turban is Red.*

Variable	Fixed	Fixed	Variable
My Your His	Turban	is	Red. Yellow. Green.

Example of triple substitution :

Teacher :	**Pupil :**
My turban is Red	*My turban is Red.*
Yellow	*My turban is Yellow.*
Your	*Your turban is Yellow.*
Shirt	*Your shirt is Yellow.*
Green	*Your shirt is Green.*
His	*His shirt is Green.*
Cap	*His cap is Green.*

Variable	Fixed	Fixed	Variable
My Your His	Turban	is	Red. Yellow. Green.

(h) Flash Cards :

Flash Cards are pieces of card board or hard paper on which a word or words are written or pictures are drawn. They can be shown to the students at any time. Moreover, they can be shown for less or more time depending upon the teacher. They can be successfully used for a number of purposes, e.g.

(a) Structure Recognition :

A flash card bearing a structure may be shown to a group of students or to some individual student. The learners try to recognise whatever is written there.

(b) Team Competitions :

Class may divided into two teams. The flash cards may be shown to the groups one by one. They should try to read out as quickly as possible.

(c) Training in Speaking :

Some questions may be written on flash cards. The cards are shown to the students one by one. They are asked to speak out the answer.

(d) Teaching Writing :

They can aslo be used in teaching writing. By writing beautifully on them, they can also be used for improving the handwriting of the students.

(e) Match Cards :

Flash Cards can be serve the purpose of Match Cards. In match cards, we have flash cards in pairs. They are displayed on the Flannel Board. The students watch them carefully. Then they

are asked to match them rightly.e.g., Wehave different flash cards for the words book, child, watch, woman, books, children, watches, women etc. They are mixed up. Then the students are asked to match these flash cards.

1) Order Cards :

Flash cards may carry words or expressions which means some sort of order. These flash cards are shown to the students one by one and they may be asked to carry out the order. For example, we may have flash cards with the words or expression- sit, stand, go out, come in, come here, go to the black board, bring chalks, call the peon etc. These are shown to the students and they act accordingly.

Merits of Structural Approach :

The Structural Approach is a great improvement over the older methods and has many advantages over them. It is scientific approach to the learning of English as a foreign language.

some of the advantages are :

1. The child masters 250 fundamental structures or sen tence-patterns which constitute the frame of the lan guage.
2. Vocabulary is learnt not in isolation but by fitting it in the sentence-patterns. The child acquires a good deal of the working vocabulary.
3. The Structural Approach includes the advantages of many good methods of teaching English. For example it includes the advantages of the Direct Method by emphasising oral work and inhibiting excessive use of the mother-tongue. It goes further

and simplifies the language material by means of proper selection, grading and systematic represen tation.

4. It insists on teaching one thing at a time. It lays down the right procedure for teaching structures and vocabu lary.

5. It paves the way to the reading and writing of English by first teaching the language orally.

6. It gives abundant opportunities to the child to be active. He does not remain a mere passive listener. He is an active participant in the learning process.

7. It contains the elements of playway and makes use of the important psychological urges and principles.

8. It is a short- cut to the learning of English.

9. It can be used as a supplement of other methods of teaching English.

Limitations of the Structural Approach :

1. The mere selection and grading of structures will not solve our problem of teaching English. It only helps the teacher to prepare materials and to keep track of what has been taught at any given point.

2. The Structural Approach does not provide the teacher with advice how to present each new teaching point, nor with material for written exercises. All this has to be prepared, in great detail, if we are to provide the teacher with what he desperately needed. The pupil should be the centre of our interest, not the material. If an order of grading the

Structures is excellent in theory, but if it does not work in practice because it is boring and sychologically unsuited, we have to change the order of grading. It is not necessary that a method which is good in theory must also be good in practice.

3. The structural Appoach loses sight of the fact that it is the pupil who is a learner. It places an excessive demand on the teacher.

In the structural syllabus a panacea for all the defects in the Teaching of English ?

The Structural Syllabi in English have come to stay. But there is a tendency in certain quarters to regard them as a sort of panacea for all the defects in teaching of English in our schools. It is not much use supplying the average teacher with a list of graded structures unless he is also given detailed help and guidance at every step in connection with each new structure. It is irrelevant to argue that this or that method must be better, because it is more scientific, or more natural, or more direct, or anything else. The only question that matter is : Does it provide what the average teacher needs?

Syntactical structures are not everything in English. There is also pronunciation; there is morphology : there is vocabulary and there are idioms. These are equally important.

The material for Structural Approach so far prepared is not enough for the average teacher to be able to use the Approach successfully in the ordinary class.

The teacher must first deviate from the beaten track, and must orient himself about how much the scheme can be implemented in the classroom. The Structural Approach is not something new. The only new characteristic which it possesses is the emphasis on the necessity for structural control, not in the interest

merely of a linguistic theory, but in the interest of the child himself. Like any other method, the Structural Approach also depends for its success upon the ability of the ordinary teacher using it.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Select three patterns of sentences for the IX Class. Explain why you select those and not others.

Activity – 2

How will you grade and teach the above selected structures to that class. List the various steps involved in them.

Activity – 3

" We learn a language by using that language in appropriate situation ". Explain and illustrate the application of this principle

to the teaching of English.

Activity – 4

Prepare a Substitution Table for practising past continuous tense.

SELF - CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. The method through which a language is learnt by working through its grammar and doing translations exercise is known as the

   (a) Direct Method

(b) Vocabulary Method

(c) Grammar - Translation Method

(d) None of the above

2. Read the following statements. Write T if the statement is trueand F if it is false.

(i) The Structural Approach has been developed to fill in the gaps of the Direct Method. ( ) .

(ii) Word order is very important in English. ( )

(iii) The structural syllabus is a panacea for all the defects in the teaching of English.

(iv) In structural approach, speech is given more importance.

KEY :

1. C 2 (i) T (ii) T (iii) F (iv) T

Enrichment Activities :

1. What are the essential features of the structural approach to the teaching of English.

2. Prepare situations for the structures you are going to teach for Standard X using real situation or oral drill and substitution drill.

LESSON – 7

METHODS OF TEACHING VOCABULARY

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. differentiate active vocabulary from passive vocabulary.

ii. describe the methods of teaching vocabulary.

iii. describe the importance and appropriateness of lan guage games in teaching vocabulary.

ACTIVITIES :

i. Reading of learning material.

ii Reading of :

Bring J.A. and McGregor, Teaching English as a second Language, London: Longman-Group Ltd., 1970.

Lado, Robert, Language Teaching - A Scientific Approach, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964.

iii. Completion of Worksheet, self-check and enrichment activities.

LEARNING ACTIVITY :

Introduction:

Vocabulary means the words that we use in day-to-day 's life for giving an outlet to our feelings and thoughts. H.Dippie in his work Suggestions for Primary School Teacher in India scientifically considered, Words are like bottles and contain ideas just as a bottles contain medicines. The thing that is important for us in words is the ideas that they embody and not their sounds or shapes when written or printed. They only exist for what they contain.

Different people have different ways of expressing things. So we can say that different people have different words at their disposal. Now the question arises whether every learner of the language is well equipped with vocabulary or not. It is an admitted fact that our school going Children and College Students are quite deficient in vocabulary. Frisby has pointed out, It is obvious that, if we do not know the words of a language, we cannot speak the language. on the other hand, learning a language does not mean merely learning the words substituting those words for the corresponding words in our own language. English language has a vast vocabulary. It is not possible for us to learn all the words of this language. We have to depend upon a list of selected words. We need those words very often in speech, reading and writing. So the minimum number of words i.e., 3000 are very essential acquiring mastery over the four aspects of English language. The list of words is termed as the Foundation Vocabulary.

Kinds of Vocabulary :

F.G. French has made a very useful classification of the words of a language in relation to its users. He divides the words into three broad groups : (a) the small number of words that a person knows intimately and can use effectively, (b) the relatively large number of words that he understandings but does not normally

use, and (c) the vast number of remaining words in the language that he does not know. French compares the first group to our *friends*, the second to our *acquaintances* and the third to the vast number of *strangers* whom we do not know.

The user of the language knows the first group of words as intimately as he knows his close friends, and these words constitute his Active Vocabulary or Working Vocabulary. Generally speaking, this group also comprises the most useful words in the language, but to some extent a person's specific use of language (e.g. a lawyer's) would also determine the nature of his active vocabularly.

The second group includes the words that a person understands but does not normally use in his speech and writing. This group is far larger than the first group and constitutes his Passive Vocabulary. it is obvious that the larger a person's passive vocabulary the better equipped he is for reading comprehension.

The third group comprises the vast number of words that he does not know.

It should however be noted that like friends, acquaintances and strangers, words too keep changing their places. A new word (i.e. a *stranger*) may enter a person's active vocabulary while a known word (i.e. a *friend*) may be forgotten owing to long disuse, in the same manner as we acquire new friends and forget some of the old ones if we do not meet them for long. The other points worth noting are : (1) a person's active vocabulary at any given time is usually very small, and (2) it is neither possible nor necessary to teach every word as an active vocabulary item.

As has already been observed, one can express himself adequately in English with as small a vocabulary as about 3000 words (including structural words). The important thing is to master this small vocabulary thoroughly. We should remember that even the great masters of the English language, such as Shakespeare or Bernard Shaw, needed less than 25,000 words ;

that is, less than 5 percent of the total available resources of more than half a million words in the language. Many teachers have a weakness for the so - called *Flowery English* and labour under the ill - conceived and outdated notion that a person's command of English can be measured by the number of different words (particularly, the longer one!) that he uses. But we should realise that such a large vocabulary acquired by memorising lists of words is more often a hindrance than a help. In this respect words can be compared to servants : a person with a large number of servants whom he cannot control properly has not advantage over a person who has only a few under his full control. it is in this sense that the learning of the structure (Which includes learning the structural words and acquiring control over the meaning of content words) is considered more important than the learning of vocabulary.

Characteristics of Active Vocabulary or Working Vocabulary :

1. The vocabulary should consist of simple everyday words.
2. It should relate as far as possible to the pupil's own environment so that experience and expression may be closely associated.
3. It should not be literary in flavour.
4. It should be graded in point of commonness or frequency.
5. It should be well - balanced.

Selection of Words :

There are two ways of selecting a word - its validity and its frequency, or its usefulness for the purpose in hand and its general

popularity as a word in the language. The validity of a word tells us if the word has immediate use in the stage of language learning, while its frequency will give us a check on its general currency in the language.

Word Frequency :

By the frequency of a word we mean the number of times it is used in normal reading matter. There are certain words which are chiefly used, and there are others which are rarely used. The frequency of a word determines its utility. It is wise to teach pupils the most useful words first and less useful words afterwards. This will save time and energy.

Many word - frequency lists have been prepared on the basis of word counts. The best known of such lists is that of Thorndike. It is based on a count of four million words. It gives 10,000 of the most used words in English grouped in sections of roughly 500 words each in a descending scale of frequency.

Expanding the Vocabulary :

In the earlier stages a limited vocabulary should be used in order to provide some rational way of dealing with a wealth of material. But we shall not wish to be restricted for all time to a limited vocabulary. There are ways in which the vocabulary may be enlarged to become a flexible instrument.

Vocabulary increases with experience of the world. A man cannot add new words to his vocabulary, without at the sametime widening his experience; nor can be have new experiences without gaining new words. After school life, new words come through personal activities and interests. The greater a man's experiences, the wider his activites, the richer his vocabulary becomes.

If experience can best be gained by directactivity, it can also be obtained, at second - hand, through books. Both the methods should be used in the school, New vocabulary will be best learned and longest remembered, if the learner takes part in doing as many new kinds of things as possible, because doing is the most direct form of experience; but when direct exprience cannot be arranged (we may not be able to take our pupils on boards ship to learn the words : steamer, voyage, cabin, etc.) their the imitative experience, with pictures, models and actions is the next best thing. Where these fail, we must fall back on the reading book.

Vocabulary can be increased not only by means of additional words but also by the slight alteration of words already known. To be aware of how words can be built up from various parts of speech is also a way of what Fries calls *mastering the vocabulary by adjusting the form of a word.* We have seen that those words which can be called *content* words consist of the names of *things* - or nouns ; the names of *actions* - or verbs ; the names of *qualities* - or adjectives or adverbs. it is very common in English to take the name of *thing* and, by slightly adjusting its form, make it into the name of an *action*. For example, the word *trust* is a name of a thing; by using the prefix *en* - we can turn into the name of an action. In this way, nouns can be made from the simple forms of verbs and adjectives ; verbs can be made from nouns and adjectives; and adjectives from nouns and verbs.

Word Lists :

Glossary is a list of words whose meanings are given by the teacher at the time of teaching to remove the obstacles in the path of understanding a lesson by a learner. Word lists are lists for words grouped around key - words. For instance, a boy may volunteer the starting word bicycle. Others are then invited to add words which have something to do with the key - word. The following may suggested.

Frame, tyre, tube, chain, puncture, pump, and so on.

In this way many words are known to the whole class collectively.

A bare list of words is not of much use. A word - list should always contain illustrations and examples.

Similarly, it is a useful practice to bring together the words belonging to one head - word.

Example :

Bed : bedsheet ; bedtime ; bedroom ; bedding.

The pupils should be encouraged to make lists, grouping words together.

Language Games :

Simple language games are also included in drills and exercises. They make a lesson interesting, although they cannot provide intensive practice in the various language forms to individual pupils. They should, therefore, be played occasionally.

As a variation on the usual drills, pupils enjoy playing these games, and their interest in the language grows. The competition between the two fixed teams spurs their members on to greater effort which, in its turn, ensures steady progress in learning.

At these games pupils should not be expected to say, read or write what has not been taught to them . These games are essentially practice exercises, although they also help the teacher to test, in some measure, his pupils' command over the language material taught to them.

Procedure :

The class should be divided into two teams and given interesting names. One mark should be given for each correct

answer and noted on the blackboard. At the end, the points scored by each team should be added up. The teacher should give brief instruction in the mother - tongue, explaining clearly how the game is to be played.

Examples :

(1) The teacher says a sentence, for example, *Hari went to his village yesterday.* Members of each team are to add one more sentence saying what the person did. For example, *Hari went to his village yesterday, He played football there.*

(2) The teacher writes a few verbs on the blackboard, for example, playing, reading, running, eating, etc. A member of one team is to make a sentence, using one of the verbs. For example, *Mohan is going.* A member of the other team is to change this sentence into past tense as *Mohan was going.*

(3) A member of team writes a word on the black board. Then a member of the other team writes another word begin ning with the last letter of the word given. For example, boy, you, umbrella, apple, eat, table, etc.

(4) The teacher splits up a few sentences into two parts and gives them under two columns. A member of one team will join two parts after taking one part from each of the two columns and make a complete sentence.

Column A	**Column B**
The apples	is eating a banana
My friend	are playing football
The boys	is ploughing his field
The farmer	are in my bag

(5) The teacher writes the first word of some questions on the blackboard, e.g., who, which, do, did, have, has, etc. A pupil from the group is to ask a question beginning with one of the given words. A member of the group is answer the questions, and then to put another question. In this way both the groups put questions and answer them.

The teacher can invent many other interesting games.

Spelling :

Correct spelling, like correct grammar, is important, because the way in which an idea is expressed adds to or subtracts from its status. For example, the sentence : *I luv you very much* may express a touching sentiment, but the mis-spelling makes it pathetic or ridiculous rather than pulse-tingling. If spelling is too bad, a message may become incomprehensible or even mis-leading. The teacher should, therefore, make concerted efforts to instil in each pupil the desire to spell correctly in all subject - matter areas.

Functional Teaching of Spelling :

In modern schools, emphasis is placed on the functional teaching of spelling. The functional approach places emphasis on spelling words correctly in context rather than memorising long lists of esoteric words that are not concerned with the vocabulary of the writing of an average pupil.

Methods of Teaching Spelling :

(1) Phonic system of reading :

By the use of flash cards and the like, recognition of words can be made instantaneous. The teacher should teach a word as a whole and not as a combination of isolated letters. The use of phonics in reading provides a spring board to phonics in spelling

2) Transcription

Spelling being a motor habit. transcription should be the basis of spelling. In the act of writing from a book, the pupil is practising correct forms of spelling: and the muscular movements that come into play help in fixing the spelling.

(3) Dictation

Taking down passages in dictation is an invaluable exercise. In the beginning the passages should be prepared beforehand, and the more difficult words learnt; later, as the pupils make progress, they should take down unprepared passages.

(4) Oral Drill :

The teacher should first ask an individual pupil and then the whole class to spell a difficult word. A good deal of practice should then be given.

(5) Writing a number of times :

The pupils should be asked to write the correct forms of the mis-spelt words many times. Constant habit of writing is very helpful in improving spelling. It is better to write the correct spelling of mis-spelt words and then to cram them up. Spelling is a motor habit; hence practice is necessary to strengthen it.

(6) Spelling Note – Books :

The pupils should be asked to write the correct spelling against the wrong spelling of words in small note-books. Whenever a pupil mis-spells a word he should write down the mis-spelt word with its correct spelling in his note-book. The teacher should check up the entries from to time. He should also occasionally test to know whether the pupils has learnt the correct spelling of the words he had mis-spelt.

(7) Spelling Games :

There are many interesting spelling games. Some of them are as follows :

(a) A asks B spelling of few words from the lesson already learnt and vice versa. One mark for each correct spelling is given.

(b) Word - building : Words may be built with the help of loose cardboard letters put in a box.

(c) The teacher may ask the pupils to make many words out of the component letters of a given word. For example, from the word TEACHER, we can make the words : EACH, EAR, HER, etc.

(d) the teacher writes a word with a definite ending and asks the class to supply more words which have the same ending.

Examples :

(i) er (Such as : player, teacher, worker, etc)

(ii) sion (Such as : compulsion, decision, etc)

(iii) tion (Such as : motion, portion, etc)

The use of Dictionaries :

Every student should possess a dictionary. An English Reader's Dictionary by Hornby and Parnwell or The New Method English Dictionary by Michael West and Others is probably adequate (though even at this school level The Advanced Learner's Dictionary by Hornby and Others will be a better investment for many students). Students should be trained to use dictionaries so

that they can read texts independently, check the spellings and meanings of words used in their compositions, and also check pronunciation. The dictionary should be introduced at the begin ning of the school life itself, when the teaching of vocabulary begins.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

List the differences between learning a word that is entirely new and learning new meanings of a word that is already known.

Activity – 2

List the steps involved in the pupil's mastery of vocabulary.

Activity – 3

Suggest some ways for the expansion of vocabulary in the IX Class.

Activity – 4

Give your views on the following statement :

The amount of passive vocabulary our students need is much larger than that of active vocabulary.

SELF - CHECK

Complete the following statements with suitable words / phrases.

(i) Words in English language are classified as ———— words and ———— words.

(ii) The three types of vocabulary in the English text books are, ———, ——— and ——— vocabulary.

(iii) Presenting objects to explain the meanings of words will not be useful for ——— words.

(iv) The minimum number of words, i.e. 3000 which are essential for acquiring mastery over the four aspects of English language is termed as ———————

KEY

(i) Functional / Structural

(ii) active, passive, adhoc.

(iii) abstract

(iv) Foundation Vocabulary

Enrichment Activities :

1. What are the main devices of teaching new words ?
2. How will you teach the following words : between, over, yet, already
3. What is the importance of language games ?

LESSON – 8

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING PROSE

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. defind the role of a text - book in prose - teaching.

ii. describe the techniques of teaching a prose lesson.

iii. specify the limitations of the use of mother - tongue in the English class.

ACTIVITIES :

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Billows, F.L., *The Techniques of Language Teaching,* London : Lognman Group Ltd., 1975.

– Ryburn, W.M., The Teaching of English, Madras : OUP, 1960

LEARNING ACTIVITY :

The core of most school teaching of English is the prose text (or texts); by far the greatest proportion of classroom time is devoted to the teaching of the prose text - an index of the importance which is attached to it for the examination.

Role of a Text Book in Prose - teaching :

It is not really necessary to use a textbook in order to teach a language ; many language courses, the world over, do not have recourse to a printed text. If we do use a textbook at all in the classroom, it is because we find it a useful language teaching device. The text, it may be said, is only a pretext for teaching language.

Unfortunately (as we have pointed out aleady), there is a tendency to teach the textbook for its content rather than to use it as a take-off for teaching language. Teachers tend to think that their role is to interpret the text in the classroom, as thoroughly as they can. Even though most syllabuses do prescribe texts for non-detailed as well as detailed study, to the teacher it somehow appears that every piece of text must be dealt with exhaustively: each thought analysed, each reference explaind, each word glossed. The students gradually come to expect this of the teacher, and feel cheated if every line of the text has not been taught in the class.

Teaching, furthermore, comes to imply a certain kind of relationship between the teacher and the student, with certain clearly defined roles for each. The teacher is expected to do all the work in the classroom, while the student is generally a passive recipient. When the teacher has completed teaching, in fact, he is frequently expected to dictate notes for his students, which they can memorise for the examination. Teaching the text becomes largely a process of spoon–feeding. While it might help the student to answer questions based on the text, it doesn't seem to result in his learning the language.

How much of Introduction is needed?

When a prescribed lesson from the textbook has to be taught, the teacher frequently begins by delivering an introductory lecture, or talk, intended to present the background to the text. Usually, he talks aboutthe author,his life,the age in which he lived.

the important - words produced by him, etc., if the author is associated with any literary movement, the teacher may talk about that too. (Thus, a short extract from Dream Children might be an occasion for a lecture on Romanticism, and the contribution of Lamb to this movement). Some teachers might even given an expository lecture on the author's prose style - in advance, before the students have had a chance to read single line by the author !

If a teacher is asked why he prefaces such lesson with such an introduction, he might answer that in his view this helps his students to understand or apprecite the text better. Some teachers might genuinely believe this. However, most of us know, from experience, that the majority of the students are simply not in a position to understand or appreciate anything that the teacher tells them : they merely memorise it,and reproduce it later on.

Is it true that having a lot of background information helps to understand or appreciate a piece of text better ? Does the student really need this kind of information ?

At a somewhat advanced level of literary interpretation, one perhaps requires this kind of background knowledge, it certainly can contribute to a fuller understanding of a piece of text. But most of our students are not at this level of literary awareness of response. In the first place, it is by no means certain that the aim of teaching an English text to students of Compulsory English is to help them develop a literary awareness (whatever this implies !) Most of them are still at the stage where they cannot manage more than a few sentences of connected English at a time. If a student has to struggle with the plain meaning of words, if he requires a paraphrase for each sentence from the text, is he really in a position to respond to the subtle nuances of literary language ? Surrely, if the aim is to create a *love for literature* we can do this more effectively through a language that the student is more at home ; in his mother - tongue, for instance.

In what way, therefore, is the student able to make use of all the background information that the teacher provides ? Should

he not be concentrating on the text itself - trying to *understand* it as well as he can, through his own efforts, with the teacher's assistance ?

Of course, giving information to students can be, and often is, a legitimate and essential part of teaching. For the teacher of language, too, it is sometimes necessary to provide information to his students. But he should remember that this is not his primary function. The essence of language teaching consists in being able to provide the language activity which leads to language learning. If it is true, in general, that one learns better by doing (something) than by being told what to do, this is all the more true of language learning.

Emphasis on language Activity by the Students :

The first requisite for a language and, in fact, the first thing that one would want to observe in any language class is : plenty of language activity by the students. Language activity includes :

i. Listening to the language ;
ii. Speaking it ;
iii. Reading in the language ;
iv. Writing in it.

The more language activity there is by the students, the greater the chance of their learning the language. but greater activity by the students involves correspondingly less activity by the teacher - or at least, a different kind of activity. That is, the teacher should be more concerned with making the student speak, read or write than with doing these things himself.

This immediately suggests that a kind of lesson which involves the teacher's doing a lot talking is not likely to be a good language lesson. The lecture therefore is practically ruled out as a mode of language teaching.

Importance of Silent Reading in the Context of English being called as a Library Language :

The most important skill that can help to teach is that of reading, and hence reading is the activity that we should chiefly aim at providing.

The teaching of reading is such an important part of language teaching that what a whole lesson will be devoted to it later on. For the present, we shall confine ourselves to a few preliminary observations.

English, it has been said, is most relevent for this country as a library language. What exactly does this imply ?

It is anticipated that in the years to come, English may lose many of the functions which it traditionally had, and still has. Today, for example, English is :

i. the associate official language - used in most spheres of administration, both at the centre and in the states ;

ii. the language used in most courts of law ;

iii. the language in which most public examinations (e.g. the U.P.S.C. examinations) are conducted ;

iv. the medium of instruction for some of the highest centres of learning ;

v. the language for most commercial and industrial trans actions etc.

Today, an educated Indian needs to be able to read, write as well as speak English fairly well ; his success in life may well depend on his ability to do all these things. But gradually, it may be that he will not be required to communicative through English

quite as extensively as at present. This would mean that he would have rather less occasion to speak in English (and therefore to hear it being spoken) or to write in that language. If such a situation does arise - we cannot be very sure that it will - the student may not have much use for the skills of speaking (and listening) or writing in English.

Now, an important principle in language teaching is that it is not very useful to teach a skill which is not likely to be used. Any skill astrophies (decays) rapidly if it is not used - just as it improves through frequent use.

If most educated Indians are not likely to have much use for the skills of speaking or writing in English, if follows that teaching should not emphasise the acquisition of these skills.

But the skill of reading, in English, is likely to remain important for all educated Indians for a very long time to come that, at any rate, is our expectation. The principle value of English, when it has ceased to be a language for communication within India, will lie in the fact that much of what constitutes knowledge, in the contemporary world, is available through English. Even if English is completely replaced as a medium of instruction, most students, at the higher levels, would need to be able to read books and periodicals, relevant to their disciplines, in English. A reading knowledge of English is, therefore, an important educational objective.

The phrase English as a library language does not imply that students would not be taught the skills of speaking and writing at all; it only implies that the skill of reading would be emphasised much more than the others. It does not seem possible, in fact, to teach someone how to read in a language until he has had some experience in speaking that language first. This is because - as we shall see later - the printed (or written) language is only a representation of the spoken language;to make any sense out of the printed symbols on the page; we need to know the sound values of those symbols. This does not however, mean that we can begin to read.

or that proficiency in reading is dependent on proficiency in speaking.

It may also be rather unlikely that we could afford to neglect, completely, the skills of writing. There are intimate relationships between the skill of reading and writing, just as there are between speaking and reading. In any case, writing in English seems to be only marginally less useful than reading in English at present, where the majority of Indian are concerned.

This brings us back to the real, or rather the primary, objective in using a printed text, which is to provide practice in the skills of reading. And since a student can learn to read only through the activity of reading, it follows that the teacher must give him opportunities to read the text, for himself.

Reading, in this context, means silent and fast reading. This is the only kind of reading which is useful, and deserves to be practised.

Many teachers insist, while teaching the prose text, on reading out the text aloud. Some of them insist on students reading aloud from the text, in turn. Both these practices deserve to be scrutinised.

If the teacher reads aloud, most of his students will merely listen too his reading, but will not themselves read. This might perhaps give them practice in listening, but again, not a very useful kind of practice.

If, however, the students read (from their textbooks) at the same time as they listen to the teacher 's reading, they are getting some practice in reading as well. This kind of reading can be very useful sometimes-for example, in teaching a particularly difficult piece of text, to a class of students who are beginning to read. There are, however, a number of reasons why this practice should not be resorted to regularly.

The teacher 's reading of the text (aloud) constitutes a kind of prop. of support, for the student: it helps him to get the meaning more easily from the text.

In teaching it is often desirable to provide such props, or supports, to a learner. When he receives such a support, the task of learning becomes easier, and he build up the necessary confidence in his own ability to learn. But progressively, all such supports have to be withdrawn, to prevent the learner from becoming completely dependent on them. Eventually, the learner has orely on his own efforts, unaided by anyone.

What exactly is the purpose of asking a student to read a prescribed textbook?

Again, there is a fundamental principle to be remembered here: any activity which is required of the learner in the classroom is, or should be, a training for some other activity, of a similar nature, which he will be called upon to perform later.

All that is done in the classroom is a preparation for real life.

Consider, for example, the business of teaching reading to a student. in order to teach him how to read, we make use of a textbook. We try make the textbook as readable as possible, by:

a. making the content interesting.

b. controlling the language used in the textbooks, so that it is not too difficult for the learner.

If we do not ensure readability in this manner, the danger is that the student will not read the material we produce for him.

In a sense, the book which we put into the hands of the students is artificial, because it does not represent the kind of material which most of us have to deal with in real life.

The material that we have to read in real life may be frightfully dull, as well as difficult. But this is the kind of material that we have to train our students to read, eventually. Gradually, step by step, we have to lead them on from the artificial reading material of the textbook of the real life material which awaits them outside the classroom.

It should be clear, therefore, that the textbook is not important in itself; it is important only as a preparation for real life. The kind of reading that we ask our students to do in the classroom should lead them on to real life reading.

In real life, do we have a teacher standing beside us, reading aloud to us over our shoulder?

Almost all the reading that we have to do in real life is done alone, in privacy, and in silence. We have to read masses of printed matter independently, with no other help except our own wits (and perhaps a dictionary).

This is the kind of reading that we have to prepare our students to do. It is clear, then, that the teacher 's reading of the text (aloud) is the kind of help which the student should not depend on for all time.

There is a lot of difference between the speed at which one reads aloud, and the speed at which one can read silently.

When we read aloud, we can usually not read any faster than we can speak. An average speaker can speak at about the speed of 120 words per minute: most people would read aloud at a speed somewhat slower than this.

But efficient reading– silent reading that is should be at the speed of about 250 words perminute: below that speed, the reading is not very efficient. (We shall discuss, in a subsequent lesson the relation between speed and the other skills of reading).

It follows therefore, that reading aloud is, by definition, an inefficient kind of reading – because it is a very slow kind of reading.

If a person has once been trained to read aloud, there is a tendency for him to go on reading aloud. In the early stages of reading, it is perhaps necessary to read aloud because there is, as we suggested earlier, a kind of transfer from speaking to reading. All learners read slowly because they have a tendency to read aloud: if they are not actually producing the sounds represented by the symbols on the pages, they are producing the sounds in their heads, sub-vocally. Many students actually move their lips while reading.

One of the objectives in teaching reading is, in fact, to inhabit this habit of reading aloud to oneself-to wean the learner away from his dependence on the sounds of the language.

Now, if the teacher insists on reading out the text aloud, his students can, if they are reading (silently) to themselves while listening to him, read no faster than he can. This means that the student remains anchored to loud reading: he can never develop the speed of silent reading.

What about the procedure, followed by some teachers, of making students read the text aloud ?

Obviously, this will not give any student practice in reading silently: the student who is actually reading from the text is slowed down, and so are the other students who have to listen to him (since they must gear their own reading speeds to his speed). What, then, is gained from this kind of activity ?

Many teachers justify it on the ground that it helps students in improving their pronunciation. If this is so, there really is some justification for making students read aloud from the textbook. But this claim needs to be examined.

Can practice in reading aloud from a printed text help in improving a student 's pronounciation?

Our answer would be - only very marginally :

In the first place, the teacher is not really in a position to monitor the student's pronunciation. While reading from a text, the student could commit several *mistakes* of pronunciation in each sentence ; for example, he could make mistakes with individual sounds (vowels and consonants), with the placing of the stresses, or with the intonation atterns. It is unlikely that the teacher will have the time to correct all the mistakes made especially in a larger class. If the mistakes are not pointed out, the *practice* which the student gets is worse than useless ; he gets practice in committing mistakes, which is a way of ensuring that he will go on making the same mistakes all the time !

Reading aloud from a text can be turned into useful pronounciation practice only if :

a) The teacher selects a small passage from the text for intensive practice and goes over it thoroughly in advance, with his students, pointing out all the *pitfalls* where they could go wrong, the *tricky* sounds, stress and intonation patterns etc. The students must be made to mark those *pitfalls*, and to rehearse the passage before they begin to read aloud.

No one can be expected to read an unfamiliar passage meaningfully, he is bound to make a few slips. Even the teacher must, if he proposes to read aloud from the book, prepare himself in advance for his reading. But this is seldom done. Teachers start reading out the text passage, in most classes, because they don't know what else they are supposed to do.

(b) Each student is corrected, on the spot, by the teacher.

Thus, the procedure of reading aloud from the text, either by the teacher or by the students, is largely unnecessary and even harmful.

What is necessary is that the students receive practice in reading through a piece of text silently and fast, and with under standing. This is the main justification for using a textbook.

Teaching Paradigm :

We must refer here to the teaching paradigm namely : Presentation - Exercise - Feedback.

The activity of reading (by the students) constitutes the exercise. However, there must be feedback : the teacher must know whether the exercise has been productive - that is, whether it has resulted in learning. He arranges for this feedback by asking questions, or giving his students problems to solve, which they can attempt only if they have gone through the exercise (of reading) successfully.

At the same time, the students need feedback : they must be told if they have been successful in their attempts to solve the problems given to them. The teacher must, therefore, provide this feedback to the student.

This brings us to the problem of presentation - which is usually the teacher's function. What is the kind of presentation required here, and how is it to be done ?

It has to be pointed out, again, that the teacher's function is not to present or interpret the ideas of the writer to his student : primarily, it is to help his students learn English.

Many teachers become totally pre - occupied with presenting the ideas contained in the lesson ; to them, it seems to become very important that the student must understand everything that the author wishes to express. Sometimes, the teacher become so convinced of the truth which is being conveyed by the author that he makes it his mission to propagate this truth to the student.

But again, we must remind ourselves; the text is important not for itself, but because of the practice it can provide in the understanding of other texts. The text is only a sample of a message: it does not represent the truth ! In fact, it is wrong to make the student believe that he should accept any message as the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. Habits of uncritical acceptance must not be built up in the English class.

The teacher 's presentation of the text must confine itself to preparing the students for the exercise of individual reading.

Removing the difficulties encountered by the students :

Basically, the student has to read and find out for himself. This activity is what will produce the desired learning (or so we hope !).

But sometimes the student cannot read, or will not read - for a variety of reasons. In that case, he simply will not derive the benefits from reading that we wish him to obtain.

The teacher ' s function, in such a case, is to try to understand what it is that prevents the student from reading, and to remove these obstacles, so that he can read.

Now what are these obstacles to reading ?

First, there is a psychological resistance to reading. Many students cannot, or do not read, because they have never read; they simply do not have the habit of reading. (The teacher 's habit of reading aloud to them may be largely responsible).

Secondly, the students may be deterred from reading by the linguistic difficulties which they encounter. Probably the major difficulty is the occurrence of unfamiliar vocabulary. Each time a reader comes across an unfamiliar word he has to stop, and try to make a guess at its meaning. The process of reading is interrupted.

when the interruptions become too frequent, there is a tendency to give up reading altogether. Very few readers have the perseverence to go on; in fact, this is one of the qualities we wish to inculcate.

Training people to read, then, largely involves equipping them with the vocabulary necessary for reading. There can be several ways of doing this, but one of the most effective ways is to introduce the new vocabulary in a planned and controlled manner, through materials designed for reading. We had occasion to say more about the techniques of vocabulary expansion in lesson -7.

But no matter how carefully we plan our materials and techniques for vocabulary expansion, we cannot hope to teach the student all the words which he will encounter, the problem of the unfamiliar word will always remain. We have to train students to take the occasional unfamiliar word in his stride, instead of pausing, breaking step or stumbling. A skilful reader is one who has trained himself to decode the message in a given piece of text without bothering about the meaning of every individual word. This partly involves the ability to make intelligent guesses, rapidly, about the meanings of new words which occur together with known words. This is an ability which can be acquired through practice, provided the teacher knows how to provide this practice.

Difficulties can also be created by complicated grammatical structures. For example, a sentence like The student who came to see me on the morning of the day on which I was informed that I had been elected is waiting to see you, is difficult to understand because of its complicated grammatical structure. If a student encounters such sentence in a text, he may lose his enthusiasm for reading. He needs to be trained in the handling of such sentences; he must learn to process such sentence rapidly in his head, in order to be able to get the message. Once again he can acquire this ability through practice, though it will probably be helpful if we explain to him how such sentences are structured – in other words, teach him the grammar necessary to decode such complicated sentences .

And finally, students may be prevented from reading by the difficulty, complexity, or unfamiliarity of the content of a piece of text. The ideas may be unfamiliar of difficult; or, perhaps, there may be too many references to an unfamiliar culture. There may be unfamiliar historical allusions.

The function of the teacher 's presentation is, as we said, to help remove the road-blocks which might prevent the student from reading on his own.

First, there is the problem of removing psychological resistance. Many people, when confronted by a piece of unfamiliar text, might experience a slight feeling of shock. Only confirmed book worms love to sink their teeth into new reading; most of us read only when we have to particularly if there is serious or difficult reading involved.

It may be a little too much, sometimes, to expect that a

Obviously, some kind of preface or introduction by the teacher is indicated, as a prelude to the activity of reading.

But the introduction should not take the form of a lengthy and exhaustive lecture; it should be reduced to the bearest minimum.

The aim of this introduction should be to give the students a forestate of what he is going to find in the text. The teacher must tell him just enough to arouse his curiosity, to wet his appetite; if he tells him too much in advance, is may have the effect of destroying, or atleast reducing, his curiosity about the text.

Some teachers begin by providing a summary of the text. If there is a story of a play being taught, they give out the plot in advance. This may have the advantage of making the text look easier, but it is likely to rob the student of all curiosity, all sense of anticipation. Going through a text should be made to look like a adventure; there should be some discovery to be made by the

student. Clearly, it is bad strategy to begin by saying something like: This essay is about ..... or In this essay the writer tells us ..... etc.

The introduction to the text should be oblique, camouflaged. The teacher should create a framework which will enable him to lead the student on to the text; he may narrate an anecdote, or talk about something that was taught earlier. Or, he may ask a series of questions that force his students to think about some issues which are going to be raised in the text. All this should be done, however, without direct reference to the text itself.

Dealing with Difficult Vocabulary :

Whatever the technique used, the teacher should so prime the student that he will be eager to begin reading. At the same time, the teacher can use the introduction too remove, in advance, some of the road blocks which, in his opinion, are likely to prevent the student from reading with ease and confidence.

For example, the teacher may have to deal in advance with some of the difficult vocabulary found in the text.

Let us examine some techniques commonly used by teachers in class to deal with difficult vocabulary.

1. The teacher asks the students to start reading, and to ask him the meanings of any difficult words which they come across.

   About thirty seconds later, the first hand goes up:

Please, sir, what is the meaning of .....? The teacher tries his best to explain; mean while half a dozen other hands have been raised. Quite often, a student will ask the meaning of the same word which the teacher has just explained. It is not his fault; he wasn't able to hear what the teacher said, because he was too busy reading.

Many of the difficult words which students want the meanings of are, in fact, not difficult at all; the student can quite easily guess the meaning if he is encouraged to do so. But if the teacher offers to explain the meanings of all the difficult words, there is no incentive left for students to try puzzle out their meanings.

ii. The teacher himself becomes the inquisitor, and while his students are trying to read, he interrupts them after every thirty seconds, to ask them: what is the meaning of? Naturally, his students are torn between the effort to read, and to answer his questions; they cannot do either.

iii. The teacher decides, in advance, that certain words are difficult, and need to be explained. He writes these words on the blackboard, and proceeds to explain their meanings. However, there is no context supplied ; the words are dealt within isolation.

We should like to suggest that none of the techniques discussed above is entirely satisfactory, though the last is probably the least unsatisfactory.

We feel it is not advisable, while dealing with a piece of text, to emphasis the difficulties presented by individual words. Initially, we are more concerned with the general understanding of the text, which does not depend (as we have said already) on being able to understand each word. The students must not be led to expect that he has to understand the meaning of each word. In fact, he should not be led to expect that each words has a meaning. One of the popular fallacies about language is the belief that every word has a meaning, which can be stated through an equivalent word(or words). Even the best dictionaries may find it difficult to find equivalences for words. Quite often, the meaning of a word is a context ; the only satisfactory way of expressing a meaning may be by providing a complete context, which may be a sentence, or even a paragraph. .

However, difficult words in the text have to be dealt with in advance, so that when the student comes across them later, while reading, he does't have to stop.

We feel it is better for the teacher to decide which words are difficult than to leave the decision to the students. If students are encouraged to find difficulties they tend to exaggerate their difficulties, and to become too dependent on the teacher. But the teacher should be able to judge which words are really difficult. (This, of course, is largely a matter of experience).

No teacher can hope to teach everything; nor should he try to. It may be better to understand than to overteach. This applies to the teaching of difficult words, as to everything else.

The teacher must be very selective about the words he chooses to deal with. Many words which are found to be difficult (in school texts) are words which the average students is likely to have very little use for (other than their occurrence in the given text); these are not words which he will even use himself, nor is he likely to encounter them in everyday speech or writing. There is simply no point in trying to teach such words. It is best to ignore them, if possible; if they cannot be ignored, because they are very crucial to the understanding of the text, he should deal with them as economically as possible.

Use of the Mother – tongue in the English Class :

Let us make ourselves clear about the use of the mother-tongue in the English class.

First, we do not agree with the people who insist that the mother-tongue must never be used in the English class, under any circumstance.

This does not mean,however,that the mother-tongue should be used indiscriminately. It is very important to understand what

the mother-tongue can be used for, and what it should not be used for.

For one thing, we believe that the use of the mother-tongue be confined to the teacher: the student should not be allowed to use it.

The use of the mother-tongue is most legitimate in explaining the concepts which will enable students to use language.

As we have already seen, language learning requires the understanding of certain concepts and rules as well as practice in the use of certain skills. It is difficult to say which of these is more crucial; anyway, we know very little about how the understanding is achieved, and know rather more about how the practice can be provided. In any case, understanding is no substitute for practice.

Most probably, the understanding can be helped by providing explanations, and in certain cases, it is helpful to provide the explanations in the mother-tongue. The difficulty is that if we provide explanations all the time in the mother tongue, this interferes with the practice of certain skills in the target language. The ability to understand explanations, instructions, etc., in the target language, in both speech and writing, is an important language objective, and this involves a lot of practice in understanding explanations, etc., given in the target language. When we uses the mother-tongue in the class, therefore more may be lost than gained, unless it is done carefully. The prime consideration for the teacher must be to provide as much practice in the use of the target language as possible.

Since the words taught for the passive or adhoc vocabulary are not intended to be practised for active use, it seems to be quite legitimate to use the mother-tongue for presenting the meanings of such words. But in the case of the words intended for the passive vocabulary, the meaning in the mother-tongue should be given only after the use of these words has been illustrated in the target language.

What about the ad-hoc vocabulary? In this case as we said earlier, the teacher 's aim is to get the words out of the way as rapidly as possible. There is no need, therefore, to illustrate the use of such words, through contexts. It is quite enough if the teacher gives the meanings of such words – in the mother - tongue, if necessary - or glosses them, in advance.

Glossary Writing :

Glossing a word is a little different from merely providing the meaning. When a word is glossed, it is related too the context in which it actually occurs. A word, as we know, can have several meanings, or several shades of meaning. The gloss of the word indicates, form the context, exactly, which meaning is intended.

Some teachers feel tempted, when they come across a new word, to explain all the meanings that it can possibly have. They believe that this helps the students to enlarge their vocabulary.

However, it may be better, on the whole, to confine oneself to only the meaning which is relevant to the text. It may confuse the student to be given three or four meanings of a word all at once. It is better for him to meet the word in its different meanings, gradually.

Thus the introductory talk by the teacher can serve several purposes at once; introduce the difficult vocabulary and grammar as well as the content of the text. However, the effectiveness of the introduction will depend on its economy; it must be brief, and striking.

We now come to the next part of the lesson; the reading of the text by the students.

There are several different skills involved in successful reading. (We shall postpone a discussion of these composite skills for a later lesson). In order to teach successful reading, the teacher

should be able to provide practice in all the skills involved. He must know how to exploit the text for this kind of practice. Of course, the same text cannot be exploited for all the skills, nevertheless, the practice can be made fairly comprehensive.

Comprehension Questions in the Teaching of Prose Lesson :

Basically, the skills of reading are practised through exercises which compel the reader to go through a certain kind of read ing activity, and test whether he has been able to do this successfully. Usually, these exercises take the form of questions, or problems; they are popularly known as comprehension questions.

Most school textbooks are provided with readymade questions to teach comprehension, and frequently, the teacher reads them out to the class, and asks for answers. Usually, only a few bright students volunteer answers, the majority of the students take no interest in the proceedings. When the answers have been given, the teacher merely accepts them, by saying ; yes, that's right! or rejects them with a No, that's not the answer!. There is no attempt, usually to disucss the answers received.

In our experience, most of the comprehension questions appended to school texts are unsatisfactory, for a variety of reasons.

In the first place, most of these questions require complete sentences, or several sentences, as the answers. Even if a student has the comprehension required, he may have difficulty in expressing himself; very often, he does not offer an answer because he is afraid of making a mistake. That is why the majority of students do not respond when the teacher asks them questions.

Initially, therefore, the teacher should ask questions which do not require complete sentences for answers. If the student does not have to worry about the correctness of his answer, he will feel much more involved in the lesson.

The teacher should, therefore, be able to :

a. Supplement the exercises in the text (if provided) with his own exercises, so as to make them more relevant and challenging.

b. Make the activity of reading and answering questions lovely and interesting.

Too often, these exercises are attempted in a listless and mechanical fashion. The teacher himself is not very clear, often, about the purpose of these exercises : he regards this part of the lesson as some kind of a ritual to be gone through mechanically. His mood invariably infects his students.

The teacher's presence in the classroom is necessary for at least one reason : he can breathe life into an inanimate book. It is a pity, therefore, if the teacher becomes a slave to the textbook, and merely does what the book asks him to do.

Language learning requires a lively give - and - take, which the teacher alone can provide.

The most valuable part of the lesson, in fact, is the discussion which follows - or ought to follow - the activity of reading.

The teacher should not merely accept or reject an answer, but must turn it into an occasion for lively discussion, with as many students participating as possible. A student must be able to justify an answer given by him. Possible alternatives or improvements should be provided by other students ; the teacher may merely suggest the answers.

Using Reading Activity for other Language Activities:

Although the teaching of the text is intended primarily to promote the activity of reading, so as to provide practice in the skills of reading, it can be used to develop other kinds of language activity

too. For example, the teacher can use the text to provide practice in listening: instead of making his students read the text, he can make them listen to it. But it is found that which is very good for purposes of reading is generally not very suitable for purpose of listening. (The reasons for this will be discussed later). The teacher may, therefore, have to amend or edit the text for use in listening.

Then. the text can trigger off a lot of speaking by the students. Students are apt to make many mistakes of grammar and pronunciation while speaking. In our view, the teacher should encourage them to speak fluently without bothering them too much about grammatical correctness. Confidence in one 's ability to use language is more important than correctness.

The reading of the text can also lead to a lot of valuable practice in writing. For example, students can be made to write the answers to comprehension questions instead of answering them orally. Oral answers should, in fact, be reinforced through writing. The questions, can be so controlled as to provide, gradually, more and more practice in expression. It is helpful to students if they are allowed to write the answers to the more difficult questions before reading them out. This also has the advantage of involving more students; if the teacher asks for oral answers all the time, many students find ways of avoiding the questions, and remain completely un-involved. This has to be discouraged. One way of achieving this is to ask all students to write their answers first. The teacher can usually detect any student who is not writing; the students know this, and do make some sort of attempt to write. The activity of writing also gives students time to think about the answers. This is essential, in fact. Quite often we find teachers firing off their questions without giving students enough time to read the text, or to think about the answers.

It may be advantageous, sometimes, to give the questions to the students in advance, before they start reading, and to ask them to look for the answers as they read. This forces students to read alternatively; in fact, it gives a purpose to their reading.

The text can also serve as a take-off for a lot of composition practice in the class. This is something we will discuss in a later lesson.

WORK SHEET

ACTIVITY – 1

List the objectives of teaching a prose lesson for a IX standard English Class.

.....

.....

ACTIVITY – 2

Give four suggestions to help your pupils in their better comprehension of a prose lesson.

ACTIVITY – 3

Frame four comprehension questions for a prose passage taken from a X Standard English lesson.

ACTIVITY – 4

List the steps involved in your teaching of new words in a prose lesson by illustrating any four new words.

SELF - CHECK

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words to complete the following sentences :

1. In prose teaching, the teacher must give practice to the pupils in the use of ———————— and ————————.
2. English is most relevant for our country as a ———————— language.
3. The English books which we put into the hands of the students are ———————— because they do

not represent the kind of material which most of us have to deal within life.

4. _____,_____,_____ constitute the teaching paradigon.

KEY:

1. Vocabulary and structure
2. Library
3. Artificial
4. Presentation, Exercise Feedback

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Outline the various steps in teaching a prose lesson at the secondary stage.
2. What is the place of silent reading in prose teaching?
3. What do you understand by the expression Language activities in a prose lesson?

LESSON 9

TECHNIQUES OF TEACHING POETRY

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i) justify the place of Poetry in second language teaching.

ii) describe the techniques of teaching Poetry.

iii) differentiate the teaching of poetry from the teaching of prose.

iv) list the wrong methods in common practice which are to be avoided in teaching poetry.

ACTIVITIES :

i) Reading of learning material.

ii) Reading of

– Billows, F.L. The Techniques of Language Teaching, London : Longman Group Ltd., 1975.

– Gordon, D.S. Teaching English in Free India, Madras : C.L.S. 1960

iii) Completion of work sheet and self-check.

Learning Activity :

Today, almost all teachers have accepted, the primacy of the language skills in the teaching of English. There is, unfortunately, a tendency to view the whole business of learning (and teaching) English in unduly simplistic terms, to look for simple solutions to problems which are basically complex. Some people are often fascinated by catch words which have no real validity. One of these shibboleths is the replacement of all literary texts by language based texts (whatever that means - presumably, text specifically intended to provide practice with pre - selected grammatical patterns and vocabulary). Some people, one suspects, may have developed feelings of guilt about teaching literature in the English class and are now anxious to a tone by repudiating anything that might seem even faintly literary.

One of the first target in this crusade for language is poetry. There are teachers who now maintain that poetry can have no place in second language teaching that a student struggling with the elements of English Structure should not be exposed to the complexities of poetry. Two arguments are commonly advanced :

(i) Poetry can mean nothing to a student who has only a rudimentary understanding of the language and there fore exposure to poetry leads only to incomprehension, bewilderment and frustratior. Alternatively, since the student is compelled to accept whatever interpretation of a poem his teacher chooses to thrust on him, expo sure to poetry can encourage mental laziness and habits of uncritical acceptance of rejection. In either case, the results are pedagogically unhealthy ; there can be no benefits in such an exercise.

(ii) Since poetry frequently exploys words and syntax in a manner that would be considered abnormal and often unacceptable in ordinary language, exposure to such usage, before the student has mastered

> *normal* usage, can lead to the formation of wrong language habits. Attempts have been made for instance, to trace some errors frequently committed by African students due to pre - mature exposure to Shakesphearean language.

The substance of both these arguments is : poetry represents a different kind of language use from the one commonly associated with communicative functions. Since the learner does not generally encounter such use of language, there is not much point in giving him practice with this non - normal kind of use ; teaching time (which is limited) can be better utilised in giving him what he does need - plentiful practice in the use of normal language in normal situations. It is not that people have anything against poetry, but they feel poetry can wait until the basics of language have been learnt.

There is considerable force in this argument, but it could be turned back against itself. The reason for wishing to teach poetry is precisely that it is not prose, that it does not function in the same way as prose. There is no point in using poetry (in the class room) for purposes which could also be served through prose, for prose can almost always serve such purposes better. Poetry should not for example, be used to develop the skills of comprehension, or to provide drill with the structures of English or teach essential vocabulary : these can be done more effectively by using prose texts, which is why (as we have said already) the prose text forms the core of the language teaching course. It cannt be said either, that poetry provides the student with a mode of language which he can consciously or unconsciously imitate in his own use (though this could be an argument in favour of exposing the learner to good prose) Basically, we wish to teach poetry because it provides the students with the variety of linguistic experience that is not otherwise available - an experience of a different kind of language use, which is creative and imaginative and can achieve more total communication through a fuller utilisation of such resources of language as the ambiguities and overtones of words. Such experience, atleast for the learner of the language is largely passive - but

that does not make it useless. Though it is no substitute for active learning, it can be a desirable complement to it. On the whole, therefore, our sympathies are with those who have clung stubbornly to poetry, though often for reasons which are different from ones we are discussing.

How not to teach a Poem

A common practice is to preface the teaching of the poem with introductory remarks about the poet, his life and times, his contribution to literary, history etc., At the secondary level, it is not usually necessary to talk about the poet or the background to the poem, unless something in the poem absolutely demands these references (which is not very likely).

It is often argued that giving students some information about the poet, or relating the poem to its tradition, adds to the understanding and enjoyment of the poem. This may be true, but there are good reasons why the teacher should not launch upon lenghthy and scholarly introduction to the poem. In the first place, it is a waste of classroom time to give students factual information about a poem which they could obtain from a book; it would be much better to give them the references and let them consult them, if they felt interested enough to do so after reading the poem. This desire to know more about a poem should arise out of the experience of the poem itself. In India, the teaching of English poetry has meant too often, the retailing of available information as a substitute for the study of the actual text: at the undergraduate level, at any rate, we would make it clear that it is the text which matters. Further more, at this stage, the teacher cannot, should not attempt to exhaust all the possibilities of a poem, to squeeze out of it every drop of significance. It is quite enough if the students begin to see something of the possibilities.

Teaching a poem should not consist in paraphrasing each line, glossing each word, analysing each image and finally wrapping the poem up neatly into a control idea or message. The main justification for teaching poetry at this level is that it provides

enjoyable experience of language; this means, first, that the language of the poem is atleast as important as the content which it presumably conveys second, that the poem should be an experience, to be felt not merely talked about; third, that the experience should be enjoyed. Too often, the poem selected for teaching are those which contain recognisable morals (exhortations to patriotism, virtue, industriousness etc). Even when a poem is not obviously didactic there remains a tendency to emphasise the content. The teacher, interpretation of what the poem is about becomes a substitute for the poem itself whereas it should serve as an aid in making the students go to the poem and discovering it for themselves. The poem has to be preserved intact as experience, to be aprehended through several channels at once: visual, the auditory, the tactile, the intellectual, the emotional, etc. nothing destroys the experience in a poem effectively as too much explaining. This tendency to explain too much may be due to the unfortunate manner in which the examination tests what the student learnt in the poetry class. The usual Explain with reference to the context ... question, or the equally popular Attempt a critical appreciation of..... question tends to reduce a poem to a bald statement of some kind and to make grasp of details more important than response to the total experience. It is doubtful whether response to a poem can be tested in summary manner, but the requirements of the examination do make the student (and the teacher feel that everything that is examinable in a poem must be explained. A poem, we must repeat, should not be used for purposes for which prose could also be used. (This is a dictum as useful for the poet as for the teacher). It is a waste of poetry (and of time) to use a poem for purposes of mere comprehension : prose is the proper medium for such exercise. Poetry works not through the explicitness of language but through its suggestiveness; there should not, therefore, be too much emphasis on meaning, on exhaustive understanding and grasp of detail.

The teacher we have suggested, should be as much concerned with the language of the poem as with its content. he may have to point out the special uses of language in each poem, or talk about the convention attached to such use of language. Here again,

he will have to remember that the kind of response he can expect from his students at this stage can only be elementary. There is no need, therefore, to burden them with technical information concerning metrices, prosody, rhetoric etc. The most that the teacher can hope to achieve is to make his students feel something of the poetry in the poems ; how he can do this is not something that can be indicated in a few simple steps ; nevertheless, here is an approach that may be more useful than the traditional one of lecturing on the poem.

Techniques of Teaching the Poem :

We have said already that the poem should be thought of as an experience to which the student has to be led. Too much of teaching destroys of dilutes the experience ; on the other hand, some teaching is necessary, so that the difficulties which prevent the student from reaching the experience can be removed.

The difficulties (for the student) can be linguistic, cultural, or intellectual. If the student encounters too many new words (or patterns), or if he is confronted with cultural elements or ideas in the poem which are unfamiliar or complex, he is likely to miss the experience in the poem. The teacher has, therefore, to introduce the language items or the part of the content which he judges to be essential for a proper understanding and enjoyment of the poem as a whole. This has to be done before the student s are asked to tackle the poem itself.

Introduction for the poem

The introduction should always be as economical as possible. The teacher should not appear to be telling the class directly what the poem is all about. If the students are once made to expect the teacher will explain the whole to them, they will not be in the proper frame of mind to read the poem themselves and to make the effort necessary to discover it. The teacher should not, therefore, set up any such expectation: it may be advisable to avoid expres

sions such as I am going to teach you a poem .... (We are going to read a poem ... is much better)

Place of Glossary :

Some teachers begin the teaching of the poem by isolating all the difficult words, writing them up on the board, and glossing them. it may be occasionally useful to gloss a word in advance, but it is not desirable to tear every word out of its context (in this case, the poem). In glossing a word, some context has to be provided: this applies also to the part of the content which has to be introduced. A suitable framework has to be found, therefore, into which to incorporate all that the teacher may want to say about the poem before it is read. The problem is to make the introduction interesting enough, to make the student want to read the poem and find out what is in it.

Loud Reading – An Essential Element

So far, in talking about reading we have emphasized the importance of reading silently and fast, for purposes of comprehension. Normally, there is not much point in reading aloud from a text; this does not give the student useful practice in the important language skills. But in the teaching of poetry, the reading of the poem aloud is a rather essential element. Poetry is meant primarily to be heard, and even when it is being read visually the echo of the sounds which it contains is present with the reader. (In the rapid reading of prose texts for comprehension it is this echo that we wish to inhibit.) The most striking effects of the poetry are achieved through sound and although it is difficult for a student to respond to the sound of the English poetry in the way we wish him to, he must be given every opportunity of listening to these sounds. A good reading of a poem is worth atleast half the lesson. A teacher who is required to teach poetry to a class should be trained in the proper and effective reading of English poetry. This requires, above all, a familiarity with the rhythm and tones of the English language. Poetry in the Indian Languages is commonly meant to

be recited, or chanted. The rise and fall of the voice in such poetry is significantly different from the normal pattern in speed. This is because stress does not play a significant part in most Indian language and important elements in the meaning an utterance are signalled through intonation changes in the level of the voice. In the rendering of a poem, therefore, a good deal of variation pitch is usually involved. When a speaker of an Indian language reads a poem in English, he tends to makeuse of the patterns of the poetry in his own language. As a result, the poem tends to became unduly dramatised, or exaggerated. English poetry is usually intended to be spoken rather than recited.

For this reason it is difficult to read an English poem effectively unless one is familiar with the sound systems of spoken English. But one needs also to be familiar with certain special conventions about the use of sound in English verse, which introduce variations from the normal speech patterns. It is not possible for us to explain here precisely how a poem in English is to be read aloud. It is best for the teacher to listen to recorded readings of well-known English poem, to try to observe the rhythms and intonation patterns used, and to imitate them as far as possible. If the teacher is not confident of his own ability to read a poem effectively, he should not attempt to do this. He may either use a recorded reading in the class (This is often not possible to arrange) or make use of a live reader (a student, perhaps) who is known to be efficient. If neither of these can be done, a teacher should simply forget about the reading of the poem aloud, and ask his students to read it silently. In any case, students should not be exposed too bad reading of poetry.

Teach the Poem as a Whole

It is a good practice to read the poem aloud once to the class, asking the students merely to listen to the poem, with all texts put away. There are several advantages if the first impact of poem is purely auditory. We wish the students to form a first impression of the poem as a whole before he looks at the detail. If he is to receive.

an effective first impression, he should be able to get the essential elements uncluttered with distracting details. When a student listens to a poem for the first time, there is a likelihood that he will receive only the most striking and possibly the most essential elements; the details are filtered out. This filtering out of details is not achieved if the student is asked to follow the poem in the text book as it is being read out to him.

To confirm that the students has received an initial impression from listening to the poem, the teacher should ask him a few general question which involve his reacting to the poem as a whole. It is here that the theme of the poem, and its tone (whether it is a cheerful poem or a sad one, etc.) are established. If the student has missed the essentials, the teacher can lead him to them.

At this stage, the poem can be read aloud a second time, this time with the student following the text visually. They should have formed at the end of this reading quite a good impression of what the poem is about and what it is trying to say to them. If the teacher finds that at this stage the poem means nothing to his students and leaves them totally unconcerned, this probably indicates that the poem being taught is not a suitable one.

Sometimes the clues to the meaning of a poem may lie in the use of a particular grammatical pattern, which the student may miss. For example, Kipling 's poem If achieves much of its effect by making delayed use of the conditional structure introduced by If. W.B Yeats well known poem which begins: When you are old and gray and full of sleep exploits the contrast between the present and future state of things implied in the structure when.... The student may fail to see the structure and its implications until he has had a change to look at the poem as well as listen to it. This adds to his grasp of the poem as a whole.

Once the student has an over all understanding of the poem, the significant details will fall into plane and fill in the picture. Quite often, the poem will, infact, register in his mind as a picture visual elements in poetry are often most easily grasped. For the

teacher, therefore, a useful way of stimulating response is to start with what is not visual and concrete in the poem. But the teacher 's activity should consist in shaping, rather than dictating, response – in suggesting, rather than telling. in inviting students to form mental pictures the teacher can draw attention to the way in which sounds contribute to the picture (e.g. the effect of the t and b sounds in Tiger, Tiger burning bright....).

In discussing the logical structure of the poem too, the teacher should only suggest to the student how words are used to build up an idea: how key–words can function in setting up a theme, even if it is not explicitly stated. Poetry consists very often in indirect or oblique statements, or patterns of contrasts created by the use of words and phrases used symbolically to evoke certain associations. The students have to be led to the discovery of these patterns (of words, images, sounds, etc.) through questions which suggest the answer that he is expected to arrive at.

In poetry (and, infact, in all close reading of text material). the important thing is to make the student go backagain and again to the poem, by asking him questions which can be answered only through a scrutiny of the text. Some questions which could be used might be of the following types:

1. In which line (or lines) of the poem does the poet try to say that ..... (the teacher puts into his own words the idea which he feels the lines convey)

2. Which words in the poem tell you the poet is trying to say .....

The questions asked should not test merely whether the students has understood what the poem is about: his understanding should include also an awareness of how the poet is able to say what he wants to say. But first, there has to be a tangible meaning which the student can use to build up the more complex kinds of understanding. The teacher should help the students arrive at this meaning, by integrating the answers to the various questions asked

by him. The summing-up of the poem should serve to bring into focus all the elements in the poem which he has been trying to demonstrate or highlight.

Above all, the teacher must appear to be enjoying the poem, or else he will never be able to induce enjoyment in the student. The best teachers of English always manages to infect the student with something of their enthusiams. It is because poetry can still be infectious that we wish to teach it.

Criteria for the Selection of the Poems

We have mentioned in our list of aims of teaching English at the secondary stage that along with a well-organised programme of English language there would also be good reason to teach pupils some selected aspects of English as well. In the material that we choose for the purpose poetry will also occupy an important place. Care should, however, be taken to select poetical pieces for different grades. Simple descriptive and narrative poems may give a good start in grades IX and X and then in the XI and XII grades verses of some good poets may be selected. As in the case of lessons in the prose in the text-books prescribed for high school students, so in the case of poems there are to be found in the selections prescribed some poems which students fail to understand and appreciate. The purpose of teaching poetry in the first two grades is to enable students to grasp the contents of the poems and also help them appreciate the beauty of language by appreciating the rhyme and rhythm and simple figurative expressions like sile, metaphor, personification, alliteration, etc., which they can easily appreciate in the light of the background in their own mother tongue. No attempt should be made in a poetry lesson to emphasise the structural aspects of language, but every attempt should be made to enable students to grasp the contents of the poem and appreciate the feelings, emotions, mood, ideas, reflections, etc., of the poet. In fact poetry cannot be taught, it can only be caught. Teaching would kill it. As Coleridge remarked, in prose words are in their best order, but in poetry, best words are in the best order.

The aims in teaching English poetry to pupils in secondary schools are :

(i) to enable them to read poetry for pleasure.

(ii) to help them to understand the thoughts, ideas and feelings of the poet and to extend their sympathetic appreciation to them.

(iii) to stimulate students' imagination and to appeal to their emotions.

(v) to help them appreciate the beauty of form and style. A teacher of English poetry will not emphasise the structural aspects of language by analysing the structures involved, or devising drills in the use of structures or words used in the poem. These are good exercise for a language lesson but not for a lesson in English poetry.

Work Sheet

Activity – 1

From the prescribed poems for std. IX and X list the poem in the order of their simplicity, appropriateness and content validity.

Activity – 2

Enumerate five different ways of stimulating interest in poetry.

Activity – 3

Outline the various steps in teaching a poem at the Secondary stage.

SELF – CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one which is correct.

1. Pupils memorize poems easily because.
   a) they are included for the examination.
   b) they have ryhme, rhythm and metre in them.
   c) the language is familiar to them.
   d) they express feeling effectively.

2. Pupils learning English as a second language enjoy better, poems which describe.

   a) their surrounding and environment

   b) English atmosphere

   c) Complex ideas in a simple way

   d) imaginary adventure and expedition.

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words to complete the following sentences.

a) In the early stage of teaching poetry, poems to be selected must be _____ in nature.

b) In the middle stage for pupil's better enjoyment the teacher should select _____ poems.

Key :

1	2	A	B	
b	a	straight	forward	narrative

Enrichment Activities :

1. *In prose, words are in their best order, but in poetry best words are in the best order* - Coleridge. - Critically evaluate this statement.

2. *Poetry cannot be taught, it can only be caught* - Substantiate, this statement.

LESSON – 10
TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING WRITING

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, trainess are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. justify the inclusion of writing as a part of the second - language syllabus.

ii. list the various skills that writers need for effective writing.

iii. explain the various techniques of teaching writing.

ACTIVITIES :

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Hedge Tricia, *Writing Resource Book for Teachers*, Oxford : Oxford University Press, 1988.

iii. Completion of wrok sheet and self - check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY :

When we learn a second language, we learn to communicate with other people to undrstand them, talk to them read what they have written and write to them. An integral part of participating fully in a new cultural setting is learning how to

communicate when the other person is not right there in front of us, listening to our words and looking at our gestures and facial expressions. Visitors to another country will often have to leave a note for the mailman, fill out a customs declaration form, give written instructions, or write a thank - you letter.

But the fact that people frequently have to communicate with each other in writing is not the only reason to include writing as a part of our second - language syllabus. There is an additional and very imortant reason : writing helps our students learn. How ? First, writing reinforces the grammatical structures, idioms, and vocabulary that we have been teaching our students. Second, when our students write, they also have a chance to be adventurous with the language, to go beyond what they have just learned to say, to take risks. Third, when they write, they necessarily become very involved with the new language ; the effort to express ideas and the constant use of eye, hand, and brain is a unique way to reinforce learning. As writers struggle with what to put down next or how to put it down on paper, they often discover something new to write or a new way of expressing their idea. They discover a real need for finding the right word and the right sentence. The close relationship between writing and thinking makes writing a valuable part of any language course.

A great deal of writing that goes on in ESL lessons, especially in an elementary - level class, is sentence writing. Students repeat or compelte given sentences to reinforce the structure, grammar, and vocabulary that have learned. They work with pattern sentences, performing substitutions or transformations. We will concentrate on techniquest to get students to go beyond those sentence exercises, so that they write.

* to communicate with a reader,
* to express ideas without the pressure of face to face communication ;
* to explore a subject ;

* to record experience ;
* to become familiar with the conventions of written English discourse (a text).

SPEAKING AND WRITING :

Some of you may wonder why it is not enough to teach our students how to speak English adequately ; won't they then obviously be able to write it ? Not necessarily, for writing is not simply speech written down on paper. Learning to write is not just a *natural* extension of learning to speak a language. We learnt to speak our first language at home without systematic instruction, whereas most of us had to be taught in shcool how to write that same language. Many adult native speakers of a language find writing difficult. The two processes speaking and writing, are not identical.

Let us look at some of the differences between writing and speaking :

1. Speech is universal ; everyone acquires a native language in the first few years of life. Not everyone learns to read and write.
2. The spoken language has dialect variations. The written language generally demands standard forms of grammar, syntax, and vocabulary.
3. Speakers use their voices (pitch, stress and rhythm) and bodies (gestures and facial expressions) to help convey their ideas. Writes have to rely on the words on the page to express their meaning.
4. Speakers use pauses and intonation. Writers use punctuation.
5. Speakers pronounce. Writers spell.
6. Speaking is usually spontaneous and unplanned.

Most writing takes time. It is planned. We can go back and change what we have written.

7. A speaker speaks to a listener who is right there, nodding or frowning, interrupting or questioning. For the writer, the reader's response is either delayed or nonexistent. The writer has only that one chance to convey information and be interesting and accurate enough to hold the reader's attention.

8. Speech is usually informal and repetitive, We say things like, *What I mean is ... or Let me start again.* Writing, on the other hand, is more formal and compact. It progresses logically with fewer digressions and explanations.

9. Speakers use simple sentences connected by a lot of and's and but's. Writers use more comlex sentences, with connecting words like *however, who and in addition . While we could easily say, His father runs ten miles every day and is very healthy,* we might well write, *His father, who runs ten miles every day, is very healthy.*

Tricia Hedge in her book *writing* (1988) narrataes her own experience : *When I told my class of advanced students about an aritcle I had been reading called Anguish as a Second Language* (Raimes 1983), *which dealt with the problems of writing in a second language, they smiled at the pun but agreed with the sentiment. I think many students and teachers would recognize, if ruefully, the characterization of writing periods as times of sighing, pencil - chewing, foot - shuffling agony.* Why is it that for large numbers of English language students writing seems to pose great problems ? Possibly for the same reasons that large numbers of adult native speakers never achieve a high level of expressiveness in writing their first language. it is partly to do with the nature of writing itself. HYarold Rosen (1981), writing about a school curriuclum project on writing in Britain, explained it in this way :

The writer is a lonely figure cut off from the stimulus and corrective of listners. He must be a predictor of reactions and act on his predictions. He writes with one hand tied behind his back, being robbed of gesture. he is robbed too of the tone of his voice and the aid of clues the environment provides. He is condemned to monologue ; there is no one to help out, to fill the silences, put words in his mouth, or make encouraging noises.

As Rosen points out, writing is detached from the wide range of expressive posibilities in speech. A writer is unable to exploit all the devices available to a speaker : gesture, body movement, facial expression , pitch and tone of voice, stress, and hesitations. A speaker can backtrack, or clarify and revise ideas as listeners question or disagree. A writer has to compensate for all of these disadvantages.

Compared with speech, effective writing requires a number of things : a high degree of organization in the development of ideas and information ; a high degree of accuracy so that there is no ambiguity of meaning ; the use of complex grammatical devices for focus and emphasis ; and a carefull choice of vocabulary, grammatical patterns, and sentence structures to create style which is appropriate to the subject matter and the eventual readers.

It is these demands which present particular problems to foreign writers of English. Even those who are proficient writers in their first language have to acquire a wide language base from which to make these choices. They may also find that confusing differences exist between the conventions of writing in their first language and English. For example, the level of formality or patterns of presenting information in letters may differ or the accepted method of setting out arguments in discursive writing may vary.

The Reasons for Writing :

A good deal of writing in the English language classroom is undertaken as an aid to learning, for example, to consolidate the

learning of new structures or vocabulary or to help students remember new items of language. In this context, the role of writing is little different from its role in any other subject; it allows students to see how they are progressing and to get feedback from the teacher, and it allows teachers to monitor and diagnose problems. Much of this writing is at the sentence level and is what Ron White (1980) calls *Sentence Level Reinforcement Exercises*.

They clearly have their value in language learning, but successful writing depends on more than the ability to produce clear and correct sentences. We are interested in tasks which help students to write whole pieces of communication, to link and develop information, ideas, or arguments for a particular reader or group of readers.

Writing tasks which have whole texts as their outcome relate appropriately to the ultimate goal of those learners who need to write English in their social, educational, or professional lives. Some of our students know already what they need to be able to write in English. Others may be uncertain about the nature of their future needs. Our role as teachers is to build communicative potential. Many secondary students have to prove their competence in English and sometimes in other subjects by producing compositions for examinations. There have been substantial numbers of students who have no identifiable needs, present or future, for written English, but who enjoy writing, who are motivated to use their language resources in producing stories, reviews, essays, and even poems, simply to practise and improve their English, By encouraging the production of whole texts in the classroom we can provide for these different motivations for writing.

The Product of Writing

One approach to writing is to look at instances of writing and to analyse the features of written texts. This will tell us something about what it is that students have to produce. It is

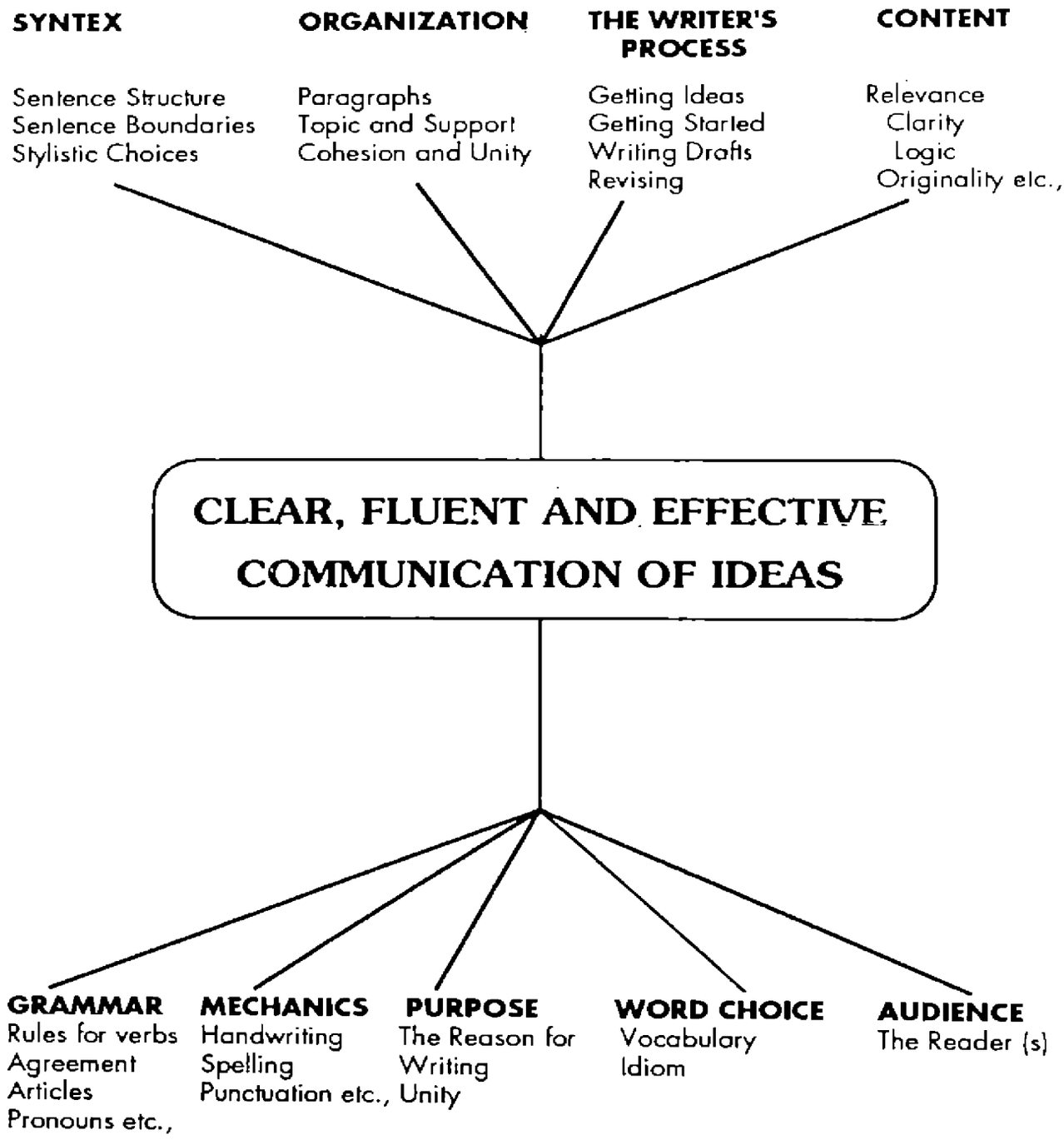
possible to build up a list of the *skills* the writers need. It would include :

- getting the grammar right
- having a range of vocabulary
- punctuating meaningfully
- using the conventions of layout correctly, e.g. in letters.
- spelling accurately
- using a range of sentence structures
- linking ideas and information across sentences to develop a topic.
- developing and organizing the content clearly and convincingly.

It is also possible to build up a checklist of the narrative (letters, essays, reports) and the functions (narrative description comparison, and contrast) of written texts and to show students how the features and organization of these different written products differ from one another. In setting and marking work teachers and students can focus on one or on a number of the general skills, but ideally within the context of a whole text.

The following diagram shows what writers have to deal with as they produced a piece of writing.

PRODUCING A PIECE OF WRITING



Synthetic and Analytic Methods :

There are two methods of writing : (1) the synthetic method, and (2) the analytic method.

The Synthetic Method :

In this method the basic forms common to most letters are taught. When mastered, they are combind into letters, and then letters into words.

The Analytic Method :

In this method the unit of writing is not a letter but a word or phrase. Since words have meaning to the pupil, he taken a interest in writing. The intimate relation between words and their meanings help writing. The child is also saved from going through the lengthy and tiresome process of learning the parts of letters. The greatest value of beginning with the wholes lies in the fact that it alone has meaning; and it is the meaning which leads to the fusion of the separate movements of the letters into a whole. The child can identify the *whole* easily than its parts.

Transcription :

Copying or transcription is the simplest kind of written exercise for the pupil. To see and to write sentences is a good exercise. It is perhaps best for the children to copy what has been written on the blackboard, as the formation of words will then be learnt without special lessons.

Transcription is not merely a mechanical exercise. It lays an important part in learning. The advantage of copying sentences is that the pupil must look at the words. When he has to look at the words on the blackboard carefully in order to copy them, he forms

mental pictures of these words ; and when he writes them the visual memory helps the muscular movements. In copying a sentence, he has to remake it word by word. In this way, he learns the sentence structure. And if he has had good practice with the sentences orally, he cannot avoid thinking of their meaning as he completes them. He may even say the meaning over quietly to himself. Thus he becomes familiar with the most frequently used sentence - patterns.

· The purpose of transcription is to allow the pupil's mind to play round what has been taught in speaking and listening, there by getting the material fixed firmly. The *look* and the *feel* of the word help memory. The visual and hand muscles combine to fasten the impression.

By observing, imitating and then comparing, the pupil develops word and phrase consciousness, the habit of accuracy in writing and the sense of form. The word order, the agreement of the subject with the verb, phrases and idioms are well impressed. Memorisation of sentences is also facilitated. For improving spelling and handwriting, transcrition is a good exercise. It is also helpful in learning punctuation.

Every new pattern, after it has been thoroughly learned, should be practised by transcription. Transcription, at early stages, should preferably be confined to the typical sentences already read. Care should be taken that the sentences selected for transcription contain usages which are worth memorising. At a later stage, transcription should be limited to select pieces which are remarkable for beauty of expression or style.

Transcription in the middle and upper classes may be correlated with grammar. A change in the number, gender or person of the subject results in a corresponding change in the predicate. Transcription involving change in tense, voice or degree may also be attempted. Such exercises help in the learning of grammar. Another form that transcription may take is the writing of answers of simple questions written on the blackboard. Incomplete

sentence may also be given for completion.

TECHNIQUES IN TEACHING WRITING :

Techniques in Using Pictures :

All ESL (English as Second Language) writing teachers can find a valuable resource in pictures: drawings, photographs, posters, slides, cartoons, magazine advertisements, diagrams, graphs, tables, charts and maps. First of all, pictures provide a shared experience for students in the class, a common base that leads to a variety of language activities. When students write about a personal topic like *My most frightening experience*, the material is not shared. It comes from any and all of their experiences. Beyond predicting the use of the past tense, there is little that the teacher can do to prepare a whole class to deal with the vocabulary and sentence patterns that the writers will need. With a picture, however, all students, after close observation of the material, will immediately need the appropriate vocabulary, idiom, and sentence structure to discuss what they see. So pictures are valuable, too, in that they provide for the use of a common vocabulary and common language forms. In addition, a picture can be the basis for not just one task but many, ranging from fairly mechanical controlled compositions, sentence - combining exercises, or sequencing of sentences to the writing of original dialogue, letters, reports, or essays. A whole series of connected activities can be generated from the source of one picture. Finally, because everybody likes to look at pictures, their use in the classroom provides a stimulating focus for student's attention. Pictures bring the outside world into the classroom in a vividly concrete way. So picture is valuable as it provides :

1. a shared experince in the classroom ;
2. a need for common language forms to use in the classroom ;
3. a variety of tasks ;
4. a focus of interest for students.

THE USE OF PICTURES IN THE CLASSROOM :

Before we examine in detail how to use some actual pictures in a classroom, some suggestions for general strategies for using any pictures might be useful :

1. Whole – class discussion, which then leads to writing, can be generated by many types of pictures, such as posters, textbook pictures, magazine picture pasted onto stiff card board and dislayed at the front of the room, simple pictures drawn on the blackboard, or duplicated drawings.

2. To provide a student audience for student writers, give half the class one picture, the other half another. A range of communicative tasks for small groups open up now, with students conveying real information to others.

3. With students working in pairs or small groups, give each student of the pair or give each group a different picture to work with. This frees you from the necessity of obtaining class sets of pictures. It also provides students with a real communicative task. When a few students have the only copy of a picture, it is then necessary for them to be able to inform the rest of the class about it.

4. Real communicative tasks can be developed by using in the classroom pictures that the students themselves provide. There is a double advantage there : the teacher is relieved of the task of finding a picture and the students havesomething that has personal meaning for them to answer questions about and write about in the class - room. Students can be asked to provide their favourite advertisements, their own drawings, a reproduction of their favourite work of art, or a family photograph.

5. Do not limit classroom work to what the students can actually see in the picture. Remember that students can make inferences, predictions, and suppositions about the world beyond the frame of the picture. Ask the students to

use their imagination to visualize what hapened just before the moment in the picture and what will happen next, or to infer what caused the situtation resented in the figures in the chart and what the result will be.

TECHNIQUES IN USING READINGS :

A short story, a newsaper column, an advertisement, a letter, a magazine article, a poem, or a piece of student writing can work the same way as a picture to provide shared content in the classroom. Readings can also, like pictures, be used to create an information gap that leads to communicative activities ; if the students work with a variety of readings at the same time, then they will be dealing with different content, and anything they write to each other will thus be authentic communication, conveying new and real information.

However, readings can do far more in the teaching of writing than simply provide subject matter for discussion and for composition topics. When our students read, they engage actively with the new language and culture. If they are studying English where they have little opportunity with the new language and culture. If they are studying English where they have little opportunity to speak it or hear it spoken, then reading is the only activity that gives them access to unlimited amounts of the language. The more our students read, the more they become familiar with the vocabulary, idiom, sentence patterns, organizational flow, and cultural assumptions of native speakers of the language.

As well as learning a lot about the language and culture in general, students who read interact with a text that somebody else has written, so they can learn a great deal about writing, too. From close reading of a text they see what one writer chose to do with the content. They have direct access to the product of a native speaker of the language and they can return to this product again and again.

There are two types of reading we can ask our students to do: extensive reading or close reading. They can read whole stories or whole books, where they have so much to read that they cannot stop to look up every unfamilar word or to translate every sentence. They then have such a lot of reading to get through, at a level that is challenging for them - a little above the level of the language they themselves produce - that they have to read for content, for meaning. Or, we can ask our students to do close reading, where they read a short passage and give close attention to all the choices the writer has made in, for example, content, vocabulary, and organization.

Obviously, and reading the students do relates to writing in that what they read has once been written. When they read professional writing, they interact with the finished product. When students read each other's writing, the product is not perfect ; the advantage is that students can intervene in the process, questioning, commenting on, and supporting each other's work in progress. The activities we can ask students to do in the classroom to tie their reading in which their writing fall into two broad categories : they can work either with the text or form the text. Students work with the text when they copy and when they examine the writer's choice of specific lingustic and logical features, such as cohesive links, punctuation, grammar, sentence arrangement, and organization. They work from the text when they use it to create a text of their own, that is, when they summarize, complete, speculate, or react.

TECHNIQUES IN USING ALL LANGUAGE SKILLS :

If we want our language learning classes to come as close as possible to real - life communicative situations, then we have to organize activies that let students use all of the language skills. In order to do this students should speak (not just repeat) and speak not only to the teacher but to each other. That means, then, that students will also listen to each other - really listen - once the classroom talk is not restricted to pattern like *Is she running ? Yes, she is*. With listening comes comprehending what the speaker is saying. The listener can then react by writing down for a reader his version of

the information he has just heard. So we can get chains of language activity in the classroom such as this one :

* student 1 speaks while student 2 listens.
* student 2 writes.
* student 3 reads what student 2 wrote and responds.
* student 1 checks that 2 and 3 understood.

The value of such a sequence of activity is that it begins with the students handling the target language. Students are not just given a topic that they then immediately translate and think through in their native language before they put their ideas onto paper. Here all activities flow from what is seen and heard and the students' immediate response is in English. There is thus very little opportunity for translation.

When our students are comfortable with the normal classroom activity of using all language skills, it is up to us to ensure that they have the chance not only to use the new language but also to play with it. They need to experiment with new words and new sentence types. A pause followed by a question like *How do I say ..... ? or Is that word right ?* should delight us, for it means that our students are taking risks with the language in their attempt to get their ideas across more effectively.

The techniques that follow are, for the most part, prewriting techniques that give students the opportunity to use all their linguistic skills to help them explore and get started with their ideas on a given topic or to allow the topic for a piece of writing to emerge out of communicative classroom activities.

Brainstorming :

Brainstorming lets students work together in the classroom in small groups to say as much as they can about a topic. The teacher does not have to monitor grammar or pronunciation, except when the speaker cannot be understood, though the teacher will obviously.

be the resource person whom students turn to as they search for the right word or the right structure to express their iedas. Whatever the writing assignment is based on - a reading, picture, map, textbook topic, personal experience, or an examination essay question - it can be proceded by student talk, specifically by a brainstroming activity, with students producing relevant vocabulary, making comments, asking questions, and making associations as freely as they can in a short time. After brainstroming orally together, students can they do the same on paper, writing down as many ideas as they can without worrying about grammar, spelling, organization, or the quality of the ideas. Then they will have something tow rok with, instead of a blank page.

Guided Discussion :

Another way to get students to talk about a topic and especially to get them to focus on specific aspects of a topic is to provide guidelines for group or wholeclass discussion. The students thinking is thus directed along predetermined lines. The ideas they come up with within the established guidelines are, however, entirely their own. If a teacher provides guidelines for discussion, that control he imposes has the advantage of letting him help the students beforehand with the vocabulary and sentence forms that they might need in their discussion.

Interviews :

The interview is a useful technique to try with a new class so that students and teacher can get to know each other. When the students write the record of an interview, they convey to others genuine information transmitted to them by other students.

Skits :

In a skit, the students act not as themselves but in an assigned role. This can, of course, be done either as a whole - class or a small - group activity. Writing can then follow as an outside report or summary ofwhat was said and done or it can be a

continuation of the skit, with the writers assuming the *voice* of personalities in the skit.

Note – taking :

In real life, when we need to listen and write, it is not always possible to write down every word we hear. People just do not talk at dictation speed. On the telephone, in the classroom, in everyday conversation, we write down a summary of what the speaker says, picking out the important information. The radio or the tape recorder is valuable here for providing additional material for students : dialogues to listen to, arguments to overhear, and speeches to react to. When elementary - level students take notes, they can be given a skeleton outline to work with and expand, so that their listening is more directed. Advanced students can listen to long passages and make notes as they listen. Both groups need to be alerted to the signals that speakers use : pauses, raising the head and the voice to make an important point, or using words like *first, finally, most important to* signal separation and priority of the points made.

Story - Telling :

Most people like stories. They like to hear them and often they like to tell them. When we hear or read a good story, we can't wait to find out what happens next. That is why detective novels and television serials are so popular. This natural curiosity to find out what hapens in a story can be put to good use in a language classroom.

Dictation :

Dictation in the good old days was regarded as a means of teaching spelling to pupils, and secondly as a means of developing good handwriting. In due course of time, it was realised that dictation could not teach spelling, though it developed in the pupils habits of writing neatly and beautifully. Spelling is now regarded as a matter for the eye than for the ear; and the remembering of the

correct spelling of a word upon the number of times the pupil reads it correctly than upon hearing it spelt correctly.

Importance of Dicatation :

Dictation is a very good exercise. It has the following advantages :–

1. It affords mental discipline to pupils. They are trained to hear attentively and put down faithfully whatever is dic tated to them. They also try to understand the sense of the passage in order to be able to supply themselves any words that they miss or hear indistinctly. Thus both intelligence and memory are exercised.

2. It promotes in pupils the combination of speed, accuracy and beauty in writing.

3. It improves comprehension of language by the pupil. If the pupil does not hear a word properly, he has to supply it himself. This he can do only if he has been following the sense of the passage. Mechanical reproduction is not the aim of dictation. The aim is to write after understanding the meaning. Thus dictation is a valuable mental training in the habits of attention, concentration, neatness and accuracy. Dictation demands alertness of the part of pupils. Be sides, it strengthens the spelling already learnt.

Objectives of Dictation :

The following are the objectives of dication :

1. To train pupils to listen carefully and to reproudce what has been listened to in good hand writing and at a reasonable speed.

2. To develop the habit of concentration of a given problem.

3. To test retention and good writing.
4. To fix spelling of words already acquired.
5. To test spelling.
6. To give practice in writing at a reasonable speed.
7. To test punctuation marks.

Steps in a Dictation Lesson :

1) Selection of the Passage :

The passage to be dictated should be judictiously selected. It is best to select the passage from a lesson which has already been learnt. The pupils should be familiar with the passage to be dictated. The passage should be of reasonable length, and it should not be very difficult. It should be clear and interesting and should contain a complete idea. Not only prose passages, but poetry stanzas and dialogues may also be dictated. The pupils should be fully prepared with the passage, before they are asked to take it down.

2) Delivery :

The teacher should read the passage slowly and distinctly with proper phrasing and intonation so as to convey to the minds of the pupils some idea of the sense of it. After reading out the passage, the teacher should dictate it slowly in clear and intelligible phrases according to the sense of the sentence. Each phrase should be repeated once. it must not be repeated again and again, because frequent repetition prevents the child from forming the habit of hearing attentively. The pupils should be trained to first listen carefully and then to start writing. They should not be allowed to scribble as soon as they hear the first word. Sufficient time should be given for writing.

During dictation no question should be permitted, and a

perfect silence should be insisted upon. The pupils should be required to look at the teacher as soon as they have written each phrase. When the dictation is over, the passage should be read out once again to enable the pupils to compare their transcription and to supply omissions, if any.

3) Correction :

The teacher should correct the written work, as it enables him to know about the progress of every pupil. Mutual correction by the pupils may be adopted. The pupils may be asked to exchange their exercise-books with their neighbours. The teacher points out the spelling of difficult words and punctuation marks on the black board, and the pupils mark the exercise-books accordingly.

The teacher should check three or four exercise books thus marked by the pupils. This will prevent any mutual arrangement among the children with regard to alteration or neglect of errors. Another method is that the pupils may be asked to correct their mistakes themselves with the help of the book or the passage transcribed on the blackboard. Self–correction is considered to be the ideal method.

The teacher should exercise the vigilance if this method is followed lest the pupils should become dishonest. Anyway, correction must be done thoroughly, promptly and sympathetically. The pupils may be asked to note down their mistakes in small note books named as spelling note books.

WORK SHEET

Activity –1

Find a reading passage in IX Standard text-book. What writing activities are the student asked to do in connection with that reading passage? Do these activities involve working with the text or from the text? What do you think the students are supposed to learn from each of the activities?

Activity – 2

Find a writing task in the X Standard text book. List the prewriting activities which can be developed so that students speak, listen and read as well as write.

Activity – 3

Think back to a recent event that your students were interested in. Devise from the subjects of this event a number of language activities that lead students to prepare for a writing assignment by using two of the techniques discussed in this lesson: *brain storming and guided discussion. Prepare a set of instructions for students.*

.....

.....

Activity – 4

Find a reading passage that would be suitable for a dictation. Explain how you would use it and why you would choose that particular dictation techniques for that particular passage. What do you expect the students to learn from doing the dictation ?

SELF – CHECK

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words :

i. The methods to be followed in the teaching of writing are_____ or _____.

ii. Teaching writing is begun with the writing of words in the _____ method.

iii. The child should start writing in _____ script.

iv. In teaching writing, the child is introduced to _____ letter first.

v. The first type of exercise to improve handwriting is _____.

vi. Punctuation should not be taught as a separate skill. It must be taught _____ .

KEY

i. analytic, synthetic

ii. analytic

iii print

iv. easier

v. transcription

vi. functionally

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS :

1. The sentence is said to be the unit of teaching English at all levels. How far is it applicable in teaching writing ?

2. Collect suitable pictures from magazines, newspapers etc., Mount them on cardboard and write out connected passages that could be taught with these pictures.

LESSON – 11

PLANNING THE LESSON

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. describe the need for planning the lesson.

i. list the components of planning a lesson.

iii. list the objectives of a language lesson.

iv. describe the basic plan of activity in any language teaching.

v. plan a lesson for teaching a prose passage.

vi. plan a lesson for teaching a poem.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– French F.G., The Teaching of English Abroad part II, The Junior Course, London : Oxford University Press, 1967, Chatpers III, IV & V.

Devies, Paul and others, Situational Lesson Plans – A Handbook for Teachers of English, London : Macmillan Education Ltd., 1975.

Completion of Work Sheet and Self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY
PLANNING THE LESSON

The planning of teaching, whether in the classroom or in the conference room, begins with the identification of objectives – immediate, as well as long term.

The teacher, in planning his lesson, has to think of :

a. the part of the syllabus that he is dealing with
b. the elements of language to be taught, the phonology, grammar, lexis, etc.
c. the language skills to be developed ;
d. the extra - linguistic aspects of the ' content ' (e.g. background information etc.)

Any part of the syllabus, whether prose or poetry, can contribute to language learning, though it may not always be clear to the makers of the syllabus how this is to be realised. The teacher can, however, ' squeeze out ' some relevant language - learning experience from even the most intractable of texts - but this takes some planning.

Each lesson, while having the teaching of some language skill or skills, and some significant element of language as the main objectives, will have to be planned around some part of a given syllabus - in most cases, around some part of a prescribed text. Here for example, is an attmept at relating the parts of a typical school syllabus to the possible language learning objectives :

1. Prose (for detailed study) : Essay, fiction, drama language objectives :

a. Elements of Language

i. Introducting new vocabulary ;
ii. Introducing new grammatical patterns ;
iii. Revision and consolidation of familiar vocabulary and grammar;
iv. Extending familiar vocabulary and grammar to cover new semantic range.

[For example : a student may have learnt the use of ' at ' in only its spatial use (e.g. at the desk). He may then have to taught ' at ' in its other uses.

Likewise, he may have learnt only the past - time reference in " I was playing a match yesterday ', but not the reference to future time in " I was playing a match tomorrow but it has been cancelled "].

v. Introducing new phonological patterns (e.g. stress and intonation patterns, consonant clusters, etc.).
vi. Introducing new graphological patterns (spellings).

b. Language Skills :

i. Skills

ii. Comprehension (to be discussed in a latter lesson).

iii. Writing

iv. Listening and Speaking (incidental)

v. Summarising.

It should be noted that a prose text can be directly used to teach the skills of reading and comprehension. It can also be used to develop the skill of listening, if the teacher used the text to provide practice in listening.

Incidentally, the text may be used to provide practice in speaking, if the teacher provides opportunities for students to speak.

Likewise, the prose test could provide a basis for writing activity, thus contributing to the important skills of writing.

2. The Text could also be used for practice in summarising, and not - taking, which are important skills for the student of language (and, in fact, for any student who uses language).

Thus, a prose text can be exploited for a wide range of language objectives, and it is not surprising that prose texts form the core of most language syllabuses, at the school level at any rate.

The syllabus may also contain prose fiction or drama for non - detailed study. The aims here may be somewhat different, and we shall have occasion to discuss them later.

You may wish to suggest, for yourself, what the language learning objectives could be in prescribing poetry, or drama (as drama, and not as prose). We shall not elaborate on them now.

However, the language syllbus is not all text. Unusually, the syllabus contains such elements as grammar, composition, precis, translation, etc. This art of the syllabus makes up, in fact, the " language paper " for most school syllabuses (thus indicating that for many teachers, the teaching of prescribed texts does not constitute the teaching of language).

Once the objectives for a lesson are fixed, we are concerned with the modalities through which these objectives may be achieved.

Basically, as we have been saying, a language lesson involves language activity - some of it by the teacher, and the rest by the student. In general, the more student activity there is, the better the chances of learning. The teacher's function is to set the stage or prepare the ground for the desired activity by the student, and once that activity has begun, to supervise, co - ordinate, direct and monitor it. This, very briefly, is the ' Teaching Paradigm '.

The kind of activity, by both teacher and student, will depend on what the purpose of the lesson is. Very briefly, again , a language lesson could be for

a. Initial Teaching of new linguistic ' terms ' and skills ;

b. Consolidation of language items and skills (introduced earlier) ;

c. Development of skills, at a fixed ' linguistic ' level - or ' plateau ' teaching.

d. Rededication,

e. Enrichment.

Most language lessons are, in fact, a combination of several of the above. We will explain what these terms mean.

a. Initial Teaching

' New ' elements of language (vocabulary and grammar, for the most part) have to be made available to the student as language learning proceeds ; this is the phase of ' expansion ' .

One way of ' expanding of new words, along with their meanings, (perhaps in the mother - tongue) to be memorised.

At the level of grammar, a comparable procedure would be to give him a set of rules (e.g. " The simple present tense is used to refer to habitual activity" and paradigms (e.g. ox - oxen ; go - went - gone) and expect him to memorise these.

It is possible that these procedures might enable some students to learn new vocabulary or grammar ; but obviously, most learners would find them too mechanical and dull.

The teacher, therefore, has to develop appropriate presentation techniques for introducing new language items in an interesting and stimulating manner.

Partly, these presentation techniques can be built into the teaching materials ; but in the majority of cases, the teacher has to supplement the materials through his own efforts. This is largely because the materials can cater to all the different kinds of learners - but the fact is that individual learners react differently to something which they are encountering for the first time.

We are not going to deal with the actual presentation techniques here, but a few problems can be considered.

Firstly, how important is it to let the learner know that he is being taught a new word of grammatical pattern ? Is it desirable to highlight the new piece of learning, or should it be ' slipped in ' . stealthily, along with familiar, ' things' ? (In some text - books, for example, the new words and ' structures' to be taught are prominently displayed in hold print, at the beginning of each lesson).

Next, how many new' linguistic elements should be presented in a given lesson ?

Should the mother - tongue be used in presentation ?

These are some of the questions to which answers may be suggested in subsequent lessons.

b. Consolidation

When a new piece of learning is introduced, there have to be several ' repetitions for it to be effectively learnt. It is a part of good presentation to be able to effect these repetitions without making them too obvious, or unnatural. However, the same pieces of learning (e.g new vocabulary of grammar) are consolidated by re - introducting them in subsequent lessons, together with other bits of familiar learning, in different contexts, so that they are ' driven home '.

When the ' new ' piece of learning is used over and over, it loses its ' newness ' During the consolidation phase, therefore, the learner must be given opportunities to be use the new language item in meaningful and interesting situations. Mere repetitions or parroting of the new language items is not effective.

c. ' Plateau ' Teaching

As we have suggested, the student should constantly be getting opportunities to use the new items of language that he has learnt.

At a certain point, the teaching concentrates exclusively on the use of language - that is, on the practice of the language skills alone, without the introduction of any new elements of language.

For example, students may be asked to read extensively using different kinds of reading materials controlled in such a manner that no new word or 'structure ' is introduced. (such reading materials are in fact, known as ' Pleateau' reader ; this is because the aim here is to provide for the extension of a particular language skill, while maintaining the same linguistic level (in terms of vocabulary and structures)

In teaching the writing skills, for example, it may be necessary to provide practice in writing compositions etc, using only ' known ' items of language. The nature of the writing task would then have to be so controlled that no new language items would be required.

d. Remediation

As every school teacher of English knows, it is frequently necessary to ' re teach ' parts of the language which have been learnt earlier (by the student), but learnt wrongly. Any student who has been taught English for five years at school should not say : " I going to Cinema " , but this is what is frequently said, and the teacher is expected to re - teach the use of progressive verb form and the

definite article.

So much of school teaching is remedial, in fact, that we propose to devote a whole lesson to this topic.

e. ENRICHMENT

" Enrichment " may have different meaning in language teaching.

Basically, 'enrichment' implies that the learner has already become an efficient user of the language, with a ' stock ' of words and grammatical patterns quite sufficient for his purposes. At this stage then, we are not teaching him language directly ; but we may try to give him a greater awareness of cultural nuances, of the ways in which language is used, etc.

The teaching of literature is an instance of enrichment of language learning.

As we have said earlier, the teacher frequently has to combine several of these ' functions ' in a single lesson. He may have to teach new items of language, using appropriate presentation techniques ; he will in variably have to consolidate and reinforce, through repetition, what was learnt earlier ; he will have to provide practice in the extension of the skills to remediate ' faulty ' learning and to provide enrichment.

A good language lesson, therefore, has to be phased, or structured. There may, for example, be a presentation phrase, a consolidation phase, or view phase, and so on. (occasionally, of course, an entire lesson may be devoted to all these phases.). If a lesson is not structured, or phased, in this way, it may become so diffuse that none of the functions aimed at will be released.

Each phase of the lesson will involve a different kind of activity in the classroom, or rather, a different ' mix ' of classroom activities. The teacher has to plan this in advance. If the same kind of activity is maintained, at the same ' tempo ' for more than a few minutes, it tends to induce monotony and fatigue.

The basic plan of activity, as we said earlier, can be represented by :

Presentation –Exercise – Monitering.

One could also represent this by

Input – Output – Feedback.

The aim of the teacher, in the class, is to secure some language output from the learner. This is the only direct evidence of learning. However, this output can only be on the basis of some input received, directly or indirectly by the student, from the teacher or the teaching materials. Once that output has been produced, there must be ' feedback '. This is necessary for both the teacher and the student ; the teacher needs to know whether the input is being received, and the student needs to know whether the ' output ' is correct.

This may sound rather simple, but is far from being so. All teaching is a process of interaction. Several social psychologists have described the classroom as a miniature ' society ' with its own pattern of behaviour, its rules of communication, and so forth. The teacher has to become a member of this ' community ' and realise his own role in the patterns of communication. Classroom teaching requires a good understanding of ' group dynamics ' : the ways in which members of a social group interact with each other, and in which individual behaviour is influenced in a group. Good teaching must be good communication before it can be anything else : since language is communication, this is particularly true of the language class.

In conclusion, we should like to quote an eminent teacher and trainer of teachers :

" We constantly strive – and we should continue to strive – to base as many of our pedagogical decisions on scientific evidence ..... (but) we have not yet been very successful in our attempts to perfect a scientifically based method of language instruction.

Language teaching has always been and remains, more of an art than a science. That is to say, it is largely intuitive and dependent on the personal abilities and convictions of the teacher. Most of a teacher 's success is result of such qualities as enthusiams, intelligence, and love for the students ".

Two Model Lesson Plans , one for teaching of prose passage and another for teaching of poetry are given in the following pages for the benefit of the trainees in their writing of Lesson Plans in their Record Note Books.

* Cliffored Prator (1986) : " In Search of Method " (English Teaching Forum Vol. XIV. No. 1, January 1986) (Available through the U.S.I.S in India)

LESSON PLAN - PROSE

Subject	ENGLISH	Name of the trainee	
Topic	PROSE	School	
Unit	THE RULE OF THE ROAD	Standard	
		Date	
		Duration	

There are no rules as how we ought to behave or ought not to behave in all matters. But in all matters, there are rules that all have to obey. Take for example the rules of the road. The purpose of these rules is to make the roads safe for everybody. The roads in our cities and towns are getting busier these days. All kinds of vehicles, some slow, some fast, fill the roads during the greater part of the day. If people disobey traffic rules, accidents happen sooner or later. There are rule for pedestrians as well for vehicles, and every user of the road ought to know the rules.

Here is an important rule for pederstrains. They ought to keep to the footpath and leave the middle of the road for vehicles.

Where there is no footpath, pedestrains must keep close to the edge of the road. If they do not obey this rule, they will cause danger to themselves as well as to others. A driver may turn his vehicle suddenly to avoid a pedestrain and, in doing so, may knock down some other person : he may even lose control of his vehicle and drive over the footpath and knock down several people.

All vehicles should keep to the left and leave the right half of the road free for those coming from the opposite direction. This is the traffic rule in all parts of India. In some countries in the West, however, vehicles have to keep to the right and not to the left. It does not matter whether it is right or left. It does not matter whether it is right or left, but everyone should obey the rules. Cyclists should always keep to the edge of the road and not get in the way of other vehicles or of pedestrians. We often see two or more cyclists riding side by side right in the middle of the road. Traffic rules do not allow this. When the road., is busy, this will interefere with the flow of traffic and cause accidents. The rule about overtaking is an equally.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES :

The pupil (1) lish silently with comprehension

(2) understands English when spoken

(3) speaks correct English

(4) writes simple English correctly

SPECIFIC INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES :

The pupil

(1) uses the structures / words, ' traffic ', ' pedastrain ', ' footpath ', ' otherwise ' and ' leave + for '.

(2) grasps the ideas contained in the above paragraphs.

(3) Answers questions to describe the rule of the road.

AIDS :

Picture of a busy road.

A substitution table for the usé of leave + for.

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
Motivation	Recalls from experiences how accidents happen when we do not observe traffic rules	Teacher through conversation elicits that in life situation traffic rules are very essential to prevent accidents.	What happens if people do not obey the rules of the road ?	
		Teacher states that they will read some paragraphs where the rules of the roads are emphasised	What are the traffic rules in India ?	
Presenta-tion	Grasps the meaning of the passage	The teacher asks the pupils to read the passage silently. The teacher ensures that they do not move their lips during silent reading.		
	Grasps the meaning of traffic (n)	Teacher explains the meaning of the word ' traffic ' as the movement of people and vehicles along roads and streets.		
	Uses ' traffic ' in sentences.	There was a lot of traffic on the roads yesterday because of the fair	Why can't you cross the main roads of the city in the peak hours?	
	Grasps the meaning of ' pedas-train '	Teacher explains the meaning of ' pedastrain ' as a person going on foot.	When people go on foot for walk, we call them as —	

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
	Uses ' Pedastrain ' in sentences	Pedastrains should always walk on the footpath while passing along a busy road.		
	Uses ' Pedastrain ' in sentences	Pedastrains should always walk on the footpath while passing along a busy road.	Where will you walk when you pass along a busy road ?	
	Grasps the meaning of ' footpath '	Teacher explains the meaning of ' footpath ' as a path on either side of the road for the use of persons on foot.		
		The teacher asks the pupils to look at the picture. ' Is there a footpath on either side of the road in the picture ?		
	Uses ' footpath ' sentences	While passing along with busy road, we should always walk on the foot path.		
	Uses the conjunction ' other wise '	Work hard, otherwise you will fail.	Frame sentence with the conjuction ' otherwise ' .	

Steps	Specification	Learning experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
		Pay your fee by the 10th of every month, otherwise you will be fined.		
	Frame sentences from the substitution table using ' leave + for '	I leave a walk You for a film He left a film They a ride	What will you do after the school bell rings at the end of this day ?	
Review	gives reasons	Pupil answers comprehension questions orally	1. Why are the rules of the road necessary ?	
		Give Reasons	2. Why should everybody obey traffic rules ?	
	Locates facts		3. What is the rule for pedestrains ?	
	Locates facts			
	Infers		4. What will happen if pedes trains do not obey the rules?	

Steps	Specification	Learning experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
Follow - up	Organises ideas in a proper way		5. Do vehicles keep to the left all over the world ? Answer in a few sentences : 1. What is the message of the author in the passage ? 2. Summarise briefly the passage in your own words.	

SIGNATURE OF THE SUPERVISOR **SIGNATURE OF THE TRAINEE.**

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN – POETRY

Subject : ENGLISH POETRY
Topic / Unit : Stopping by woods on a snowy evening

Name of the Trainee
Name of the School
Standard
Date
Duration

STOPING BY WOODS ON A SNOWY EVENING

Whose woods these are I think I know.
His house is the village though :
He will not see me stopping here
To watch his woods fill up with snow.

My little horse must think it queer
To stop without a farmhouse neer
between the woods and frozen lake
The darkest evening of the year.

He gives his harness bells a shake
To ask if there is some mistake.
The only other sound 's the sweep
Of easy wind and downy flake.

The woods are lovely, dark and deep.

But I have promises to keep.

And miles to go before I sleep.

And miles to go before I sleep

– Frost

GENERAL OBJECTIVES :

The Pupil

(a) appreciates the general theme of the poem.

(b) enjoys the thoughts and feelings expressed in the poem.

(c) reads the points of beauty such as rhyming words, com parisons etc.

SPECIFIC OBJECTIVES :

The Pupil

(i) grasps the theme of the poem.

(ii) reads the poem with proper pronunciations, rhythm and intonation.

(iii) Listens to the reading of the poem.

(iv) appreciates the beauty of thought contained in the poem.

(v) describes the effect of nature on the poet.

(vi) summarises the idea of the poem.

AIDS :

A Picture depicting a forest, lake, snowfall and a rider.

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
Motivation	Observes and describes a natural scene.	The teacher shows a picture depicting a forest, take, snow fall, horse and a rider, Pupil observes and describes the picture in his own words.	How do you like this picture ? have you ever gone to such a lovely place ?	
Presenta-tion	Grasps the use of stress, rhythm and intonation.	The teacher announces that they will study a poem on such a natural scene. Teacher gives a model reading and pupils listen with their books closed first and then open.		
	reads the poem aloud	Pupils read the poem after the teacher. Teacher corrects mistakes when the pupils read the poem aloud.	Read the poem aloud.	
	listens the first stanza	Teacher reads the first stanza. " Whose woods these are .... fill up with snow.		

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
	grasps the meaning of the word ' woods '.	Teacher shows the forest in the picture and explains " woods ". " He will not see me .... with snow.	Whose house is mentioned here as " his house " ?	
	grasps the idea	Teacher explains the implication of these lines that the owner is material-istic without any aesthetic taste to enjoy the natural scene.	What does the poet infer in this stanza ?	
	listens and reads loudly Grasps the atmosphere of the poem.	Teacher reads the second stanza of the poem followed by pupils reading loudly " My little horse .... evening of the year ". Teacher gets answer for his questions " what do you mean by queer ' ? Queer – strange.	Why does the horse feel it strange to stop there ?	

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
	Infers the implied meaning.	Pupil enjoys the implied comparison. Being an animal, the horse has no aesthetic taste towards the natural scene. Hence, the poet's staying there was unintelligible to the horse.		
	Listens and reads loudly. Grasps the meaning of difficult words and phrases.	" He gives his harness .... downy flake The teacher reads the third stanza of the poem loudly.	What word is used to mention the sound made by the wind ?	
	Appreciates the natural beauty portrayed in the poem.	and asks the pupils to read the same. The teacher asks the pupils " Why does the horse shake it's bell ?".	" To ask if there is some mistake " - what is the ' mistake ' which is indicated by the horse here ?	
		" The only other sound .... downy flake " The teacher makes the pupils appreciate the lovely nature portrayed by the poet here.		
		" The woods are lovely .... before I sleep ".		

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
	Listens grasps the meaning of difficult words, phrases, and inferences etc.	The teacher reads the fourth stanza of the poem loudly and asks the pupils to read loudly. Teacher asks the pupils the following questions : What does the poet mean by the word ' promise ' here ? Why should the last line be repeated again by the poet ?	Why could not the poet continue to stay there in the forest ?	
Review	Identifies the line	The pupil answers orally	Pick out from the poem the line which says that the poet has many obligations and responsibilities to be discharged before his death.	
	locates rhyming words	The pupil identifies rhyming words.	From the poem select pairs of words which rhyme alike.	

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experience	Evaluation	Remarks
	recalls the beautiful description of the lovely place by the poet.	The pupil answers orally.	How did the poet portray the beauty of the forest ?	
	relates each part of the picture with the line in the poem.	The teacher shows the picture and ask the pupil to select.	Point out the line in the poem relevant to each part of the picture.	
Follow - up	Recalls lines.	Pupils are asked to memorize the poem.	memorize the poem	
	describes the theme and message of the poem.	Pupils are asked to write the answers to the questions.	What is the theme of the poem ?	
			What is the moral of the poem ?	

Signature of the Class Teacher

Signature of the Trainee.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Observe a grammar lesson of your guide and record your observations.

Activity – 2

Observe a composition lesson of your guide and record your observations

Activity – 3

Prepare a lesson plan for your prose class and record your plan.

Activity – 4

Prepare a lesson plan for your poetry class and record your plan.

.....

.....

SELF – CHECK

1. Below are given four possible answers to each questions. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. The lesson plan is to indicate
   (a) how the students learn
   (b) how the text is used.
   (c) what lesson is taught to the students
   (d) what all is expected to occur in the class.
2. The trainee needs the lesson plan to
   (a) keep a record of his work
   (b) organise the strategy for the class
   (c) show to his supervisors.
   (d) dictate notes to the pupils
3. To know the success of his lesson, the teacher should be evaluate the
   (a) learning experience
   (b) learning outcome
   (c) skill
   (d) content
4. Learning experience column indicates
   (a) the teacher task
   (b) the pupil task
   (c) the teacher task and the pupil task
   (d) the result of the tasks carried out

II. Match the following steps of a lesson in column A with their purpose in Column B and write in the space provided against each step, the respective letter of column B that you have chosen.

A		B
1. Motivation	( )	(a) Gives practice
2. Presentation	( )	(b) uses aids
3. Review	( )	(c) develops matter
4. Follow up	( )	(d) creates interest
		(e) tests learning

KEY

I.	1	2	3	4
	a	b	c	d
II	a	b	c	d
	4	3	2	1

Lesson – 12

PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. list the general principles of language learning and teaching.

ii. describe gradation of the language material.

iii. describe conditions under which English is taught and learnt.

iv. make some practical suggestions for improvement.

ACTIVITIES

I. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Gokak, U.K. English in India - Its present and future, Asia Publishing house, 1964.

–Gurrey, P. Teaching English as a Foreign Language, London : EIBS Longman Group Ltd., 1970.

–Study Group, The Study of English in India, Report of the Study Group, Ministry of Education, 1964.

–Shiyely King Silver, Teaching English as a Second Language, Ed.Allen and Campbell, New Delhi : Tata McGraw - Hill, 1971.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self - check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

GENERAL PRINCIPLES OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING :

The modern approach to all language learning and teaching is the scientific one and is based on sound linguistic principles. The principles discussed below in no way claim finality : they are subjct to change in the light of new facts brought to light by linguists and language users. These principles are general principles and are applicable to all languages.

Principle 1 – Speech before Reading and Writing :

Teach listening and speaking first, reading and writing after wards. This is the natural way. This principle does not mean that there is some rigid division between speaking and reading or writing. This only means postponing the written shapes till such time when the child begins to feel the intonation, rhythm, stress and junctures of the target language. These features are not represented in writing. The basis of this principle is that all language is first an experience in speech, rather than in writing.

Principle 2 – Imitation :

Speech is learnt by imitation. The learner cannot invent it by himself. Good speech is the result of imitating good models. Good models are necessary to produce good responses. This requires that the teacher must become a good model himself or provide good models of speech through tape or disc recordings.

Principle 3 – Present Language in Basic Sentence Patterns :

Present and have the students memorise basic sentence patterns used in day to day conversations. From small utterances the students can easily pass to longer sentences. In case of learning mother - tongue the students memory span can retain much longer sentences than those of a foreign language enables the learners to expand the grasp of the language material in respect of sounds and vocabulary items.

Principle 4 – Language Patterns as Habits :

Real language ability is at the habit through intensive pattern practice in variety of situations. In fact, practice and drill are essential to acquire language habit. This is so because language is a ' skill - subject ' and not a ' knowledge subject '. Just as regular practice makes a person expert in swimming, in the same way practice and drill makes one a good language user. So the students must be taught to use language patterns and sentence constructions with appropriate vocabulary at normal speed for communication. The students must be able to apply the basic patterns to form new constructions. It is thus that language habits get established.

Principle 5 – The Oral Way :

Theprinciple of the ' Oral way ' has been well recognised by experts on language teaching. In the words of Prof. Kittson, " Learning to speak a language is always the shortest road to learning to read and to write it ... Living language should be taught as living speech, that is, they

should be taught orally. "Prof. Palmer is also of the opinion. "We should refrain from reading and writing any given material until we have learnt to use its spoken from. " From these views, it should be clear that all language teaching and learning should begin with oral work. This should include ear training, listening to good model, fluent speaking, oral conversation and so on.

Principl e 6– Selection and Gradation :

Selection of the language material to be taught is essential to good teaching. Selection should be done in respect of grammatical items and vocabulary and structures.

Selection of language items should involve;

Frequency	(how often a certain item or word is used)
range	(in what different contexts a word or an item can be used)
Coverage	(how many different meanings a word or an items can convey)
Availability	(how far an item is convenient to teach)
Learnability	(how far an item is easy to learn)
Teachability	(how far an item is easy to teach – in the social context)

Graduation of the Language material means placing the language items in an order. Grading involves grouping and sequency. Grouping concerns (i) The systems of language, and (ii) its structures, Grouping the system of language means what sounds, words, phrases and meanings are to be taught.

Thus we have :

(i) Phonetic Grouping

i.e., grouping according to sounds. For examples, words having the same sound are place in one group as, cat, bat, mat, pat, fat, sat, it, bit, fit, hit, kit, sit, etc.

(ii) Lexical Grouping

i.e., grouping according to lexical situations. Example : School, teacher, headmaster, peon, class–room, library. All these words are grouped around " school ".

(iii) Grammatical Grouping

i.e. grouping according to similar patterns as, my book/his book, (pattern grouping) ; in the room / in the corner / in the class / in the garden, etc (phrase grouping)

(iv)Semantic Grouping

i.e. grouping according to meaning. Example : School, college. university ; bicycle, rickshaw, car, train, aeroplane, etc.

(v) Structure Grouping

i.e., " grouping in the structures means how the selected items fit one into the other. thesounds into the words, the words into phrases, the phrases into the clauses and sentences, and the sentences into the context ".

Sequence means what comes after what. Sequence should be there in the arrangement of sounds (phonetic sequence), phrases, grammatical sequence), words (lexical sequence) and in meaning (semantic sequence). Sequency of structures implies direction, expansion, variation and length of the structures.

Prinicple 7 – Priorities in Language Skills : The four fundamental language skills that we want our students to acquire are listening, understanding, speaking, reading, writing. Listening and speaking are complete skills from the linguistic point of view ; reading and writing are partial skills. The order in which tense skills are to be introduced is as mentioned above. Reading and writing are reinforcement skills of what the students have already learnt. Of course there shall be change of emphasis at different levels. At the early stage, there is emphasis on ' listening ' and ' speaking ' while at the later stage the emphasis is on ' reading ' and ' writing '. It is important to maintain balance and have multiple – skill approach.

Principle 8 – Controlled Vocabulary : Keep the vocabulary load to the minimum. Give importance to the mastery of sound system and patterns using controlled vocabulary. In the first three years of teaching a second language, only those items of vocabulary should be mastered that help the learner to use the patterns or illustrate the sounds. Expand vocabulary after the limited system has been mastered.

Principle 9 – Motivation : Motivation is an important factor in language learning, particularly in learning a second language. It creates interests as well as the need to learn the language in hand. If the need for the language we use is felt, it is learnt easily. pupils' interest can be aroused in a number of ways, and language learning can be made increasingly interesting and attractive. It can be done with the help of pictures, charts, models, flash cards, black board sketches and similiar over visual devices. The use of tape - recorder can be most effective in the teaching of pronunciation. The aim is to have the students maximally exposed to the target language in variety of contexts and situations, not in isolation. The teacher should prompt connections, feed back and correct errors, if any. The rule is, teach, test,r eteach and retest. They should make continual and significant use of language material in classroom situations. Palmer suggests the following six factors which lead to motivate and create interest in children:

(i) The limitation of bewilderment, that is, minimum of confusion ;

(ii) The sense of progress achieved ;

(iii) Competitions ;

(iv) Game - like exercises ;

(v) The right relation between teacher and student ;

(vi) Variety.

Principle 10 – Reinforcement : Immediate reinforcement is an important principle. It has been experimentally proved that reinforcement of correct responses helps in better learning. The students should be told that his response is correct immediately after it is given by him.

Principle 11 – Multiple Line of Approach : " The term multiple line implies that one is to proceed simultaneusly from many different points towards the one and the same end. We should reject nothing except the useless material and should select judiciously and without prejudice all that is likely to help in our work". In teaching a language, it implies attacking the problem from all fronts. Say for example, there is a lesson on ' Railway Train ' in the text book. The teacher can have a number of language activities connected with the topic such as oral drill, reading, sentence writing, written composition, grammar, translation, language exercises etc.

Principle 12 – Language Using : A language is best learnt through use in different contexts and situations. Prof. Eugene A. Nida rightly observes " Language learning means plunging headlog into a series of completely different experiences. It means exposing oneself to situations where the use of language is required ".

These are, then, some of the basic principle of language learning and teaching. These principles are in no way dictative : they are only suggestive.

Remember then,

i. Teach the language, not about the language.
ii. Teach the language, not written system (at the start)
iii. Teach the language as it is, not as any one thinks it to be.
iv. Teach the language not its literature.
v. Teach the language as it is now, not in terms of its history.
vi. Teach the language as a skill, not as an intellectual task.
vii. Teach language in varied, interesting situations.
viii. Give maximum exposure.
ix. Give vocabulary its due.
x. Use mother - tongue as a tool not as a medium.
xi. Immediately reinforce correct response.

an institute of the type that has been set up in the Punjab, the Uttar Pradesh, at Bangalore and elsewhere to train key personnel who will take charge of teaching and training programmes in training colleges and elsewhere, and who will also run the in –service programmes ".

The training colleges in the state can take up the responsibiliity of imparting knowledge of new techniques to the teachers in neighbouring schools through short – term in – service courses.

4. The text–books recommended for intensive study should be well–graded in respect of vocabulary and structures :

The English Language Teaching Institute, Allahabad has published many series of language study books. Their Read and Learn series of text books for Indian students who start learning from class VI are quite useful. A similar series of English readers has also been prepared by Central Institute of English and Foreign Language, Hydrabad in a popular series. It is being used in Punjab School. Another series prepared by the Institute, Let 's Learn Eenglish '. is a very useful series for school children..

5. The extent of vocabulary for the school period should aalso be decided

The English Review Committee (1965) is of the opinion that "A selected vocabulary of 2500 to 3000 words, should be the aim during the school period ". If the number of years of school English is increased, it should be possible to incrase the vocabulary. " But ", adds the Report, " the point to remember is that it is not the aim, the target, that is important but what is actually learned ".

6. The use of supplementary readers is essential to make the teaching of English effective :

The Report also observes that an important means of "establishing the structure and the vocabulary is to makee the students read supplementary readers ". The student should be tested periodically on the reading and comprehension of these books.

7. The head of the school and the inspection staff should not be unduly dominating :

They should approach the English teacher with constructive criticism and should see to it that the proper teaching techniques are being employed. It is easy for them to find out whether th e structures and vocabulary which the class is supposed to have learned have been effectively learned or not.

8. As regards the provision of teaching aids, adequate funds should be made available to the English department to equip their English class -room with necessary teaching aids like audio – visual aids.

Besides purchasing some of the valuable aids like the gramophone, tape – recorder, etc. from the school funds, the teacher of English should make his

4. Dearth of Competent Teacher :

Incompetent teachers are the main source of trouble as far as the teaching of English in Indian schools is concerned. They are trained in old methods and have never cared to look for something better in new techniques. Sometimes, English is taught by those who did not offer this subject while under training !

In this connection the English Review Committee (1965) under the chairmanship of Prof. G.C. Banerjee pointed out: " There is shortage of teachers. Those available have just passed the school final examination, having themselves studied English in a village school for 4 or 5 or 6 years. They have little idea of correct usage, and none at all of correct pronunication. Their vocabulary is limited as is their reading ".

5. Faulty Methods of Teaching :

The teaching of English in India suffers from faulty methodology. In most of the schools, the Translation method is the sole favourite with the teachers. This method lays stress on cramming only those elements of language which the children can reproduce in the examination. Certain important aspects of English language such as pronunication, correct use of English sentence – patterns is totally neglected. The result is that the students lack correct use of the English language.

6. Apathy of New Techniques and Procedures :

Most of the teachers working in middle and high schools are both ignorant of and apathetic to the new techniques and procedures of teaching English. The new generation of teachers is being given training in new methods but these teachers fail miserably. In actual practice, they are obliged to follow the routine methods of teaching in order to show the sonamed ' good results ' or to satisfy their conservative head.

7. Non – availability of Good Text – books :

The text books being recommended for use in most schools are useless stuff. They are not structurally graded. Recently, a gult of such books has appeared in the market. The books are edited or written by those who are not the actual practising teachers. No effort is made to select beforehand graded vocabulary for use in the textbooks. The books are not written as a result of actual experience of teaching school children. The books do not cater to the needs of new methods of teaching English as a foreign language.

8. Inadequate Provision of Audio – visual Aids :

Modern teaching lays great emphasis on the use of audio – visual aids. These aids make teaching interesting and learning easy. A general survey of teaching in shools would reveal that most of the teaching is being done without the help of any aid. With the exception of a fraction of schools, many more have never hear of or seen a taperecorder,or linguaphone or some other important

aids for making teaching and learning of English effective. So much so, the teachers of English hardly take any intiative to prepare even simple visual aids such as charts, flash cards etc. Which can greatly help them in teaching their subject well.

9. Insufficient Provision for the Subject in the Time – table :

In our schools, the teachers are not sure about the stage at which English should begin. This is due to lack of a uniform all – India policy. This results in insufficient provision for the subject in the time – table. in most of the states, English is introduced in the V or VI class and it is taught for about six hours a week on the average.

10. Faulty Evaluation System :

The teaching and learning of English suffers from a serious defect of faulty examination system. The methods employed for testing students' achievement in English are neither valid nor reliable. It employs certain unreliable tools for measuring the progress of the students. The present system of examination does not correspond to the real objectives of language learning. It encourages cramming and the knowledge of a few rules of grammer. The papers in English are stereotyped. They mostly ask for summaries which boy can easily answer from what they have already crammed from certain cheap 'guides' and 'digests. The questions asked for require no thinking, no originality, no imagination and no skill.

11. Domination of a Conservative Headmaster :

Sometimes the domination of a conservative headmaster or Principal creates a difficult situation for a progressive teacher. The conservative head would be concerned more about good examination results than about students grasp of the language, So, he would like the teacher to follow the same old, stereotyped and examination – ridden methods of teaching the subject. he would not allow any variation on the part of the teacher.

12. Parental Interference :

Undue interference from the parents pushes back the efforts made by some teachers to create good conditions for teaching English. A teacher trained in the new methods of teaching may try them in the class – room. This may not be encouraged by some parents who measure the progress of their children in the subject by the number of ages of the Reader covered, translation exercises done and grammar lessons given in the English period. When the coverage is not to their satisfaction, they would come, and comment upon the teacher's work or his methods and also curse him for spoiling their children's file. Even the most ignorant would consider himself an authority on language teaching and speak with the force of a master on the subject.

The above discussion shows that the conditions under which English is being taught in our shools are far from satisfactory. Bad and funny presentation of the subject – matter by the teacher, absence of the natural way of teaching a

language, no importance to the spoken word, inability of the teacher to understand the true function of grammar and translation and hell of other such conditions – all these prevail and yet the teachers are satisfied to say that they are teaching English !

PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

Having made a survey of the most glaring ' bad conditions ' for the teaching of English in India, it is desirable to make a few practical suggestions to improve the teaching work :–

1. Need for New approaches :

There is a general complaint in all quarters that the standards of teaching and learning English are rapidly falling. Some drastic change is needed in our approach to different language areas such as syllabus construction, course books, methods and techniques of teaching, evaluation of pupils' achievement in the subject and other related matters.

2. The number of years for which English should be studied in schools should be decided :

The two University Grants Commission Committees of 1956 and 1957 and the English Review Committe (1965) have recommended that the minimum period of language learning should not be less than 6 years. Different States have different policies regarding the time to be given to the study of this subject. A uniform all – India policy should be adopted to strengthen the teaching of English at school.

3. A careful programme of inservice training of English teachers is needed

" Taking English down to Standard III or Standard V ", observed the English Review Committee (1965), " means taking it down to the level at which education is expanding most rapidly, where it is reaching to the farthest and smallest villages, to classes in society which have not had even the remotest connection with education ". In this situation, our teachers need be given enough training in specific teaching materials and well – defined teaching techniques. In this context, the Committee has suggested " to organise summer schools of a month's duration at which the syllabus and the reading materials for one year could be covered. In this way, in 4 or 5 years, the primary school teacher could be taught to handle most of the ' structures ' or teaching points to be covered by the student ". To meet this need The Regional institutes of English, Chandigarh and Bangalore, English language Teaching institute, Allahabad, Central Institute of English and Foreign Languages, Hyderabad etc., are doing a commendable job by training teachers in the new techniques of teaching English.

The Committee has also suggested : " Various other types of inservice programmes such as week – end classes, evening classes, may also be tried ; but these will take more time, and are therefore not suitable for immediate requirements. The other type is to provide more and more institutions giving regular courses in the language itself and in the new methods. Each State should have

an institute of the type that has been set up in the Punjab, the Uttar Pradesh, at Bangalore and elsewhere to train key personnel who will take charge of teaching and training programmes in training colleges and elsewhere, and who will also run the in – service programmes ".

The training colleges in the state can take up the responsibility of imparting knowledge of new techniques to the teachers in neighbouring schools through short – term – in – service courses.

4. The text – books recommended for intensive study should be well – graded in respect of vocabulary and structures ;

The English Language Teaching Institute, Allahabad has published many series of language study books. Their Read and Learn series of text books for Indian students who start learning from class VI are quite useful. A similar series of English readers has also been prepared by Central Institute of English and Foreign language, Hydrabad in a popular series. It is being used in Punjab School. Another series prepared by the Institute, Let's Learn English ', is a very useful series for school children.

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TheEnglish Review Committee (1965) is of the opinion that " A selected vocabulary of 2500 to 3000 words, should be the aim during the school period ". If the number of years of school English is increased, it should be possible to increase the vocabulary. " But,-" adds the Report ", the point to remember is that it is not the aim, the target, that is important but what is actually learned ".

6. The use of supplementary readers is essential to make the teaching of English effective ;

The Report also observes that an important means of " establishing the structure and the vocabulary is to make the students read supplementary readers". The student should be tested periodically on the reading and comprehension of these books.

7. The head of the school and the inspection staff should not be unduly dominating ;

They should approach the English teacher with constructive criticism and should see to it that the proper teaching techniques are being employed. It is easy for them to find out whether the structures and vocabulary which the class is supposed to have learned have been effectively learned or not.

8. As regards the provision of teaching aids, adequate funds should be made available to the English department to equip their English class – room with necessary teaching aids like audio – visual aids ;

Besides purchasing some of the valuable aids like the gramophone, tape-recorder, etc., from the school funds, theteacher of English should make his

whole–hearted effort to improvise the material. He can use pictures, flash cards, black - board, charts, etc. to make his teaching work more interesting and more profitable.

9. The system of evaluation and examination in English should also be changed :

A great deal of care should be bestowed on the question paper. The examiner should not expect more from the candidates then they can be expected to know in terms of the syllabus. The question - papers should not bo too rigid and stereotyped. " There should be room in it (question paper) for free composition. Care should, however, be taken to keep the free composition to the level of the student's proficiency at this stage. There should be questions on the text to test reading and comprehension and also intelligence. And there should also be a variety of questions to test linguistic competence, and knowledge of the vocabulary learned, questions on the use of verb forms and tenses, sentences, patterns, the degrees of comparison, the use of relatives, prepositions, word order, transformation and synthesis of sentences, and so on. Not all of these should be set each time ; a few should be selected each year, and they should be varied from year to year ".

10. Role of Special Institutions :

Certain special institutions such as Central Institute of English, Hydrabad ; Regional Institute of English, Bangalore and Chandigarh ; N.C.E.R.T and similar other institutes can play special roles in raising the standard of English and in improving the teaching and learning of English in schools. Needless to say, these institutes have already assumed stature and are becoming indispensable if teaching of English in this country is to be continued.

11. Teachers' Colleges can also play effective role in improving the existing conditions under which English is being taught in our schools :

Teachers in these colleges, who are trying to work out the new methods of teaching English, must attend some in - service course in the subject, generally organised by different institutes of English. Inservice courses are quite useful in the sense that they acquaint the teachers with new trends in the methodology of teaching English.

12. It is high time for the Central Government to adopt a healthy policy in respect of English language in the light of the recommendations of the New Education Policy (1986). It is necessary to coordinate opinion to bridge the differences between Hindi and non - Hindi states in the country.

In short, if English is to be taught in our schools, it must be taught well and for that purpose, the existing conditions under which English is being taught must be changed, rather revolutionised. The teaching of English should not be taken ' as a period ' in the school time - table but an essential part of modern education.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Based on the principles of gradation, plan for a structure grouping.

Activity – 2

Choose a lesson from the IX Standard English Reader and analyse to see whether it is well – grade in respect of vocabulary and structures.

Activity – 3

Most teachers do not have control on the kind of facilities that are present in their classrooms. This does not mean that they cannot provide an environment designed to reduce the barriers their stduents bring with them, however, write of the ways that you might do this.

Activity – 4

Make a list of unfavourable conditions under which you have taught English at the time of your teaching practice period.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

1. Now in our schools the purpose of study of English is
   (a) to know English literature and its values.
   (b) to use English to express our ideas.
   (c) to know English grammar.
   (d) to know about English tradition and culture.
2. In schools in Tamil Nadu, English is taught as the
   (a) first language
   (b) second language
   (c) third language
   (d) additional optional language
3. Drastic change is needed in our approach to the following different English language areas.
   (a) syllabus construction and course books.
   (b) methods and techniques of teaching.
   (c) evaluation of pupil 's achievement
   (d) all the above.
4. The minimum period of language learning should not be less than
   (a) 3 years
   (b) 4 years
   (c) 6 years
   (d) 10 years

KEY

(1) B (2) B (3) D (4) C

LESSON – 13

A SURVEY OF METHODS OF TEACHING ENGLISH

Objectives :

After reading the capsule, trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. List the various methods of teaching English.

ii. Describes the principles and techniques of Grammar – trans lation Method.

iii. Describes the principles and techniques of Direct Method.

iv. Describes the principles and techniques of communicative approach.

v. Plan atleast two activities each for each method.

Activities

i. Reading of Learning Material.

ii. Reading of Diane Larsen and Freeman. Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, Oxford University Press, 1986.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

A discussion of the methods of teaching any subject should always be relevant from the point of view of the relationship between aims and methods. The latter are only means to attain certain educational objectives : they are never ends in themselves. When we evaluate any method critically we have always certain aims in mind which we wish to realise and if we stress the inadequacy of a certain method we do that only because of its incapability to assist in the relation of those aims. No method is by itself good or bad. To take an example, in the teaching of English as a foreign language quite often we feel that the translation method is inherently defective, for it does work well under certain situations (read ahead), but because we have certain objectives in mind - a certain kind of growth in the child - which the translation method does not help to fulfil. The same argument may be pushed forward to support the oral approach in the initial stages, and we favour the approach not because it has some irrevocable values attached to it, but because it has been experimentally, and through research, found useful to help us in obtaining the desired outcomes. A survey of methods of teaching should, therefore, be useful only in relation to the objectives that they are supposed to fulfil and that they do or do not fulfil.

Another point that merits attention in a discussion of methods relates to the nature of a method. No person can prescribe a method of teaching to any other person. The best method is one that works well with a teacher, that is to say, that helps him to realise the goals he has in his mind. One teacher might use a method successfully , another might not. One method might work well under one kind of situation and with one kind of students ; it might not work under different kinds of situations and other kinds of students. Good teachers will impart knowledge and stimulate thought largely according to their native genius but there are, nevertheless, bad ways and good ways to teaching anything - fulfile muddling ,sterile cramming, deary doming , on the one hand ; live, well organised, imaginative presentation and reasoned activity ,on the other. The good ways are presented to the young teacher not as the final class - room techniques for him, but as qualitative standards by which he may judge his own efforts ." Judged from this standpoint a method of teaching would be a tool to help the teacher in his job ; it would not be a legal dictum that could not be modified or changed to suit individual conditions and situation.

The general objectives at the secondary school level, that have been emphasised in the teaching of English may be briefly outlined before we take up an examination of the methods used so far, so that we might examine them against the background of those objectives. They are as follows :

1. Enabling pupils to hear English and understand what they hear.
2. Enabling them to respond to what they hear and communicate effectively.
3. Enabling them to read with understanding and develop an effec tive vocabulary.

4. Helping them to acquire a standard of pronunciation that is acceptable.
5. Enabling them to use the language in speech and writing with economy, precision, and propriety.
6. Helping them to acquire a taste for reading.
7. Assisting them to acquire an ability to compare the structures of their native language and English and to develop the skill to translate.

Let us now turn to a discussion and a critical appraisal of the methods used to achieve the above objectives.

THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Introduction

The grammar – Translation Method is not new. It has had different names, but it has been used by language teachers for many years. At one time it was called Classical method since it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek. Earlier in this century, this method was used for the purpose of helping students read and appreciate foreign language literature. It was also hoped that, through the study of the grammar of the target language, students would become more familiar with the grammar of their native language and that this familiarity would help them speak and write their native language better. Finally, it was thought that foreign language learning would help students grow intellectually ; it was recognized that students would probably never use the target language, but the mental exercise of learning it would be benefical anyway.

The principal of the Grammar – Translation Method are organized below by answering certain questions. Not at all the questions are addressed by the Grammar – Translation Method ; we will list all the questions, however, so that a comparison among the methods we will study will be easier for you to make.

1. What are the goals of teachers who use the Grammar - translation method ?

According to the teachers who use the Grammar – translation Method, a fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in the target language. To do this, students need to learn about the grammar rules and vocabulary of the target language. In addition, it is believed that studying a foreign languages provides students with good mental exercise which helps to develop their minds.

2. What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ?

The roles are very traditional. The teacher is the authority in the class room. The students do as he says so they can learn what he knows.

3. What are some characteristics of the teaching learning process ?

Students are taught to translate from one language to another. Often what they translate are reading in the target language about some aspect of the culture of the foreign language community. Students study grammar deductively ; that is, they are given grammar rules and examples, are told to memorize them, and then are asked to apply the rules to other examples. They also learn grammatical paradigms such as very conjugations They memorize native language equivalents for foreign language vocabulary words.

4. What is the nature of student - teacher interaction ? What is the nature of student - students interaction ?

Most of the interaction in the classroom is from the teacher to the students. There is little student initiation and little student – student interaction.

5. How are the feeling of the students dealt with ?

There are no principles of the method which relate to this area.

6. How is language viewed ? How is culture viewed ?

Literary language is considered superior to spoken language and is therefore the language students study. Culture is viewed as consisting of literature and the fine arts.

7. What areas of language are emphasized ? What language skills are emphasized ?

Vocabulary and grammar are emphasized. Reading and writing are the primary skills that the students work on. There is much less attention given to speaking and listening. Pronunciation receives little, if any, attention.

8. What is the role of the student's native language ?

The meaning of the target language is made clear by translating it into the student's native language. The language that is used in class is mostly the student's native language.

9. How is evaluation accomplished ?

Written tests in which students are asked to translate from their native language to the target language or vice versa are often used. Questions about the foreign culture or questions that ask students to apply grammar rules are also common.

10. How does the teacher respond to student errors ?

Having the students get the correct answer is considered very important. If students make errors or don 's know an answer, the teacher supplies them with the correct answer.

TECHNIQUES OF THE GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD

Translation of the Literary Passage

Students translate a reading passage from the target language into their native language. The reading passage then provides the focus for several classes : vocabulary and grammatical structures in the passage are studied in subsequent lessons. The passage may be excepted from somework from the target language literature, or a teacher may write a passage carefully designed to include particular grammar rules and vocabulary. The translation may be written or spoken or both. Students should not translate idioms and the like literally, but rather in a way that shows that they understand their meaning.

Reading Comprehension Questions

Students answer questions in the target language based on their under standing of the reading passage. Often the questions are sequenced so that the first group of questions asks for information contained within the reading passage. In order to answer the second group of questions students will have to make inferences based on their understanding of the passage. This means they will have to answer questions about the passaged even though the answers are not contained in the passage itself. The third group of questions requires students to relate the passage to their own experience.

Antonyms / Synonyms

Students are given one set of words and are asked to find antonyms in the reading passage. A similiar exercise could be done by asking students to find synonyms for a particular set of words. Or students might be asked to define a set of words based on their understanding of them as they occur in the reading passage. Other exercises that ask students to work with the vocabulary of the passage are also possible (Allen 1983)

Cognates

Students are taught to recognize cognates by learning the spelling or sound patterns that correspond between the languages. Students are also asked to memorize words that look like cognates but have meanings in the target language that are different from those in the native language. This technique, of course, would only be useful in languages that share cognates.

Deductive Application of Rule

Grammar rules are presented with examples. Exceptions to each rule are also noted. Once students understand a rule, they are asked to apply to it some different example.

Fill – in – the blanks

Students are given a series of sentences with words missing. They fill in the blanks with new vocabulary items or with items of a particular grammar type, such as prepositions or verbs with different tenses.

Memorization

Student are given lists of target language vocabulary words and their native language equivalents and are asked to memmorize them. Students are also required to memorize grammatical rules and grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations.

Use Words in Sentences

In order to show that students understand the meaning and use of a new vocabulary item, they make up sentences in which they use the new words.

Composition

The teacher give the students a topic to write about in the target language. The topic is based upon some aspect of the reading passage of the lesson. Sometimes, instead of creating a composition, students are asked to prepare a precis of the reading passage.

THE DIRECT METHOD

INTRODUCTION

As with the Grammar – Translation Method, the Direct Method's not new. Its principles have been applied by language teachers for many years. Most recently, it was revived as a method when the goal of instruction became learning how to use a foreign language to communicate. Since the Grammar–Translation Method was not very effective in preparing students to use the target language communicatively, the Direct Method became popular.

The Directo Method has one very basic rule: No translation is allowed. In fact, the Direct Method receives its name from the fact the meaning is to be connected directly with the target language, without going through the process of translating into the student's native language.

Now let us consider the principle of the Direct Method as they are arranged in answer to the ten questions :

1. What is the the goals of teacher who use the Direct Method ?

Teachers who use the Direct Method intend that students learn how to communicate in the target language. In order to do this successfully, students should learn to think in the target language.

2. What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ?

Although the teacher directs the class activities, the student role is less passive than in the Grammar – Translation Method. The teacher and the students are more like partners in the teaching / learning process.

3. *What are some characteristics of the teaching / learning process ?*

Teacher who use the Direct Method believe students need to associate meaning and the target language directly. In order to do this, when the teacher introduces a new target language word or phrase, he demonstrates its meaning through the use of real, pictures, or pantomime ; he never translate it into the students native language. Students speak in the target language a great deal and communicate as if they were in real situations. In fact, the syllabus used in the Direct Method is based upon situation (for example, on unit would consist of language that they use when going shopping) or topics (such as geography, money, or the weather). Grammar is taught inductively; that is the students are presented with examples and they figure out the rule or generalization from the examples. An explicit grammar rule may never be given. Students practice vocabulary by using new words in complete sentences.

4. *What is the nature of students – teacher interaction ? What is the nature of student – student interaction ?*

The initiation of the interaction goes both ways, from teacher to students and from student to teacher, although the latter is often teacher – directed. Students converse with one another as well.

5. *How are the feeling of the students dealt with ?*

There are no principles of the method which relate to this area.

6. *How is language viewed ? How is culture viewed ?*

Language is primarily spoken, not written. Therefore, students study common, everyday speech in the target language. They also study culture consisting of the history of the people who speak the target language, the geography of the country or countries where the language is spoken, and information about the daily lives of the speakers of the language.

7. *What areas of languages are emphasized ? What language skills are emphasized ?*

vocabulary is emphasized over grammar. Although work on all four skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) occurs from the start, oral communication is seen as basic. Thus the reading and writing exercises are based upon what the students practice orally first pronunication also receives attention right from the beginning of a course.

8. *What is the role of the students' native language ?*

The students' native language should not be used in the classroom.

9. *How is evaluation accomplished ?*

We didn't actually see any formal evaluation in the class we observed; however, in the Direct Method, students are asked to use the language, not to demonstrate their knowledge about the language. They are asked to do so using

both oral and written skills. For example, the students might be interviewed orally by the teacher or might be asked to write a paragraph about something they have studied.

10. How does the teacher respond to student errors ?

The teacher, employing various techniques, tries to get students to self - correct whenever possible.

TECHNIQUES OF THE DIRECT METHOD

Reading Aloud

Student take turns reading sections of a passage, play, or dialogue out loud. At the end of each students' turn, the teacher uses gestures, pictures, realia, examples, or other means to make the meaning of the section clear.

Question and Answer Exercise

The exercise is conducted only in the target language. Students are asked questions and answer in full sentences so that they practice with new words and grammatical structure. They have the opportunity to ask questions as well as answer them.

Getting students so Self – correct

The teacher of this class has the students self – correct by asking them to make a choice between what they said and an alternate answer he supplied. There are, however, other ways of getting students to self - correct. For example, a teacher might simply repeat what a student has just said, using a questioning voice to signal to the student that something was wrong with it. Another possibility is for the teacher to repeat what the student said, stopping just before the error. The students know that the next word was wrong.

Conversation Practice

The teacher asks students a number of questions in the target language which the students have to understand to be able to answer correctly. in the class observed, the teacher asked individual students questions about themselves. The questions contained a particular grammar structure. Later, the students were able to ask each other their own questions using the same grammatical structure.

Fill – in – the blank Exercise

This technique has already been discussed in the Grammar – Translation Method, but differs in its application in the Direct Method. All the items are in the target language ; furthermore, no explicit grammar rule would be applied. The students would have induced the grammar rule they need to fill in the blanks from examples and practice with earlier parts of the lesson.

Dictation

The teacher reads the passage three times. The first time the teacher reads it at a normal speed, while the students just listen. The second time he reads the phrase. pausing long enough to allow students to write down what they have heard. The last time the teacher again reads at a normal speed, and student check their work.

MapDrawing

The class included one example of a technique used to give students listening comprehension p ractice. The students were given a map with the geo-grapphical features unnamed. Then the teacher gave the students directions such as the following. "Find the mountain range in the West. Write the words 'Rocky Mountains' across the mountain range." He gave instructions for all the geo-graphical features of the United states so that students would have a completely labelled map if they followed his instructions correctly. The students then instructed the teacher to do the same things with a map he had drawn on the blackboard. Each student could have a turn giving the teacher instructions for finding and labelling one geographical feature.

Paragraph Writing

The teacher in this class asked the students to write a paragraph in their own words on the major geographical features of the United States. They could have done this from memory, or they could have used the reading passage in the lesson as a model.

THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

Introduction

Adherents of the Communicative Approach acknowledge that structures and vocabulary are important. However, they feel that preparation for communication will be inadequate if only these are taught. Students may know the rules of language usage, but will be unable to use the language.

When we communicate, we use the language to accomplish some functions, such as arguing, persuading, or promising. Moreever, we carry out these functions within a social context. A speaker will choose a particular way to express his argument not only based upon his intent and his level of emotion, but also on whom he is addressing and what his relationship with that person is. For example, he may be more direct in arguing with his friend than with his employer.

Furthermore, since communication is a process, it is insufficient for students to simply have knowledge of target language forms meanings , and functions. Students must be able to apply this knowledge in negotiating meaning. It is through the interaction between speaker and listener (or reader and

writer) that meaning becomes clear. The listener gives the speaker feedback as to whether or not be he understands what the speaker has said. In this way, the speaker can revise what he has said and try to communicate his intended meaning again; if necessary.

PRINCIPLES OF THE COMMUNICATIVE APPROACH

The anwers to our ten questions will help us come to a better under standing of the Communicative Approach. In some answers new information has been provided to clarify certain concepts.

1. What is the goal of teachers who use the Communicative approach ?

The goal is to have one 's students become communicatively competent. While this has been the stated goal of many of the other methods, in the Communicative Approach the notion of what is takes to be communicatively competent is much expanded.

Communicative competence involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context. To do this students need knowledge of the linguistic forms, meanings, and functions. They need to know the many different forms can be used to perform a function and also that a single form can often serve a variety of functions. They must be able to choose from among them the most appropriate form, given the social context and the roles of the interlocutors. They must also be able to manage the process of negotiating meaning with their interlocutors.

2. What is the role of the teacher ? What is the role of the students ?

The teacher is a facilitator of his students' learning. As such he has many roles to fulfill. He is a manager of classroom activities. in this role, one of his major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication. During the activities he acts as an advisor, answering students' question and monitoring their performance. At other times he might be a co–communicator" – engaging in the communicative activity along with the students (Little wood 1981).

Students are, above all, communicators. They are actively engaged in negotiating meaning – in trying to make themselves understood – even when their knowledge of the target language is incomplete. They learn to communicative by communicating.

Also, since the teacher 's role is less dominant than in a teacher centered method, students are seen as more responsible managers of their own learning.

3. What are some characteristics of the teaching ! learning process ?

The most obvious characteristic of the Communicative approach is that almost everying that is done is done with a communicative intent. Students use

the language a great deal through communicative activites such as games, role–plays, and problem–solving tasks (see discussion of these in the review of techniques).

Activities that are truly communicative, according to Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow 1981) , have three features : information gap, choice, and feedback.

An information gap exists when one person in an exchange knows something that the other person doesn't. If we both know today is Tuesday and I ask you, " What is today ? " and you answer, " Tuesday, " our exchange isn 't really communicative.

In communication, the speaker has a choice of what he will say and how he will say it. If the exercise is rightly controlled so that students can only say something in one way, the speaker has no choice and the exchange, therefore, is not communicative. In a chain drill, for example, if a student must reply to his neighbour 's question in the same way as his neighbour replied to someone else 's question, then he has no choice of form and content, and real communication does not occur.

True communication is purposeful. A speaker can thus evaluate whether or not his purpose has been achieved based upon the information he receives from his listener does not have an opportunity to provide the speaker with such feedback, then the exchange is not really communicative. forming question through a transformation drill may be a worthwhile activity, but it is not communicative since a speaker will receive no response from a listener. He is thus unable to assess whether his question has been understood or not.

Another chacteristic of the Communicative Approach is the use of authentic materials. It is considered desirable to give students an opportunity to develop strategies for understanding language as it is actually used by native speakers.

Finally, we noted that activities in the Communicative Approach are often carried out by students in small groups. Small numbers of students interacting are favoured in order to maximize the time allotted to each student for learning to negotiate meaning.

4. *What is the nature of student–teacher interaction ? What is the nature of student –student interaction ?*

The teacher is the initiator of the activities, but he does not always himself interact with the students. Sometimes he is a co–communicator, but more often he establishes situation that prompt communication between and among the students.

Students interact a great deal with one another. They do this in various configurations, pairs, traids, small groups, and, whole group.

5. *How are the feelings of the students dealt with ?*

One of the basic assumptions of the Communicative Approach is that students will be more motivated to study a foreign language since they will feel that are learning to do something useful with the language they study.

Also, teachers give students an opportunity to express their individuality by having them share their ideas and opinions on a regular basis. This helps students " to integrate the foreign language with their own personality and thus to feel more emotionally secure with it ". (Littlewood 1981.)

Finally , student security is enhanced by the many opportunities for cooperative interactions with their fellow students and the teacher.

6. *How is language viewed? How is culture viewed ?*

Language is for communication. Linguistic competence, the knowledge of forms and meanings is however, just one part of communicative competence. Another aspect of communicative competence is knowledge of the functions language is used for. As we have seen in this lesson, a variety of forms can be used to accomplish a single function, a speaker can make a prediction by saying, for example, " It may rain ", or " Perhaps it will rain ". Conversely, the same form of the language can be used for a variety of functions . " May " for instance, can be used to make a predication or to give permission (" They may sit in the back") (Celce – Murcia and Larsen – Freeman, 1983).

Thus, the learner needs knowledge of forms and meanings and functions. However, he must also use this knowledge and take into consideration the social situation in order to convey his intended meaning appropriately. A speaker can seek permission using " may " (" May I have a piece of fruit ? "; however, if the speaker preceives his listener as being more of a social equal or the situation is being informal, he would more likely use " can " to seek permission ("can I have a piece of fruit? ").

Culture is the everyday lifestyle of people who use the language natively. There are certain aspects of it that are especially important to communication–the use of nonverbal behaviour, for example, which would therefore receive greater attention in the Communicative Approach.

7. *What areas of language are emphasized ? What languages skills are emphasized ?*

Language functions are emphasized over forms. Typically, although not always, a functional syllabus is used. A variety of foms are introduced for each function . Only the simpler forms would be presented at first, but as students get more proficiency in the target language, the functions are reintroduced and more complex forms are learned. Thus, for example, in learning to make requests, beginning students might practice " Would you ... ?"and " Could you... ? Highly proficient students might learn " I wonder if you would mind .... ? "

Student work with language at the suprasentential or discourse level. They learn about cohesion and coherence. For example, in our leson the students recognised that the second sentence of the scrambled order was the last sentence of the original sports column because of its introductory adverbial phase, " In the final analysis .... " This adverbial phrase is a cohesive device that binds and orders this sentence to the other sentences. The students also recognized the lack of coherence between the first sentences of the scrambled order, which did not appear connected in any meaningful way.

Students work on all four skills from the beginning. Just as oral communication is seen to take place through negotiation between speaker and listener, so too is meaning thought to be derived from the written word through an interaction between the reader and the writer. The writer isn 't present to receive immediate feedback from the reader, of course, but the reader tries to understand the writer's intentions and the writer writes with the reader 's perspective in mind. meaning does not, therefore, reside exclusively in the text, but rather arises through negotiation between the reader and writer.

8. What is the role of the students native language ?

The students native language has no particular role in the communicative Approach. The target, language 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.

9. How is evaluation accomplished ?

A teacher evaluates not only his students' accuracy, but also their fluency. The student who has the most control of the structures 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 text (for extensive discussion of communicative tests, see Madsen (1983)). This is an integrative test which has a real communicative function. In order to assess their writing skill, for instance, a teacher might ask his students to write a letter to a friend.

10. How does the teacher respond to student errors ?

Errors of form are tolerated and are seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students can have limited linguistic knowledge and still be successful communicators.

TECHNIQUES OF THE COMMUNICATION APPROACH :

Authentic Materials :

To overcome the typical problems that students can 't transfer what they learn in the classroom to the outside world and to expose students to natural language in a variety of situations, adherents of the Communicative Approach advocate the use of authentic language materials. In this we see that the teacher uses a copy of a genuine newspaper article. He also assigns the students homework, requiring they listen to a live radio or television broadcast.

Of course, the class that we observed was at the high intermediate level of proficiency. For students with lower proficiency in the target language, it may not be possible to use authentic language materials such as these. Simpler authentic materials (for example, the use of a weather forecast when working on predictions), or atleast ones that are realistic, are most desirable. It is not so important that the materials be genuine as it is that they be used authentically.

Another possibility for the use of authentic materials with a lower level class is to use realia that do not contain a lot of language, but about which a lot of discussion could be generated. Menus sin the target language are an example timetables are another.

Scrambled sentences :

The students are given a passage (a text) in which the sentences are in a scrambled order. This may be a passage they have worked with or one they have 't seen before. They are told to unscramble the sentences so that the sentences are restored to their original order. This type of exercise teaches students about the cohesion and coherence properties of language. They learn how sentences are bound together at the suprasentential level through formal linguistic devices such as anaphoic pronouns, which make a text cohesive, and semantic propositions, which unify a text and make it coherent.

In addition to written passages, students might also be asked to unscramble the lines of a mixed-up dialogue. Or they might be asked to put the pictures of a pictures strip story in order and write lines to accompany the pictures.

Language Games

Games are used frequently in the communicative Approach. The students find them enjoyable, and if they are properly designed, they give students valuable communicative practice. Games that are truly communi cative, according to Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow 1981,) have the three features of communication : information gap, choice, and feedback.

These three features were mainfested in the card game we observed in the following way : An information gap existed because the speaker did not know what her classmate was going to do the following weekend. The speaker had a choice as to what she would predict (which sport) and how she would predict it (which form her prediction would take) The speaker received feedback from the members of her group. If her prediction was incomprehensible, the none of the

members of here group would respond. If she got a meaningful response, she could presume her prediction was understood.

Picture Strip Story ;

Many activities can be done with picture strip stories. We suggested one in our discussion of scrambled sentences.

In the activity we observed, one student in a small group was given a strip story. she showed the first picture of the story to the other members of her group and asked them to predict what the second picture would look like. An information gap existed – the students in the groups did not know what the picture contained. They had a choice as to what their prediction would be and how they would word it. They received feedback, not on the form but on the content of the prediction, by being able to view the picture and compare it wih their prediction.

The activity just described is an example of using a problem – solving task as a communicative technique problem – solving tasks work well in the Communicative Approach because they usually include the three features of communication. What's more, they can be structured so that students share information or work together to arrive at a solution. This gives students practice in negotiating meaning.

Role – play :

We already encountered the use of role – plays as a technique when we looked at Suggestopedia. Role – plays are are very important in the communicative approach because they give students an opportunity to practice communicating in different social contexts and in different social roles. Role – plays can be set up so that they are very structured (for example, the teacher tells the students who they are and what they should say) or in a less structured way (for example, the teacher tells the students who they are, what the situation is, and what they are talking about, but the students determine what they will say). The later is more in keeping with the Communicative Approach, of course, because it gives the students more of choice. Notice that role – lays structured like this also provide information gaps since students can – not be sure (as with most forms of communication) what the other person or people will say (there's a natural unpredictablility). Students also receive feedback on whether or not they have effectively communicated.

Perhaps the greatest contribution of the Communicative Approach 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 communicatively competent entails.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Think of a particular group of students you have taught at the time of your teaching practice. Choose a reading passage from a literary work of a textbook or write one yourself. Make sure it is at a level your students can understand yet not at a level that would be too simple for them. Try translating it yourself as a test of its difficulty. Identify the vocabulary you would choose to work on. Plan vocabulary exercises you would use to help your students associate the new words with their native language equivalents.

Activity – 2

Pick a grammatical point or two contained in the same passage. provide the explicit grammar rule that relates to each one and give some examples. Design exercises that require your students to apply the rule to some different examples.

Activity – 3

Choose a particular situation (such as at the bank, at the railroad station or at the doctors office) or a particular topic (such as articles of clothing, hol holidays, or the weather) and write a short passage or a dialogue on the theme you have chosen. Now think about how you will convey its meaning to a class.

Activity – 4

Select a grammar point from the passage. Plan how you will get students to practice the grammar point. What examples can you provide them with so that they can induce the rule themselves ?

Activity – 5

Imagine that you are working your students on the function of requesting information. The authentic material you have selected is a railroad timetable. Design a communicative game or problem–solving task in which the timetable is used to give your students practice in requesting information.

.....

Activity – 6

Plan a role-play to work on the same function as in the above mentioned activity exercise.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

1. The translation method aims at the pupil 's ability to
   (a) comprehend the matter'
   (b) use the language
   (c) appreciate the passage
   (d) write in the mother tongue
2. The translation method can be used only when the pupil is
   (a) monolingual
   (b) bilingual
   (c) multilingual
   (d) learning the mother tongue
3. The Translation Method retards pupil's
   (a) using English

(b) using only one language

(c) thinking in English

(d) thinking in the mother tongue

4. The Translation Method relies on

(a) functional grammar

(b) comparison of grammar

(c) formal grammar

(d) transformative grammar

5. Direct method in language teaching aims at the mastery of

(a) active skills

(b) passive skills

(c) reading skills

(d) receptive skills

6. Direct method avoids the use of

(a) mother tongue

(b) translation

(c) explanation

(d) simplification

7. In Direct method grammar is taught

(a) Inductively

(b) deductively

(c) directly

(d) formally

KEY

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
a	b	c	c	a	b	a

LESSON – 14

TYPES OF SYLLABUSES

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives.

i. differentiate syllabus from curriculum.

ii. list the types of syllabuses.

iii. describe a structural syllabus.

iv. describe a situational syllabus.

v. describe a notional syllabus.

vi. define ' Basic English '

vii. illustrate ' Basic English '

ACTIVITIES

I. Reading of learning material

ii. Reading of

– Davies, paul, John Roberts and Richard Rossrer, Situational Lesson plan - A Handbook for Teacher of English, London : Macmillan Education Ltd., 1975.

– Halold, B., Allen & R.N. Campbell, Teaching English as a Second Language – A Book of Reading, New Delhi : Tata Mc – Graw Hill Ltd., 1973.

– Ryburn, W.M. The Teaching of English, Bombay : OUP, 1966

iii. Completion of work sheet and self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

LANGUAGE TEACHING – ITS CONSTITUENTS

' Teaching ' does not consist only in what the teacher does in the class room with this students. There are several factors to be taken into account when we talk about the teaching of something of which the most significant are :

i. the curriculum :

ii. the course :

iii. the classroom techniques :

iv. the system of evaluation.

THE SYLLABUS

Whereas the curriculum should provide a comprehensive plan on which the system of learning and teaching can be based, the syllabus respresents the picture of a particular stage of this overall plan, and the courses are the tools used to achieve the objectives piecemeal by going from one stage to the next higher one and so on.

The term curriculum is sometimes understood to mean the list of subjects, topics, books, etc., which the student is expected to study. In fact, the term has wider meaning. The framers of the curriculum have the responsibility of defining completely the educational needs of the learner and identifying all the means whereby these needs can be fulfilled. In other words, the curriculum should provide a comprehensive plan on which the entire system of learning and teaching can be based.

A good curriculam for English should, first of all, state precisely and exhaustively the objectives for teaching it, relating these objectives to the needs of each set of learners. Unfortunately, this is something that most curriculam for English neglect to do. The typical curriculum is nothing more than a list of topics and books, which we usualy label as the 'syllabus'. No attempt is made to relate the study of English to the actual needs of the learners.

The needs of course, are obvious to most people – but the correct strategy for satisfying these needs is less obvious. It is this strategy that the curriculum should indicate. The task is far from simple.

In India, we teach English to our students for about six years in school and two or three years in college, a total of atleast 1800 hours. The net result of this vast amount of teaching is a totally inadequate state of learning, reflecte in the inability (of the learners) to understand, to speak, read or write the language well enough for effective communication. Surely then, our strategy for learning and teaching English is wrong, since experience in some other counteries where

English is taught as a second language has shown that it is possible to produce better results with less expenditure of time and effort. Obviously, to begin at the beginning, we must evolve a new syllabus that will satisfy the needs of our students.

One of the major decisions that has to be taken in the teaching of English language is on what basis we will select the language to which the learner will be exposed and which we will expect him to acquire. If we look at existing text-books, at existing syllabuses and at the discussions that have been conducted in journals and books devoted to the teaching of language, we will see that a variety of approaches have been proposed or adopted. In the case of older text-books decisions appear to have been proposed or adopted. In the case of older text books decisions appear to have been taken on a more or less subjective basis, whereas in more recent years the criteria employed have been made more and more explicit. To a considerable extent the different ways of structuring courses reflect different ways of looking at the objectives of language learning and teaching. If a close analysis of objectives has been made, the most obvious pedagogic strategy to adopt in planning to meet those objectives is to follow the components of the analysis step–by–step. Since the learning of a language is not commonly identified with acquiring mastery of its grammatical system, it is not surprising that most courses have of grammatical (or "structural") pedagogic organisation. Ofcourse there is enormous variety in the ways in which language may be presented in grammatically structured teaching materials themselves, but there are also quite other ways of defining the content of language courses. There are courses based on the systematic introduction of vocabulary and others which take language situations as the starting–point. There are those that adopt a functional approach that resembles parts of the national syllabus. We will analyse the different types of English syllabi in this lesson.

GRAMMATICAL (STRUCTURAL) SYLLABUS

The lingistic criteria that are most often cited in relation to the grammatical content of teaching are simplicity, regularity, frequency and contrastive difficulty. There is no particular difficulty in understanding any of these concepts. It is suggested that more simple language should be taught before more complex on the not unreasonable assumption that simplicity of structure implies ease of acquisition. Judgements of simplicity are till made on a largely intuitive basis, since linguistics has not yet provided us with a means of measuring complexity which has proven psycholinguistic validity. The criterion of regularity requires that the most productive linguistic structures should be taught before those of low productivity. The reason why the content of the early stages of so many courses is similiar is that they deal with those linguistic forms that have the greatest generalizability and whatever type of linguistic description has been used to derive the language content, the same, basic facts are likely to emerge. Some grammatical forms are so necessary to any use of the language

that they can only be avoided in the early stages of a course at the cost of the greatest artificiality. The criterion of frequency is rarely used at all rigidly. It is more often simply a matter of deferring to a later stage the learning of forms that are evidently obscure or rarely used. A great deal has been written on the subject of constrastive difficulty. Most of it, however, remains at the level of description and there is very little discussion of how our understanding of particular contrastive problems influences the detail of course and syllabus design. In general it is suggested that the early stages of learning should be devoted to language forms which present the fewest contrastive difficulties.

The syllabus that results from the application of these criteria will be a grammatical syllabus. The use of a grammatical syllabus can be regarded as the conventional approach to language teaching since the majority of syllabuses and published courses have as their core an ordered list of grammatical structures. The vocabulary content is secondary in importance and certainly rearely provides the basic structure of a course. The view is widely held that until the major part of the grammatical system has been learned, the vocabulary learning load should be held down to what is pedagogically necessary and to what is desirable for the sake of ensuring adequate variety in the content of learning. From this point on, the grammatical syllabus will be regarded as the archetype of synthetic approach to syllabus design.

RESERVATIONS ABOUT GRAMMATICAL (STRUCTURAL) SYLLABUS

In recent year a number of arguments of varying degrees of importance and validity have been put forward for questioning the adequacy of a grammatical syllabus. It is not generally denied that what is learned through a grammatical syllabus is of value to the learner. It is rather suggested that this is not the necessary or the most effective way of designing language courses and that, in any case, language learning is not complete when the content of a grammatical syllabus has been mastered.

The actual number of structures (sentences) that are possible in any language is infinite. This is because, as linguist have recently once again emphasized, a finite set of grammatical rules is capable of producing an infinite set of grammatical rules is capable of producing an infinity of sentences. Any syllabus which is an itemized list of points or structures to be learned is inevitable incomplete. It is impossible therefore, for a grammatical syllabus to cover the grammatical facts exhaustively.

One of the major reasons for questioning the adequacy of grammatical syllabuses lies in the fact that even when we have described the grammatical (and lexial) meaning of a sentence we have not accounted for the way in which it is used as an utterance.

For learners, probably the most striking way in which the knowledge of language developed through a grammatical syllabus fails to measure upto their

communicational needs in its lack of situational relevance. They may have learned through oral, active methods and, indeed, have a considerable practical command of grammatical structures, but the language that they rehearse in the classroom will be inadequately related to what is needed in the situations in which they may actually want to use the language. Even the relatively uninformed learner is aware that there are ways of using language that are appropriate to the situation in which and for which it is required. What one may want to say in one situation differs from what is needed in another. Some specialised uses of language are quite distinctive and there is enough variety in language for one to be cautious about regarding language as a monolinthic whole. The language that occurs in any one situation can be regarded as a sub-variety of the whole in the particular way in which it exploits the grammatical core of the language. The grammatical syllabus focusses learning on the core and not on the distribution of that core in particular uses. As a result, even the learner who knows that core may not be able to communicative adequately when he finds himself in a situation requiring language.

SITUATIONAL SYLLABUSES

It is hardly surprising, therefore, that the most commonly proposed alternative is to take situational needs as the starting – point and thereby to construct a situational syllabus to replace the grammatical syllabus. It is the only other kind of syllabus that is at all widely used as a basis for the construction of teaching materials.

The argument for the situational syllabus is fairly straightforward. Although languages are usually described as general systems, language is always used in a social context and cannot be fully understood without reference to that context. Our choice of linguistic forms may be restricted according to certain features of the social situation and, in any case, we need the language so that we can use it in the situations that we encounter. Therefore, rather than orientate learning to the subject and its content, we should take account of the learner and his needs. We should predict the situations in which the learner is likly to need the language and then teach the language that is necessary to perform linguistically in those situations. It will be a more efficient process because it will include only what is relevant to the learner. It will be more motivating because it is learner – rather than subject – centred. The distinction between language for learning and language for use will disappear. units in the syllabus will have situational instead of grammatical labels.

In order to carry out the behavioural analysis that underlines the situational syllabus, we must have a set of parameters for describing the significant features of situations. These features include the physical context in which the language event occurs, the channel (spoken or written) of communication, whether the language activity is productive or receptive, the number and the character the participants, the relationships between them and the field of activity within which the language event is taking place. Obviously, different

syllabus will result for different types of learner. The exact contents of a syllabus will be the result of a careful behavioural predication and will consist of an inventory of language situations and a description of the linguistic content of each of these situations.

Situational courses do exist. They consist of learning units withlabels like ' At the post office ', ' buying a theatre ticket,' ' asking the way ' and so on . In all probability they are successful in what they set out to do, but there are reasons for doubting whether they can be taken as a model for the general organization of language teaching. The difficulty centres on just what is meant by ' situation with examples like the ones above there is no great difficulty. They are situations with fairly evident, objectively describable physical characteristics. The language interactions that are taking place are closly related to the situation itself. There will be grammatical and lexical forms that have a high probability of occurrence in these kinds of language event.

However it would be native to think that the speaker is somehow linguistically at the mercy of the physical situation in which he finds himself. What the individual says is what he has chosen to say. It is a matter of his intentions and purposes. The fact that there are some situations in which certain intentions and regularly expressed, certain linguistic transactions regularly carried out, does not mean that this is typical of our language use. Even in the restricted physical situations that have been mentioned so far language does not have to be related to the situations. I may have gone into the post office, not to buy stamps, but to complain about the non- arrival of a parcel, to change some money so that I can make a telephone call or to ask a friend of mine who works behind the counter whether he wants to come to a football match on Saturday afternoon. Making complaints is not (or should not be) what one typically goes to a post office for. The making of requests, the seeking of infomation, the expression of agreement and disagreement can take place in almost any situation. There are probably no situations where we typically express possibility, probability, certainty, doubt or conviction any yet the need to do so is demonstrated by the frequency with which they are expressed in our speech.

One way in which this problem might be overcome is by extending the notion of situation to include uses of language like those just mentioned which are the product of internal processes and not of the influence of situational features. Once we do this, however, we move into the realms of the unpredictable. The content of an utterance is determined by the state of mind of the speaker. That in turn is the product of his life's experience. We could predict his language behaviour only if we had complete knowledge of the universe. by broadening the concept of situation in this way we have rendered it virtually inoperable since we are no longer able to describe the features of a situation in objective terms. At the same time we have lost the benefit of the insight into language that is provided by our awareness that relationships between language and situation do exist.

It seems best, therefore, to retain the terms situation for the sum of the observable and independently describable features of the context in which a

language event occurs. Language use is then seen as a continum. At one end of the scale the form and content of utterances is fairly predictable from a description of the situational context. At the other end of situational context of utterance is almost wholly irrelevant and predication would be possible only if one knew that, in practice, one cannot know – the learned and inherited characteristics of the participants.

Examples of language use under the control of observable stimuli are if anything, typical. A situational syllabus will be valuable inso–far as a learner 's need is to be able to handle language situations of this sort. The limited aims of a tourist, a waiter or a telephone switch – board operator might be provided for adequately in this way. However, they would, by definition , be unprepared for anything ' out of the ordinary '. If we were to attempt to use a situational syllabus for any learner whose needs could not be identified in these situational terms, including the general language learners, we would fail to provide him with the means to handle significant language needs. Useful as a situational syllabus may be in certain circumstances, therefore, it does not offer a general solution to problems of syllabus design.

NOTIONAL SYLLABUSES

The discussion so far has suggested that there are limits to what can be achieved through structural and situational syllabuses. The structural syllabus seeks to teach the language by taking the learner progressively through the forms of the target language. The situational syllabus does so by recreating the situations in which native speakers use the language. While in neither case would it be denied that languages are learned for the purposes of communication, both leave the learner short of adequate communicative capacity. We have now, in effect, dealt with the existing situation in syllabus design and in doing so have provided a context against which the proposals for a national syllabus, can best be understood and judged.

The notional syllabus is in contrast with the other two because it takes the desired communicative capacity as the starting – point. In drawing up a notional syllabus, instead of asking how speakers of the language express themselves or when and where they use the language, we ask what it is they communicate through language. We are then able to organize language teaching in terms of the content rather than the form of the language. For this reason the resulting syllabus is called a notional syllabus.

The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. It is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence and because its evident concern with the use of language will sustain the motivation of the learners. It is superior the situational syllabus because it can ensure that the most important grammatical forms are included and because it can cover all kinds of language functions, not only those that typically occur in certain situations.

LEXICAL CONTENT

The principal concern in this discussion of syllabus design has been to discover the most effect ways in which the functional and grammatical aspects of linguistic competence can be developed. The learning of lexical items has been mentioned only incidentally. In a notional syllabus, while concepts of frequency are not irrelevant, there are other sources from which vocabulary will in the first place to be derived.

To a certain, though limited, extent the semantic grammatical categories themselves have implications for the lexical content. Concepts of time, quantity and space cannot be expressed without an appropriate lexicon. Communicating emotional reactions too may involve drawing on a certain set of lexical items. In general, however, the categories of communicative function do not so much demand a specific lexical content as operate on a lexicon determined by other factors.

One of these factors will be the situation of language use. We saw above that a function is only realized in a specific context and indeed would only be taught in a specific context. That context may well be a situational context and, in that case, the lexical content taught will be that which is appropriate to the situation. Any prior analysis of needs has to take anticipated situations of language use into account and in doing so it goes part of the way towards defining the lexical content of learning. The context, however, may be linguistic as much as situational and, in this case, the exact form of an utterance will be dependent on the general semantic orientation of the text in which it occurs. Words can be drawn up into semantically related sets. To put it another way, the lexical content of utterances is often a matter of the TOPICS being talked about. If the topic is itself associated with the physical setting, the lexical need has already been predicted from the situational analysis ; but more often than not, there is no particular relationship between the setting in which language is produced and the topic which is being talked or written about.

The lexical content of learning, therefore, can be largely derived from an analysis of the topics likely to occur in the language use of a given group. In the case of specialised language learners the topics obviously derive from the field of specialization ; in the case of non – specialized learners it is probably necessary to establish a number of themes around which semantically related items can be grouped and from which in constructing a notional syllabus an appropriate selection can be made. Such an approach to specifying the lexical content is obviously very much in keeping with the general philosophy of the notional syllabus with its emphasis on the content and purpose of language communication.

To give an idea of what is meant here by TOPIC, it might be worth while giving an example. The topics below have been used in the specification of learning content for beginners in the context of adult language learning.

Personal identification

House and Home

Trade, profession, occupation

Freetime, entertainment

Travel

Relations with other people

Health and welfare

Education

Shopping

Food and drink

Services

Places

Foreign language

Weather

This list was produced for use in a given context. It is not exhaustive, nor would it necessarily be appropriate in other contexts.

BASIC ENGLISH

Basic English was an attempt at a simplification of English language in order (a) to provide a world language and (b) to help simplify the teaching / learning of English. It received great attention from world leaders and statesmen like Winston Churchill, Franklin D. Roosevelt and Jawahar Lal Nehru. " Basic is a system of everyday English within certain limits. It is a selection of those words which - used as we are all using them all the time - will between them do the most work. It is the smallest number of English words with general enough covering power among them to let a man say almost anything - to say it well enough for his general day - to - day purposes in all the range of his interests however wide in business, trade, industry, science, medical work - in all the arts of living and in all the exchanges of knowledge, belief, opinion, views, and news which a general - purpose language has to take care of Basic is a miniature. Language that is claimed to have the range and utility of the ' whole English Language'. It has only 850 head words with rules for putting them to use. " There is nothing in good Basic which goes against the rules of good English" The rules that govern the use of Basic are very simple and they aim at making the language as simple as it can be, not by changing anything in English structure but by limiting it. The aim was to fold: (a) to make Basic as expressive and regular in structure as it could be, so that it becomes easy for the learner ;-(b) to make to achieve, in its own limited form, a semblence with normal English. However,

a limited form of language is bound to deviate from the normal, and Basic has shown this weakness, in particular when it was handled by raw writers.

Going back to the number of words in Basic English, one might wonder how such a small number of words could have so wide a covering power. Well, all of us know that the word ' kill ' is of more use, than its synonyms ' murder ', ' hand ' ' slaughter ', ' slay ' or ' assassinate '. This is equally true of some other words, ' go ', for example, is of greater utility than ' plant '.

The fact that some words are more useful than others was one reason for the brith of Basic. Ogden and his team of workers spent seven year (1925 – 32) in weighing words against one another for their covering power. It was a protracted hunt for such a pageful of words as could take over the work of most others. The other crieterion of selection was " use -for what, by whom, under what circumstances ". The list of words thus prepared became the Basic English Work List. What did the makers of Basic English think of ' frequency ' ? All the Basic words are not the most frequent words ; about 500 of its 850 words are in fact among the most frequent words. These are the words which are taught at the earliest stages of language teaching / learning. They have been included in Basic not because they do much more work then any other group of words in English does ; they are necessary, and we can 't do without them. In other words these words are frequent because they are useful. However, every useful word need not be frequent necessarily.

To illustrate the point we have been trying to make, let us consider the word chair. It does not find a place in Basic, though it is a word of great use. Yes, but Basic has picked up a word of even greater use which does almost all that chair can do and can do many other things besides. The word is seat, and it covers ' chair ', ' stool ', ' bench ', ' couch ', ' tripod ', ' divan ' and many other words. Besides, we can use seat for a number of other words that are not in the Basic List : for example : she gave her seat to him. Please, be seated. Seating herself, she said .... C.K. Ogden, the originator, estimates that these 850 words when used in various ways, ' will be ' equal in efficiency to 3000 words or more in any earlier attempt at simplication and do the essential work of 20,000.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Reading the following dialogue. What structure is trying to teach?

Sita : Lou is going to college next month.

Gita : What is he going to study ?

Sita : He's going to study biology. He's going to be a doctor.

Gita : Where is he going to study ?

Sita : He is going to study at Jipmer.

Prepare a series of drills designed to give beginning level students some practice with this structure.

Activity – 2

Prepare your own dialogue to introduce your students to the " be going to " structure, or some structure in the target language you teach.

.....

Activity – 3

If you want to introduce your friend Sridar to Durai you might say:

Durai, this is (my friend) Sridar.

I would like to meet Sridar

Let me present Sridar to you.

Durai, meet Sridar

Allow me to introduce Sridar.

In other words, there are a variety of forms for this one function. Which would you teach to a beginning class, an intermediate class, an advanced class? Why ?

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. Structural Approach to language teaching is based on teaching the
   (a) grammar of the language
   (b) constituents of the language
   (c) meaning of the words
   (d) style of the language

2. The unit of language in the Structural Approach is the
   (a) word
   (b) word group
   (c) phrase
   (d) sentence

3. In language learning the words is not effect and useful when words and sentences are chosen from the
   (a) Reader
   (b) life situation
   (c) general reading
   (d) conversation

4. Words and structures become meaningful only when they are
   (a) mastered fully
   (b) used in writing
   (c) used in situation
   (d) explained clearly

5. Using words and patterns in various situations makes language learning
   (a) repetitive
   (b) monotonous
   (c) boring
   (d) purposive

KEY

(1) a (2) b (3) b (4) c (5) d

LESSON – 15

TEACHING OF COMPOSITION

Objectives :

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. define the linguistic activity called composition.

ii. list the various stages of teaching a composition.

iii. differentiate controlled composition from free composition.

iv. explain and illustrate the controlled composition

v. explain and illustrate the free composition.

vi. list the problems in the correction of composition work and the means to overcome them.

Activities :

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

- Billows, F.L. The Techniques of Language Teaching, London Longman Group Ltd., 1975.
- Bright, J.A. and McGregor, G.P., Teaching English as Second Language, London : Longman Group Ltd., 1976.
- Frisby, A.W. Teaching English Notes and Comments on Teach ing English Overseas, London : ELBS & Longman Group Ltd 1970

iii. Completion of work sheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Importance of Teaching of Composition

The lexical meaning of composition is ' to put together ' or ' to arrange in order ' . The word ' compose ' means ' to construct '. At the initial stages, the child who strings together words in phrases like ' on the table ' in the basket, etc., is doing a good bit of the composition work. He is stringing together words into meaningful wordgroups Composition, thus, has a very wide area of meaning. Constructions of sentences and paragraphs, writing of descriptive and narrative pieces, essays, letters, expansion, summarising, etc., are all composition of varying length, theme and profoundity.

Obviously, the linguistic activity calling for " Composition ", that is, producing some thoughts or ideas without the teacher's help, and planning them in words, should not be called into play until the learner is well into the initiative – repetitive and automatic – responsive stages of learning the language, otherwise mistakes are bound to increase.

Stages

At the first stage, the pupils should simply reproduce the structures in different situations and contexts. The context - words would be gradually introduced with these structures in the class, and the reading material will provide variety of situations. In oral composition, a dialogue between the teacher and the pupil or amongst the pupils, and the new items or structures should be worked up. In the written composition lesson, the aim should be to do " follow up " work with the help of pictures or sketches drawn on the blackboard.

At the second stage, the work should be of a dual nature. The children are to be guided to write in a sequence. The first sentence may be given as a sort of start, and the children should supply four or five sentences of their own in the given context or about some person or object. A picture may also serve as a stimulus. Besides this sequence – composition, the teacher should do the ' controlled ' type of composition. Vocabulary may be given and blanks filled up by choice from it. The child, at this stage, exercises discrimination and judgement in word – values and word – relationships.

At the third stage, a life situation is given, and the child gives full expression to his ideas and feelings. The pattern as well as vocabulary is his own. The length of the sentence begins to increase. The need for composition is felt by the pupil ; hence it should be related to his experiences. The topics, on which the pupils already have background of personal experience, produce better results.

TYPES OF COMPOSITION

There are two types of composition – controlled composition and free composition. In controlled or guided composition the pupil is given a good deal

of help regarding the structures and vocabulary items to be used in a particular piece of writing. In free composition, on the other hand, the pupils free to make use of any structures and vocabulary items that he likes. Thus for the first 3,4 years of teaching English, only controlled composition should be attempted and the pupil should proceed to free composition gradually.

DANGERS OF FREE COMPOSITION IN EARLY STAGES

The pupil is led to the stage of independent writing step by step. It will be after four years or so of teaching English when the pupil would be able to write free composition. Introducing free composition at the early stage is harmful because the pupil at this stage has not mastered the structures and vocabulary items needed for this kind of work. Therefore, he will make mistakes. Thus asking the pupil to do free composition at the early stage is like asking him too run before he has learnt to walk. It will only result in giving him the freedom in making mistakes which will get drilled through repetition. It will thus lead to the fixing of errors.

Another danger is that the pupils would first compose in this mother tongue and then try to render literal translation of his ideas into English. Thus he will not think directly in English. which he must do if he can be said to know the language.

Free composition done at the early stage will also prevent the pupil from practising specific structures and vocabulary items. Controlled composition offers an opportunity to do that.

Lastly, free composition in early classes will increase the correction load of the teacher. Besides, the pupil will get discouraged to find his note-book full of marks of red ink. It will help neither the teacher nor the taught.

CONTROLLED COMPOSITION

Pupils at the early stage of language learning cannot write a free composition. Since they are yet getting confidence in speaking the new language, they cannot construct a few connected sentences independently. It is for this reason that they should be given material for composition by the teacher.

The pupils attempts during the first 3,4 years should be confined to controlled working, i.e, guided composition.

Adequate practice in these exercises will enable him to have sufficient command over structures and vocabulary items and thus pave the way for free composition.

Here are some of the exercises in controlled composition that may be taken up at the early stage.

1. Composition from structure tables. Consider the following set of tables.

This	is	a	Pen. book. fan.
That		an	apple. inkpot. egg.

It is	my your his her	pen. book. fan. apple. inkpot. egg.

It is	here there		
	on	this that	table. desk. mat

It is possible to have a number of pieces of composition from this set of three parts. Some examples are :

1.	This is a pen.	It is my pen.	It is here.
2.	This is a pen.	It is my pen.	It is on this table.
3.	This is an apple.	It is his apple.	It is here.
4.	This is a book.	It is her book	It is on the desk.

In this type of composition, the pupils is not free to use any words outside those written in the set. Thus both structures and vocabulary are controlled. But he is free to choose any item from a v ariety of items. That way threre is scope for variety. Although the structures remain the same, yet the content words will differ from pupil to pupil.

These tables are very useful to teach the pupil how to speak a few connected sentences on a given situation. They should be dealt with orally first, and may latter be transcribed by the pupils on their note – books. It is not essential that one pupil should speak all the sentences in a set ; different pupils may contribute one sentence each.

Here is another example :

Where will	Mohan Usha the boys the girls	play ? read ? sing ? dance ?

He She They	will	play read sing dance	in the	playground school room

C	When will		he she they	play ? read ? sing ? dance
D	He She They	will	play read sing dance	today this evening tomorrow

2. Copying from the Blackboard :

The teacher puts some questions to the pupils and develops a piece of composition with their help. The pupils copy this composition from the black-board. One advantage of this exercise is that the pupils know the general lay – out, marks of punctuation, etc. It is especially so when teaching the pupils to write applications or letters at the early stage.

3. Jumbled sentences :

A few jumbled sentences are written on the blackboard and the pupils are asked to arrange them in their proper order, such an exercise enables the pupils to learn correct sequence of events and the importance of linking words.

Example : Arrange the following jumbled sentences into a paragraph:

1. The other two were still asleep.
2. After half an hour he saw young deer standing near the road.
3. After an hour John got up.
4. He got down from his bicycle and tried to shoot it, but the deer saw him and ran away.

5. He did not like to wake them and so he quitely took his gun and went along the road on his bicycle.

When correctly arranged, the order of these sentences will be 3,1,5,2 and 4. The particular exercise is meant for the VIII class. Similar exercise can be sent for all other classes keeping in mind that the structures and vocabulary items have already been mastered by the pupils. Exercises of greater difficulty to teach the pupils logical sequence of ideas should be set for higher classes.

4. Conversion Exercises :

The pupils are asked to do certain conversion exercise based on readers. Read the following passage carefully and then try to reconstruct the original dialogue which must have taken place between the father and his teen–age daughter :

I asked my daughter why she had come home so late the previous night. She said that she had been out dancing with some friends and hadn 't noticed the time. I told her that she had woken me up when she came in, and that I had looked at my watch and found that it was two o ' clock in the morning. That was much too late for a young girl. She replied that after the dance she and William, her boyfriend, and another couple had gone to William 's flat for a cup of coffee. They had set talking for an hour or so and had not realised how late it was. She was very sorry. I told her she was not to do that again and must always be sure to come home before midnight. I reminded her that she was still under twenty – one and had to obey her parents, who knew what was best for her.

Read the following passage carefully and then try to reconstruct the original dialgue which must have taken place between the newspaper reporter and the survivor of the earthquake :

The reporter asked Mr. West, one of the survivors of the earthquake, what had happened. Mr. West said he had just got into bed about half past eleven when he felt the first tremor. The bed started to tremble and he noticed the electric light, which hung from the ceiling, was swaying. The reporter asked him what he did then and he replied that he got out of bed quickly and went to look out of the window. As he looked he saw the house opposite begin to fall side ways. Then he realised what was happening, seized his dressing gown and rushed out into the garden. The reporter wanted to know if he had been alone in the house.

Fortunately he was, because his wife and childen had gone to visit his mother–in–law. For three or four minutes, he said, there was a terrible noise of walls falling down, and people screaming, and clouds of dust in the air. Then the trembling stopped. Finally the reporter enquired how much damage had been caused. Mr. West said that about fifty persons had been killed and more than two hundred injured. The damage to property was considerable, and some three hundred houses would have to be completely rebuilt.

The pupils may be asked to change a paragraph from positive to

negative and vice versa, from presenttense to past or future or vice versa, to change, from first person to third person or vice versa and so on.

Example : Change the following paragraph into the present tense :

When he got tired playing, he liked to go up to the roof of the house to see the world outside. Then he would think and dream and make up stories about the people who passed in the street below. His father was a rich man and the family lived in a very large house in Calcutta.

5. Parallet Sentences :

The pupils are given a few connected sentences, preferably from the book, and they are asked to make parallel sentences.

Example : Here are some sentences about Gopal. Now say these sentences about yourself.

Gopal is a boy. He is thirteen years old. He reads in the seventh class.

His father is a doctor. His mother is a teacher. he has two brothers and one sister. He has an uncle.

6. Question – Answer :

The teacher puts both verbal and wh–questions to the pupils. The questions are put in such an order that their answers makes a piece of composition. The pupils are asked not go being their answers with yes or no.

Example : The following questions are put to the pupils :

1. Did you go the market yesterday ?
2. How far is it from your house ?
3. Did your brother go with you ?
4. What did you buy ?
5. What did you see there ?
6. When did you return home ?

The answers will read as the following piece of composition :

I went to the market yesterday. It is one kilometre from my house. My brother also went with me. We brought sweets and fruits. We saw many people there. We returned home at 6 o ' clock.

Most the compositions at the school stage will be developed by putting appropriate questions to the pupils.

7. Filling Blanks :

The blanks may be one word blanks such as prepositions, pronouns, article, linking words etc. or they may be longer blanks in which a few words at

a time may have to be filled in. The best way to provide practice in his type of exercise is to write a paragraph, the teacher rubs off certain words. The pupils are asked to reproduce the para orally. Then the teacher rubs off certain other words and so on. This rubbing off technique continues till very few words are left on the blackboard and pupils are able to reproduce the whole para with their help. Such an exercise helps the pupils to learn a few connected sentences in their logical sequence.

8. Expansion :

After a composition has been developed with the involvement of the pupils, the teacher writes the outline on the blackboard. Now the pupils are putting concrete question on their details.

The teacher should know matchstick drawing and should have a collection of pictures. The pictures should be big enough to be seen by the whole class. They should be clear and should be displayed on the flannel board.

Imagine a simple scene of a fruit - selling some oranges to a girl. The following conversation takes place between the teacher and the pupils :

Teacher : Where is the fruit – seller sitting ?

Pupil 1 : He is sitting in his shop.

Teacher : What is he selling ?

Pupil 2 : He is selling bananas and oranges.

Teacher : What is the girl buying from the fruit - seller ?

Pupil 3 : She is buying oranges from the fruit - seller.

Teacher : Where is she putting the oranges now ?

Pupil 4 : She is putting them into her basket.

The answers, when put together, make a piece of composition :

" The fruit - seller is sitting in his shop. He is selling bananas and oranges. The girl is buying oranges from him. She is putting them into her basket".

After a while, the details of the picture may be changed. They should be changed in degrees and not all at once. For example, after the exercise done as shown above it, will be better if the fruit - seller is shown sitting on the road and instead of bananas, oranges and the girl, apples, mangoes and a boy are shown in the picture.

The pupils should be made to write themselves what they see in the picture after the change has been effected. No questions and answers need be written now.

Another advisable change would be to show a sweet – seller instead of the fruit - seller but most of the other details be kept unchanged i.e., he should be sitting in his shop, there should be a girl with a basket. The fruit will give place to sweets, of course.

Again, the pupils should be made to write sentences on the pattern practised already, without resorting to questions and answers.

When this change has been talked about, another detail may be changed. Such changes introduced in degrees ensure quickness in comprehension, fluency in expression, minimum mistakes and, therefore, maximum confidence. These changes should be make in a number of similar situations so that not only the sentences are drilled but the sequence of sentences is also drilled. The order of sentences is an equally important attribute of a good piece of composition.

Free Composition :

Free composition is one in which the student is given a subject, and is asked to write on that subject, with no further help from the teacher. If often seems to be thought that they ability to write good English will, somehow, develop in the student largely of its own accord. Many teachers believe in free composition even for the beginners ; and the result is disastrous. A student of say 13 or 14 years of age has a fairly well developed mind. If asked to write a composition on ' My School ' or ' A Visit to the City ' or ' The Cow ', he will have many thoughts to express, and many of these thoughts will require for their expression in English a much higher level of ability in English than we can reasonably expect him to have. Again, when faced with a task of this kind, he will inevitably assemble his thoughts in his mother - tongue, and then attempt to translate them in to English. Thus we are, in effect, asking him to write a free composition in his mother– tongue. This practice of giving free composition at an early stage is bad in theory, and diastrous in the practice.

Free composition work should not, therefore be attempted at the early stages.

Correction of the Composition work :

Correction of composition exercises present a serious problem at the present time, when the number of school children is increasing. The task of correcting written composition is very important, yet it is very laborious. If frequent exercise are to be set, the teacher must either scamp the correction work or find some economical way of conserving his energy. Hence to begin with only the more glaring errors in grammar and spelling may be brought to the notice of the pupils. Errors in idioms and usages may wait for later treatment. No useful purpose will be served by too much spelling of red ink.

Over – correction should be avoided. What the pupils want to express should not be replaced by what the teacher wants them to express. The object of composition teaching is to allow pupils an opportunity for self – expression. Over – correction inhibits fluency and freedom.

The pupils must be enabled, as far as possible, to correct their mistakes themselves. This may be done by the use of a few conventional signs which indicate the nature of the error committed. It will economise time and energy. It will promote individual effort and put the pupil on the right track. It will also impress the defects and their correction on his memory. It is more effective than the method by which the teacher corrects all the mistakes himself. Suitable correction symbols are as follows :

S – Spelling error

A – Omission

E – Bad English

G – Bad Grammar

? – Truth of the statement questioned

! – Exaggeration

P – Punctuation

O – Omit

Z – Irrelevant

In most cases the mere indication of an error is enough for correction. The teacher should note the general mistakes and discuss them with the class, using the blackboard. The pupils may be asked to write common mistakes in their note – books under classified heads such as – (i) Errors of Spelling, (ii) Errors of Grammar, (iii) Errors of Idioms, etc.

Before next exercise is set, the teacher should see that the errors of the previous exercise have been corrected by each pupil in his exercise – book. Omission of this practice renders the work of the teacher useless. Sometime a few writtten composition pieces should be read in the classroom and criticised. Good workshould be praised. This will give an incentive to the pupils to improve their composition. Some kind of marks or remarks should also be given to evaluate the work of the pupils. It will stimulate them and enable them to judge their own progress. The pupil's carefulness in self correction should be appreciated. The teacher should know that the aim of all correction is the eventual, and not the immediate, eradication of errors. Hence correction work should be well – planned.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Select five composition topics suitable for your pupils. Write about 15 connected sentences on each and write out the questions to elicit these sentences from your pupils.

Activity – 2

Collect suitable pictures from magazines, calenders, newspaers etc., mount them on cardboard (singly or in series) and write out connected passage that could be taught with these pictures.

Activity – 3

In guided composition, the teacher is advised to supply the thoughts and ideas to the pupils. This is criticised on the ground that it hampers the development of the habit of independent thinking in the pupils. suggest measures to overcome this criticism and to lead this kind of controlled exercise to free composition.

Activity – 4

If your own handwriting is not satisfactory, suggest measures that you will take to improve your pupils' handwriting.

.....

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. Guided composition must be taught

   (a) before free composition

   (b) after free composition

   (c) along with free composition

   (d) instead of free composition.

2. During early years in correcting composition the teacher should

   (a) mark all the mistakes and comment.

   (b) leave all the mistakes and comment.

   (c) mark the types of mistakes and explain

   (d) mark only in books of some pupils only.

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words to complete the following sentences.

1. In composition writing _____ must precede writing.
2. The type of composition work to be done in the early stages is_____.

Write T if the statement is True and F if it is False.

1. Motivation for a composition work should be related to the subject matter. ( )
2. Oral preparation is not necessary for composition work. ( )
3. The purpose to be realised by the student while writing a composition exercise is communication. ( )
4. There are differences in the way lesson plans are written for composition and comprehension. ( )

KEY

I.

1. a
2. c

II.

1. Oral preparation / oral work.
2. reproduction.

III.

1. T
2. F
3. F
4. T.

LESSON 16

TEACHING OF SPOKEN ENGLISH

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. describe the need for spoken literacy.

ii. draw a model to identify the different components of spoken communication.

iii. emphasise the importance of intelligibility aspect in oral fluency.

iv. explore the possibility of using the ' text ' for teaching oral fluency to students.

v. describe the various techniques of teaching spoken English such as dialogue, question answer practice, role playing, pronunciation drills and use of pictures, charts, flash cards etc.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

–Byrne, D Teaching oral English, London : Longman, 1976.

– Hitchman, P.J. Examining Oral English in Schools, London : Methuen & Co. Ltd., 1976.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self - check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Importance of Teaching of Spoken English

In the teaching of English in our schools emphasis is laid on reading and writing at the expense of speaking. We very often find educated men and women, who can write reasonably correct English, fumbling for words when they attempt to talk to someone in English. They tend to use wrong or inappropriate expressions, to speak, ' written English '. For example, how do we ask the time? (Instead of 'What is the time ?') Worse still, we often see people, unable to find suitable expressions, twisting their neighbour's arm and looking at his watch. To take another example, if you have not properly heard what someone else was saying, how will you ask him to repeat it ? Often people ask ' what ? ' which is a rude and impolite expression. The right think to say would be : ' I 'm sorry I didn't hear that properly. ' or ' Could you say that again, please ? / At the other extreme are people who speak the sentences which they write. So we hear people saying, ' With regard to the problem raised by you at the meeting of the managing committee yesterday ..... , etc.

Sometimes, even people who can use good expressions displease others by using the inappropriate expression. We can 't use the same expression to talk to our friend and to our official superior. When we meet a friend we may say, ' Hi ! ' or ' Hello ¡ ' , but we greet our boss by saying ' Good morning , Sir, or some similar expression. It is essential that we learn and use the expressions appropriate, to each situation.

In the middle of last century the nation needed a literate population, one that could read and write. Its leaders took the drastic step of instituting compulsory education for all. A hundred years later the need is largely satisfied.

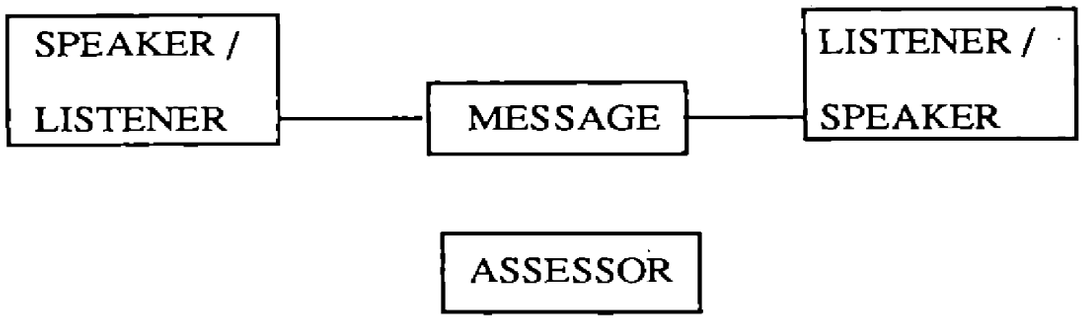
Into this world, already literate, says Lewis, comes today a renaissance of the spoken word. We are all influenced by the modern speech – machines – the telephone, wireless, talkie, television, tape – recorder. In ancient Greece and Rome the spoken word was all powerful ; the teaching of rhetoric was one of the important bases of education. Mark Antony is for us the symbol of the power of speech. Now once again, after centuries of the growing use of the written word the leaders of men turn to the spoken word as a medium of mass – communication. Today the need is for ' spoken literacy .'

A MODEL

The model below is used to identify the different components involved in communication by speech. T he arrows in dicate the direction of speech. They int point n both directions ; a t the moment, on e pe rson is listening to the oth er person speaking, and t he n ext moment, th e roles m ay be reversed. The speaker becomes the listener, a nd t he listener becomes the speaker. These switches from

one role to another often happen very fast in conversation. Speech is normally a two - way system of communication : situations where only one person speaks and other only listen ; such as an academic lecture or a political address, are comparatively rare. This feature of interactive role – switching distinguishes good oral rests from other language tests ; listening, reading or writing tests which present a set of questions and elicit a set of answers are clearly not interactive in this way.

With one addition, the same model can be used to represent the oral test situation. As well as a person who speaks and person who listens, in an oral test we need somebody to assess that speech. It is this process of assessment that turns it into a test.



THE NATURE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION

Oral communications is a two–way process between speaker and listener (or listerners), involving the productive skill of speaking and the receptive skill of understanding(or listening with understanding).Both speaker and listener have a positive function to perform: the speaker has to encode the message to be conveyed in appropriate language, while the listener (no loss actively) has to decode (or interpret) the message. The message itself, in normal speech, usually contains a great deal of ' information ' which is redundant (i.e it conveys more information that the listener needs, so he is not obliged to follow with the maximum attention. At the same time the listener is helped by prosodic features, such as stress and intonation, which accompany the spoken utterance and form part of its meaning, and also by facial and body movements. We should also note that, in contrast to the written language, where sentences are carefully structured and linked together, speech is characterised by incomplete and sometimes ungrammatical utterances and by frequent false starts and repetitions.

Oral Production

The main goal in teaching the productive skill of speaking will be oral fluency : the ability to express oneself intelligibly, reasonably accurately and without undue hesitation (otherwise communication may break down because the listener loses interest or gets impatient). To attain this goal, the students will have to be brought from the stage where they merely imitate a model or respond to clues to the point where they can use the language to express their own ideas (process that must to a large extent be in simultaneous operation). Two complementary levels of training will therefore be required ; practice in the manipulation of the fixed elements of the language (principally the use of grammatical patterns and lexical items), and practice in the expression of personal meaning. For this purpose the teacher cannot depend solely on written texts (whose limitations have already been noted) as a basis for oral practice (although both dialogues and passages may serve as valuable starting points). Audio–visual aids, on the other hand, provide at all levels a powerful way of simulating and developing oral ability without recourse to the written language.

Interdependence of the Oral Skills inCommunication

Although in classroom pactice it is often necessary to concentrate at certain times on developing one of the oral skills more than the other, we should not lose sight of the fact that oral communication is a two – way process between speaker and listener. Thus, the speaker does not always initiate : he also responds to what he has heard (as for example when he answers a question or makes a comment) ; while the listener does not always remain silent : he is normally expected to make some sort of response (which may not always he verbal as, for example, when he carries out an instruction). In the classroom, therefore, appropriate provision has to be made to see that the two oral skills are integrated through situations, which permit and encourage authentic communication.

Intelligibility

Intelligibility is usually defined in phonological terms (e.g. being able to make the difference between essential sounds such as / i / and / i as they occur in the two words leave and live). At a level of basic understanding this aspect of intelligibility is unquestionably important but, for the purpose of oral fluency, the term needs to be extended to include a mastery of other areas of language. For clearly, in order to be able to communicate effectively, the learners need an adequate mastery of grammar and vocabulary as well as phonology, and over learning in any of these areas will serve no purpose if it excessively slows down progress in the other. Thus, in most language programmes (except in teacher training) the amount of time available for systematic speech training is bound to be limited ; it will be necessary therefore to concentrate on essential features such as the differences between key sounds, weak forms, basic stress and intonation patterns, and more importance will need to be attached to reception of these features than production. Similarly, in the area of grammar, students should not be expected to master grammatical items simply because they exist in the

language, but only those essential for communication. In general, since students cannot be expected to master more than a limited amount of the code of a foreign language, they will only attain an adequate level of communicative ability if balanced attention is paid to all the three areas noted above.

THE USE OF PRESCRIBED READER

We will consider the possibility of using the ' text ' (the dialogue or prose passage) as a vehicle of giving the students guided oral practice.

Its strength lies in the fact that it offers a ready made context for practice. Indeed it would be strange if the teacher did not make further use of it after he had worked so hard to make the students understand it at the presentation stage. Its weakness lies in the fact that it is not immediately accessible to the learners as a context for practice like, for example, a wall chart or an ' imaginary situation'. It is a sequence of sentences, printed on a page or recorded on a tape, which the students are likely to have only partially in their memories. And, we cannot give effectively oral practice if the students have to keep referring to their textbooks. ' Yet at the same time we would obviously wish to avoid placing a strain in their memories. For a student may will be able to understand the text ; he may be able to use the language items in it and yet be unable to recall a certain detail needed, for example, to answer a question.

How then can we best help the students? In the first place of course, if the dialogue or passage is a long one, it can be divided upto into meaningful sections. practice can then be made to centre on one section at a time (after the students have been given the chance to refresh their memories e.g. by listening to the tape or reading it through). Alternatively, we may use visual material to remind the students of certain parts of the next, thus drawing on an association between language and image which was established at the presentation stage. By using expedients of this kind, we can with care eliminate much of the fumbling for responses which often results from practice based on a written text.

USING THE PROSE PASSAGE FOR ORAL PRACTICE

In this section examples are given of two ways of exploiting the prose passage. The sample passage is given below for ease of reference.

Sample Passage

> By midday the sun was so strong that Ram could not go any further. There were no trees near the path, so he took shelter under a big rock. After drinking the rest of his water, he took off his a shirt and rolled it up into a pillow. Then he lay down on the ground and went to sleep. He was so tired that he did not wake up until the evening. he was just about to jump up when he felt something moving near his feet. he looked down. A long black snake was just about to crawl across his legs

Ram was so afraid that he could not move. The snake began to crawl across his legs. It hesitated for a moment, then crawled on and vanished under the rock. Ram jumped to his feet and pausing only to pick up his shirt, ran off down the path.

(a) QUESTION AND ANSWER PRACTICE

The following steps are illustrated in detail for the first paragraph. The teacher might chose to exploit one paragraph at a time in this way, or take the passage as a whole but treat it in less detail. Appropriate visual aids (pictures, blackboard sketches – however rough) are desirable.

Step 1 Familiarise the students with the text by asking question (Types (2) – (4). Provide additional help where necessary (see worked example below).

Step 2 Ask wh – type questions, still providing additional help where necessary.

Step 3 Ask the same questions. Do not help the students to the same extent towards the answers.

Step 4 Use prompts to get the students to ask you questions.

Step 5 Use prompts to get the students to ask one another questions.

Step 6 let the students ask and answer questions without the help of prompts.

Sampel Question and answer Practice

	Teacher	**Student**
Step 1	Was the weather hot or cold ?	Hot
	So Ram took shelter under a big rock, didn't he ?	Yes, he did.
	Why ? Weren't there any trees near the path ?	No, there weren't
	I see. And did he have any water with him ?	Yes.
	And did he drink it ?	yes, he did.
	After that Ram wanted to sleep.	No, of course not !
	He had a pillow with him, didn't he ?	
	Did he use his shirt as a pillow, then ?	Yes, he did.

That's right. He rolled it up into a pillow. And then he went to sleep, didn't he ?	Yes.

Step 2 Ram was walking along a path (in the country).

Why did he stop ?	Because it was hot.
Where did he take shelter ?	Under a big rock.
Under a big rock ? Why there ?	Because there weren't any trees near the path.
Ram was thirsty. What did he do ?	He drank some water.
All of his water ?	Yes, all of it.
Ram wanted to sleep but hadn't got a pillow.	
So what did he do ?	He used his shirt.
What do you mean ?	He rolled it up into a pillow.
I see. And what did he do then ?	he went to sleep.

Step 3

Where was Ram walking ?	Along a path
Why did he stop ?	Because the sun was hot.
Where did he take shelter ?	Under a big rock.
Why didn't he take shelter under a tree.	There weren't any near the path.
Ram was thirsty. So what did he do ?	He drank the rest of his water.
And how did he make a pillow for himself ?	He rolled his shirt up into a pillow.

Step 4 The teacher points to the appropriate part of the picture. He next gives the question prompt and then indicates which students is to ask him the question.

Teacher	**Student**
Ram was Ram walking ? Use where? Along a path	Where was Ram walking?
Ram took shelter. Use where ? under a big rock.	Where did Ram take shelter
Question with why ?	Why did Ram take shelter.

Why did Ram ..... ? there ?

Because there weren't any
tress near the path. Ram was thirsty.
Use what ? What did Ram drink ?

He drank the rest of his water.

Ram didn't have a pillow. How did Ram make a pillow?

How did ..... ?

He rolled his shirt up What did he do next ?
into one. And then ?

He went to sleep.

Step 5 Repeat the question words from Step 4 and indicate which students are to ask and answer the questions.

Step 6 Indicate pairs of students to ask and answer questions (or let them volunteer). These may be of any type. Point to the picture if necessary to focus attention on a particular item.

THE DIALOGUE AS AN INSTRUMENT FOR TEACHING THE SPOKEN LANGUAGE

Since the main concern in the early stages is normally to teach the spoken language, the type of text best suited to this purpose is unquestionably the dialouge. It presents the language directly in the contexts in which it is most commonly used, and permits the learners to practise it in the same way, thus establishing a firm link between language and situation. Both key structures and many features of the spoken language are easily accommodated within its framework. The dialogue also permits the students to participate actively in the lesson, which, from the point of view of motivation, is extremely important.

The prose passage (narrative, descriptive etc.), on the other hand, has none of these advantages, although it may be used to good effect from time to time for the sake of variety (and to provide practice in reading). The language of such texts, however, is generally less relevant to the immediate needs of the students. At the same time, the passage does not permit them to participate in the lesson as they can with the dialogue, and the teacher has to work harder to secure their active involvement.

ROLE – PLAYING

The activities in the preceding paragraphs generated a great deal of talk – perhaps the most natural kind of all we can hope to achieve in the classroom, because it involved the expression of personal opinion. What we have not done through these activities is to exercise the learners to any great extent in using language in those situations where they are most likely to need it in every day life.

To do this we should, ideally, now abandon the classroom. The alternative is to try to create those situations in the classroom itself. And we

should certainly take this a stage further by getting the students to improvise freely within the context of situations. For example : you are a customer in a grengrocer's shop. Ask for three things you want. Or : your watch is broken. Take it to the watch repairer's find out how much it will cost and how long it will take to get it repaird. In these situations the students continue to be themselves excepl, when they play the part of shopkeepers, for example (and in playing such roles, they can be given much more guidance because they will be using language which for the most part they will only need for recognition purposes)

But while the value of these activities cannot be questioned, it has to be acknowledged that they do not always succeed in involving the learners deeply. Perhaps because they do not exercise them sufficiently on an imaginative level. The solution seems to lie in asking the students to play roles in situation which require a greater efforts of imagination and interpretation : ACTING, that is, within situations defined by the teacher but not working with scripts that have been prepared for them. There is no reason at all why much of the language used in such situations should not have a strong functional value. It is the situations in which it is used – admittedly ones in which the learners may never find themselves – that are different. And we might note that this is a more natural type of activity to be carried out in the classroom : it does not invite comparison with real life because it does not pretend to be real. It is something that can be entered into with enjoyment and without restraint. Both children and adults, once they have overcome their initial inhibitions, normally enjoy acting. We need not be overconcerned if there are one or two students who find themselves unable to participate fully. Dramatic activities, involve more than just performance : the situation has to be discussed, the characters developed, the scene elaborated and the language to be used worked out. In these and other matters all the students can participate fully.

PRONUNCIATION DRILLS

There are two types of pronunciation drills :

(a) Recognition Drills

(b) Reproduction Drills

While teaching sounds, recognition drills may be taken up first and they should be followed by production drills. The point is that the learners are given chance for recognition of sounds and then they are asked to produce the sounds.

THE RECOGNITIONS DRILLS CAN BE GIVEN IN THE FOLLOWING WAYS :

1. By presenting minimal pairs

Minimal pairs are simply pairs of words that differ in one sound only. The words tend to become different in meaning only on the basis of difference in one sound. While using minimal pairs, words should always be drawn from the student's active vocabulary.

A few examples of minimal pairs are : –

bed, bad, hid, cat, bat, ball, call.

Some minimal pairs are written in two different column say (i) and (ii). The teacher speaks the word and the students are asked to tell the column out of which it is spoken, they will be able to say it correctly if they recognize the sound

For example, some minimal pairs are : –

pin / pen

tin / thin

tree / three

2. The teacher may ask the students to carry out certain orders e.g. Sit at your seat. sit at his seat.
3. The students are asked to give answers to certain questions e.g.,
   (a) What do you want – share or chair ?
   (b) What do you want now – seat or sheet ?
   (c) What grows in the field – rice or rise ?
   (d) Is the cat a pet or pit ?
4. Phrases and sentences may be given and numbered.

Then the students are asked to identify sentences with the given meanings.

For example,

(i) Veena and I will be present at the meeting.

(ii) I will present Veena a book at the meeting. Which sentence shows some action ? Say it. Say the other sentence.

(iii) I am leaving here

(iv) I am living here

Which sentence tells that I am going away from this place ?

5. Some Pictures are prepared on charts or flash cards

Words or sentences are written on them. By showing them to the students, the teacher speaks those words or sentences. The students look at the picture, listen to the teacher and try to read by recognising the sounds. This type of read – and – listen exercises help the learners considerably.

Thus the students learn the recognition of sounds first and they are

enable to produce the sounds themselves. This way of teaching the sounds is called Reproduction Drills.

How to conduct Reproduction Drills ?

1. The teacher takes up minimal pairs of words. He speaks the word or words and the students repeat after him. This type of drill work can also be taken up by using the words of minimal pairs in sentences.

   For example : I want a pen, I want a pin.

2. Model dialogues, substitution tables and reading passages are built around the problem sounds. Thus the students get practice of producing those sounds.

3. Oral compositions are built around the problem sounds.

4. some of the songs and simple poems may be selected for further oral practice.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

With reference to any dialogue from a textbook of your own choosing, work out a detailed scheme for practising one of the language item in it.

Activity – 2

Work out a scheme for question and answer practice based on the lesson.

Activity – 3

Find suitable ' texts ' for discussion form newspapers and magazines. Say why you have chosen those and how you would use any one of them.

Activity – 4

Collect five cutouts from magazines and say how you would make appropriate use of these at either the presentation or production stages of learning.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. Speech sound is got corrected by .
   (a) listening to correct speech.
   (b) practicc in speech and oral drill.
   (c) correction of the pupil's speech.
   (d) the model given by the teacher.
2. Teaching spoken English to foreign learners must
   (a) avoid the vernacular influence.
   (b) use the vernacular sound.
   (c) modify the vernacular sound.
   (d) make them speak English in the vernacular way.
3. While teaching spoken English we must teach
   (a) Cololoquial English
   (b) conversational English
   (c) slang usage.
   (d) literary English.
4. The right way to learn pronunciation is through
   (a) phonetics
   (b) listening.
   (c) speech.
   (d) transcription.

KEY :

1. b
2. a
3. b
4. c

LESSON – 17

TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. define grammar.

ii. list the types of grammar.

iii. compare the types of grammar.

iv. explain the methods of teaching grammar.

v. illustrate the inductive and deductive methods of teaching grammar.

vi. explain the techniques of presentation of grammatical patterns.

vii. explain the techniques of practice of grammatical patterns.

viii. explain the uses of situations, substitution tables and drill techniques in teaching grammatical patterns.

ix. plan a lesson for teaching grammar.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Hornby, A.S. The Teaching of Structural words and sentence Patterns. London : Oxford University Press, 1969.

– Knud Suhibsbye, A Modern English Grammar, London : Oxford University Press, 1969.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

The Teaching of Grammar – introduction :

In teaching English to our students, we must aim at making them efficient users of the language, able to use the language for all their needs of communication.

As we have been stressing repeatedly, the ability to use a language effectively depends primarily on one's knowledge of the code, or the underlying "rules" that govern the uses of the language.

Thus, if you are able to understand the meaning of something which is said to you in English., or of something which you read, it is because you know something of the "rules" of English. You need this knowledge to decode the message which you are receiving, either as a stream of sounds or as a succession of printed symbols. For example, if someone says something to you which sounds like: "You should come..... , you expect, from your knowledge of the "rules" of English, that the next word cannot be "Yesterday".....though it can be" tomorrow", or even "everyday ", If, however, the " message " which you hear does sound like ". You should come yesterday ," your knowledge of the rules can enable you to interpret this message as : " You should 've come yesterday ". (It is possible for you to miss the " "ve" in that message, especially if the sentence is spoken rapidly ; but you can " recover " the "lost " part of the message through your knowledge of the rules, and get the correct meaning.)

It is clear, therefore, that one of the important aims of language teaching is to give the learner a knowledge of the code, or the underlying rules. This brings us to the teaching of grammar.

most school teachers of English are now required to teach " grammar " to their students, and this is generally the part of the syllabus that is least popular. The word " grammar " usually reminds us of those borrible, unappetizing periods in the school time table, when we were forced to memorize rules, paradigms and declensions (e.g) " go – went – gone ").

There is some confusion over the term grammar itself. As used in the context of language – teaching, the word can have several connotations :

Definitions of grammar :

Grammar is the total mechanisms which a language possesses and through which its users are able to communicate with each other. (To avoid confusion, let us call this Grammar 1 to G1).

Every native speaker of a language, literate or illiterate, knows and controls its G_1 : without this , he would not be able to communicate.

Each language possesses a distinctive G_1 , peculiar to itself – although some linguists maintain that the G_1s of all languages, though superficially

different from each other, are the same at some deeper level.

Types of Grammar :

Grammar refers also too the formal analysis and description of the rules of the language. (Let us call this Grammar$_2$ or G_2).

The illiterate native speaker of a language may know its G_1 but not its G_2. However, he moment the begins to think about his language consciously, to wonder what he should say in a particular situation in order to get a ' message ' across, he is involved in the G_2 of his language : (" Yesterday I saw two mongooses – or should that be mongeese ? ").

A distinction is thus made between formal grammar (G_2) which codifies and presents the ' facts about a language ', and functional grammar (G_1) which merely illustrates the correct use of the language.

Grammar refers also to the rules for the correct use of a language, which may be prescribed for its users. (Let us call this Grammar$_3$ or G_3).

A " Grammar " of the kind produced by Nesfield consists largely of rules which a learner is expected to master. But some modern grammars merely describe the facts of the language, instead of prescribing rules. This leads us to distinguish between a descriptive and a prescriptive grammar : between G_2 and G_3. The linguist is concerned only with G_2, whereas the language teacher may be more concerned with G_3.

Obviously, each language has rules, which permit even the illiterate native speaker to distinguish between acceptable and unacceptable sentences (" No, not ' I want a piece of bread ' : ' I want '. ") These rules are present in the G_1 of the language, and a G_2 should describe or state them. But from time to time these rules may change : there is nothing inevitable or ' natural ' about them : they are merely conventions.

Thus, there may be certain changes in G_1 conventions which become totally acceptable (e.g. " It 's me "), some that are only marginally acceptable to some speakers (e.g. " I want that the Government should do this ") and some that remain unacceptable to everyone (e.g. " He 's coming, isn't it ? "). A Good G_2 should take not of all this, but a rigid G_3 (such as Nesfield 's) would reject all the changes.

Now, the questions is : which grammar is the teacher expected to teach – G_1, G_2 , G_3 ?

Every teacher of English must ultimately teach the G_1 of English, since this is what enables a student to use the language.

No matter what one is teaching in the English class, if he is using the language correctly, he is contributing to the teaching of G_1. The teacher of poetry is also teaching G_1 , though he may not realise that he is teaching grammar.

THE TYPES OF GRAMMAR COMPARED :

Prescriptive grammar specifies certain usages as " good " and rejects other as " bad ". Prescriptive grammar binds the language within its rules and does not take into account the fact that language changes and so does its grammar. The grammar of this type enslaves the languages as well as the language user.

Descriptive grammar is a scientific view of grammar. According to this concept grammar of a language is a scientific record of the actual working of that language in its written or spoken forms. This grammar holds that the ' rules ' of grammar are not divinely established. Thus, descriptive grammar is functional grammar that describes how language is actually used. It takes into account the fact that language is something dynamic and not static. This type of grammar is the grammar of living language such as the English language. A successful descriptive grammar provides for any given sentence in the language, a description. Such a description deals with ability to use the language in its acceptable forms of words, acceptable patterns of phrases and sentences, sounds, stress and rhythm, juncture, intonation, etc.

It is easy to compare the two types of grammar and see how they differ from each other. Formal or prescriptive grammar is the " grammar of rules ". It enables one to recite the rules governing the language. Informal or descriptive grammar is the " grammar of use ". It enables one to use the language by developing a language sense. This is the natural way of learning a language.

When a person begins learning his mother – tongue he learns grammar incidentally. He can learn to utter correct sentences and correct word forms without having known the prescribed rules of grammar. It is only when he goes to school that he is taught formal grammar as a part of his language lessons. In the same way, it is advised that during first three years of teaching English, grammar should go hand in hand with the language. It should be functional and incidental. It should not be taken up apart from the language.

Grammar is not a separate ' subject ' nor is it a separate division of language work. It is closely linked with language course. If English language is in question, the main task is to teach functional grammar in order to give the pupils the ' feel or ' sense ' of the language. In the wods of A.W. Frisby :

" Grammar must always follow. It must always be behind reading and writing. In learning his own language, a child is concerned only with the small amount of the language that he can use. He gradually learns to use sentence patterns and comes to notice that certain changes take place in words. He does not learn the latter automatically. He makes many mistakes until eventually he learns and follows the ' rule '.

When to Introduce Grammar ?

A question is often asked : Should the systematic teaching of grammar be started from the very first year of teaching language ? Well, experience shows

that no grammar should be taught in the first two years of language work. This would be harmful to the child 's natural grasp of the language he is learning.The language needs of the beginning child are the mastery of essential sounds and basic structures within limited vocabulary. The correct usage of the language is hidden in its structures. The beginners learn the correct usage unconsciously, first, by listening and speaking the structures and later on by reading and writing them. The first two years of language learning involve imitation, reproduction and repetition. These processes fix the correct language habit in the pupils.

However, systematic teaching of grammar should begin as soon as the pupils have got a good working knowledge of the language. Unconscious grasp must give way to conscious and intelligent habit formation in the use of correct language. But systematic teaching of grammar should not be merely restricted to a few islated exercises found in grammar books. Each grammatical rule must find its practical application in a number of language activities – reading, writing, composition etc. Grammar taught should be the grammar of use rather than grammar of mere recognition. That is to say, the functional or descriptive aspect of grammar should be given importance. It should be connected with the text.

Methods of Teaching Grammar :

Teaching of grammar and its methodology are controversial points. Some hold the opinion that grammar should be taught in a decutive manner and not in inductive way. Some say that the grammar taught should be grammar of function not of form. Let us consider the two views and see what method, deductive or inductive, will prove useful.

(i) Deductive Method :

in deductive method we start with rules and definitions. These are then applied to particular examples. In this case it is the teacher who defines a certain rule and / or gives a definition. The students have to learn these rules or definitions by rote memory before they come to apply them. For example, the teacher tells the students that in simple present tense, subject – verb agreement, we use the first form of the very with I, we, you and they and with he or she we add-sr - es to the first form of the very. The students learn this rule as it is and then they use it while making sentences in simple present tense. Thus, children proceed from the particular to the general.

(ii) Inductive Method :

In inductive method, examples are placed before the children who draw their own conclusion from them. In this method we proceed from the particular to the general and the children get to understand a certain rule without formally defining it. For example, the teacher gives such sentences as : I play. We learn our lesson. You play in the evening. He plays everyday. They help the poor. She goes to school everyday. Now the students are made to discover for

themselves that with I, we you, and they we use the first form of the verb and with he and she, we use the first form of the verb, with – s or – es added to it. Once a rule or definition is made, it may be applied to other sentences. That is why it is said by Wren : " Teach grammar inductively. Teach English as you would by action and practice. The rules shown themselves in both and need cricket bat before he can play with one. Why should be define a verb or noun before he can use one ? "

In short, the teaching of grammar should lead towards an improvement in the use of language. It means exposing the learner to material in a form which best suits his learning abilitiies. It will involve giving him experience of real language in use rather than presenting him with a body of rules to be memorized.

TEACHING GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS AND STRUCTURES

WHAT IS SENTENCE PATTERN ?

In the words of F.G.French, " The word ' pattern ' means a model from which many things of the same kind and shape can be made .... A sentence pattern is, therefore, a model for sentences which will be of the same shape and construction although made up of different words. "

Prof. Robert Lado has defined a pattern as " any recurring design or arrangement of sounds, mophemes, words, phrases or sentences '. The sentence patterns of English are designs or arrangements into which different words can be put to fit the lexical situation. A few examples of sentence – patterns in English are :

(a) simple patterns :

(i) Mohan played. The giral danced, The child wept.

(ii) I have seen a lion. He has played the game.

(iii) He gave me a book . I told him a story.

(b) Question Patterns :

(i) Did the girl dance ? Did the child weep ?

(ii) When did you see him ? Why did you beat him ? How did you meet him ?

(c) Command or Request Patterns :

Shut the door.. Please help the poor.

TEACHING GRAMMATICAL PATTERNS AND STRUCTURES :

" To grasp a language effectively ". remarks C.C. Fries, complete utterances, whole sentences must become automatic. " To achieve this, the teacher must lay emphasis on teaching the essential features of arrangement and form and function words. Control over content vocabulary will be gained naturally as a part of this teaching.

The complete process of teaching grammatical patterns and structures involves.

(1) Presentation ; (2) Pattern Practice ; (3) Application. Techniques to be used in each of the above stages are given below.

Techniques of Presentation

The following techniques are suggested for teaching structures successfully :

(a) Start with Oral Work :

Oral work is the sheet – anchor of teaching structures. The advocates of this approach have suggested that the beginning of teaching English should be purely oral. The first few weeks should be devoted to a ural – oral teaching when the beginners simply hear and repeat the first thirty structures with minimum of content words that are quite near to them. The oral work should bring in the activity of the pupils more than that of the teacher. The reading and writing of simple structures must have its beginning made with the oral teaching of the same patterns.

(b) Use of Teaching Situations :

Importance : " If the need for the language we use is urgentlyy fellt, it is learnt quickly. The need for expression in language must arise from the need to realise and deal with situations ". The situational teaching of a language makes the whole process useful and realistic. Language defines situations and has meaning only in situations. Situational teaching of a language is important because situations define our experience, they are associated with our experience.

(c) Use of Substitution Tables :

The use of Substitution Tables facilities in working out the scheme of structural teaching. With the help of a single table the teacher can build a large number of sentences. Here is an example of substitution table.

My	teacher			Indian
Your	doctor	is	an	
His	clerk			
Her	friend			Englishman

With the help of the above substituation table, the teacher can give 32 sentences, such as

My teacher is an Indian. My teacher is an Englishman.

My doctor is an Indian. My doctor is an Englishman.

My clerk in an Indian. My clerk is an Englishman.

My friend is an Indian. My friend is an Englishman etc.

Structure Practice :

once a certain structure or sentences – pattern has been presented, it need a large amount of practice before it is finally fixed. Pattern – practice drills and written exercises are very useful at the practice stage. These techniques are explained below :

PATTERN – PRACTICE DRILLS :

What is Pattern – Practice ?

Pattern – practice is any exercise in which there is repetition of a pattern with variation of the elements. In the words of Robert Lado, " Pattern Practice is rapid oral drill on problem – patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself ". Simple repetition is not pattern – practice in the strict sense. Real pattern practice is that through which the child learns to form a set of new habits in place of the old ones of the mother – tongue.

Importance of Drill (or Pattern – Practice) :

Drill is an indispensable device for fixing the language material already learnt in the the minds of the students. Thompson and Wyatt have said : " The power of expression in a language is a matter or skill rather than of knowledge it is a power that grows by exercise, not merely by knowing meaning or rules ". Drill is such an exercise as will give the required power of expression to the learners. It provides activity. It equips the child with fluency in speech.

Suggestions for the Use of Drill Technique :

(1) Drills must always be carefully planned to ensure that they are easy enough for the students to do successfully.

(2) In addition to teaching the basic patterns of language the students must learn the basic formulate of the language, and correct English words and formulae like " Please ", " Thank you ", " How are you today ? " ' very well, thank you , and basic questions about the individual like " How many brothers and sisters have you ? " " Where do you live ? " " How old are you ? " " How far away is your home ? " and " What is your name ? " should be taught during the first three years of learning English. The dialogue is perhaps the best way to teach these formulae.

(3) Drill may be given in chorus (to the whole class), to groups of students, to individuals. Chain drills may also prove useful.

(4) Before starting any drill, the teacher must give instuctions to the students about the drill by giving examples of the changes or responses which he wishes the students to make.

(5) There should be variety both in the patterns drilled and in the types of drills used. The teacher should drill two or three different patterns every day. He should use diaglogue and continuous speech, and do review work.

(6) Charles C. Fries says that about 85 per cent of class time should be spent on drilling with the remaining 15 per cent devoted to reading and writing, explanation and instruction.

(7) While the students are engaged in drill work, the teacher should note the pronunciation mistake of the pupils. These mistakes should be immediately corrected.

In short, the teacher should bear in mind that drill is an exercise pleasant and interesting and (i) should not degenerate into mechanical and monotonous affairs ; (ii) should bring variety of subject matter, with exercise properly graded to suit a definite purpose.

WORK SHEET
Activity – 1

Select three structures from your school syllabus and devise two different types of pattern – practice drills to practise each of them..

Activity – 2

Write a short and interesting dialogue that can be acted out in the class for teaching grammatical pattern.

Activity – 3

Collect or invent five languages games to practise five items of your school syllabus.

Activity – 4

In this chapter some ways have been suggested to teach the pupils to learn English Grammar. Suggest some more ways.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick Mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. In formal grammar, grammar is taught for
   (a) formality
   (b) exercise
   (c) practice
   (d) its own sake

2. In teaching English as a second language grammar work must be based on the

   (a) grammar book

   (b) text book

   (c) supplementary readers

   (d) poetry lesson

3. Grammar should be treated as a

   (a) separate subject

   (b) separate division of language work.

   (c) follow up behind reading and writing

   (d) None of the above

II. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words to complete the following sentences.

1. Functional grammar is —— in nature.
2. In early stages grammar teaching must be ——
3. In inductive method, —— are placed before the children who draw their own conclusion from them.
4. In deductive method, we start with —— ——.

KEY

I. (1) d (2) b (3) c

II. 1. incidental

2. inductive

3. examples

4. rules and definition

SAMPLE LESSON PLAN - GRAMMAR

Subject ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Topic TENSE - PRESENT CONTINUOUS

Name of the Traninee
School
Standard
Date
Duration

General Objectives : The pupil

(i) Comprehends the use of the present continuous tense.
(ii) speaks correct English using present continuous tense.
(iii) writes correct English using present continuous tense.

Specific Objectives : The pupil

(i) uses present continuous tense correctly in his speech.
(ii) frames sentences using present continuous tense.
(iii) practises the present continuous tense through substitution table and other drills.

Aids : Substitution table, blackboard matchstick diagrams etc.

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
Intro duction	infers the meaning and use of the structure ' present Continuous Tense ' from the illustration.	The teacher asks one of his pupils to go to a corner with his book and read it silently. He then describes the situation. ' Ram is standing in the corner. He (Ram) is reading his book in the corner ' is repeated two or three times by the teacher. The teacher now writes on the blackboard the new pattern. ' Ram is reading his book in the corner.	I came to this class at 9 A.M. I started teaching English Grammar. I'm still here, doing the same. What am I doing in this class ?	
	Frames sentences from the match stick figures.	The teacher draws some matchstick diagrams on the blackboard showing some boys playing foot ball. The teacher says, " These boys are playing football ".		
	repeats after the teacher a number of examples of the structure..	The pupils speak the above sentences after the teacher. Practice is first provided in choral drills and then group drills. Pupils are asked to speak sentences individually also.		

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
	Constructus sentences com bing the different columns of a substitution table.	The pupils read out sentences from the substitution table given below. Ram is a book You are reading a letter I am a journal	Frame sentences from the table.	
	Uses the structure	The pupils are asked to show two actions each, which they can do from their seats. Then, each pupils is asked to tell what they are doing using the present continuous tense pattern.	What actions are you doing ?	
Review	Constructus sentences using contextual frames.	Contextual frams Mohan / Jump Rita and Sita / Run They / swim Kumar and Mani / walk		

Steps	Specifications	Learning Experiences	Evaluation	Remarks
Follow-up	Identifies the correct form	The pupil chooses the correct place to use the present continuous tense.	Agreement : Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the verb. 1. I — (think, am thinking of) going to America. 2. Mr.Mohan — looked , is (looking) after the baby. 3. My dog is very silly ; he — (ran, is running) out into the road.	

Lesson 18

EVALUATION IN ENGLISH

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. explain the principles of language testing.

ii. descriminate between evaluation and examinations.

iii. frame English language exercises and different types of objective test item.

iv. conduct a test for their class.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Ballard, P.B. Teaching and Testing English, London : University of London Press Ltd., 1969.

– Lado, Robert, Language Testing, London : Longmans , 1962.

– Mehrens Williams, A. And J. Lehman, Measurement and Evaluation in Education and Phychology , New York : Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1973.

iii. Completion of worksheet and self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

EVALUATION IN ENGLISH

The term ' Evaluation ' is used in modern times in a wider connotation than the term ' Examination ', which is, more or less, concerned with testing the scholastic attainments of students at a particular stage or in a certain class or grade. Evaluation includes what examination seeks to achieve, but it does not remain contented with having tasted the scholastic attainments only. It, on the other hand, goes much beyond that, and in addition, seeks to measure the all – round progress of students, and that too , against the background of objectives of education. Evaluation thus looks backward towards the objectives and attempts to find out whether or not progress has been made with reference to the objectives decided ; it also looks forward in as much as it attempts to diagnose the causes of failure to attain objectives and to find out methods and means by which success

and better results can be achieved. Evaluation is thus not ' testing ' or ' examining ' only. It is, rather testing for objectives and it also attempts to find out how objectives can be realised. It is this wider scope of the term ' evaluation ' that distinguishes it from ' examination ' which is concerned only with testing the scholastic attainments of students.

There is another point which further widens the scope of evaluation and distinguishes it from the traditional concept of examination, and that is this : whereas the traditional system of examination employs certain dogmatic and mostly unreliable tools for measuring the progress of students, evaluation discards all dogmatic approaches if they are not scientifically suitiable and accepts their authority only to the extent to which they fulfil certain objectives. Further, to make its techniques correspond to different objectives of education, it employs, not one or two, but several ways to evaluate the progress of students. It rejects all approaches which have the sanction of convention only, and gives them only that much importance that they deserve by their efficacy to measure certain objectives. Its tools are more scientific, more valid, and more reliable. In place of subjectivity, it lays emphasis on objejctivity. It does not leave anything to 'chance ' or ' luck ' but endeavours to devise techniques whereby an accurate stock of things can be taken so that further policies of action can decided.

The traditional system of examination, though useful from certain angles , has been recently exposed to severe criticism. This is specially because of the fact that the whole conception of education has today undergone a change. Though the traditional system of examination served its purpose under the traditional system of subject – ridden curriculum in schools, it is not adequate to fulfil the needs of a democratic education. Some of the major weaknesses of the traditional system of examination are their unreliability, over - emphasis on scraps of information, no stimulation to extensive study , no judgement of students ' real powers and abilities, no guidance or inspiration to teachers. It has, however, to be admitted that the tradtional system is not all bad ; it has some strong points as well as, what is needed is not ending but mending that.

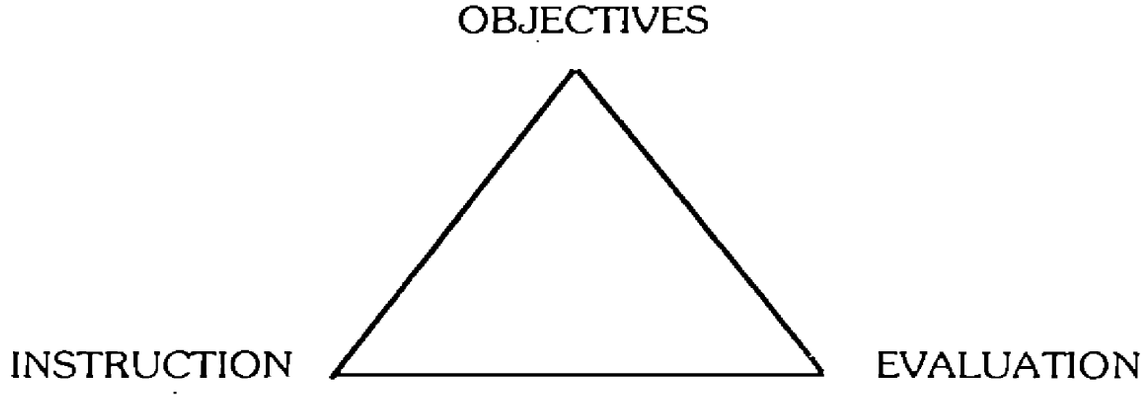
Evaluation rests on the assumption that all education is a process of some change in the behaviour of student in the form of certain knowledge, skills, interests, dispositions, traits of character, thinking, etc., that constitute their physical, mental, and emotional set - up. Since education is not confined only to giving students certain bits of information and knowledge, a measurement of educational products in terms of the student's academic attainments, which the traditional system of examination does, (and that too inadequately), is not sufficient.

The desired changes in behaviour give us educational objectives which are basic to evaluation. Unless we know that we are going to achieve we cannot come to the point when we measure whether we have achieved that or not. There is no sense in going when you do not know where you have to go. The objectives should be crystal clear to us before we launch any plan of education. In the

absence of objectives our movements and procedures would be haphazard, chaotic, and fruitless. After defining our objectives clearly we can think of the ways and means by which we can achieve them ; we can also know that gradual degrees leading to the desired goals. Objectives are thus fundamental to any activity of the individual or socieity.

Thus, the most important understanding which the theoretician and practitioner of educational evaluation develops, is the intrainsic relation ship between objectives, learning experiences and testing. The teaching is planned so as to achieve the objectives set in advance and evaluation techniques help us know the extent to which these have been effective in achieving the desired goals.

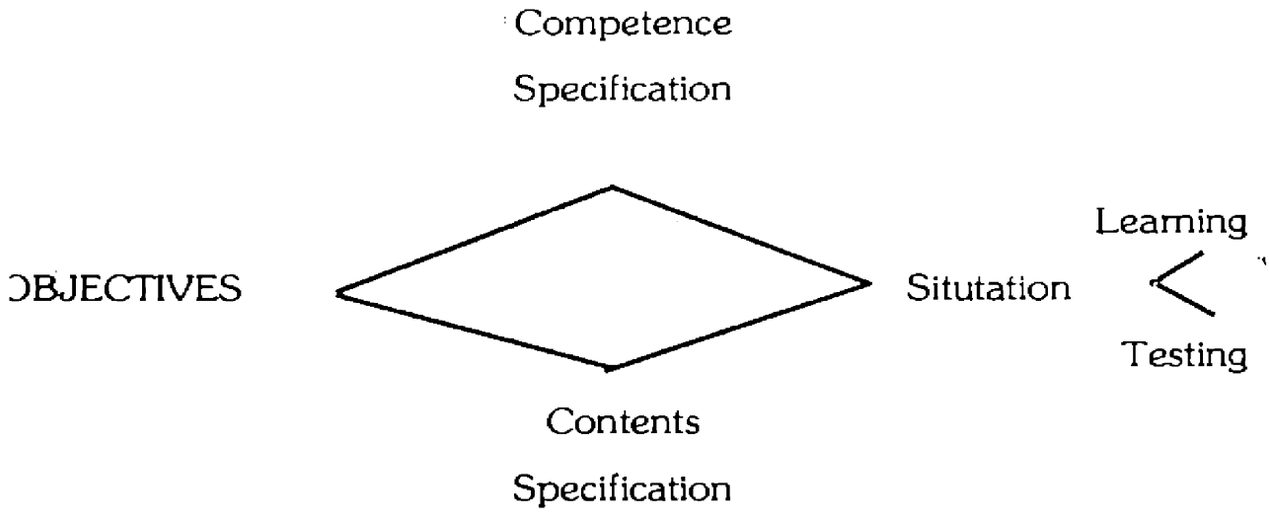
Objective – based instruction and objective – based evaluation thus from the crux of all educational programmes and practices of educational institutions.



This relationship is generally shown by the following diagram.

Let us examine the mental process involved in the achievement of instructional objectives. The whole process of instruction indeed ought to be geard to this end. Tracing the steps in the mental process, we can say that teaching becomes successful only when learning takes place. Learning takes place through experiences. Experiences consist of absorbing ideas. Situations are made up of pupil's activities. Pupil activities are organised and under taken as a result of stimulus which motivation provides. Thus it can be said that the pupil's activities are indeed the starting point of the development of objectives.

Objectives as we know have two specifications : the competence specification and the content specification. Both these specifications converge to a central point which we call a situation. The situation becomes to the basic for providing instructions as well as for evaluating pupil's achievement in respect of both specifications of the objective. This process can be expressed through.

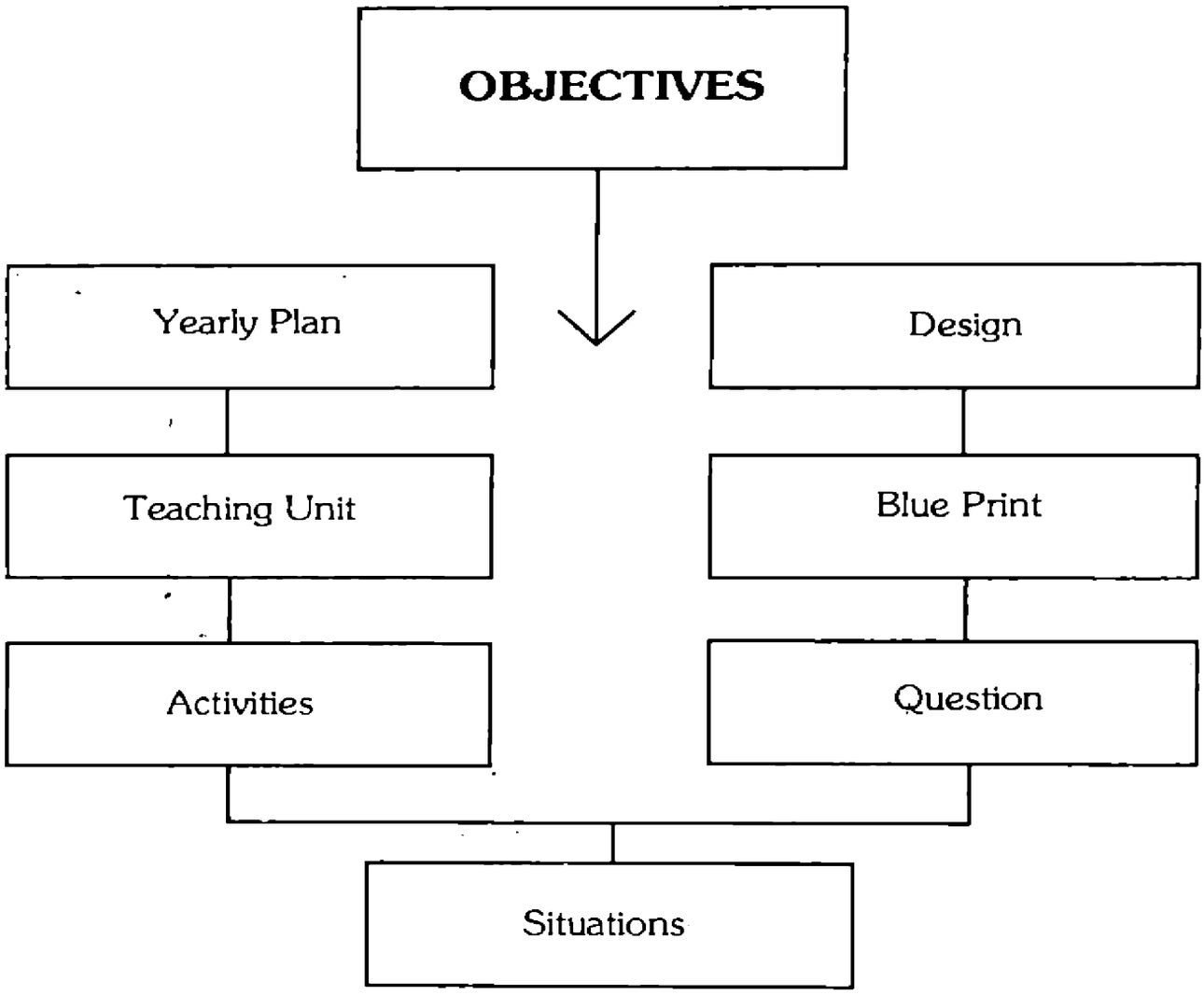


the following diagram.

The above diagram shows the relationship between evaluation and learning. synthesis of the competence specification and context specifications of a particular objectives gives rise to a situation. This situation becomes an activity for teaching process and an idea for testing process. This synthesis provides a common base for teaching and testing.

It will not be out of place remphasise that educational objectives are derived from several primary sources which are the psychological development, of the child, the soical order, the economic environment, the political order, the cultural heritage and existing human knowledge. From these educational objectives are derived the stage – wise objectives which become the basis for curriculum development of the different stages of education. From the stage – wise objectives, in turn, are derived the subject – wise objectives of teaching which become the basis of the curriculum plan of a particular subject. These subsequently help in the development of unitwise and lesson – wise objectives which correspondignly guide unit and lesson plans. Taking the process in the opposite direction it could be said that the achievement of the different lesson – wise objectives leads to the development of unit – wise objectives and it leads to the development of subject – wise objectives ; the achievement of different subject – wise objectives leads to the development of the national educational objectives, the achievement of which, in turn, gives the society the required feed - back and strengthens the society further through the individual and combined achievement of these objectives.

The above discussion leads us to conclude that there is parallellism between testing and learning. This can be represented by the following diagram.



TESTING AND TEACHING

It is unfortunate that so many examinations in the past have led to a separation of testing from teaching. Both testing and teaching are so closely interrelated that it is virtually imossible to wrok in either field without being constantly concerned with the other. Tests may be constructed primarily as devices to reinforce learning and to motivate the student, or primarily as a means of assoessing the student's performance in the language. In the formar case, the test is gered to the teaching that has taken place in whereas in the latter case the teaching is often geared largely to the test. Standardised tests and public examinations, in fact, generally exert such a considerable influcence on the average teacher that they are often instrumental in determing the kind of teaching that takes place before the test.

Consider the effect of the following type of test item on the teaching of English.

Analyse into clauses, stating the kind and function to each clause:

We cannot go until we have finished these exercises. When compared with the effect of the following item :

Rewrite each of the following sentences in another way but do not change the meaning. Begin each new sentence with the words given.

We cannot go until we have finished these exercises.

When .....

The formar test item encourages teaching about the language while the latter encourages practice in using the language.

It can be argued with some justification that language examinations in the past have exerted a harmful influence on the language teacher and have considerably inhibited language learning by encouraging teachers to teach about the language. As a consequence, relatively few teachers sought to provide the maximum opprotunity for their students to practise the language itself.

Fortnately, many external examining bodies today seek to measure the candidate's actual performance in the language, and in this way some times exert a beneficial influence on syllabuses and teaching strategies. Yet, however much concerned a public examining body may be about the effects on teaching (i.e. the backwash effects) of its particular examination, the main purpose of that examination is to measure the candidate's ability to use the target language. The examination is thus primarily an instrument for measuring and evaluating performance.

TESTING THE LANGUAGE SKILLS

Four major skills in communicating through language are often broadly defined as listening, speaking, reading and writing. In many teaching situtations it is desirable that areas of the language are first presented orally before reading and writing are practised. Where this is the case, it is important for the test writer to include those types of questions which appear relevant to the ability to speak the language : e.g. questions testing the student's ability to manipulate structures encountered in the spoken language and to make the correct response to a given stimulus.

Success in traditional examinations all too often simply demonstrates that the student has been able to perform well in the examination he has taken and very little else. For examile, the precis exercise (one of the important components of many traditional examinations) measures a skill which is more closely associated with examinations and answering techniques than with language used in real – life situations. in this sense, the traditional examination may tell us relatively little about the student's general fluency and ability to handle the target language, although it may give some indication of the student's

ability in some of the skills he needs as a student.

Ways of assessing performance in the four major skills my take the form of tests of :

(1) listening (auditory) comprehension, in which single utterances, dialogues, talks and lectures are given to the testee ;

(2) speaking ability, usually in the form of an interview, a picture description, and reading aloud ;

(3) reading comprehension, in which questions are set to test the student's understanding of a written text ; and

(4) writing ability, usually in the form of essays, letters and reports.

it is the test constructor's task to assess the relative importance of these skills at the various levels and to devise an accurate means of measuring the student's success in developing these skills. Many test writers consider that their purpose can best be achieved, if each separate skill can be measured on its own. But it is usually extremely difficult to separate one skill from another, for the very division of the four skills as an artifical one and the concept itself constitutes a vast over – simplification of the issues involved in communication.

TESTING THE LANGUAGE ELEMENTS

In order to isolate the components of the language skills for both teaching and testing purpose, we should look closely at the following elements :

(i) phonology (concerned with pronunciation, stress and intonation)

(ii) vocabulary (concerned with word meanings and word arrangements)

(iii) grammar.

(i) Tests of Phonology

Test items designed to test phonology might attempt to assess the following sub – skills : ability to recognise and pronounce the significant sound contrasts of a language, ability to recognise and use the stress patterns of a language, and ability to hear and produce the melody or the patterns of the tunes of a language (i.e. the rise and fall of the voice).

The following is an example of a test item designed to test phoneme discrimination. Three words are spoken by the teacher (recorded on tape in the case of may public examinations) and the testee is asked to indicate which words are the same. Sometimes, all three words are the same (AAA); sometimes only the first and second words are the same (AAB) and so on.

(Spoken) (Written)

dock	dock	dock	AAA	AAB	ABA	ABC	0
bad	bad	bat	AAA	AAB	ABA	ABC	0
ship	sheep	ship	AAA	AAB	ABA	ABC	0
fairy	furry	feery	AAA	AAB	ABA	ABC	0

(ii) Tests of vocabulary

A test of vocabulary measures the students knowledge of the meaning of certain words and word groups. Such a test tests the student's active vocabulary (the words he should be able to use in speaking and in writing) or his passive vocabulary (the words he should be able to recognise and understand when he is listening to someone or when he is reading). Obviously, in this kind of test the method used to select the vocabulary items (= sampling) is of the utmost importance.

Put a circle round the letter at the side of the word which best completes the sentence.

Did you ... that book from the school library ?

A. beg. B. borrow C. lend E. ask

(iii) Test of grammar

These tests measure the student's ability to manipulate structures and to distinguish apropriate grammatical forms from inapropriate ones

Put a circle found the letter of the word or group of words which best completes each sentence.

I'll wait here until it ..... dark.

A. Will be

B. Be

C. is

D. is being

E. has been.

Note that all three examples in this section are called multiple – choice items. The term multiple – choice is used because the testee is required to select the correct answer from a choice of several answers. (Only one answer is correct for each item). The word item is used in preference to the word question because the latter word suggests the interrogative form many test items are, in fact, written in the form of statements.

LANGUAGE SKILLS AND LANGUAGE ELEMENTS

Items designed to test areas of phonology, vocabulary and grammar

will be examined in detail later in the appropriate lessons. The questions now posed is : to what extent should we concentrate on testing the students' ability to handle these elements of the language and to what extent should we concentrate on testing the integrated skills ? Our attitude towards this question must depend on both the level and the purpose of the text. If the testee has been learning English for only a relatively beief period, it is highly likely that we shall be chiefly concerned with his ability to handle the language elements correctly. moreover, if the aim of the test is to sample as wide a field as possible, a battery of tests of the language elements will be useful not only in providing a wide coverage of his ability but also in locating particular problem areas. Tests designed to assess mastery of the language elements enable the test writer to determine exactly what is being tested and to protest items, carrying our statistical analyses to determine the degree of reliability and later revising them where necessary.

However, at all levels but the most elementary, it is generally advisible to include test items which measure the ability to communicate in the target language. How important, for example, is the ability to discriminate between the phonemes / i ; / and / i / ? Even if they are confused by the testee and he says : Look at that sheep sailing slowly out the harbour, it is unlikely that misunderstanding will result because the context, itself, provides other clues to the meaning. All languages contain numerous so called " redundancies " which hel to overcome problems of this nature. Furthermore, no student can be described as being proficient in a language simply because he is able to discriminate between two sounds or because he has mastered a number of structures of the languages. Successful communication in situation which simulate real – life is the best test of mastery of a language. It can thus be aruged that fluency in English a -person's ability to express facts, ideas, feelings and attitudes clearly and with ease, in speech or in writing, and his ability to understand what he hears or reads - can best be measured by tests which evaluate performance in the language skills. Auditory and reading comprehension tests, oral interviews and essays assess performance in those language skills used in real life.

Too great a concentration on the testing of the lanaguage elements may indeed have a harmful effect on the communicative teaching of the language. There is also at present insufficient knowledge about the weighting which ought to be given to specific language elements. How important are articles, for example, in relation to prepositions or pronouns ? Such a question cannot be answered until we know more about the degrees of importance of the various stages of learning of language.

Recognition and Production

Methods of testing the recognition of correct words and forms often take the following form in tests.

Choose the correct answer and write A, B, C or D

I've been standing here ... ; half an hour.

A. Since
B. during
C. while
D. for

This multiplé – choice test item tests the student's ability to recognise the correct form : this ability is obvisouly not quite the same as the ability to produce and use the correct form in real – life situations. However, this type of item has the advantage of being easy to examine statistically.

If the four choices were omitted, the item would come closer to being a test of production.

Complete each blanks with the correct word.

I' ve been standing here ..... half an hour.

The student would then be required to produce the correct answer (= for). In many cases, there would only be one possible correct answer, but production items do not always guarantee that the student will deal with the specific matter the examiner had in mind (as most recognition items do). In this particular case the test item is not entirely satisfactory, for the student is completely justified in writing nearly / almost / over in the blank. It would not then test his ability to discriminate between for with period of time (e.g.for half an hour, for two years) and since with points of time (e.g. since 2.30, since Christmas).

The following example, taken from a vocabulary test, also illustrate the difference between testing recognition and testing production :

Choose the best word to complete each blank and write A, B,C or D.

(Recognition)

Stand on the ..... and tell me how much you weight.

A. Measure B. weights C. Scales D. balance

(Production)

Stand on the ..... and tell me how much you weigh.

A good language test may contain either recognition – type test items or production – type test items, or a combination of both.

Subjective and objective testing :

Subjective and objective are terms used to refer to the scoring of tests. All test items, no matter how they are devised, require candidates to exercise a subjective judgement. In an essay test, for example, the testee must think of what to say. and then express his ideas as well as possible ; in a multiple – choice test

he has to weigh up carefully all the alternatives and select the best one. Further more, all tests are constructed subjectively by the tester : he decides which areas of language to test, how to test those particular areas, and what kind of items to use for his purpose. Thus, it is only the scoring of a test that can be described as objective. This means that a testee will score the same mark no matter which examiner marks his test.

Since objective tests usually have only correct answer, they can be scored mechanically. The fact that objective tests can be marked by computer is one important reason for their evident popularity among examining bodies responsible for testing large number of candidates.

Some examples of objective test items are :

(1) TRANSFORMATION

P.T.Usha is a very fast runner

P.T.Usha runs .....

(2) COMPLETION

The time is now half ..... ten.

(3) COMBINATION

Mary did her homework. Then she went swimming (After)

(4) ADDITION (Grammar)

YET ..... haven't you seen this film ?

(5) REARRANGEMENT

at / poor / Look / that / women / old.

(6) CORRECT / INCORRECT (Or True / False)

Put a tick if the statement is correct and a cross if it is incorrect.

The train left to time this morning.

He's doing some research on modern transport problems.

Stay here until Mr. Raman ..... you to come = stem

A. tole

B. will tell = distractors

= options

C. is telling

D. tells = correct option / Key.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Select three ' common errors ' of your pupils and devise suitable exercise to remedy the defects.

.....

Activity – 2

Write three objective test – items to test each of the following : (i) knowledge of vocabulary (ii) Knowledge of structure (word order, structural words, inflexions) (iii) Skill of listening (iv) Skill of speaking (v) Skill of reading (vi) Skill of writing.

Activity – 3

Divide the course you are teaching into manageable units and build up question blanks for each of these units. Devise an efficient filling system to pick out the required items quickly.

Activity – 4

Analyse the errors of your pupils in the use of the tenses in English and devise test items to focus pupil's attention on the correct usage.

SELF CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

i. In a test the teacher tests only.

(a) what the pupil knows

(b) what has been taught in the class

(c) the entire syllabus prescribed

(d) what the pupil has studied by himself

2. The English test must give a chance to the pupil to

(a) use the language skill

(b) show his knowledge of facts

(c) reproduce the portions from the test

(d) understand English.

3. Diagnostic test helps to

(a) know the previous knowledge of the pupils

(b) evaluate the pupil 's behavioural change

(c) predict the ability of the pupil

(d) find out the deficiency of the pupil

II. Fill in the blanks with suitable words

1. In the present system of examination the language ability that is tested is mainly ———

2. Multiple choice items have the two parts of ——— and ———

3. Essay type questions are not effective tests because their valuation is ————

4. To keep the valuation uniform the paper setter should give a ————

KEY :

I. 1. b

2. a

3. d

II.

1. writing skill
2. stem, response
3. subjective
4. scoring key

Lesson 19

TESTING VOCABULARY

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule trainees are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. list the tasks for the vocabulary testers.

ii. spell out the rationale for the selection of lexical items.

iii. construct various item types of vocabulary testing.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material

ii. Reading of

– Valette, Rebecca M., Modern Language Testing : A Hand book Brace & World ; Inc., 1976.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self–check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Tasks for the vocabulary Testers

The first task for the writer of the vocabulary test is to determine the degree to which he wishes to concentrate on testing the students ' active or passive vocabulary. His next task is then to decide whether the lexical items in the test should be taken from the spoken or the written language. Selection of vocabulary can thus be thought of as falling into the following rough divisions according to the four major language. skills :

Listening	Passive / spoken
Reading	Passive / written
Speaking	active / spoken
Writing	active / written

All four divisions can be included in a single test, of couse, but even then careful consideration should be given to the different weighting each division will carry in the test : for example, should there be a greater concentration on those lexical items selected from the student 's reading material ? Generally speaking , the more elementary the level of the test, the greater the number of lexical items associated with the spoken language.

The test constructor 's task is made much easier if all the testees have followed a particular syllabus. Lexical items can then be selected from:

(i) the syllabus (including a word frequency list if available) :

(ii) the students ' textbook (provided the items approximate to those used in natural speech situations) :

(iii) the students ' reading material (e.g. simplified readers, literacy texts) : and

(iv) lexical errors taken from the written work of the students.

The following error, however, may be one of verb pattering or simply the wrong choice of verb :

Is the government going to contribute the new industry ?

If an error of verb patterning, the correct version would be

Is the government going to contribute to the new Industry ?

If caused by the wrong choice of verb, it would be

Is the government going to subsidise the new industry ?

The test constructor is faced with a difficult problem if the testees have followed different syllabuses. Such a situation is generally associated with proficiency tests, in which the student 's suitability and potential for a certain task.

are tested. In these cases, the tester may wish to base his selection of lexical items on those used in the tasks for which the testee is being tested. An alternative method, appropriate for all kinds of tests, is the selection of items from such well-known word lists as A General Service List of English Words (Michael West – Longman) and The Wright Frequency Count. These (and other) word lists, however, are based entirely on the written language ; furthermore, no account is taken of difficulty levels (as opposed to frequency levels) and of areas where interference is encountered between the vernacular and the target language.

But testing the extent of the student's vocabulary is only one aspect of the whole problem : control of the vocabulary at his disposal must also be measured. An ability to discriminate between words is of the utmost importance at all but the elementary levels. In broader terms, this ability to discriminate may be regarded as developing a feel for the language.

Tests of vocabulary should avoid grammatical structures which the testee may find difficult to comprehend. Similarly, tests of grammar should contain only those lexical items which present no difficulty to the testee.

Although there are many lexical items which most speakers of a language will use with about the same frequency, certain terms have far greater currency among the members of some professions and interest groups than among others. Unless a test is purposely devised for a specialized population (scientists, agricultural workers, teachers, or the like) the test writer should endeavor to restrict his vocabulary problems to terms in general use. A particularly common failing, in this connection, is the inclusion in general vocabulary tests of terms which discriminate against one sex or the other. Consider the following two lists of nouns, all given approximately the same frequency ratings in the Teacher 's Word Book.

axle	blouse
filament	embroidery
fuse	gauze
gear	muslin
piston	quilt
transmission	shawl
valve	tassel

It may be assumed that the words in column 1 would generally be better understood by men than by women, while the words in column 2 pertain more commonly to feminine interests than to male. Test problems based on such specialized lexical items would tend to be biased and hence should be avoided in tests designed to measure general vocabulary control.

THE TESTING OF IDIOMS

We have dealt with the testing of single words, but the test writer should consider the desirability of testing idioms as well. Of particular importance are the two-word verbs or verb – adverb combinations in which the English language abounds – idiomatic constructions such as put off (delay), look over (inspect), come across (encounter accidentally). The avail able word counts mentioned do not unfortunately, provide information about the frequency of these combinations, and so the test writer will have to use his own judgement in selecting the forms to be tested. All the item types described below lend themselves as well to the testing of such idioms as of single words.

ITEM TYPES

1. Definition (multiple – choice) :

What might be called the " classic " type of vocabulary item consists of a test word followed by several possible definitions or synonyms.

nap

A. a brief sleep
B. a happy song
C. a sharp rock
D. a short meeting

A variation of the foregoing reverses the order and places the definition first.

a brief, light sleep

A. nap
B. yawn
C. stroll
D. hug

Both versions of the definition item type have the advantage of being highly economical in terms both of the number of items that can be included on a printed page and of the number of problems that can be answered in a short period of testing time. Of the two versions, the second is generally preferable in that it permits the testing of several problem words per item. Moreover, version 2 items are more difficult to " compromise " by examinees who attempt systematically to memorize question in order reconstruct the test later.

On the negative side, tests consisting entirely of either version have one serious limitation : many words do not lend themselves to short, exact definitions or synonyms and cannot, therefore, be effectively tested by the above devices.

2. Completion :A second item typed places the problem words in context.

The old woman was too _____ to push open the heavy door.

A. feeble

B. sincere

C. deaf

D. harsh

Although requiring some what more space on the printed page and more time to answer, the above item type has the advantage of placing the problem words in a contextual setting, a procedure felt by many to provide a better measure of candidates' ability actually to use the test words actively in a real – life situation. Moreover, it allows the testing of many words which cannot be briefly defined as required in the previous type.

COMPLETION ITEMS

Several types of completion items can be used for the testing of vocabulary. Again, tests which incorporate such items in a context are generally preferable to those which rely on single words or n definitions.

Type – 1

(a) Make each of the following words mean the opposite by putting either 2 or 3 letters in the brackets in front of the word.

(IM)	possible	(	)	usual	(	)	obedient
(	) important	(	)	legal	(	)	lawful
(	) covered	(	)	liked	(	)	pleased
(	) satisfied	(	)	convenient	(	)	frequent.

(b) In the following sentences every word beginning with OVER is incomplete. complete each word in the space provided.

Example : I' m late this morning because I OVERSLEPT.

1. Tom feels certain he'll win, but I doubt is simply because he is OVER _____ .
2. Bill has been stading too long and is OVER _____

Similar types of items can be constructed for suffixes.

Type – 2

The following are perhas more useful than Type 1.

(a) Complete the following blanks. Words and phrases similar in meaning are given in the brackets.

Every year several thousand new words come into the English language. Since the M — j ——— y (most) of them disapear after a short time, we may en ——— e (ask) who actually d — t ———(decides) which words are r — t ——— d (kept) and which words are dis ——— thrown out). Certainly not a s — l ——— t (carefully chosen) group of scholars as some people think ... .

(b) Read through the following passage containing a number of incomplete words. Write each completed word on your answer sheet at the side of the appropriate number. (Each dash represents one letter).

Snakes are one of the (1) d — m — n — t groups of (2) r — pt ——— ; there are at least 2,000 different (3) sp — c— — s of snakes (4) sc — t ——— d over a wide area of the earth. Not all snakes are (5) p — s — n — s ; in fact, the (6) m — j ———y are quite harmless. Contrary to (7) p — p — — l ——— belief, a snake's (8) f — k — d tongue is not (9) d — ng ——— to human beings ; it is merely for touching and smelling (10) s — bs — n —s. Snakes (11) in — ct poison into their (12) vi ——— 's body by (13) b — t — ing him with their (14) f —— gs.

The latter test item comes close to a type of item sometimes used to test reading comprehension. Clearly, a large degree of comprehnsion is necessary before each of the balnks can be completed. The item has been included in this chapter because clues are provided by letters in addition to those provided by the context. It rarely matters, however, whether this type of item is included in the vocabulary or in the reading sub – test in a battery of test.

Paraphrase (multiple – choice)

A third method of tesing vocabulary, combining elements of two of the previously discussed devices, is to under line a word in context and provide several possible meanings.

John was astounded to hear her answer.

A. greatly amused

B. greatly relieved

C. greatly surprised

D. greatly angered

The advantage of his item type is, as with type 2, that it puts the test words in a context. Its chief disadvantages are that it allows the testing of only one problem word per item (through this need not be an overriding consideration) and is relatively easy to " compromise " by examinees who set out systematically to memorize the test words.

Paraphrase (Supply Type)

A variation of type 3, requiring a structured short answer supplied by the examinee, is highly useful in informal classroom testing. In this type the problem sentence remains as above, but the examinees are asked to rewrite the sentence, substituting other words for the underlined portion. Thus, appropriate responses to the above problem would include. "John was greately surprised to hear her answer. " " John was amazed to hear her answer," " John was amazed to hear her answer, " " John was astonished to hear her answer."

Vocabulary tests of this type are relatively easy to construct and, provided that students are instructed to give precise paraphrases, can quite effectively measure understanding of lexical items. Because examinees compose their own answers, this item type goes rather slowly, and students would not be expected to average more than one per minute. It is also a time – consuming type to score, in as much as the scorer will be required to make many judgements about the degree of appropriateness and the accuracy of the paraphrase. Because of such scoring problems, this item type is not recommended for most mass testing situations.

Pictures (Objective)

In the testing of children who have not yet reached the reading stage, vocabulary may be measued with pictures. Two types of picture items have fequently been used.

In the first type. the examiner prononunces the name of an object and asks the child to indicate, by pointing or making a pencil mark, which one of a set of pictures shows the object named. For example, the test booklet might contain four pictures – of a book, a bird, a boat ,and a box – and the examiner might ask, " Draw a circle around the boat ." In the second type, the child is shown a picture of an object and is asked to name it.

Either of these item types should function satisfactorily on the beginning level. The first, having a marked responsed, provides a permenent record of the child 's performance and therefore does not require the examiner to stop and score the response himself. It is also conceivable that more than one child could be testeed stimulteneously in this way, though with small children individual testing may be preferable. A possible disadvantage of this item type is that the stimulus is oral, making such a test a measure of both vocabulary acquisition and listening comprehension, though probably on the elementary level this combination is logical and appropriate.

Picture tests need not, of course, be limited to nouns. Verbs, direction words, and other types of lexical items may also be tested. (e.g., " Which boy is running ? " Where is the cat ? " These more expanded picture tests, however, should perhaps be regarded more as measures of litening comprehension and / or structural control than of ' pure ' vocabulary.

SETS (ASSOCIATED WORDS)

Many of the difficulties arising from the testing of collocations are avoided by the testing of word sets. In such tests the student 's familiarity with a range of associations is measured. Test constructors are advised to seek a range of associations instead of relying on a single one.

Type – 1 (Recognition)

Instructions :

Look at the word in capital letters. Each of the sets of words that accompanies . It contains one word associated with it. Underline the words that seem to you most closely connected with the main word.

(Note that the first example is more appropriate to the elementary levels while the second example shows the application of this item type to more advanced levels.)

TRAFFIC

(a)	journey	cars	people
(b)	luggage	Station	lorry
(c)	vehicles	mile	path

EQUIP

(a)	furnish	defend	lend
(b)	launch	present	arm
(c)	purchase	attack	supply

Type– 2 (Production)

Write in each space one word fo each of the following words.

Chair	table	cupboard	bed	(=furniture)
Cars	buses	lorries	trams	(=traffic)

It is sometimes argued that such a test is appropriate only at the most elementary levels, but it can be used as a very subtle means of testing word association at a more advanced level :

Each group of words is related to a particular subject. Write down the particular subject which is connected with each group of words.

hand	theatre	volume	nursery
wrist	sister	track	lift
dial	bed	head	slope
face	ward	spool	snow
(=watch)	(= hospital)	(=tape – recorder)	(=skiing)

MATCHING ITEMS

Type 1 of the following test items suffers from testing together lexical items from different word classes while Type 2 tests a mixed bag of tense forms, etc. The result is that for both types of test items grammatical clues assume great importance, since they are instrumental in limiting the range of choices facing the testee for each blank. For example, although there may appear to be 20 words for selection for blank (1) in Type 1, in practice there are only 3 which would fit grammatically : turned (down), broken (down), knocked (down). Similarly, in the first sentence of Type 2 there are only 2 options (pull through), get away), since all the other options are either past tense forms or participles. Both items need to be rewritten, therefore, if a higher degree of reliability is to be obtained.

Type 1 Write the correct word from the following list at the side of each number on your answer sheet. Use each word once only.

road	accident	travelling	turned	side
broken	know	knocked	middle	looked
lorry	policeman	pavement	running	hurt
lying	crossed	left	forgot	talk

Poor Tom Wright was (1) down by a (2) last week when he was crossing the (3). He was quite badly (4) and he had to go into hospital for a few days. He left leg was (5) and both his arms were cut. While he was (6) in bed in the hospital, a (7) came to (8) to him.

" Was the lorry (9) very quickly ? " he asked Tom.

Tom told him all about the (10)

" I was (11) home from school and (12) the road. I (13) right but I (14) to look (15) in the (16) of the road I suddenly saw a lorry. I didn't (17) What to do , so I began to run to the other (18) of the road. The lorry (19) but it hit me when I was near the (20).

Type 2

Complete the following sentences with the most suitable verb phrase from the list.

came about pull through broken out falling out

running into brought up get away browned off

1. " Did the prisoner manage to .... ? " Yes, the police are still looking for him.
2. Most of the pupils were ... with the dull talk.
3. The doctor though Mr Benson would ... after the operation.
4. The couple are always .... and causing a disturbance.
5. And so it .... that we eventually parted.

Etc. It is much more efficient to test words from the same word class. (e.g. nouns only in Type 1), or parallel tense forms (e.t. the Past Simple tense in Type 2). Thus the Type 2 item could be rewritten as follows :

came about rainto pulled through got away (etc)

1. " I hear the prisoner .... yesterday and the police are still looking for him. "

2. " We were all relieved that Mr. Benson ... after the operation". Etc.

Type 3 From the list of words given, choose the one which is most suitable for each blank. Write only the letter of the correct word after each number on your answer sheet. (Use each word only)

A. Completely	C. busily	E. quickly
B. politely	D. carefully	F. angrily

" Write (1) .... " the teacher shouted (2)..... " Hurry up ; you must get used to working (3) ..... "

" Please, Sir. " a student said (4) ..... " I ' ve finished."

" No, you haven't " answered the teacher. " You haven 't (5) .... finished untill you've ruled off. " (6) Meanwhile, the boy sitting next to him was (7) engaged in filling his pen.

This type is satisfactory in many ways because all the lexical items tested are adverbs. However, like the other two types, this type gives the student too little choice. For instance, there will be only one word left for the last number. Thus, it could be improved considerably by the addition of a few other adverbs. This list might then read as follows :

A. completely	E. deliberately	I. quickly
B. heavily	F. busily	J. hardly
C. ably	G. hastily	K. angrily
D. politely	H. carefully	L. suitably

The fist attempt to construct this list included the adverbs silently and already, but it was then found that either of these could be used at (6) instead of the correct option busily. This illustrates one of the dangers of this particular testing device clearly the more distractors there are, the greater is the chance that one of the distractors might be a correct option for a least one of the other items.

MORE OBJECTIVE ITEMS

This section contains examples of types of vocabulary items which haveappeared in certain tests.While Types 1 and 2 are useful for classroom.

testing. Types 3 and 4 are rather artificial, and should be avoided where possible.

Type 1 Word formation test items

Write a word in each blank. The word you write must be the correct form of the word on the left.

(i) CARE Be .... when you cross the road.

(ii) CRUEL To mistreat animals is a form of .....

(iii) INTEREST Do you think this book is .....

(iv) ENTER Can you show me the ..... to the cave ?

Type 2 items involving synonyms

(a) Write in each space the best word to replace the words underlined in each sentence.

(i) Tom went atonce to the doctor 's house. . immediately

(ii) All of a sudden there was a loud cry

(iii) I came across an interesting book

(iv) The boat is over fourteen feet in length.

(b) In each space write one word that means almost the same as the word on the left. The word you write must rhyme with the word on the right.

Example : early soon moon

(i) purchase ..... die

(ii) miserable ..... bad

A similar item may be constructed so as to involve antonyms rather than synonyms. The phonological element (rhyming) in 2 (b) , however, may only confuse the testee in instead of helping him. Words are tested in isolation, so, apart from its sheer novelty, the item serves little purposes.

Type 3 Rearrangement items

Rearrange the following letters to make words.

PLEAP ROLRY CELPA

SUHOE IRACH EGUA

As can be seen, this item is little more than a crossword puzzle. It may, perhaps, be of some use in an intelligence test but it is of doubtful use in a language test.

ADVICE ON ITEM WRITING

In as much as it is not possible in this brief treatment to discuss the writing of all the types of vocabulary items mentioned above, we shall focus our attention on one typical item type, the simple definition plus test words (type 1, second version). All the principles discussed below can, however, be applied to one or more of the other item types as well.

1. The definition should be expressed in simple words readily comprehen sible to all examinees.

Bad item	to inflict great anguish
A.	precede
B.	resent
C.	adorn
D.	torment

In the above example, the definition includes the words inflict and anguish, which may easily constitute comprehension problems as great as the test words in the choices. A general principle in vocabulary testing is to confine the comprehension problems to either the "lead" or the choices (depending on the item type selected) , but not to insert problems in both. In the definition –plus –test –words item type, it is alternative that should provide the comprehension problems, not the definitions. We might revise the above definition to read : to cause great suffering.

2. All the alternatives should be on approximately the same level of difficulty.

Bad item	very evil
A.	nefarious
B.	delicious
C.	prosperous
D.	courageous

3. The correct answer , nefarious, would certainly be much more difficult for most examinees than the other choices. Thus the correct answering of this item could mean only that the candidates were able to eliminate the three easier choices. A more equal set of choices would be :

A.	nefarious
B.	precarious
C.	delirious
D.	gregarious

3. Whenever possible, all choices should be related to the same general area or kind of activity.

Bad item a small branch

A. twig
B. frog
C. doom
D. plum

An examinee who knows only that he has seen twig in writings about the woods could answer the above item correctly. The following set of choices would probably strengthen the item, in as much as they are all related to trees and other growing things ;

A. twig
B. shrub
C. reed
D. wreath

4. The choices in each item should be of approximately the same length or be paired by length. No single choice should attract attention merely because it looks unlike the others in the set.

Bad item to think deeply about

A. vex.
B. poll
C. tug
D. Contemplate.

In the above item, choice D is so different in appearance from the other that the problem – solving task has been complicated by the inserting of a purely visual factor. It cannot be predicted exactly how examinees will react to the different – looking alternative : some will suspect that it must be the right answer, and others will want to avoid it. It is better item – writing practice to avoid such extraneous factors by using a set of choices more balanced in appearance.

All one – syllable words

A. grab
B. punch
C. dodge
D. shove

Alternately one – and two – syllable words

A. bliss
B. concord
C. poise
D. pretense.

5. Items should be kept free of extraneous spelling problems. That is, no attempt should be made to mislead examinees with distractes that look or sound like possible right answers.

Bad item — to cook by exposing to direct heat

A. roost

B. strew

C. fray

D. broil

The above item, through deliberately exaggerated for purposes of emphasis, illustrates a common tendency of some less experienced item writers: Excessive trickiness is simply not necessary in language testing, and what is more important, it will generally be cloud the issue by combining two or more kinds of problems in a signle item – in this case, lexical meaning and spelling.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Prepare an inventory of item types for vocabulary testing.

Activity – 2

Prepare an inventory of task types involving sets of words.

Activity – 3

Consider the vocabulary expansion component of the syllabus for the class you have selected. Consider further what is introduced / reviewed / consolidated by way of vocabulary items as a unit in the main reader is covered.

Describe what the vocabulary teaching in relation to this unit consists or normally. Then, in about 5 lines, abstract from the above description a learner based objective.

Activity – 4

Construuct a few ' picture tests ' to measure your students ' vocabulary.

SELF CHECK

Read the items given below. Below the items are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark the one you feel is correct.

ITEM : THEOTRICAL

A. ANGRY B. HISTRIONIC C. PROUD
D. FOOLISH

1. The above item measures
   (a) the testee 's familiarity with the correct option.
   (b) the testee 's knowledge of the distractors.
   (c) both the above.
   (d) none of the above.

ITEM :THE OLDMAN WAS ALWAYS COURTEOUS WHEN ANY ONE SPOKE TO HIM.

A. POLITE B. GLAD C. KIND
D. PLEASED

2. The defect in the above item is due to the
   (a) use of antonyms as distractors.
   (b) use of synonyms as distractors.
   (c) use of options with the same length.
   (d) difficulty level of the correct option.

Read the items given below. Complete the following statements with suitable words / phrases.

ITEM :

THE TELEVISION STATION WAS ----- WITH LETTERS AND PHONE CALLS AFTER THE ANNOUNCEMENT.

A. BROWNED B. STORMED

C. DELUGED D. ABSOREBED

1. The above item tests only a knowledge ——— —— and ignores the ability to create ——— ———

ITEM :

ANN SHRIEKED WITH ———— AT THE BEAUTIFUL PRESENT MRS. WHITE GAVE HER.

(A) DELIGHT (B) HORROR.

(C) DISMAY (D) ANGER

2. The above item does not take into account ——— ——— because in certain societies, it is impolite to accept a gift without first vehemently refusing it.

KEY

I. (i) b.

(ii) b.

II. (i) Semantic collocation unexpected collcation

(ii) cultural difference.

Lesson – 20

TEACHING AND TESTING READING COMPREHENSION

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. Identify the skills involved in reading.

ii. List the dififerent kinds of reading.

iii. Delineate the mechanics of reading.

iv. State the stages in teaching reading.

v. Differentiate among the different methods of teaching read ing.

vi. Explain and illustrate the techniques of testing reading com prehension.

ACTIVITIES:

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of ;

– Billows, F.L., The Technique of Language Teaching, London : Longman, 1985, Chapter 10.

– Bright, J.A., McGregor, G.P., Teaching English as a Second Language, London : Longman Group Ltd., 1970. Chapter 3.

– Broughton Geofirey etal., Teaching English as a Foreign Language, London : Routledge and Kegan paul, 1978. Chapter 7.

iii. Completion of worksheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

Importance of Reading

Reading is the most important of the three R.s. The men who cannot read has all his ideas limited ; the one who can read has the unbounded fields of knowledge open before him where he can rummage at will and guench hi s thirst for knowledge. ' Reading maketh a full man ', worte Bacom in one of his essays (Of studies). Reading habits not only help the individual in accumulating stores of knowledge and wisdom from the cultural heritage, but are also very ennobling and stimulating pursuit for leisure hours – leisure hours not only during the active period of life but also, and more significantly, during the period when man has retired from active life. Good reading habits facilitate the process of self – education and a person can educate himself quite independently of an assistance from a formal educational agency. If our students can build up good reading habits, that would be the mark of a very successful teaching programme.

THE READING PROCESS

Dr. Michel West mentions five stages in the reading process, viz., word recognition, word interpretation, synthesis, grouping , and skimming. William S. Gray , in the Teaching of Reading (A Second Report : 36th Year book of the National Society for the Study of Education) defines the process of reading thus : " Reading involves the recognition of the important elements of meaning in their essential relation, including accuracy and thoroughness of comprehension." He further states that ' reading is also a form of experience that modifies personality ". In an article by James P. Soffietti, entitled " why children fail to read " in one of the issues of the Harvard Educational Review, the linguist 's analysis of reading appears in the introductory note which reads : " While the reading specialist is inclined to say that the printed word merely acts as the trigger that releases a meaning we already possess, the linguist believes that the printed word acts as the trigger that releases its oral counterpart, which, in turn, releases a meaning we already possess ".

SKILLS INVOLVED IN READING

It would be helpful to attempt to identify some of the specific skills involved in reading. Broadly speaking, these can be defined as the ability to :

(i) distinguish between letters and recognise letter sound relat ionship (rather than letter – name relationships) e.g. pan / fan man / pen / fat / map ;

(ii) recognise words and word groups, requiring an ability too associate sounds with their corresponding graphic symbols and understand meanings : e.g. / kau / cow / kaf / cough, / vreu / through , ka;nt / can 't

iii. understand the meaning of words and word groups in the context in which they appear. (This also includes an ability to use contextt cludes to determine the meaning of a particu lar word.) E.g. One of the members of

the group exposed the plot and it did not take long for the police to arrest the leaders :

iv. recognise structural clues and comprehend structural patterns : e.g.I wish Amala had come (= Amala did not come – hence my wish)

v. comprehend the plain meaning of sentence or any complete sequence of words ; e.g. The man ate the fish/ The fish eaten by the man / The fish ate the man.

vi. preceive relationship (temporal and spatial) and sequences of ideas (as denoted by linkage reference features) : e.g. Although it was raining heavily, everyone in Class 5 B went on the picnic and they enjoyed themselves tremendously. On the other hand, few out of 5A went and those who did were miserable without their companions :

vii. comprehend paragraphs and longer units of prose and select the main idea and other salient features :

viii. draw conclusions, make inferences and " read between the lines ".

ix. scan and read for specific information ;

x. read critically, quickly and with ease, adopting a flexible approach and varying the reading strategies being applied according to the type of reading material used.

Two different kinds of complementary reading activities to which students are usally exposed are generally classified as intensive and extensive reading. Short reading extracts of a moderate degree of difficulty and containing features which merits detailed study born as basis for intensive reading practice. Whole articles, chapters and books (usually simplified readers) are used for extensive reading practice ; in this case, however, the material selected is generally slightly below the language attainment level of the students using it.

TAXONOMY OF READING

If we suggest that someone should read a particular text, we obviously intend that he should comprehend it. It would be redundant to say we wanted him to read and comprehend the book. But on the other hand, it would be quite reasonable for a student to reply that he has already read the book but could not comprehend it. We could not then object that the student did not read the book just because he did not comprehend it. However, we assume that reading subsumes comprehension. And so, for our purpose taxonomy of reading or reading comprehension would mean the same.

BARRETT'S TAXONOMY OF READING COMREHENSION

A number of reading comprehension taxonomies exist and many apear similiar to one another. perceived inadequacy of the earlier taxonomy or taxonomies prompts the development of a new taxonomy. As a result, different terminologies may be used for category heading, but descriptions of the categories may be kept unchanged. Most of the existing taxonomies are adapations in one way or other of Bloom's taxonomy of educational obectives in the congnitive demain. Bloom's taxonomy is based on an ordered set of objectives ranging from the more simlistic skills to the more complex ones.

Of the many taxonomies which have tried to categorise reading comprehension, Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension is widely accepted.

The taxonomy consists of four categories. They are :

i. literal comprehension,

ii. infernatial comprehension,

iii. evaluation, and

iv. appreciation.

STAGES IN READING

Keeping Barrett's taxonomy of reading comprehension as a model, we have presented here the stages a reader systematically passes through in the sphere of reading – when he moves from lower to higher education. The stages we have identified are :

Word recognition

association of meaning with symbols

literal comprehension

interpretation

critical reading

creative reading.

READING : SQBR TECHNIQUE

It is customary to give the students a lengthy reading list at the beginning of every term. Clearly, they cannot afford to spend time to read everything. Moreover, different texts require different approaches, depending on what the students are expected to get from them. The students may need to

read some books in parts, some wholly but not necessarily carefully, and a few diligently and with attention. The implication here is that the strategy should be flexible in tackling text materials. One strategy that gained wide acceptance is the SQ3R technique. Here we Shall be talking about this technique in detail

'SQ3R' stands for the initial letters of the five steps in studying text : The five steps are :

i. Survey

ii. Question

iii. Read

iv. Recall

v. Review

METHODS OF TEACHING READING

Early methods of teaching may be divided into two groups : (1) those which approach the teaching of reading through emphasis on the elements of words and their sounds as aid to word – recognition, and (2) those which approach it through the use of words or larger language units, laying emphasis on the meaning of what is read.

1. The Alphabet Method :

This method assumes that familiarity with the forms and names of letters helps the pupil to recognise and pronounce words. In learning, for example, cat, the pupil repeats the familiar letter c — a — t, unitl he senses the pronunication of the word, or until he is told what it is. In this method, pupils first learn the names of the letters, both large and small, in their alphabet sequence. After this two – letter, three – letter etc., combinations are spelt and pronunced. Syllables and words are then combined into phrases and short sentences.

The difficulty with this method is that the prounication of English words is not the combinations of the sounds of the letters forming the words. besides, t he letters have no meaning to the pupil, and he takes a long time to learn. This method is a slow and painful process.

2. The sentence Method :

Here the unit of thought is a sentence and not a word or a letter. It is a natural method, as children love to speak sentences. By speaking sentences they acquire fluency in speaking and reading. As this method stresses the meaning of what is read, it cultivates an intelligent reading attitude and a keen interest in reading.

3. The Look – and Say Method :

In this method the unit of study is a complete word. The word is learnt not as a combination of letters, but as a word – picture. The pupil has to make use of the eye and the ear. For example, to teach the word ' book', a card having the picture of a book the word ' book ' printed on it is taken. The teacher points to the word ' book ' and then to the picture of book, and then speaks ' book.'

The pupils associate the word ' book ' with the picture of book, i.e. they associate the word – picture with the object – picture. It is psychological in approach, as the teacher proceeds ' from the concrete to the abstract ' and ' from the known to the unknown.'

4. The Phonic Method :

In this method at the initial stage, the forms and sounds of letters are taught. The teacher writes the ' a ' for example, on the blackboard and gives its sound, often calling attention to the movements required to pronounce it. The sound is repeated many times so that the association between the sound of the letter and its form is established.

After vowels, consonants are taken up. This method encourages the bad habit of reading one word at a time. This causes extra eye–strain and makes the understanding of the passage difficult. progress becomes slow and laborious. It stands in the way of grasping words, phrases and sentences as meaningful wholes.

5. The phonetic Method :

In this method phonetic symbols are learnt first and words later on. This is a difficult method. It is also unpsychological, as attention is concentrated on individual letters and not on words.

EXTENSIVE READING

The acquisition of reading ability in English is important. By reading ability we mean that the pupil must, sooner or later, be able to read with the purpose of under–standing the thoughts, facts and information contained in a printed page, and that he should be trained to read English without the help of the teacher. it is very necessary that this kind of reading ability, reading for thought and information should be cultivated in our pupils. For the cultivation of reading ability, extensive reading is essential. extensive reading is independent silent reading.

THE AIMS OF EXTENSIVE READING

1. To encourage independent reading in which the teacher should help as little as possible.
2. To develop the pupil 's interest in reading and to cultivate his interest for reading extra books.

3. To enable the pupil to assimilate the ideas he had read.

4. To enlarge the pupil 's sphere of knowledge.

5. To establish cultural contact with great minds.

6. To enable the pupil to derive pleasure from reading.

BOOKS FOR EXTENSIVE READING

The books for extensive reading should not contain many difficult and unfamiliar words, phrases and language forms. There should be no large barier between the pupil and what he reads. The books should be such as the pupil may be able to read them with pleasure and a sense of achievement. The standard of books meant for extensive reading should be lower than that of those meant for intensive reading. The material of the books should be according to the mental age of the pupils.

METHOD OF TEACHING EXTENSIVE READING

The following steps in the teaching of extensive reading are found useful:

1. Introductory talk : An introductory talk should be given before the pupils begin to read a particular book in order to create an interest in it. The introductory talk may take the form of an outline or a rough sketch of the subject matter. If it is a historical narrative, its back ground may be explained ; if it is an account of adventure, its brief outline may be given ; if a story concerns a foreign country, a short account of the history and geography of that country may be given. Sometimes a short discussion of the characters of the story to be read, and a short – life – sketch of the author prove helpful.

The teacher should also explain the difficulty that the class is expected to come across while reading . If there are some difficulties of the language, these must be removed.

2. The class taken is asked to read the first one or two paragraph of the book silently. The pupils should not be allowed to move their lips while reading.

3. Before reading, certain questions should be set to which the pupils have to find out answers. The questions help the pupils concentrate on the matter read. The questions should be thoughtful, intelligent and purposeful.

4. When the class has finished reading a paragraph, the teacher should put questions on it. These questions should not concern the details of the passage ; only the understanding of the passage is to be tested.

5. If a paragraph is difficult, the teacher should explain major difficulties . He should not give detailed explanation, but explain only what is absolutely essential.

6. At the end of the lesson, general questions on the matter read should be put to test comprehension of the pupils. If it is a story, the pupils may be asked to narrate it. Written composition on the parts of the book read may also be set. The pupils may be asked to describe the event or character they like best.

CURSORY READING

The title of this selection serves as a general term to denote the skills involved in reading quickly, skimming and scanning. The term skimming is used to denote the method of glancing through a test in order to become familiar with the gist of the content : scanning refers to the skills used when reading in order to locate specific information.

In tests of reading speed the student is generally given a limited time to read the text. Care must be taken to avoid constructing question on the less relevant points in the text, but the textee should be expected to be familiar with the successive stages in which the text is developed. The actual reading speed considered necessary will be largely determined by the type of test being read and will very according to the purpose of which it is being read. It is sufficient to note here that poor readers (native speakers) generally read below 200 words per minute ; a speed of between 200 and 300 words per minute is considered to be an average speed, and 300 to 500 words is considered fast. On the whole, it is realistic to expect no more than a reading speed of 300 words from many advanced learners of a second language. Most people tend moreover to read at a slower rate under test conditions or in any situation in which they are required to answer questions on a text.

In tests of skimming, the rubries generally instruct the student to glance through the text and to note the broad gist of the contents. The student is then given a small number of questions concerning only the major points and general outline of the text. Sometimes at the end of the skimming he is allowed a few minutes to jot down any notes he wishes to make, but he is not usually allowed to refer back to the text. If the student is allowed to retain the test, the time for answering the various question on it will be limited in order to discourage him from referring back too often to the text.

In scanning tests, the questions are given to the student before he begins to read the text, thus directing him to read the text for specific information. In such cases, it is helpful to set simple open–ended questions (e.g. " what is the writer 's view of modern transportation ? ") rather than multiple –choice items. The latter type of item tends only to confuse the student since he then finds it necessary to keep in mind four or five options for each item while he is reading.

CLOZE PROCEDURE:

Although similar in appearance to completion items, cloze tests should not be confused with simple blank – filling tests. Whereas in ordinary completion tests the words for deletion are selected subjectively (consisting largely of structural words in certain tests and key content words in other tests), in cloze tests the words are deleted systematically. Thus, once the actual test has been

chosen, the construction of a cloze test is quite objective : every the word is deleted by the test writer.

The interval at which words are deleted is usually between every 5th and every 10th word. However, if every 7th word has been deleted in the first few sentences, then every 7th word must be deleted for the rest of the test. The 5th, 6th , and 7th words are the most widely favoured for deletion in cloze tests.

The cloze test, which was originally intended to measure reading difficulty, has been applied to first language testing of reading comprehension for some time now. Only recently, however, have constructors of foreign language tests started using the cloze procedure. the principle is based on the Gestalt theory of ' closure ' (closing gaps in patterns subconsciously) and thus cloze tests measure the reader 's ability to decode " interrupted " or " multilated " messages by making the most acceptable substitutions from all the contextual clues available.

The following example is somewhat shorter than most normal cloze tests :

Example :

Once upon a time farmer had three sons. The farmer was rich and had many fields, but his sons were lazy. when the farmer was dying, he called his three sons to him. " I have left you .... which will make you .... " he told them. " But .... must dig in all ..... fields to find the .... ; where the treasure is ..... "

After the old man .... died, the three sons ... out into the fields .... began to dig. " I ' II the first to find .... place where the treasure .... buried " cried the eldest ..... " That 's the field where .... father put the treasure ", ... another son. The three .... dug all the fields ..... several years, but they no treasure. However, many .... grew in the fields .... the sons had dug .... vegetables made them very .....

ADVICE ON ITEM WRITING IN TESTING READING COMPREHENSION

1. The vocabulary and syntax of the items should be kept as simple as possible so that the real problem is the interpretation of the passage not of the questions that are asked about it.

2. In so far as possible, the ' stem ' or ' lead ' of the item should establish the problem – that is, make clear what kind of information is being asked for.

Bad item John

A. obviously liked what he heard

B. became angry upon hearing Mary's words

C. didn 't understand what he was told

D. ridiculed Mary ' s ideas

In the above example, the stem is merely the word John, which offers no clues to the reader as to what he is being asked. The above item might be rewritten :

It was clear from John 's reactions to Mary 's speech that he

A. agreed completely with what she had said

B. found her remarks highly insulting

C. really didn 't understand what she had said

D. considered her ideas to be quite foolish

3. Selection of the correct answer should involve interpretation of the passage, not merely matching the words in the choices with the same words in the paragraph.

Passage and bad item

Early the next morning I received yet another letter from Roger, informing me that he was still confined to his bed with the same mysterious illness and urging me to come to his aid. I set forth at once for Portsmouth, arriving shortly before dush. I went with all possible haste to High Street and thence to the familiar old house, which appeared in no way altered since the days of my previous visit. Yet upon entering, I was amazed to find its dark, cavernous rooms completely deserted.

When the writer found Roger 's house deserted, he felt

A. angry

B. relieved

C. amazed

D. happy

This item involves a mere matching of words : amazed is the term used in both the passage and the test item. A less superficial testing of comprehension would be :

The writer mentions his surprise at

A. receiving a letter from Roger

B. learning of Roger 's illiness

C. seeing the appearance of Roger 's house

D. finding that Roger was not at home

4. All items should require a careful reading of the paragraph. It

should not be possible to answer items correctly purely on the basis of outside knowledge or to eliminate some of the choices because they are clearly illogical or because they conflict with one another.

Bad item

We may infer from his paragraph that people

A. all need the same kind of rest

B. do not usually need rest

C. rest much more than they should

D. do not all rest in the same way

Choose B is patently absurd and can therefore be dismissed without reference to the passage. Choices A and D are clearly opposites, leading the test wise examinee to suspect that one of them is the correct answer. On the basis of logic, D would appear to be the more likely answer. Choice D would also seem more likely to be true than Choice C.

The above item, which appeared in a reading test for foreign students, shows how poor item can often be answered by pure reason without reading the passge on which they are based. This item might be rewritten.

The central ideal of the paragraph is that people

A. cannot maintain good health without proper rest

B. do not all rest in precisely the same way

C. tend to get more rest than they actually need

D. can rest better after they have bad exercise.

as revised, all four choices appear logical. The examinee must therefore under stand the paragraph to know which of them constituted the central idea.

SAMPLE READING PASSAGE AND ITEMS

The following passage and set of comprehension items will serve to illustrate the principles that were discussed above.

In the development of literature, prose generally comes late. Verse is more effective for oral delivery and more easily retained in the memory. It is therefore a rather remarkable fact the English possessed a considerable body of prose literature in the ninth century, at a time when most other modern languages in Europe had barely developed a literature in verse. This unusual accomplishment was due to the inspiration of one man, King Alfred the Great, who ruled from 871 to 899. When he came to the throne, Alfred found that the learning which in the previous century had placed England in the forefront of Europe hand

greatly decayed. In an effort to restore his country to something like its former state, he undertook to provide for his people certain books in English, books which he deemed most essential to their welfare, in preparation for this task, he set about in mature life to learn Latin.

1. According to the information given in the paragraph, King Alfred may most properly be regarded as the father of English.

   A. poetry

   B. learning

   C. prose

   D. literature.

2. The writer suggest that the earliest English poetry was

   A. written in very difficult language

   B. not intended to be read silently

   C. never really popular with the public

   D. less original than later poetry.

3. According to the paragraph, English's learning had brought it to the " fore front of Europe " (line 10) in the

   A. seventh century

   B. eighth century.

   C. ninth century

   D. tenth century

4. The writer suggests that at the time of King Alfred most of the other modern languages of Europe had

   A. both a verse and a prose literature

   B. a literature in prose but not in verse

   C. neither a prose nor a verse literature

   D. a literature in verse but not in prose.

5. We may conclude from the paragraph that the books which Alfred " deemed most essential " were

   A. already available in another language

   B. written largely in verse

   C. later translated into Latin

   D. original with Alfred himself.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Take a page from your Class Reader and write out three sets of comprehension exercises on it.

Activity – 2

Try to devise a procedure to find out the silent – reading speed (in words per minute) of your pupils. (Remember, reading means reading with comprehension)

Activity – 3

Construct a cloze procedure test item and provide a key for the item.

Activity – 4

Frame two exercises to test skimming and scanning in cursory reading.

SELF CHECK

Write against each of the following statements whether they are true or false.

I. 1. The pupil must be taught to read at the first instant.

2. Lip movement in silent reading is disadvantageous and should be avoided.

II. Below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick Mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. The highest order of reading should use the skill of

   (a) speech

   (b) speed

   (c) comprehension

   (d) evaluation.

2. In the order of introduction of language skills, the skill of reading is placed

   (a) first

   (b) second

   (c) third

   (d) fourth

3. The teacher should begin teaching to the pupils with

   (a) slow reading

   (b) silent reading

   (c) oral reading

   (d) fast reading

4. Silent reading should be introduced when pupil can

   (a) pronounce faster than recongizing the word.

   (b) recognize faster than pronouncing the word.

   (c) write the letters properly.

   (d) identify the meanings of the words.

III. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words.

1. Reading aloud the words and sentences, witthout understand ing their meaning is ————————.
2. The two ways in which oral reading is used in the class are reading aloud ———————— and ————————.
3. Oral reading is taken after ————————.

KEY

Answers

I. (i) False (ii) True

II. (1) d (2) c (3) c (4) b

III. 1. barking at print.

2. by the teacher, by the pupils

3. aural drill.

Lesson No. 21

TESTING THE WRITING SKILLS

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. list the components of writing for testing.

ii. compare composition and objective tests of writing.

iii. illustrate various objective tests of the elements of writing.

iv. suggest measures for improving the effectiveness of compo sition tests.

v. spell out some sophisticated techniques of scoring the writing test.

ACTIVITIES:

1. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of

– Heaton, J.B. Writing English Language Tests, Longman : London, 1974.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

COMPONENTS OF WRITING : LESSON WRITING

As pointed out at the previous lesson (lesson No.10) the teaching of writing as an integrated process will like the teaching of reading, normally be deferred until rather advanced courses in English as a second language. During the early stages of learning , written exercises will generally be used simply to reinforce the learning of specific grammatical points or lexical items ; only later will writing be treated as an end in itself - as a complex, skill involving the simultaneous practice of a number of very different abilities, some of which are never fully achieved by many students , even in their native language.

Although the writing process has been analysed in many differrent ways, most teachers would probably agree in recognizing at least the following five general components :

1. Content : the substance of the writing ; the ideas expressed
2. Form : the oganization of the content.
3. Grammar : the employment of grammatical forms and syntactic patterns
4. Style : the choice of structures and lexical items to give a particular tone or falvor to the writing
5. Mechanics : the use of the graphic conventions of the language.

From the above we see that the writing process, as commonly conceived, is a highly sophisticated skill combining a number of diverse elements, only some of which are strictly linguistic.

COMPARISON OF COMPOSITION AND OBJECTIVE TESTS OF WRITING

It would seem obvious that the most direct way of measuring student 's writing ability would be to have them write. Yet, as all language teachers are surely aware, there has in the past fifty years been much criticism of the conventional essay test on the part of educational - measurement specialists. And this criticism has, in turn, brough forth a very spirited defense of the essay examination by many teachers and educationists.

Those who have championed the essay or composition have generally included the following points in their defense :

1. Composition tests require students to organize their own answers, expressed in their own words. Thus composition tests measure certain writing abilities (e.g. ability to reganize, relate, and weigh material materials) more effectively than do objective tests.

2. Composition tests motivate students to improve their writing : conversely, if examinations do not require writing, many students will neglect the development of this skill.

3. Composition tests are much easier and quicker to prepare than objective tests, an important advantage to the busy classroom teacher.

The critics of composition testing have usually answered along the following lines :

1. Composition tests are unreliable measures because (1) students perform differently on different topics and on different occasions ; and (2) the scoring of compositions is by nature highly subjective.

2. In writing compositions, students can cover up weaknesses by avoiding problem (e.g., the use of certain grammatical patterms and lexical items) they find difficult. Such evasion is impossible with well-prepared objective tests.

3. Composition tests require much more scoring time than objective tests ; for this reason, compositions add greatly to the expense and administrative problems of large - scale testing.

It is unfortunate that, in this long standing debate, many people have adopted fixed attitudes on one side or the other and have failed to keep abreast of, or have ignored, a number of new studies which definitely provide a basis for reconcilization. The current " moderate position " in regard to testing writing ability, based on recent findings, may be summarized as follows.

1. Well - constructed objective tests of the language skills have been found to correlate quite highly with general writing ability, as determined by the rating of actual samples of free writing. Thus in situations where the scoring of compositions would be unfeasibe (as in some large - scale testing operations) objective tests can be used alone as fairly good predictors of general writing skill.

2. At the same time, it is now clear that there are ways to administer and score composition tests so that they, too, may be used by them selves as reliable instruments. put briefly, high reliability can be obtained by taking several samples of writing from each student and having each sample read by several trained readers. Thus the class room teacher who lacks the experience and / or the time toconstruct objective tests of writing ability, or who feels strongly about the peda gogical value of testing writing through writing, can use composi tions with a reasonable degree of confidence.

3. In as much as both objective tests and composition tests have their own special strengths, the ideal practice is undoubtedly to measure writing skill with a combination of the two types of tests and it is recommened that this procedure be followed whenever conditions permit. Such a combination.

will probably produce somewhat more valid results than would either of the two types of measures used by itself.

The accordance with the foregoing, we shall devote the remainder of this lesson first to examining types of objective tests that might be used to measure writing ability and then to describing methods of improving the composition test.

OBJECTIVE TESTS OF THE ELEMENTS OF WRITING

Testing Formal Grammar and Style

As we noted in Lesson No. 17, the kinds of grammatical problems that are tested in objective writing – ability tests differ markedly from the problems included in structure tests for foreign students. In the latter tests we are concerned with measuring control of the basic grammatical patterns of the language. In our structure items, therefore, the contrast is between English and Non – English, and we would assume that a native speaker would, except through carelessness, score 100 percent correct. In our measures of writing ability, on the other hand, we are testing sensitivity to the grammatcial patterns appropriate to the written, as contrasted with the spoken, form of the language, and we would suppose that many native speakers would fail to make some of the distinctions. Examples of the kinds of formal grammatical matters that we might include in our tests of writing ability – but not in structure tests – are the following.

Subject – verb agreement

The design of the two new bridges (are / is) very unusual.

Structural Parallelism

She enjoyed sewing, reading, and just (to sit / sitting) on the proch watching the people go by.

Case of pronouns

To my little brother and (I / me). Uncle John was the most wonderful friend.

Comparison of adjectives

The afternoon rush hour is the (worse / worst) part of the day in which to drive through the city.

Formation of adverbs

The man tipped his hat and spoke very (polite / politely) to the ladies.

Formation of irregular verbs

Neither of the children would tell us who had (broke / broken) the window.

If some of these problems seem too reminiscent of " traditional "' or " prescriptive " grammar, it must be understood that our goal is to determine how acceptable the foreign student's written English will be to the native speakers of English who will read his compositions, letters of Application, business communications, and the like. Whether for good or ill, most of these readers will be applying very conservative criteria. Therefore, if our advanced level test is to have relevance and validity, it should undoubtedly contain the kinds of formal grammatical points by which the student will subsequently be judged in real life situations. What is vitally important is that such a test be clearly identified, by its title, directions, and problem contexts, as a measure of writing skill and not be confused with tests of basic structural control.

In addition to control of grammatical forms and syntactic patterns effective written expression depends on the writer's lexical resources. The vocabulary tests described in lesson No.19 will certainly have some relevance in measuring the foreign students' writing ability. Such tests, however, are usually concerned only with general meanings, and good writing requires considerable precision in the use of lexical items. Specifically, the writer must be fully aware of the ' social status ' and connotiative meanings of the items he uses and must be able to combine them felicitiously into phrases and longer units. Thus, for instance, although it is true that the words ' companion ' , ' comrade ' ' chum ' , and ' cony ' all carry the same general " meaning " and may all be listed as synonyms in the student's pocket bilingual dictionary, he will certainly run into trouble if he attempts to use them interchangeably. Comprehensive tests of writing skill therefore require attention to appropriate style and diction as illustrated by the following examples.

The two new senators have proved themselves exceptionally able (guys / men).

We were unable to determine what the real significance of his remarks (meant / was).

poor mr. Baker has been ill (the bulk of / the greater part of) his life.

Because of his obvious sincerity and the direct appeal of his arguments, the mayor's proposals have (secured a good foothold in the eyes of the people / won the strong support of the people).

Having taken note of some of the factors be considered in choosing problems of grammar and style for our tests of writing ability, let us now consider a few specific item types.

1. Erro recognition : The examinee is required to indicate which of several underlined arts of a sentence is unacceptable for formal written English, or to indicate that the sentence contain no "error ".

The position taken in his most recent speeches seem to indicate a

A B C

Willingness to compromise. No error.

D E

This item type puts the examinee in the position of a reader who must make judgements about the acceptability of a piece of writing and identify any point of weakness. As such it has sometimes been objected on the grounds that the examinee (1) does not have to prove ability to correct the errors he finds, and (2) may possibly choose the correct answer for the wrong reason. Despite these theoretical objections, however, experience would seem to indicate that error recognition item function as well as those which require the examinee to select from among several alternative methods of expression. To ensure comprehensive coverage, the test writer would probably do well to combine an error recognition subtest in his measure of writing ability.

2. Sentence Completion :The examine is required to select the best, way of completing a sentence in terms of grammar, diction, tone, and sense.

During his last year in office, his popularity with the voters ———

A. descended downward swiftly

B. quickly touched bottom

C. declined very suddenly

D. rapidly plunged under

This items type provides an excellent method of measuring a wide range of problems relating to the effective use of written English It is probably the most commonly used of the multiple – choice techniques for testing sensitivity to appropriate style in writing.

3. Sentence Correction : The examinee is required to select the best revision of an underlined portion of a sentence. If the sentence is acceptable as it stands, the examinee selects choice A, which is always identical to the underlined portion of the sentence.

While watching from our window, the great ship slowly entered the harbour, whistle blowing and crew cheering.

A. While watching

B. Upon watching

C. As we watched

D. Having been watched

This item type combines features of types 1and 2.The examinee is

asked first to judge the acceptability of one feature (usually a structural point) of an existing sentence and then if he finds that feature inappropriate, to choose the best of several corrections. As such, this technique provides an interesting variation of the two foregoing types, though in practice it seems to lack the flexibility of type 2, which is used to test sensitivity to style as well as structure.

Testing the Ability to Organize Materials

It cannot be claimed that wholly successful objective techniques have yet been found for testing the students ability to organize his ideas into unified, coherent written presentations, and perhaps this goal will always lie beyond the tester 's reach. Probably the most satisfactory of the tests that we do have are those of paragraph organization, in which the examinee is required to recorder several " scrambled " sentences into a coherent paragraph, and to indicate the correct order of the sentences.

A. The report from Straford that he " spent at the rate of a thousand pounds a year " is surely very far from the truth, being based no doubt on Stratford gossip.
B. On this income we may be sure that he lived well and comfortably in Stttford.
C. It is difficult to estimate Shakespeare 's income in his last years.
D. Probably Shakespears received from all sources less than a quarter of that sum , say two hundred pounds.

Which sentence did you put first ?	A	B	C	D
Which sentence did you put second ?	A	B	C	D
Which sentence did you put third	A	B	C	D
Which sentence did you put last	A	B	C	D

Although the paragraph organization items undoubtedly are useful in testing the student 's understanding of certain ordering devices of English, such as the sequence signals, they must be considered relatively narrow, if not superficial, measures of organizing ability. Moreover , it is extremely difficult to find or compose paragraphs which can be recorded in just one acceptably way. As a consequence, paragraph organization items have been found less effective as predictors of general writing skill then the item types described in the preceding section. This fact need not necessarily rule out the use of objective tests of organization , but it does strongly suggest that they should always be used in conjunction with other measures, such as those discussed previously.

Testing the Mechanics of Writing

Punctuation and capitalization, the so–called mechanics of writing may be tested objectively with simply adaptations of the completion and

correction items described earlier. The following example illustrates one common technique.

Directions : Decide what punctuation, if any, should be used in the numbered spaces, and indicate the letter that goes with your choice, (" N " means " no punctuation .")

Returning to his friend Peter, Bill asked$_2$ whether he still wished to continue with the trip$_3$

1 – A ;	2 – A ;	3 – A ?
1– B ;	2 – B ; "	3 – B ? "
1 – C,	2 – C ; "	3 – C.
1 – D.	2 – D N	3 – D. "

In preparing tests of the mechanics of writing, one must be careful to avoid testing matters of divided usage. Particularly in the case of punctuation, there are really only a very limited number of points on which there is universal agreement. Substantial differences will be found among the leading publishers within the United States, and the differences between American and British practice can be even more dramatic. The last point is particularly important in the testing of foreign students, who may have learned to follow British models in their writing. Note, for example, the following two versions of the same sentence, the first punctuated in the more usual American fashion, and the second as it might appear in a British publication :

" I ' II return at 4:30 , " Dr. Smith replied.

" I ' II return at 4:30 , Dr. Smith replied.

Clearly, then, if the test writer wishes to include problems of mechanics in his test of writing ability, he must be aware of the admissible variations in practice and frame his items so that only one alternative could be an acceptably answer.

Closely related to the so–called mechanics, though allowing of far less variation, spelling. Although objective spelling items have the advantage of being easy to prepare, there are several reasons for questioning their appropriateness in a general test of writing ability. First, it is unlikely that good writers are necessarily good spellers. Secondly, in almost any practical writing situation the student will be able to consult a dictionary. And thirdly, the common testing method of asking the examinee to identify the one misspelled word in each group of four or five lexical items may be an unreliable kind of measurement : most of us have had the experience of looking so hard at printed words that we lose the ability to judge their correctness. All in all, one would certainly be justified in omitting spelling problems from objective tests of writing skill.

IMPROVING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COMPOSITION TESTS

So much attention has been given to the problems of improving composition measures within the past few decades that a thorough treatment of the subject would almost require a book in itself. We shall here attempt to do no more than summarize briefly those conclusions which appear of greatest value to the classroom teacher who wishes to improve the design and scoring of his own tests.

Preparation of the Test

1. Arrange to take several samples, rather than just one.

Normally two or more short compositions will prove to be more reliable than one long one. And having the compositions written at different times will yield better results than having them written at one sitting.

2. Set writing tasks that are within the reach of all.

Although we should ofcourse endeavor to select composition topics of interest and challenge to the better students, we must avoid setting tasks that require a high degree of ingenuity and creativity. The purpose of general writing – ability testing is to elicit characteristic samples of every student's writing and from these to determine his proficiency at expressing himself in clear, effective, and grammatical prose – not to measures his " creative powers ". Topics which call for straight – forward narrative or description are most likely to accomplish the above objectives.

3. Make the Writing tasks clear and Specific ; provide full directions.

A vague writing assignment such as " Write a theme about friendship " not only will lead to non equivalent performances but will cause many students to waste valuable time just geting started. Thus it is highly important to write the composition questions in such a way that the task is clearly and unambiguously defined for each examinee.

Example :

> Describe an interesting member of your family : one of your parents or grandparents, a brothor or sister, cousin, aunt, or uncle. Be specific in describing the special characteristics that you think make him or her an interesting person. You may wish to give examples of things this person has said or done which illustrate these characteristics.

4. Allow no alternatives

If some students are performing different tasks from others, it is difficult to compare performances or to ensure that all students have undertaken equivalent tasks.

5. Pretest the writing test assignment, if only on yourself, to be sure

that they are really workable and are realistic in terms of the time available to the students. It is very useful, in this connection, to keep a file of topics which have been used and found to be particularly effective. Once a sizable pool of successful topics has been built up, they may be drawn upon in the preparation of important tests.

SCORING THE TEST

1. Decide in advance on the precise basis for scoring. The starting points is to decide on the weight or emphasis that will be given to each of the various writing factors, such as content, form, grammar, style, and mechanics. The actual rating of the compositions may then consist either of (a) allotting a specified number of points to each of the factors ratings constituting the composition score, or (b) making a general, overall judgement of each composition and placing it in one of four or more categories (e.g. 1. Poor ; 2. fair ; 3. good ; 4. excellent) based not on any motion of an absolute standard, but in terms of the performance of the group as a whole.

   In the usual classroom situation, where only one teacher is scroing a set of his own compositions, the first system is perhaps the more useful. Where several readers are available to rate each composition, the " general impression " method of scroing can actually yield more reliable results.

2. If possible, treat the papers anonymously during scroing. in very small classes, of course, anonymous scoring is extremely difficult if not impossible, for the teacher will recongize his students by their handwriting and style. When numbers permit, however, anonymous scroing is highly desirable, for identification of papers often leads quite unconsiciously to scorer bias. papers may be scored anonymously simply by having the students put their names on the unused backs of the sheets or on the cover of the test booklets which may all be folded back before scoring begins.

3. Before marking any papers, scan sample of papers to decide upon standards. Find, for example, a high, high – medium, low – medium, and low paper to serve as models. Then, as you score the papers, return occasionally to your models to ensure that your standards are not shifting.

4. If the compositions are to be used to make cirtical decisions about large numbers of students (as, for instance, in a common departmental final examination) (a) have at least two independent readers for each theme ; (b) begin with a practice session for all readers in which they agree together on the rating of a sample of papers so as to establish common standards ; (c) make the grade for each composition the sum or the average of the ratings of the two or more readers. It is sometimes the practice, when the ratings of two readers do not agree, to have the paper read a third time, and then to accept whichever rating is nearer to that of the third reader. Experiments have shown, however, that this practice makes the grade less reliable than when the simple sum or average of the two ratings is taken.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Frame a few items of Error Recognition type to test the grammatical component of writing ability.

Activity – 2

Frame a few items for testing the Mechanics of writing.

Activity – 3

Frame a few items for testing the ability to organise materials.

Activity – 4

Prepare a test on the various components of writing with both composition and objective – type items.

.....

.....

SELF – CHECK

Below are given four possible answers to each questions. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. Compositions tests are encouraged even now by measure ment specialists because.
   (a) they measure certain writing abilities more effectively than do objective tests
   (b) they motivate students to improve their writing
   (c) they are easier to prepare than objective tests
   (d) of all the above–mentioned reasons.
2. Composition testing has been critised because
   (a) they are unreliable measures
   (b) they require much more scoring time than objective tests.
   (c) students can cover up weaknesses by avoiding problems.
   (d) of all the above – mentioned reasons.
3. The ideal practice to measure writing skill is
   (a) through composition tests.
   (b) through objective tests.
   (c) through a combination of both the two types of tests.
   (d) neither of the above two types.
4. " Write a theme about friendship."
   The above writing assignment is defective because
   (a) it is vague.
   (b) it will lead to nonequivalent performance.
   (c) it will cause many students to waste valuable time in just getting started.
   (d) of all the above mentioned reasons.

KEY :

1	2	3	4
d	d	c	d

Lesson No. 22

TESTING GRAMMAR AND USAGE

OBJECTIVES :

After reading the capsule readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. describe the general nature of the English Grammar Test.

ii. spell out the Grammar Test content.

iii. construct the various types of multiple – choice grammar items.

iv. construct completion items of grammar test.

v. construct transformation items of grammar test.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of ;

– Cook, V.J. " Some Types of Structure Drill ", Teaching English as a Second Language – A Book of Readings, Ed. Allen & Campbell, New Delhi : Tata McGraw–Hill Ltd., 1978.

iii. Completion of work sheet and self check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY
GENERAL NATURE OF THE ENGLISH GRAMMAR TEST

There is an essential difference between the traditional '" grammar" test for the native speaker of English and the kind of structure test appropriate for the foreign learner. In as much as it can generally be assumed that the native speaker of the language has mastered a grammatical system largely or wholly acceptably for informal discourse, " grammar ' tests at least on the high school and college levels have usually concentrated on matters of style and diction appropriate for rather formal written English. On the other hand, structure tests for foreign students will have as their purpose the testing of control of the basic grammatical patterns of the spoken language. Such tests would constitute no challenge for native speakers of standard English, who, except for carelessness, would be expected to make perfect scores. Only for the most advanced foreign learners are tests of formal style and diction at all meaningful, and then they are better treated as tests of writing ability and kept quite separate from the tests of as tests of structure we are discussing in this lesson.

DETERMINATION OF TEST CONTENT

The prearation of a structure test should always begin with the setting up of a detailed outline of the proposed test content. The outline should specify not only which structures are to be tested, but the percentage of items to be written around each problem. This outline may have to be modified somewhat on the basis of the results of pretesting, but great care must be taken to ensure that the final form of the test includes a broad range of relevant grammatical problems in proportions which reflect their relative importance. This point cannot be emphasized too strongly, for there is a common tendency in grammar testing to end up with a disproportionate number of items testing a few structural points that happen to be the easiest to put into the test writer's favourite item format. Clearly, a test constructed with such a bias cannot serve as a fair or valid measure of either a student's general progress or his overall competence in the language.

Selection of the structures to be included in an achievement test is relatively easy, in as much as the class test can and should be used as the basis for our test . As a rule, the test should include the full range of structures that were taught in the course, and each structural type should receive about the same emphasis in the test that is received in the classroom.

In general proficiency testing, on the other hand, the choice of structures is a rather difficult one which to some extent must be made subjectively. Perhaps the best approach is to examine a number of standard texts prepared for students at the level of the intended test population, listing the structures commonly presented in these works and noting the emphasis which each receives. Of course if the test writer is himself a teacher of English as a second language, he will wish to use his won judgement in determining the weight to be given to the various grammatical points.

MUTIPLE – CHOICE ITEMS : STRUCTURE RECOGNITION TESTS

This section attempts to show some of the broad areas which can be tested by using multiple - choice techniques. Several examples are given on the following pages for most of the areas.

(1) Tenses

1. Robert ... in Kenya a few weeks ago.
   (a) is arriving (b) arrives (c) has arrived (d) arrived
2. Don't talk so loudly : your father ...
   (a) sleeps (b) is sleeping (c) slet (d) had slept
3. Where did Mr. Smith go while we ... ?
   (a) talk (b) have talked (c) were talking (d) had talked
4. I wish I ... the answer to that question.
   (a) knew (b) would know (c) will know (d) know

(2) Modals

1. We ... to hurry or we'll be late
   (a) should (b) must (c) ought (d) had
2. Peter ... come with us tonight, but he isn't very sure yet.
   (a) can (b) could (c) may (d) will
3. " I ... to introduce you to Helen ".
   (a) would like (b) like (c) to like (d) am liking
4. Please take a message ... he call.
   (a) may (b) will (c) shall (d) should

(3) Question tags

1. Your father's paying for the tickets ... ?
   (a) Aren't you (b) aren't they (c) isn't it (d) isn't he
2. Mary's finished reading the newspaper ... ?
   (a) isn't she (b) wasn't it (c) hasn't she (d) isn't it
3. It'll rain soon ... ? You ought to take a raincoat.
   (a) won't it (b) ought it (c) isn't it (d) may it

4. Tom said he wasn 't feeling well, ... ?

   (a) was he (b) wasn 't he (c) didn 't he (d) isn't he

(4) WH – Question Words

1. " ... are you going ? " " To London ."

   (a) When (b) Why (c) Where (d) How

2. " ..... is Dick talking to ? " " John Green ."

   (a) Where (b) When (c) What (d) Who

3. "..... does Mr. Robinson go to London on business ? " " At least once a month. "

   (a) How often (b) How many (c) how (d) How long

4. "..... is the chair made of ? " " I think it 's leather ."

   (a) Which (b) What (c) How (d) Who

(5) Relative pronouns and clauses

1. Is that the spot .... you had the accident ?

   (a) which (b) where (c) whom (d) why

2. The boy 's photograph .... you saw was taken a long time ago.

   (a) who (b) whose (c) whom (d) which

3. Have you met the woman .... husband is a doctor ?

   (a) which (b) of whom (c) whose (d) of which

4. Are those the students ..... ?

   (a) your were talking about

   (b) that you were talking about them

   (c) about that you were talking

   (d) you were talking about them

(6) Linkers

1. We 've had good weather .... I arrived.

   (a) since (b) for (c) while (d) during

2. ..... it was very cold, neither Michael nor Andrew put on his coat.

   (a) However (b) Although (c) But (d) Nevertheless

3. The food was so good ..... I ate all of it.

(a) but (b) that (c) as (d) then

4. He'll never pass ..... hard he tries.

(a) however (b) even though (c) despite (d) yet

(7) Preposition and adverbial particles

1. Did you arrive there ..... night ?

(a) in (b) on (c) at (d) through

2. I live a few yards ..... the bus stop.

(a) from (b) away (c) off (d) for

3. Mr. Smith has gone to England ..... holiday.

(a) for (b) on (c) in (d) by

4. Turn the switch off : The water is boiling .....

(a) out (b) down (c) off (d) over

(8) Pronouns

1. " I've forgotten my sandwiches ".

" It doesn't matter. You can have .....

(a) some of us (b) us some

(c) some of ours (d) some of our

2. " Is my Camera like Bill's and Ann's ?

" Yes, it's almost the same as ....."

(a) them (b) they (c) their (d) theirs

3. You shouldn/t say nasty things about Jane. She's a friend of .....

(a) her (b) you (c) ours (d) me

4. Mr. Smith's wife was ill, so I called an ambulance to take .....to hospital.

(a) she (b) her (c) they (d) their

(9) Determiners

1. Is that a map of ..... ?

(a) West Indies (b) a West Indies

(c) the West Indies (d) any West Indies.

2. Let's listen to ..... music on the radio.

   (a) one (b) those (c) a (d) some

3. Sociologists are concerned with the problem of man in .....

   (a) a society (b) the society (c) society (d) some society.

4. ..... of the boys in the room has a pen and pencil.

   (a) Each (b) All (c) Both (d) Every.

The following m/c. item type is another way of testing the use of the article, though it is highly artificial and should not be used too often. Remember that the student's ability to use the language should be tested – not his knowledge about the language.

" Is (1) desk made of (2) wood ? " " No, it's an iron desk ".

In this sentence the

(a) is necessary at (1) only

(b) is necessary at (2) only

(c) is necessary at both (1) and (2)

(d) is not necessary at either (1) or (2)

10. Infinitive / – ing forms

1. I wanted ..... the actor, but my car broke down.

   (a) meet (b) to meeting (c) meeting (d) to meet

2. Don't you enjoy ..... television ?

   (a) to watch (b) watching (c) to watching (d) watch

3. Mr. Brown made Peter ..... to the dentist.

   (a) go (b) to go (c) went (d) going

4. You must give Audrey a lift in your car : you can't allow her ..... home.

   (a) walked (b) to walk (c) to have walked (d) walk.

(II) Order of Adjectives

1. Tony is going on the picnic with ..... bous.

   (a) two little other (b) other two little

   (c) other little two (d) two other little

2. Look smart and wear your ..... dress.

(a) new white cotton (b) white new cotton

(c) cotton white new (d) white cotton new

(12) Position of adverbs

1. (a) I have got just dressed (b) I have just got dressed

(c) I just have got dressed (d) I have got dressed just.

2. (a) Always the old man enjoys watching television at weekends.

(b) The old man enjoys watching always television at weekends.

(c) The old man enjoys always watching television at weekends.

(d) The old man always enjoys watching television at weekends.

The preceding items differ in format from the other items included in the list so are and require a different rubric. The follwing m/c. item type, however, is preferable. (The testee has to select the letter showing the best position for the adverb in each sentence).

always the old man (a) and his friend (b)enjoy (c) watching (d) television.

(13) Reported Speech

1. " Have you passed ? " I asked Bill.

I asked Bill (a) had he passed

(b) had you passed

(c) if he had passed.

(d) that he had passed

2. " Is that your pen ? " Mr. White asked Ann.

Mr. White wanted to know

(a) was that Ann's pen

(b) is that Ann's pen

(c) if that was Ann's pen

(d) that was Ann's pen.

CONSTRUCTING ERROR – RECOGNITION M / C ITEMS

Error recognition : item Type 1

Each sentence contains four words or phrases underlined, marked A,B,C and D. Select the underlined word or phrase which is incorrect or unacceptable.

1. I do hope you wouldn't mind waiting for such a long time.
   A B C D

2. I'm frightened that you'll feel angry to me
   A B C D

3. I didn't see Bill since he went in to hospital last month.
   A B C D

4. My car had broken down, so I went there by foot.
   A B C D

Error recognition : item Type 2

There is a mistake in grammar in each of the following sentences. Write the letter of that part of the sentence in which it occurs.

A B C D
1. Sun / is shining / brightly today /, isn't it ?

A B C D
2. Old Mr. Jones / enjoys / looking the children / playing in the park

A B C D
3. Tony's father / would not let him / to stay out / late at night.

A B C D
4. Didn't / Susan tell you / She wouldn't mind to come / with us on the picnic

Item type 2 allows the test writer to test errors caused by ommission : e.g. Sun is shining and looking the children. This type of error cannot be tested by the first item of the error - recognition type. However, there are different ways of correcting many sentences. For example, the student may write B or C to denote the incorrect part of the third sentence above, according to which of these correct versions is in his mind :

Tony's father would not permit him to stay out late (= B)

Tony's father would not let him stay out late. (= C)

For this reason, the test writer is strongly advised to avoide items of the second type.

Sometimes students are given correct sentences together with the incorrect ones : they are then required to write the letter E if the sentence does not contain any error. In practice, this method does not work too well since many students tend to regard every sentences as containing an error. Indeed, another argument against this type of item is that it emhasises the more negative aspect of language learning. It is clearly not sufficient for students simply to recognise sources of error : they ought to be encouraged at all times to concentrate on recognising and producing the correct forms. This argument is supported by many psychologists and teachers who hold that it is undersirable for students to be exposed too much to incorrect forms.

Constructing completion items

Carefully constructed completion items are a useful means of testing the student's ability to produce the correct grammatical or structural form. They are preferable to multiple - choice items in certain test situations, since they measure production rather than recognition. Many such items appear deceptively simple to construct, but considerable time is generally spent on preparing them so that there is only one correct or appropriate word for each blank.

The error Sun is shining in the extract from the student's letter illustrates one (minor) difficulty of constructing satisfactory completion items. Although only one answer is possible here, this completion item would have to appear as :

..... Sun is shining today.

or as ..... sun is shining today.

The error, ' Sun is shining ' in the extract from the student's letter illustrates one (minor) difficulty of constructing satisfactory completion items. Although only one answer is possible here, this completion item would have to appear as :

..... Sun is shining today.

or as ..... sun is shining today.

The former item suggests to the testee that no determiner is necessary (since Sun is written with a capital letter) while the latter item suggests that a determiner is necessary (because sun is written without a capital)

The item can be simply re - written as a question to overcome this problem :

Is ..... sun shining today ?

Here are some other examles of completion items based on the extract.

Type 1 Write the correct word in each blank.

1. The old man enjoys looking ..... the children playing.

2. That car belongs ..... Bills' father.

3. I hope you're not angry ..... me.

Type 2 Put ' a, the, or ' some ' in each blank only where necessary. If you think that no word should be placed in the blank, put a cross (X) there.

1. Can you see ..... sun shinging through the clouds ?

2. I saw your uncle ..... day before yesterday.

3. What have you been doing since I saw you ..... last summer ?

Type 3 Complete each blank by supplying the correct form of the verb in brackets.

It's a long time since I last ..... (write) to you. I hope you ..... (mind) such long delay. You know how it is. The sun ..... (shine), the trees ..... (become) green and it ..... (be) difficult to stay indoors. Sometimes when the weather ..... (be) sunny, I ..... (take) a walk through the park near my lodgings.

Type 4 Complete each of the following sentences.

1. It's a long time since .....

2. I hope you ..... if I smoke.

3. When it is sunny, I .....

Completion items cannot, of course, be machine – marked but they are very useful for inclusion in classroom tests and for exercise purposes. The following examples of possible answers to two of the items listed in Type 4 give some idea of the subjective aspects of scoring such items :

It's a long time since I last saw you / I wrote to you / I met you / summer / your last letter / John came / the old man died / you were here /

I hope you didn't mind / don't object / don't care / aren't worried / won't be annoyed / will smoke / will stay /

Even the most straight forward completion items can cause problems in the scoring. In the following example ' was preparing ' and ' prepared ' is also correct if ' as ' is regarded as meaning ' because ' : i.e. people gasped because they didn't expect him to

prepare for the journey - they thought he would go without preparation.

PREPARE 1. He heard a gasp behind him as he ... to go.

Unexpected ways of completing blanks are shown yet again in the following example.

As soon as possible the next day I sent my story ... the editor ... the magazine ... which my best work usually appeared.

It is quite possible to write a story 'about' an editor and send the story about the editor 'to' a magazine. Although such an interpretation may sound somewhat absurd, it illustrates the lengths to which the test writer must sometimes go to make certain that testees produce only the answer he wants to be used in each blank. For class tests, such a critical attitude might well be harmful if it took the teacher's attention of more important and urgent problems in teaching and testing.

The following example indicates the vastness of the range of possibilities for one completion item.

I go to the cinema regularly, but I ..... to the theatre for months.

The answer obviously required by the tester is 'haven't been'; how ever, possible answers are :

haven' t been	shan' t be going
had' t been	can' t go
(sometimes) don' t go	haven't been able to go
may not go	am not going
don' t know whether I've been	did' t go
shan' t go	haven' t gone
won' t go	haven't been going.

If the aim of this particular item is to force the use of the Present perfect tense, there are three ways of restricting the choice available to the testee (although the first two ways depend heavily on reading comprehension) :

(1) by providing a context :

Mary usually goes to the cinema about once a week but she ..... four films already this month and it's only the 20th today. (Possible answers : has been / will have seen / must have seen).

(2) by providing data :

I go to the cinema regularly, but it's ages since I last saw a play

I go to the cinema regularly, but I ..... to theatre for months.

(Possible answers : haven't been / haven't been going / haven't been able to go)

(3) by using multiple – choice techniques :

I ..... to the theater three times since i last saw you.

(a) go (b) have been (c) had gone (d) went.

CONSTRUCTING TRANSFORMATION ITEMS

The transformation type of item is extremely useful for testing ability to produce structures in the target language and helps to provide a balance when included in tests containing multiple – choice items. It is the one objective item type which comes closest to measuring some of the skills tested in composition writing, although transforming sentences is different from producing sentences. Subjective decisions, of course, may have to be made in the scoring process : e.g. how should spelling errors be marked ?

Rewrite each of the following sentences in another way, beginning each new sentences with the words given. Make any changes that are necessary but do not change the general meaning of the sentence.

1. I haven't written to you for a long time.

   It's long time .....

2. In sunny weather I often go for a walk.

   When the weather .....

3. Old Mr. Jones likes to look at the children playing .....

   Old Mr. Jones enjoys .....

Other transformation items giving some idea of the range of areas that can be covered in this way are :

1. It was impossible to work under those conditions.

   Working .....

2. I don't think it's necessary for you to stay any longer.

   I don't think you .....

3. I was able to leave the office early yesterday.

   It was possible .....

4. Joe can sing better than you.

You cannot .....

5. This book is too big to go on any of the shelves.

   This book is so big .....

6. Frank is very good at tennis.

   Frank plays .....

7. Poor Peter was bitten by a mosquito.

   A mosquito .....

8. " When will you visit London ? " mr. Strong asked me.

   Mr. Strong asked me .....

As with completion items, it is often difficult to restrict the number of possible answers. However, such restrictions are not essential for the constructor of classroom tests, provided that he is fully aware of all the possible correct answers and of the specific area he is testing. The following examples indicate some of the alternatives possible for four of the preceding items :

I haven't written to you for a long time.

It's a long time since I (last wrote (to) you / since you received a letter from me / etc.

I don't think it's necessary for you to stay any longer.

I don't think you need (to) stay any longer – expected answer will find it necessary to stay longer = possible answer.

Joe can sing better than you.

You cannot sing as well as Joe = expected answer

sing better than joe = possible answer.

Frank is very good at tennis.

Frank plays tennis very well. / extremely well, etc.

= expected answer

= very good tennis = possible answer

Unfortunately, the alternatives in the last three items defeat the purpose of the tests as they stand at present. However, it is a simple matter to rewrite them as follows :

It is necessary for us to stay any longer ?

Need ..... ?

You cannot sing as well as joe.

joe can sing .....

Frank is very good at tennis.

Frank plays tennis .....

Some times it is difficult to elicit the particular form we wish to test.

E.g. I feel miserble even though I shouldn't.

I know I shouldn't feel miserable but I do.

Although 'I do' is the answer required, we could scarcely fault :

I know I shouldn't feel miserable but I certainly don't feel happy.

I know I shouldn't feel miserable but i am miserable.

In some tests, testees may be required to rewrite a sentence beginning with a certain word underlined in the original sentence.

E.g. They believed that the earth was flat.

The earth was believed to be flat.

This item type is a useful variation of the previous type discussed, but sometimes restricts the kind of transformation possible since the first word of the new sentence has to appear in the original sentence. Thus it becomes impossible to test the required transformation of a sentence like. It is necessary for us to stay any longer ? (= need we stay any longer ?).

Transformation can also be effected by requiring testees to substitute a given verb in a sentence, the new verb necessitating a change in the structural pattern.

The lessons make up the course (consist)

The course consists of ten lessons.

I couldn't go swimming yesterday (allow)

I wasn't allowed to go swimming yesterday.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Construct a few multiple – choice grammar items (structure recognition items) to test the use of tenses and models.

Activity – 2

Construct a few error – recognition items of a grammar test and provide a key for them.

Activity – 3

Construct a few completion type items of a grammer test and provide a key for them.

Activity – 4

Construct a few transformation type items of a grammar test and provide a key for them.

SELF – CHECK

Write against each of the following statements 'T' if it is correct and 'F' if it is false.

i. There is difference between the traditional grammar test for the native learnerof English and the kind of structure test for the foreign learner.

ii. The preparation of a grammar test should begin with an outline of the proposed test content.

iii. A grammar test should include a broad range or relevant grammatical problems in proportions which reflect their relative importance.

iv. The item given below may be recommended as an example for multiple – choice grammar item.

(A) Ram ought not to tell me your secret, but he did.

(B) Ram ought not to having told me your secret, but he did.

(c) Ram ought not to be telling me your secret, but he did.

(d) Ram ought not to have told me your secret, but he did.

KEY :

1	2	3	4
T	T	T	F

Lesson – 23

PREPARATION OF BLUE PRINT FOR AN ENGLISH TEST

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule, readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

i. List the steps which are necessary to be taken – up for setting good question papers.

ii. describe the various dimenstions and uses of a blue print.

iii. design a sample question paper in English with all the essential criteria.

iv. prepare a blue print for the prepared sample question paper.

ACTIVITIES

i. Reading of learning material.

ii. Reading of :

- Ballard, P.B. Teaching and Testing English, London, University of London Press Ltd., 1989.
- Lado, Robert, Language Testing, London : Longmans, 1962.

iii. Completion of Worksheet and Self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

A question paper is not just a random assortment of questions. To be an effective instrument of evaluating academic achievement, it has to be structured according to a pattern decided in advance. The following steps are necessary to be taken up for setting good question papers,

A. PREPARATION OF A DESIGN :

The design is not only the first, but also the most important step of paper setting. It lays down the important dimensions of the question paper.

1. Weightage to objectives :

This means the selection of objectives desired to be tested and allot ment of marks to each, in view of its importance. This will help to reduce emphasis on memory and enable the testing of higher abilities.

2. Weightage to different areas of content :

This entails the analysis of the syllabus, and the delimitation of the scope of each topic in the first instance and then the allotment of marks to each of the major areas, for the purose of framing questions.

3. Weightage to different forms of question :

Working on the principle that for testing a particular ability and content the most suitable form of question should alone be used, we may like to choose different forms of questions for inclusion in the question papers instead of just one single traditional form, viz., the essay type question. Having made this decision, the marks to be alloted to each form have also to be decided.

4. Scheme of options :

The design may also indicate the pattern of options, i.e., the complete elimination of overall options and the limited retention of internal options, which, among themselves, may be comparable in respect of the objectives to be tested, the major area of content covered, the form of the question and the difficulty level of the question.

5. Sections in the question paper :

The inclusion of objective type questions may necessitate the division of the question paper into sections and the allotment of a separate time limit for answering each. These questions are usually answered in a shorter time and need not remain with the pupils for longer than just the time necessary for attempting them.

In view of the ablove considerations the design may suggest the division of the question paper into two sections, both to be administered simultaneously, but the one containing objective type and very short answer questions may be collected at the end of the given time limit.

B. PREPARATION OF A BLUE PRINT :

A blue print gives the details of the design in concrete terms. It is a three dimensional chart giving the placement of the different questions in respect of

1. the object tested by each.
2. the contect area covered by each and
3. the form of question which is most suitable for testing 1 and 2 above.

In addition to the above three dimensions the blue print may also indicate :

1. the numerical weightage to each question individually and
2. the scheme of options to be adopted in framing the questions.

The blue print is thus the detailed plan based on the design for preparing a question paper.

C. PREPARATION OF QUESTIONS BASED ON THE BLUE PRINT:

After the position of different questions is located on the blueprint, the next step is the preparation of questions the dimensions of each of which have already been defined on an individual basis in the blueprint. By taking each location on the blueprint, individual questions have to be framed to satisfy the requirements of the respective positions.

The framing of questions based on the blueprint would necessitate the knowledge of objectives and specifications, a mastery over the subject matter and the skill in framing different forms of questions.

While writing or selecting questions for the paper ; it may be kept in mind that the question :

1. is based on a well – defined specific objective of teaching.
2. relates to a specific content area,
3. is written in the forms as required by the blueprint and satisfies the rules for framing that form of question,
4. is at the desired level of difficulty, and
5. is so worded as to be well within the comprehension of the pupils and to clearly indicate the scope and length of the answer.

As multiple choice type of questions are important types of items, suggestions for writing multiple choice items are given below.

Suggestions for writing Multiple Choice Items :

A multiple choice item is composed of statement or stem followed by four or five choices. The whole item, when correct, must make complete sense and be accurate in information.

The following are some suggestions for framing such items :

1. See that there is only one choice which is correct and avoid choices overlapping with one another. The response should be agreed upon as the best, by competent critics.
2. Make the stem of the item comprehensive enough to contain the central problem by including in it as much of the item as possible. The alternayives should not contain anything which could have been put in the stem.
3. Do not require the pupil to copy or underline the correct response.
4. Avoid the use of the text – book language. Mislead the rote learner by using familiar or stereo – typed phrases as distractors.
5. Make the stem and all the alternatives as succinct as possible and consistent with accuracy.
6. See if a better item can be obtained by turning round a partly formulated question into an answer or by turning the answer into a question of making it the stem and providing 3 or 4 distractors.
7. See that all the choices provided are sufficienlty lausible to be selected by a fair proportion of the examinees. both correct and incorrect choices should be homogeneous in their mode of expression, length and other external characteristics. The distractors should represent errors commonly made by the students who are to be tested.

D. PREPARATION OF SCORING KEY AND MARKING SCHEME:

Very often when we start thinking of the answers to particular questions we are able to discover mistakes in the questions so essential to frame scoring key and marking scheme simultaneously with the question paper.

The scoring key is to be prepared for the objective type question and the marking scheme for the essay, short answer, very short answer questions. The marking scheme gives the expected outline of the answer and the marks that each point or aspect of the answer deserves. in case there are more points than provided for in the marking scheme and the student has the freedom to choose only a limited number of them, we may indicate that any of the points given by them may be taken as correct. As far as possible effort should be made to give all the points that may be relevant to the question irrespective of the number asked for in the question.

A DESIGN OF THE SAMPLE QUESTION PAPER : ENGLISH PAPER

A question paper, to be good and worthwhile, should ensure an extensive coverage of objectives and a more representative sample of content areas, include a large number of very specific questions, preferably of more than one type, and reduce the element of chance as far as possible by reducing options to a minimum and thus discouraging intensive preparation in a relatively few areas.

Viewed in this perspective, an improved design of the question paper has been developed. The design has been based on the following criteria :

1. Weightage to objectives
2. Weightage to content
3. Forms of questions
4. Language, wording and directions
5. Sections
6. Scheme of option
7. Difficulty level
8. Time factor
9. Scoring key, outline answers and marking scheme.

1. WEIGHTAGE TO OBJECTIVE

Knowledge :

Questions on knowledge bear on the formal aspects of letter writing and on spelling.

Comprehension :

Comprehension is best shown by the pupil's responses to new (previously unseen) material because the presentation of the familiar material may elicit only memorized (knowledge) responses without demonstrating real understanding. The questions on comprehension are expected to stinulate the pupil to give evidence of behaviours higher than recall or recognition. they may require such behaviours as locating the title or the central idea, giving implied meanings of passage, inferring the author's or the character's mood, finding the lexical and figurative meanings of words in context, etc.

Ideally, cmprehension should be separated from expression. Many students are unable to express themselves but they comprehend the subject matter fairly well. In questions on comprehension to examiner is, strictly speaking, expected,to give marks for comprehension,but consciously or

unconsciously, he is prejudiced by poor expression, and chooses to hold back the marks the student legitimately deserves. To insure against such an eventuality, it is desirable to set a few objective type and very short answer questions. Such questions are designed to offer a challenge to the alert, sensitive student who has absorbed something of the passage.

Expression :

(Composition) Free composition is not a satisfactory teaching device for students who offer English as a second language. It leaves them free to transfer to English the vocabulary and sentence structures of their mother tongue and, as such, it reinforces these incorrect habits. Asking students to try their hand at free composition will influence classroom teaching. Hence it loses sight of the objective of the composition which is aimed at teaching a specific kind of writing with its own characteistics of vocabulary, sentence structure and paragraph arrangement. So a question has been set to test student's skill in composition and the extent of their control over the English language on a contextualized topic. Such a controlled, contextualized test, which does not just leave the students in a vacuum but helps them to come out " with something to say " has potential feedback value in classroom teaching. A student of English as a second language need as much help in learning to write English as he does in learning to speak English, – that he needs to reduce the structures he used most frequently in writing to habit, just as he has already reduced the structures he used most frequently in speaking, to habit. The question on composition on composition set in the sample question paper bids fair to be definite, real and purposeful with regard to both teaching and testing.

Expression is further tested through some questions on the elements of language, in which students will display their skill in the use of English in context.

Tradition is highly complex skill of its own, which requires seical talent and skill. It involves problems of grammatical structure, pattern selection, vocabulary, punctuation and spelling. What is more, students require to change some words and patterns for their functional counterparts in translation rather then keep slavishly to the original. It is with this purpose in view translation has been located as a separate objective in this paper. Two passage, carefully selected, have been set, one for translation from the mother tongue into English and the other from English into the mother tongue.

The following weightages are proposed for different objectives :

(i)	Knowledge	5 marks	5 %
(ii)	Comprehension	20 marks	20 %
(iii)	Expression	59 marks	59 %
(iv)	Translation	16 marks	16 %
		100 marks	100 %

2. WEIGHTAGE TO CONTENT

S. No	Topics	Marks	Percentage
1.	Elements of Language		
	(a) Articles	2	2%
	(b) Prepositions	2	2%
	(c) Connective	3	3%
	(d) Reported Speech	4	4%
	(e) Anomalous Verbs	2	2%
	(f) Punctuation	3	3%
	(g) Vocabular – Antonyms,	2	2%
	Derivatives	2	2%
	(h) Tenses	3	3%
	(i) Spelling	2	2%
	(j) Structures		
	(i) Framing questions	3	3%
	(ii) Transformation	6	6%
	(iii) Synthesis	2	2%
	(iv) Voice	2	2%
2.	Letter – Writing	8	8%
3.	Precis	8	8%
4.	Composition	15	15%
5.	Translation		
	(a) English to mother – tongue	8	8%
	(b) Mother – tongue to English	8	8%
6.	Unseen Passage	15	15%
	(for Comprehension)		
	Total	100	100%

3. WEIGHTAGE TO FORMS OF QUESTIONS

Form of question	No.	Marks	Percentage
Objective	7	7	7%
Very Short Answer	49	49	29%
Short answer	16	41	41%
Essay	2	23	23%
Total	74	100	100%

4. SECTION

In view of the incorporation of diffierent forms of questions in the question paper, the paper has two section -- Section A and Section B. Section A has objective type (multiple choice) and very short answer questions and Section B has essay type, short answer and very short answer questions. As regards the administration of the two sections, they may be printed separately but they should be handed over to the students simulat-eneously, with the instructions that the examinees may pass on immediately to Section B in case they happen to finish section A before the allotted time. The answers to questions in Section A are to be given in the space provided in the paper itself. A separate answer book should be provided to the students for answering questions in Section B.

5. SCHEME OF OPTION

Internal options have been provided in the essay type questions. no option has been provided in the short answer, very short answer and objective type questions.

6. DIFFICULTY LEVEL

The question paer may contain questions of different dificulty levels. A large number of questions may be framed at the average difficulty level, a few at the high difficulty level and yet a few at below average difficulty level. This judicious proportion of difficulty levels is necessary in as much as it caters to the needs of students of varying abilities. The following weightage to qeustions of different difficulty levels is suggested :

Level of Difficulty	Marks	Percentage
Essay	10	10%
Average	80	80%
Difficult	10	10%

TIME FACTOR

The question paper may be so framed as to make it possible for the studnets to answer the questions within the allotted time. This requires judicious allotement of time to each question on the basis of the expected length of the answer.

The time limits for the two sections may be :

Section A	$\frac{1}{2}$ an hour
Section B	2 hours
	$2\frac{1}{2}$

SCORING KEY, OUTLINE ANSWERS AND MARKING SCHEME

Ouline answers and scheme of marking are essential in the case of essay type, short answer and very short answer questions, and these should be prepared along with the question paper. Smiliarly scoring key should be prepared for the objective type questions. This will improve objectivity in valuation, and ensure a judicious distribution of marks to different questions and timely detection of errors or vagueness, if any, in the questions.

SAMPLE QUESTION PAPER

EXAMINATION

English Paper – II

Time : 2-30 Hrs. Max. Marks : 100

General Instructions :

1. You must finish Section A in 30 minutes. Then it will be taken away.
2. You must answer all questions in both Section A and Section B.
3. For section A, write your answers on the question paper itself, in the spaces provided. For questions in Section B you are to write your answers in a separate answer book.

SECTION – A

Time : 30 Minutes Max. Marks : 15

Direction : Each question from 1 to 7 has four choices marked A, B, C and D. Choose the one that is the best. Write in letter of the Answer A, B, C or D) in the space provided. For questions 8 to 15 you are to write very short answers.

Read the passage carefully and answer the questions that follow :

The war between England and Germany was then at its height and England needed all the help that india could give her. The English asked Gandhiji to give them his support. Knowing how the British Government had been treating the Indians, no one would have agreed to give them any help. But Gandhiji believed that one should never try to take advantage of the enemy's difficulties. He wanted to help the british in their hour of need and by placing them under a deep debt of gratitude, compel them to do the right thing for Indian by giving her freedom. Moreover, Mahatmaji felt that the English as a whole nation were not bad. The unjust treatment of Indians was the result of the follish and wrong policy of a few English officials who came to India. He believed that the English people could be won over with love and so he put forth all his efforts to get his country's support for the war. He travelled from village to village persuading people to join the army. He worked so hard that he fell ill. hardly had he recovered, when news came that the war had ended. No further help was necessary. During this illness he took to drinking goat's milk and since then right until the day of his death he lived only on boiled vegetables and goat's milk.

1. Why did Gandhiji want to help England ?

   A. He felt that Englishmen were not bad.

   B. He did not want to take advantages of England 's difficulties.

   C. He wanted to win over England with love.

   D. All of the above 1 ( )

2. " No one would have agreed to give them any help ." This was probably feeling of

   A. the British

   B. the author

   C. Indian people

   D. Gandhiji 2 ( )

3. Which of the following is not true ?

   A. Gandhiji took to vegetables and goat 's milk because of the war.

   B. One should never try to make advantage of the enemy 's difficulties.

   C. Gandhiji persuaded the people to join the army.

   D. The English asked Gandhiji to give them his support.

   3 ( )

4. Which of the following statements better describe Gandhiji 's charac ter?

   A. By helping the British he wanted to compel them to do the right thing.

   B. He felt that the British as a whole nation were not bad.

   C. Since then, until the day of his death, he lived only on bloiled vegetables.

   D. One should never try to take advantages of the enemy 's difficulties

   4 ( )

5. Persuading people to join the army?

   A. Commanding

B. Influencing

C. Convincing

D. Requesting. 5 ( )

6. Hardly had he recovered, wher news came that the war had ended.

A. The war ended very soon after his recovery.

B. The war ended at the same time as he recovered.

C. The war ended and he recovered.

D. The war had ended before he recovered. 6 ( )

7. " No one would have agreed to give them any help " means :

A. In fact, no one agreed to give them any help.

B. no one would probably agree to give them any help.

C. It is very unlikely that any one would agree to give them any help

D. No one would certainly agree to give them any help. 7 ( )

8. Who ill – treated the Indians ?

Ans. : .....

9. " But Gandhiji believed that one should never try to take advantage of the enemy's difficulties ".

What trait of Gandhijis character is shown here ?

Ans. : .....

10. What was, in general, Gandhiji's opinion about the British people ?

Ans. : .....

11. What did Gandhiji do to seek the help of the Indians ?

Ans. : .....

12. Write from the passage the word that expresses ' thankfullness'.

Ans. : .....

13. What did Gandhiji expect from the British as a return for his support?

Ans. : .....

14. Write from the passage, the phrase which means ' intense '.

Ans. : .....

15. Which word in the passage is used to express in idea added on to the previous statement ?

Ans. : .....

SECTION – B

Time : 2 Hrs. Max. Marks : 85

Directions :

In question (16 to 57) you should not copy the sentences in your answer book. Write only the word (or words) against the serial number of the blanks. In questions 58 to 69 you have to answer in complete sentences according to the directions given.

16 – 23 Find the appropriate words (a, an or the) for the blanks. If no word is necessary put a cross (**X**) : 8 X 1/4 = 2

I happended to meet _____ (16) university professor _____ (17) other day. He was working in _____ (18) university of Madras. From _____ (19) talk I had with him for about _____ (20) hour, I realized that he was _____ (21) learned man. It is indeed _____ (22) pleasure to talk to _____ (23) learned men.

24 – 27 Find the appropriate words for the blanks : 4 X 1/2 = 2

I have come to know _____ (24) your success _____ (25) the examination. I must congratulate you _____ (26) your excellent performance. I am glad that you are so good _____ (27) English.

28 – 33 Find the appropriate connection words for the blanks :

6 X 1/2 = 3

The Firemen arrived —— (28) the fire had got a strong hold ——(29) begun to spread to other houses ——— (30) were near ——by. They worked very hard for a long time, ——— (31) their efforts were without success. Finally the fire was put out. The people, ——(32) had gathered there, were happy ——— (33) the fire was brought under control.

34 – 37 Find the appropriate helping verbs for the blanks :

4 X 1/2 = 2

I think we should invite Mr. Smith to preside over our inaugural function. I am sure you —— (34) find his speech interesting. He —— (35) come if we ask him in time. As he is in town at present we —— (36) go to him and ask him personally. What do you say ? —— (37) we go immediately?

38 – 41 Find for the blank the word which is opposite in meaning to the word in bold print in each of the following statements :

4 X 1/2 = 2

(a) You can REJECT the first suggestion and —— (38) the second one.

(b) My sister is CAREFUL, but my brother is ____ (39)

(c) The table is HARD, but the bed is ——— (40)

(d) They DECREASE the number of pupils and ——— (41) the number of teachers.

42 – 45 Find for the blank the correct form of the word given in brackets in each of the following sentences :

4X 1/2 = 2

(a) We would like to have as much —— (42) (free) as possible.

(b) Cities are getting more and more —— (43) now-a- days (people)

(c) The parents should —— (44) (able) their children to go to schoo in time.

(d) I did not pull his shirt ——— (45) (intend).

46 – 51 Find correct form of the verbs given in brackets

6 X 1/2 = 3

When I —— (46) (reach) the station, I ——— (47) (see) that the train ——(49) (arrive) at the platform. " Be quick ". ——— (49) (say) my friend, " the guard —— (50) (blow) the whistle. The train —— (51) (leave) any moment now ".

52 – 55 Pick out the misspelt word in each of the following sets of words given below and write it correctly :

(52) station, function, tention, examination

(53) sizeable, intelligable, practicable, tolerable

(54) letter, circular, sailor, carpenter

(55) quarrelsome, always, already, all right.

56 – 57 Find for the blanks appropriate forms of the verbs given in brackets in the following : $2 \times 1 = 2$

Seeing my car missing, I made a complaint to the police that my car ..... (56) to steal) . They assured me that it ..... (57) (to return) to me in a few days.

58. Rewrite the following passage using appropriate punctuation marks and capitals, where necessary : 3

Does it hurt the doctor asked the patient no i feel nothing he replied.

59. He visits his uncle ONCE A WEEK.

60. There are FOURTEEN major languages in India.

61. The Suez canal Joins THE RED SEA AND THE MEDITERRANEAN

62 – 67 Rewrite the following sentence as directed : $6 \times 1 = 6$

62. Very few men in the city are as popular as our Headmaster.

Rewrite using : MOST POPULAR

63. This is the most interesting of all the books in the library.

Rewrite using : SO INTERESTING AS

64. No other boy in the class is so good as the class leader

Rewriting using : BETTER

(65) Though he was careful, he lost the key.

Rewrite using : IN SPITE OF

(66) he must work hard or he will fail.

Rewrite using : UNLESS

(67) Being industrious, he stood first in the class.

Rewrite using : AND

68. combine the following sentences into one sentence : 2

I saw a man. He was standing at the entrance. he was wearing a green shirt.

69. write the following conversation in the reported form : 4

David " Were you at the party last night ?"

Richard : ' No, I wasn't. I had to stay at home and do my home work ".

David " What a pity you couldn't come ! We had a lovely time! Well don't miss the next party ! ".

70. You live in a village and go to school in a town two miles away. Describe, in about 200 to 250 words, the daily scenes you see on the road to the town. 15

or

There was recently an election in your locality. Two candi dates, who did not belong to any political party, contested the election. Describe in about 200 to 250 words what you saw during the election.

or

Describe in about 200 to 250 words, why you would like to take up Science or History of Literature as a special subject of study at college.

71. You are taken your Public Examination and are awaiting publication of the results. You cannot make up your mind whether to join a technical course or an arts college. Write a letter to your headmaster asking his advice.

You have joined the school hostel. Your father has written to you enquiring whether you are comfortable in the place and whether you are provided with everything you need. He is ready to buy any things you require for your convenience.

Write a reply to his letter, answering his enquiry.

72. Write a precis of the following passage, in about a third of its length:8

Newton's head was usually so full of ideas and problems that he was often quite lost in thought. On such occasions he forgot his meals and his friends altogether.

On one occasion he invited one of his friends to dinner and the man arrived at the proper time at Newton's house. Two plates were laid, and everything seemed ready for an excellent meal. But the great philosopher was not there. The guest sat down to wait, but even after a long time Newton did not appear. The guest now sat down at the table and enjoyed a splended dinner all along.

At last Newton came in. He looked at his friend in a puzzled manner and realised that he had entirely forgotten him. After shaking his hand and apologising, he turned to the dinner table and noticed that someone had already dined.

" I'm sorry ", he said, apologising once again. " I see that I have eaten my dinner. I certainly ought to have waited for you " (166 words)

73. Translate the following passage into the language you have taken under Part I : 8

It is as important to develop the body as it is to develop the mind. To develop a sound body, sports and games are very necessary. Through physical exercise and games, the limbs and muscles grow strong. When we give exercise to our limbs, blood circulates freely to all parts of the body. Waste matter in the body is removed. Rest and sleep and exercise are three things essential for a sound body.

74. Translate the following passage into English. 8

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Prepare a question paper with due weightage given to the objectives and content.

Activity – 2

prepare a blue print for the above question paper

Activity – 3

Prepare a scoring key for the above question paper.

Activity – 4

Analyse the last year 's S.S.L.C Public Examination English Question papers (both October and March) Examine how far these English

question papers have given weightage to different objectives, different areas of content and different forms of questions.

SELF – CHECK

Write against each of the following statement ' T ' if it is correct and F ' if it is false.

(i) To –be an effective instrument of evaluating academic achievement, a question paper has to be structured according to a pattern decided in advance.

(ii) In a multiple – choice item, there can be more than one correct choice.

(iii) The distractors should not represent errors commonly made by the students who are to be tested.

(iv) A good question paper should ensure an extensive coverage of objectives and a more representative sample of content areas.

(v) In an ideal test item, comprehension should be separated from expression.

(vi) The judicious proportion of difficulty levels is necessary in a question paper as much as it caters to the needs of students of varying abilities.

(vii) Free composition item is a satisfactory testing device for students who offer English as a second language.

(viii) For testing a particular ability, the most suitable form of question alone should be used.

KEY

(i)	T	(ii)	F	(iii)	F	(iv)	T
(v)	T	(vi)	T	(vii)	F	(viii)	T

LESSON – 24

ELEMENTS OF ECONOMIC PHONETICS

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule readers are expected to realise the following objectives.

(i) define phonetics.

(ii) give reasons for the difficulty in pronouncing English.

(iii) describe English vowels, consonants and dipthongs.

(iv) speak English correctly.

ACTIVITIES

(i) Reading of learning material.

(ii) Reading of

– Jones, Daniel, The Pronunciation of English Cambridge University Press, 1969.

(iii) Completion of work sheet and self – check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

WHAT IS PHONETICS ?

Phonetics is a science of the sounds of a language. The sounds are described according to the method by which they are produced, and are classified accordingly. The study of phonetics is necessary, if we want to acquaint ourselves with a foreign language. It is not necessary to learn the phonetics of the mother – tongue, as we grasp the correct particulation and pronunciation of the mother – tongue by imitating the parents. But in the case of a foreign language, as we do not get opportunities to hear that language, spoken, the necessity of the study of its phonetics is, therefore, necessary.

Every speech – sound is the result of certain movement in the mouth. The teacher's task is to cultivate a ' phonetic conscience ' in his pupils. This conscience is best promoted by the study of the speech – sounds of the mother tongue in the first instance, and a study of the foreign sounds not found in the mother – tongue thereafter, adopting the same plan as was adopted for the studyo the speech sounds of the mother – tongue. Care has to be exercised lest the speech habits of the mother – tongue should dominate the pupil's pronuciation of English.

VALUE OF THE KNOWLEDGE OF PHONETICS

Phonetics is a very useful study. Its knowledge is useful for both the teacher and the students. In the words of Prof. H. Champion, " whether the pupil acquires his pronunciation of English by merely imitating the teacher's pronuciation, or whether he is taught how the speech – sound are produced, the teacher's pronunciation must not only be correct, it must be based on something more than the imitation of English sounds. In a word, the teacher must know how to produce correctly the sounds of English : he must have a knowledge of phonetics ".

PHONETIC SCRIPT

It is a system of indicating pronunciation in which one symbol stands for one distinct sound. The phonetic alphabets are different from the conventional alphabets. In conventional alphabets, one letter almost always has 2 or more sounds. This is precisely why a phonetic alphabet was necessary. The phonetic alphabet dates back to 1880's when a group of phoneticians from several countries met to form what is known as the Intennation Phonetic Association. They devised an alphabet known as the International Phonetic Alphabet.

In conventional alphabet, we know that there are 26 letters which have to produce 44 different sounds. Natural some letters stand for one sound, some for two sounds and a few of them for more than two sounds. For example u – but.

put ; – hit, hide, weigh.. In order to avoid any difficulty arising thereoı, different sound symbols have been evolved. In conventional alphabet, the word ' thought ' has seven letters but we hear only three sound / æ :t/. In the word ' box ' we have three letters but we hear four sounds ' boks '. Any sort of confusion is got rid of by the study of phonetic symbols. In the phonetic alphabet, a symbol has always the exact same sound, no matter where or how it is used. Then by consulting Pronouncing Dictionary, every learner of foreign language can acquire pronunciation.

PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

English Pure Vowels

S. No.	Symbol	Keywords	Phonetic Transcription
1.	(i :)	feel, beat, see	/ ti : l /, / bi : t, / si : /
2.	(i)	sit, pit, pin	/ sit /, / pit /, pin /
3.	(e)	bet, set, met	/ bet /, / set /, / met /
4.	(æ)	have, had, man	/ hɔev /, /bɔed/, mɔem /
5.	(a :)	class, half, master	/ kla:s /, / ha:f /, ma:st /
6.	(–)	was, what, hot	/ w...z /, / w–t /, / h–t /
7.	(... :)	all, taught, nore	/ ... :l /, / t ... :t /, / n...:/
8.	(u)	wolf, would, put	/ wulf /, / wud /, / put /
9.	(u :)	lose, two, too	/ lu :z /, tu :/, / tu :/
10.	(Λ)	son, love, up	/ s Λn / l Λ n / / Λp/
11.	(ɔ :)	work, heard,bird	/ wɔ:k /, / hɔ:d /, bɔ:d /
12.	(ɔ)	about, alight, alike	/ ɔ'baut /, / ɔlait /,/ ɔlaik /
13.	(ei)	cake, came, day	/ keik /, / keim /, / dei /
14.	(ɔu)	hope, no, boat	/ hɔug /, / nɔu/, / bɔut /
15.	(ai)	eye, cry, five	/ ai /, / Krai /, / faiv /
16.	(au)	house, hour, now	/ haus /, / au /, / hau /
17.	(Di)	toy, voice, boy	/ t)i /, v)is /, / b)i /
18.	(iɔ)	here, clear, dear	/ hiɔ /, / klaiɔ /, / diɔ /
19.	(εɔ)	there, care, mare	/ dεɔ /, / kεɔ /, mεɔ /
20.	(uɔ)	tour, poor	/ tuɔ /, / puɔ /.

Consonants

21.	(p)	pen, pocket, part	/ pen /, p)kit /, / park /
22.	(t)	tea, top, term	/ ti: /, t)p /, / tem /
23.	(b)	bee, bag, bar	/ bi: /, / bəeg /, / ba: /
24.	(d)	did, stayed, dark	/ did /, / steid /, / da:k /
25.	(k)	come, cat, corn	/ k ʌm / / kəet /, / k)Ln /
26.	(g)	go, get, got	/ gou /, / get /, / g)t /
27.	(m)	man, may, mark	/ məen /, / mei /, / mak /
28.	(n)	now, nut, nor	/ nau / / n ʌt /, n) /
29.	(j)	sing, king, young	/ sij /, / kij /, / jʌj /
30.	(l)	live, lamp, like	/ liv /, / lxmp /, / laik /
31.	(f)	foot, fan, fight	/ fut /, / fəen /, / fait /
32.	(v)	very, vivid, verb	/ veri /, / vivid /, / vətb /
33.	(ϕ)	thin, think, thick	/ in / , /ϕink /, / ϕik /
34.	(ə)	this, these, then	/ əis /, / əi:z /, / əen /
35.	(s)	sit, cell, sort	/ sit /, / sel /, / s):t /
36.	(z)	is, zeal	/ iz /, / zi:l /
37.	(ʃ)	ship, shoe, shut	/ʃ ip /, /ʃu : / , / ʃʌt /
38.	(ɜ)	measure, pleasure	/ meɜd /, / pleɜə /
39.	(r)	red, rat	/ red / , / rəet /
40.	(h)	hot, who, he	/ h)t /, /hu /, / h : /
41.	(t)	match, church	/ məet /, / t ʃə: t ʃ /
42.	(dɜ)	jump, June	/ dɜmp /, /dɜu :n /
43.	(w)	one, well, was	/ w ʌn /, / wel /, / w)s /
44.	(j)	yest, yet	/ jes / , / jet /

When two constants are spoken together, we have a consonant cluster. A few examples of constant clusters are :

Cluster Sound	Examples
St	Storm, strike, street, still, student
tr	tree, trend, trust, true, traffic
pr	prose, press, proud, prove, print
gr	green, grass, graph, grind, great
Sk	sky, skin, skill,
Sl	slow, slate, sleep

THE ORGANS AND MECHANISM OF SPEECH

We cannot speak unless air passes through the throat and mouth or nose. The lungs act as bellows, forcing the air through the throat, ready for the action of the other organs of speech upon it. Sounds are made correctly by proper breathing. The motive power behind breathing is the diaphragm, a powerful muscle which stretches across the body, below the lungs and above the waist. It is necessary to remember that it is the action of this muscle which causes breathing. As we breathe in, the diaphragm straightens out horizontally. When we breath out, the diaphragm becomes dome – shaped, with the dome pressing upwards into the thorat and making the lung cavity smaller, thus forcing the air out of the lungs.

Air leaves the lungs through the wind pipe and ascends the throat. Just behind the hard cartilage, which can be seen and felt at the front of the throat, is the larynx . The front protruding part of the larynx is called in Adam 's Apple. When the larynx are situated two vocal cords acoss the top of the wind pipe.

The vocal cords resemble two lips, and they can be brought close together and placed edge to edge in the middle of the air passage or be drawn apart, leaving a wide opening between them. When the vocal cords are drawn acorss and air passes between them, they vibrate and make a sound. The cords vibrate, when we say any of the vowels and some of the consonants, e.g., the sounds of 'v' th' in (then) , T, 'a', ' b', ' z ' in (these). Noo vibration is felt, when we utter such sounds as ' f ' ' th ' in (thin) ' t ' ' p ', ' s ' in (this).

After passing through the larynx the air reaches the cavity behind the back of the tongue called the pharynx. Here the air can be directed either through the mouth or through the nose by way of the nasal cavity, or both ways. This directing is done by the soft palate which is like a curtain hanging down from the roof of the mouth into the pharynx. You can see it , if you look on the tongue.

in a mirror. When the soft plate is retracted or drawn up, the nasal passage is closed off and the air escapes entirely through the mouth. If the soft palate hands down or is lax, and if there is also a complete obstruction somewhere in the mouth passage, the air escapes through the nose. There are only three sounds in English which are made with the nasal cavity open. These sounds are ; ' m ' ' n' and 'ng ' (in singing).

As the air passes through the mouth, it can be obstructed in a number of ways, each way producing a characteristic sound.

The tongue is the chief articulating organ in most of the speech sounds, particularly the consonants. By giving the tongue different shapes, by raising or lowering different parts of it, we can modify the air passage, and thus produce many different sounds. It is usual to speak of the tongue as being divided for speaking into five parts ; the Tip, the Blade, the Front, the Middle and the Back. The tongue can be moved about the affect the qualify of the sound. air can be obstructed by the combined action of different parts of the tongue and severally , the soft palate, the hard palate, the hard ridge just behind the upper teeth called the teeth ridge, and the upper teeth.

Lastly, there are the lips – the upper lip and the lower lip. Sounds are also made with the lower lip against the upper teeth, and with the two lips acting together.

The lips function in four important position :

(a) They are spread, as in the vowel sound in ' seen '.

(b) They are neutral, as in the vowel sound in ' far'.

(c) They are rounded (open) , as in the vowel sound in ' hot '.

(d) They are rounded (close) , as in the vowel sound in ' moon '.

If a sound is to be heard properly, a decisive action of the sound ogans concerned must be made. If the action is made in a slovenly way, the sound will be indistinct. The lips and the tongue are often offenders in this way, and it is necessary to give drill in the use (and non use) of the vocal cords.

With these few tools, man is able to produce the whole colourful range of sounds used in human speech.

THE CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS

The sounds which the organs of speech are capable of making may be classified into two major divisions as , (aa) Vowels, and (b) Consonants.

(a) Vowels ; In the words of P. Christopherson, " Vowels may be defined as voiced sounds in the production of which there is no obstruction, partial or complete, of the air passage". The sounds is, however, altered to make different vowels by a variation in the position of the tongue or a variation in the state of the lips.

(b) Consonants : In the words of Christopherson, a constant may be defined as a sound " in which the movement of air from the lungs is obstructed as a result of a narrowing or a complete closure of the air passage ". Consonants include all breathed sounds, certain voiced sounds, accompanied by a frictional noise and certain sounds which are ' gliding '.

SIMPLIFIED ESCRIPTION OF ENGLISH SPEECH SOUNDS

1. PURE VOWELS

in Fig. 1 below, English pure vowels have been shown in the conventional vowel diagram,

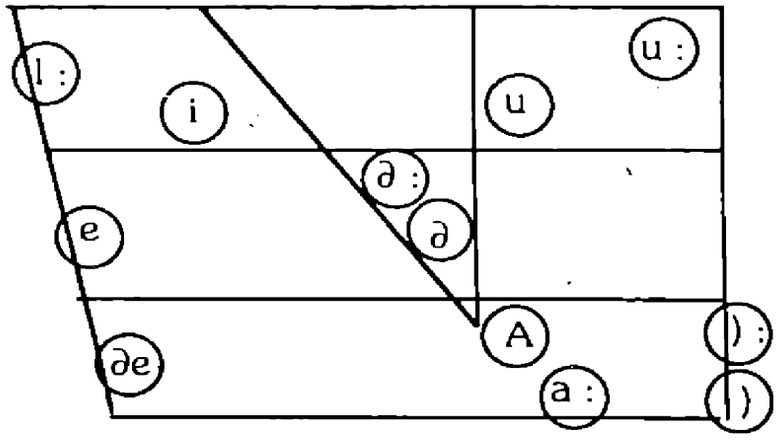


Figure : 1 English pure vowels in the Vowel Diagram.

BRIEF DESCRIPTION

Thus we may describe the twelve pure vowels of English as under:

Vowel No.	Symbol	Description
1.	(i;)	Clsoe, front, unrounded long vowel.
2.	(i)	half close, front, unrounded short vowel.
3.	(e)	Mid half – open and half – close, front, unrounded short vowel.
4.	(œ)	Mid open and half open, front, unrounded, short vowel.
5.	(a:)	Open, back, unrounded long vowel.
6.	(c)	open, back, rounded, short vowel.
7.	(c:)	half – open, back, rounded, long vowel.
8.	(u)	Half – close, back, rounded, short vowel.

9.	(u :)	Close, back, rounded, long vowel.
10.	(▲)	Half – open, central, unrounded short vowel.
11.	(ə:)	Midhalf – close and half – open, central, unrounded, long vowel.
12.	(ə)	Mid half – close and half – open, central, unrounded, short vowel.

PURE VOWEL PRACTICE

The pupils are advised to practise the above vowel sounds in words given in front of each vowel below.

(i:) Meet, bleed, deal, beat, knead eve ; machine ; field, chief ; niece; receive deceit ; key ; people ; quay.

(i) Fit, rich, bid, link ; prétty ; busy ; symbol ; women ; examine ; matches, build.

(e) Ten, men, bed, peg, beg, neck ; dead, heaven, father, bread ; leopared ; any ; said ; friend ; bury.

(æ) Man, sat, can, that, salmon, sad, pat, track, lap, lad, flat, lack, bad, pack ; plait.

(a:) Father, card, arm, dark, father, rather, dance, command, demand, calf, staff ; heart ; clerk ; laugh.

(c) Not, on, doll, hop ; wander, wasp, swant ; squash, quarrel, squander. The combination / au / sometimes is also pronounced as / c / as in austere, because sausage, fault.

(c:) Sport, sword ; soar, board, hoarse broad ; pour, court ; door, floor ; all fall, talk, walk, warm, warp, swarm, law, draw, pawn ; caught, taught, bought, fought.

(u) Crook, took, look ; foot, good, wool ; could, should, would ; put, pull, full, push, bush ; cushinon ; pulpit ; wolf, bosom, woman ;

(u:) boot, hoot, loot, moot, pool, spoon ; group, soup, you, through, shoe, cano ; do, who ; two ; crude, rude, rule blue clue, true ; fruit, jucie ; few , blew, new, chew, view, beauty ; music, tube, produce.

(▲) Cover, come, some, other, mother, brother, money, worry, rough, enough, tough, touch, trouble, young.

(ə:) Mercy, shirt, bird, firm word, work, world, worm, worse, worship, worth ; earn , learn, Earl, pearl, earth ; search, deaarth, reherarse, courteous, journal, journey, colonel.

TABLE – 1

ENGLISH PURE VOWELS AT A GLANCE

S. No.	Vowel Symbol	Part of the tongue that rises	Height to which the tongue is raised	Position of the lips	Opening between the laws
1.	i :	Front	Close	Unrounded	Slight opening
2.	i	Front	A bit above half close	Unrounded	Narrow to medium
3.	e	Front	Mid -way to half open and open	Unrounded	Medium
4.	œ	Front	Mid - way to half open and half close	Unrounded	Medium to wide
5.	a :	Nearly back	Open	Unrounded	Wide
6.	)	Back	Open	Rounded	Medium to wide
7.	) :	Back	Half - open	Rounded	Medium to fairly wide
8.	u	Back	Half - open	Rounded	Medium
9.	u :	Back	Close	Rounded	Narrow
10.	Δ	Nearly Central	Below half - open	Unrounded	Wide
11.	∂:	Central	Mid half - close and half - open	Unrounded	Narrowest
12.	∂	Central half close	Mid half - open and	Unrounded	Medium

(ə) Above, abroad, apart, abused, attack : subdue, success, supress ; commit, compel, to come, the book, miracle, coloured ; cup - board, method, madam, numberless, after, number, picture, actor, doctor, beggar, regular, honour, labour.

DIPHTHONGS

(A) What is a Diphthong "

The word " Diphthong " has been derived from Greek and means " double sound " So, diphthong is a combination of two pure vowel sounds. It begins as one vowel sound and ends as another. That is why it is represented phonetically be sequence of two letters, the first showing the starting point and the second indicating the direction of movement. (ei) in day, (ai) in high (au) in house etc. are examples of diphthongs. Inthe word high, for example, we pronounce the vowel sound, beginning with our mouth fairly open. Subsequently, it shuts more and more. It begins with a position somewhere between those for vowel No. 4 (æ) and No.5 (a :) and it ends with a position near that for vowel No. 2 (i)

A diphthong, therefore, beheaves like a pure vowel in that it belongs to one syllable only. If differs from a pure vowel in that its quality gradually changes from that of one vowel towards that of another.

(B) Classification

There are atleast eight diphthongs in English and we may divide them into various groups. The diphthongs may be classified into two main categories.

1. CLOSING : The movement of the tongue is upward towards the closer position. Closing diphthongs may be further divided into two - sub classes as follows :

(i) Narrow : (ei) as in gay, pay, day.

(ou) as in go, no, slow

In this case the movement from one vowel sound to the other is comparatively less.

(ii) Wide : (ai) as in high, try , my

(au) as in now, how, house

(i) as in toy, joy, boy

In this case the movement from one vowel sound to the other is greater than that in the previous case.

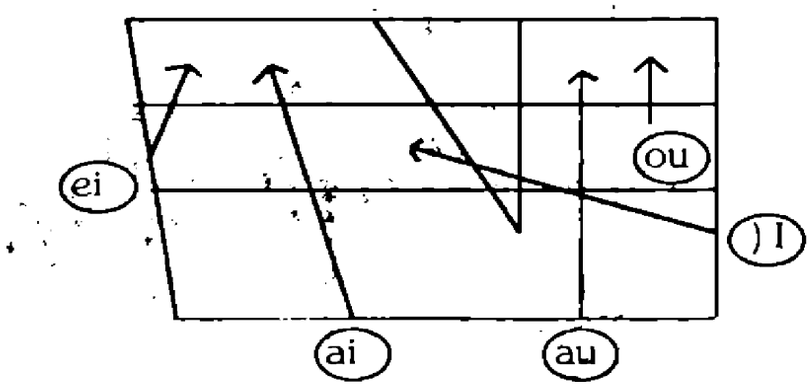
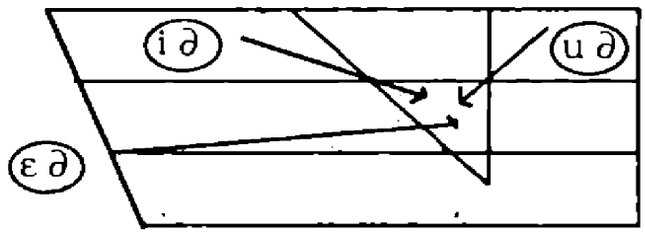


Fig. 2 Closing Dipthongs of English

Fig. 3 Centering Dipthongs of English



II. CENTERING : The movement of the tongue is inwards, towards the centre of the mouth.

(iə) as in clear, mere, here

(΄Σə) as in fair, pair, bare

(uə) as in poor, tour

(c) Brief Description of Diphthongs :

Diphthongs may be described in the following manner.

Diphthong	Description
(ei)	Closing, narrow, unrounded diphthong. Glide is to (i) position.
(ou)	Closing, narrow, unrounded when the sound begins. Glide is to (u) position, rounded ending for the diphthong.
(ai)	Closing, wide, unrounded diphthong. Glide is to (i) position.
(au)	Closing, wide, unrounded when the sound begins. Glide is to (u) position, a rounded ending for the diphthong.
(i)	Closing, wide, rounded when the sound begins. Glide is to (i) position, an unrounded ending for the diphthong.

ENGLISH DIHTHONGS AT A GLANCE

S. No.	Phonetic Symbol	Closing or Centering	Narrow or wide	Position of the lips	Opening between the laws
13.	ei	Closing	Narrow	Unrounded	Medium at the start, becomes narrow to wards the end.
14.	ou	Closing	Narrow	Unrounded in thebegin ing ; slight rounding to wards the end.	Medium at the start,be come narrow towards the end.
15.	ai	Closing	Wide	Unrounded	Decreases during the production of the sound
16.	au	Closing	Wide	Unrounded in the begin ing ; slight rounding to wards the end	Wide at the start ; decreased towards the end
17.	) i	Closing	Wide	Slight rounding in the beginning ; unrounded towards the end.	Same as in No. 15 and 16
18.	iə	Centering	–	Unrounded	Less in the beginning ; increases during the production
19.	Σə	Centering	–	Unrounded	Fairly wide
20.	uə	Centering	–	Moderately rounded at the start, unrounded at the end.	Less the beginning in creases towards the end

(iə) Centring, unrounded dipthtohong, Glide is to (ə) posi tion, the centre of the mouth.

(Σə) Centring unrouded diphtong. Glide is to (ə) position, the centre of the mouth.

(uə) Centring and rounded when the sound begins. Guide is to (ə) position, an unrounded ending for the dipth thong in the centre of the mouth.

DIPHTHONG PRACTICE

The students are advise to practise the above diphthongal sounds in words in front of each diphthong below.

(ei) Safe, same, bathe, face, flame, pale, waste, change ; day, pay; tail, wait ; compaign, straight ; grey ; eight ; break, great ; ballet, bouquet.

(ou) Go, so, no ; foe, roe ; hole, rose, spoke, wrote, nouse ; oat; loan; own, slow ; soul ; poultry ; though ; depot.

(ai) Child, bind, kind ; die, tie ; by, shy, try ; bride, slide, dine, shine; high, right ; height, eye, buy.

(aə) Town, crowd, allow, how, now ; mouse, sound, fountain, loud, out, thou ; bough, plough, drought.

(əi) oil, spoil, boil, voice, choice, rejoice, coin ; destroy, employ, toy.

(iə) here, mere, severe ; ear, hear, gear ; queer, steer, engineer; froontier brigadier.

(Σə) Care, mare, dare, share, hare ; air, pair, chair, fair ; ere, there; aerodrome.

(uə) Poor ; tour, your ; cure, endure, curious, purity, fury.

ENGLISH CONSONANTS

(A) Classification :

Consonants may be classified :

1. According to the organs which articulate them ;
2. According to the manner in which the organs articulate them ; and
3. According to the state of vocal cords.

TABLE – 3

ENGLISH CONSONANTS AT A GLANCE

Mode of formation	Place of formation	Bi – Labial		Labic – dental		Dental		Alveolar		Palato alveolar		Palatal		Velar		Glottal	
		Vl[1]	V[2]	Vl	V	Vl	Vl	Vl	V	Vl	V	Vl	V	Vl	V	Vl	V
Plosive		p	b					t	d					k	g		
Fricative				f	v	ϕ	Ò	s	z,r	ʃ	ʒ					h	–
Nasals		–	m						n					– n			
Affricates										t ʃ	d_3						
Lateral								–	1								
Semi – vowel		–	w										j				

1. Voice – Less (Vl) 2. Voice (V)

Note : A consonant may be named by combining the horizontal column (left to right) with that in the vertical one (top to bottom) For example (p) would be named – ' Bi – Labial voiceless plosive ".

(1) According to the Organs which articulate them :

Under this classification we distinguish seven main classes :

(i) Labial – or lip sounds, which may by sub – divided as : Bi – libial, namely sounds articulated by the two lips.

Examples : p.m.

Labio – dental , namely sounds articulated by the lower lip against the upper teeth.

Examples : f, v

(ii) Dental – sounds articulated the tip of the tongue against the upper teeth.

Examples ; θ, ∂

(iii) Alveolar – sounds articulated by the tip or blade of the tongue and the teeth ridge.

Examples : t , d , n , s , z , i.

(iv) Palato – Alveolar – sounds which have adveolar articulation together with a simultaneous raising of the main body of the tongue towards the roof of the mouth.

Examples : ʃ, ɜ t, ʃ, d, ɜ

(v) Palatal – sounds articulated by the front of the tongue against the hard plate.

Example ; j.

(vi) Velar – sounds articulated by the back of the tongue against the soft plate.

Examples : k, g, ∂

(vii) Glottal – sounds articulated in the glottis.

2. According to the manner in which the organs articulate them :

Under this classification, we distinguish six main classes :

(i) Plosive – formed by completely closing the air passage and suddenly removing the obstacle, allowing the air to escape making an explosive sound. Examples : p, b, t, d, k,g.

(ii) Affricate – resembling a plosive but with separation of the articulating organs performed less quickly during the process of separation.

Examples : t ʃ , d ɜ

(iii) Fricative – formed by a narrowing of the air passage at some point so that the air while escaping makes a kind of hissing or buzzing sound. Examples :

(iv) Nasals – formed by completely closing the mouth at some point, the soft palate remaining lowered so that the air is free to pass out through nose, Examples : m,n.

(v) Lateral – formed by an obstacle in the middle of the mouth, the air being free to escape at one or both sides. Example : l.

(vi) Semi – Vowles – a gliding sound in which the speech organs start at or near a close vowel and immediately move away to some other vowel. Examples : w , j.

3. According to the State Vocal Cords :

During the production of the sounds, the vocal cords may vibrate or may not vibrate. When the vocal cords vibrate , we have a Voiced sound ; when the vocal cords do not vibrate, we have a Voiceless sound.

For Example :

Voiceless : p, t, k , f, s, ʃ , ɸ, t ʃ

Voiced : b, d, g, v, z, ʒ ð, m, n, l, r, d ʒ

WORK SHEET

Activity –1

Classify the sounds of English and prepare a vowel chart and a consonant chart followed by examples which are not present in this lesson. (We mean, give your own illustrations)

Activity –2

Identify the difficulties of your pupils in learning English speech.

Activity – 3

Plan a remedial lesson to help the above students in overcoming their difficulties.

Activity – 4

Write a few exercises to train pupils in producing English Diphtong sounds.

SELF – CHECK

below are given four possible answers to each question. Tick mark (√) the one you feel is correct.

1. Speech sound is got corrected by

   (a) listening to correct speech.

   (b) practice in speech and oral drill.

   (c) correction of the pupil's speech.

   (iv) the model given by the teacher.

2. In teaching spoken English to foreign learners we must
   (a) avoid the vernacular influence
   (b) use the vernacular sound
   (c) modify the vernacular sound
   (d) make them speak English in the vernacular way.

3. While teaching spoken English we must teach
   (a) colloquial English
   (b) conversational English
   (c) slang usage
   (d) literary English

4. The light way to learn pronunication is through
   (a) phonetics
   (b) listening
   (c) speech
   (d) transcription.

5. RP is the English spoken by the educated native speaker of
   (a) Northern England
   (b) Eastern England
   (c) Western England
   (d) Southern England.

KEY :

(1) b (2) a (3) b (4) c (5) d

LESSON - 25

FEATURES OF CONNECTED SPEECH

OBJECTIVES

After reading the capsule readers are expected to realise the following objectives :

(I) list the features of connected speech.

(ii) defind, stress, accent and intonation.

(iii) illustrate the various situation for the use of raising and falling intonations.

(iv) transcribe a given passage in the phoneic script.

(v) speak English correctly.

ACTIVITIES

(i) Reading of learning material.

(ii) Reading of

- O'Connor, J.D. Better English prounciation, London : ELBS & Cambridge University Press, 1970.

(iii) Completion of worksheet and self - check.

LEARNING ACTIVITY

WORD ACCENT

1. An important feature of spoken English is word accent. If a word has more than one syllable, one of the syllables stands out from the rest. For example, in the word table / 'teibl /, the first syllable / tei / is more prominent than the second syllable / bl /. Similarly, in the word committee/ kə 'miti / the second syllable / mi / is more prominent than the others. Taking another example, in the word examination / ig zæmi'nei U n / the fourth syllable / nei / is more prominent than the others. The syallble that is more prominent than the others is said to receive the accent.

The relative prominence of a syllable is generally due to stress, that is greater breath force, but every often stress and pitch change work together to make a syllable more prominent.

The syllable on which a pitch movement begins is said to have the primary or tonic accent. Any other prominent syllable is said to have secondary accent. primary accent is marked with a vertical bar above and in front of the syllable to which it refers. Secondary accent s marked with a vertical bar below and in front of the syllable.

For example, in the following disyllabic words, the first syllable receives the accent :

' table	' author
' dentist	' army

In the following disyllabic words, the accent is on the second syllable :

al' ot	a' bout
es' tate	de' light

In the following trisyllabic words, both primary and secondary accents have been marked :

' recti, fy

' edu, cate

' recog, nise

The accentual pattern of English words is fixed, that is the primary accent is always on a particular syllable of a given word.

2. Some examples of word accent are given below :

(a) Disyllabic words.

(i) Accent on the first syllable :

1.	' able	6.	' barber
2.	' after	7.	' beauty
3.	' agent	8.	' beggar
4.	' any	9.	' body
5.	' artist	10.	' building

(ii) Accent on the second syllable.

1.	a ' bout	6.	a ' gree
2.	ad ' mit	7.	ap' point
3.	ad' vance	8.	al ' though
4.	a ' ghast	9.	be 'gin
5.	a ' ge	10.	be ' lief

(b) Tri – syllabic Words

(i) Primary accent on the FIRST Syllable

1.	' advertise	6.	' bitterness
2.	' agency	7.	' citizen
3.	' anything	8.	' company
4.	' article	9.	' customer
5.	' beautiful	10.	' eagerly

(ii) Primary accent on the SECOND syllable

1.	ag 'reement	6.	be ' ginning
2.	a ' nother	7.	con ' nection
3.	ap' pointment	8.	con ' venience
4.	ar' tistic	9.	de ' velop
5.	at ' tention	10.	di ' rection

(iii) Primary accent on the THIRD syllable

1.	after ' noon	4.	, disap ' point
2.	, ciga ' rette	5.	, employ ' ee
3.	, coin ' cide	6.	, recom ' mend

3. Stress Shift

Stress shift is quite normal in derivates. A few example are given below.

photograph	(primary accent	on the 1st syllable)
ph'tographer	(,,	on the 2nd syllable)
,photo'graphic	(,,	on the 3rd syllable.)
in ' ferior	(,,	on the 2nd syllable)
in, feri ' ority	(,, ,,	on the 4th syllable)

4. Accent in Compound Words

By compound words we mean words which are made up of two words. Normally the two words are written as one word, with or without a hyphen.

Most compound words have the primary accent on the first element.

' apple – tree	' hairbrush
' bookbinding	' midnight
' daybreak	' pickpocket

There are, however, a few compound words which have the accent on the second element. They are mostly compounds with – ever and – self. A few examples are :

When ' ever	her ' self
how ' ever	them ' selves
him ' self	

Sometimes , both elements are accented, but the primary or tonic accent is on the second element. In the following examples the tonic accent is shown by an oblique bar pointing downwards and the pre – tonic accept by a vertical bar.

' after noon	' abd – tempered
' red – hot	' absent – minded
' good – looking	' home – made
' old – fashioned	' second – hand

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

5. Strees Change According to Function

There are a number of disyllabic words in English in which the accentual pattern depends upon whether the word is used as a noun or adjective, or as a verb. The accent is one of the first syllabic if the word is a noun or adjective and on the second if it is a verb. Some examples are :

Noun / adjective	Verb
' conduct	con'duct
' contrast	con'trast
' digest	di'gest
' import	im'port
' object	ob'ject

6. Word Accents in Indian English

In Indian English the patterns of word accent are not well organised. For example, most Indians tend to pronounce words like object, subject, etc., with the accent on the first syllable, irrespective of whether the words are used as nouns, adjectives or verbs. Also, many Indians misplace the accent in other English words and this is one of the reasons for the unintelligibility of Indian English. It is necessary, therefore, to acquire the correct accentual patterns. Any good dictionary will help a learner find the correct accentual patterns.

7. Roles for Accentual Patterns

A few helpful rules are given below :

(1) Words with weak prefixes are accented on the root.

A few examles are :

a'broad	be'come
a'cross	be'neath
a'head	
a' lone	

(2) The inflexional suffixes -eg, -ing, -ed and derivational suffixes - age - ance, -on, -er, -ess, -ful, -hood, -ice, -ish, -ive, -less, -ly - ment, -ness, -or, -ship, -ter, -use, -y and - zen do not normally affect the accent.

A few examples are :

1.	' village	' villages
2.	be'gin	be'ginning
3.	ap'pear	ap'peared
4.	a'ppear	ap'pearance
5.	'actor	'actress

(3) Words ending in – ion have the primary accent on the penultimate syllable. For example :

, appli'cation

ex, amination

de,termi'nation

,qualifi'cation.

(4) Words ending in – ic, – ical, – ically, – ious, – ial, – ially have the primary accent on the syllable proceeding the suffex. e.g.

1. a, polo'getic
2. ,sympa'thetic
3. e'lectrical
4. me'chanically
5. , cere, monious
6. , confidential
7. , confi' dentially

(5) Words ending in – ity, have the primary accent on the ante – penultimate syallable, the third syllable from the end e.g.

, elec'tricity

, gene' rosity

(6) The sufffixes – al and – ally, normally affect the accentual pattern, e.g.

' accident	, acci' dential
' origin	o' riginal

ACCENT AND RHYTHM IN CONNECTED SPEECH

it was pointed out already that in pronouncing a word of more than one syallble, one of they syallbales stands out from the rest, and that we call this syallbel

the accented syllable. In connected speech, too, (i.e., in an utterance consisting of more than one word) some syllables stand out from the rest.

Look at the following examples :

(i) A ' good ' book.

(ii) ' Help me,

In the fist utterance there are three words, of one syllable each : the second and the third are stressed, whereas the first (the article a) is unstressed. In the second sentence, which is made up of two words of one syllable each, the first is stressed and the second unstressed.

As a general rule we can say that we stress those words in connected speech that are importance for meaning. They are generally content words rounds, demonstrative ind interrogative pronouns, principal verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. Structural words – articles, personal and relative pronouns, auxiliery verbs, propositions, and conjunctions - are normally not stressed. Consider the following sentences :

1. ' John ' friend ' Tom ' has ' just re' turned from a ' trip a ' broad.
2. It would have been ' better not to have ' taken it ' seriously.

Sentence I has ten words, seven of which are stressed. Sentence 2 has eleven words and here only three words are stressed. Note that if the word to be stressed has more than one syllable, generally only one of the syllables is stressed. It is the syllable that is stressed when the word is said in isolation.

The most important point to remember is that in English speech stressed syllables tend to occur at regular intervals of time. Thus in sentence No. 1 above, the time intervals between the beginning of the stressed syllables John's friend, Tom, Just turned (of the word returned), trip and broad (of the word abroad) will be approximately the same. Again in the second sentence, the time intervals between the beginning of the stressed syllables bet (or better) ta (of taken) and se (of seriously) will be approximately the same, even though there are more unstressed syllables between the stressed syllables in the second sentence. In speech, the stressed syllables are pronuounced carefully and the unstressed ones are crowded together between the stressed syllables that gives English its characteristic rhythm. If this feature is neglected, i.e., if the unstressed syllables are given more time than is due to them, the characteristic rhythm of English is lost and this results in the speech sounding un – English.

This brings us to another important aspect of English rhythm, viz., weak forms. Since stressed syilables tend to recur at regular intervals unstressed syllables which occur between the stressed syllables tend to become reduced. For example, the word ' and ' is pronounced / x and / in isolation, but in connected speech, it is reduced to / ə nd / or / ə n / or / n / We hear people say

/ ' b Δ ∂ter n d3cm / (butter and jam) and

/ ' bred n b Δ t ∂ / (bread and butter)

Similarly ϕ m /Λ m / is reduced to / ∂ m / or / m / and people say / aim k Δmi ∂ / (I'm coming). This reduction of unstressed syllables is most marked in informal speech. Indian speakers tend to retain the full pronunciation of these words and this results in their ryhthm going wrong.

When we hear soemone speaking, we realise that he does not always speak on the same note. We hear constant variations in the level at which his voice is pitched. Sometimes the pitch rises, sometimes it falls, and at other times it remains level, high or low. The patterns of variation of the pitch of the voice constitute the intonation of a language. It is important to note that intonation atterns vary from one language to another.

2. Intonation is an important feature in spoken language. It indicates

(a) the type of utterance said by the speaker (i.e. whether it is a question or a statement, a command, or a request)

(b) the attitude of the speaker.

Intonation can be used with great subloty. At times intonation conveys some information that one can't find in the word employed by the speaker. For example, if a person says, " he's very intelligent " with a falling intonation, he means exactly that. If, on the other hand, he says the same sentence with a falling rising intonation, he may mean that though the man in question is intelligent ,there is something else that undersirable about him.

THE FALLING TONE

The falling tone is used in –

(a) Ordinary statement made without any implication e.g.,

(1) I'm going

(2) I shall' see you this evening.

(3) ' Glad to meet you

(4) My ' house is a ' long way from, here

(5) She can' sing well.

(b) Questions beginning with a question – word, such as what, how, when, etc., when said in a noutral way :

(1) ' What's your name ?
(2) ' How's your father "
(3) ' When did you core ?
(4) ' Where're you going ?
(5) ' Which is yours ?

(c) In commands :

(1) ' Go and post it.
(2) ' Do it to morrow.
(3) ' Go a way.
(4) ' Don't jump to con clusions.

(d) In exclamations

(1) ' How an noying !
(2) ' What' lovely roses !

The Rising Tone

The rising tone is used

(a) In incomplete utterances, often the first clause of a sentence. Consider the following examples :

Luckily, / the ' snake ' didn't / bite anyone
If I go there , / I ' ll' buy you a dress
Its 's nine in the morning, ' and the ' milkman hasn't come yet.
' When I went there. / it was dark.

(b) In questions which demand and answer ' yes ' or ' no ' Consider these examples :

' Can you come ?
' Are you there?
' Haven't you, seen it yet ?
Is father at, home?

(c) In wh – question which are said in a warm, friendly way. Look at these examples :

' What 's the time ?
' What 's the matter ?
' How 's your head – ache ?
' When are you going ?
' Why did you go there ?

(d) In polite requests or encouraging invitations. See the following examples :

' Do sit down

' Come here

' Could I ' borrow your newspaper ?

' Please ' shut the door.

The falling – rising tone

The use of this tone involves a moderately high to low fall, followed by a rise in the pitch from low to medium. The falling - rising tone is used for special implication not verbally expressed. For example, when we say

' She ' s clever

with a falling tone, we mean precisely that. But when we say the same sentence with a falling – rising tone imply some

' She 's cleaver

thing. We may mean " She is clever but is not dependable. " Similarly, when a teacher says to a school boy

' Your ' essay is good

he may imply something like " through your essay is good, it is not interesting. " Here are a few more examples of the use of the falling – rising tone :

I ' saw you at the cinema. (even though you had said you 'd be at home)

The coffee was, good. (but the service was poor) This ' school has ' fine building. (but the discipline is not good).

She 's ' very beautiful. (but is not well – educated)

I ' haven 't much appetite. (but I ' II give you company at dinner)

I' m waiting. (so hurry up, please).

The intelligibility of Indian English and Suggestions for Improvement.

Many native speakers of English observe that Indian English is some times not intelligible to them. It is a fact that Indian English is not always intelligible to British listeners. The main reasons for this can be listed as follows :

1. Faculty pronunciation of the sounds of English, or replacement of Enlglish sounds by their indian equivalents :
2. Wrong accentual patterns :

3. Leaving important words unaccented in connected speech ;
4. Faulty rhythmic patterns ;
5. Faulty division of a long utterance into tone groups ;
6. Wrong location of the nucleus or the tonic syllable in a tone group.

Here , are some suggestions for the improvement of Indian English, in order to make it internationally intelligible.

(a) The correct pattern of English word accent should be maintained.

(b) The correct patterns of sentence stress and rhythm should be main tained.

(c) The consonants / ɸ, ð,v,w / should be acquired.

(d) The consonants should be clearly articulated.

(e) English vowels and diphthongs must be given correct length. If /e:/ and o: are used in place of /ei/and/ u/ respectively, they should be sufficiently long.

(f) The voiceless plosives / p.t.k/ should be aspirated at the beginning of accented syllables.

(g) The reading of a set text should be done carefully with proper grouping of words.

(h) The correct distribution /s/ and /z/ in inflectional suffixes should be maintained.

(i) The correct distribution of English vowels and consonants should be learnt by the constant use of a pronouncing dictionary.

WORK SHEET

Activity – 1

Illustrate the use of weak forms in different situations.

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.....

Activity – 2

Illustrate and practice the use of rising intonation and falling intonation in English.

.....

.....

.....

.....

Activity – 4

Suggest measures to make Indian English more intelligible to the native speakers of English.

SELF – CHECK

Write against each of the following statement T if the statement is true and F, if it is false,

(i) A word may have many syllables and a syllable may have many sounds

(ii) By changing the intonation the speaker can change the meaning of the sentence.

(iii) Stress is used only in words.

(iv) Word stress is the strees word has in a sentence.

(v) The same phonetic symbol is used for different sounds.

(vi) The vowels are produced by the obstruction of the air stream.

(vii) By changing the stress the meaning of the words can be changed.

(viii) R.P. is the only correct form of English speech.

(ix) Auxilary verbs are pronuned in more than one way.

(x) In sentence transcription all content words are stressed.

:Y

(i)	T	(ii)	T	(iii)	F	(iv)	F	(v)	F
(vii)	F	(vii)	T	(viii)	F	(ix)	T	(x)	T