



ENGLISH

CENTRE FOR OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

MEG 204: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

BLOCK I

CENTRE FOR OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

TEZPUR UNIVERSITY (A CENTRAL UNIVERSITY)

TEZPUR, ASSAM -784028

INDIA

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Mission

To provide quality higher education at door step through barrierless, flexible and open learning mode in conformity with national priority and societal need.

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- To offer degree, diploma, certificate level programme of study through distance learning in various emerging subjects across the disciplines.
- To offer job oriented and vocational programmes in flexible terms in the line of the national and regional level demand of manpower.
- To offer various programmes under lifelong learning contributing to the local and regional level requirements and as per the need of the society at large.
- To undertake various research and academic activities for furtherance of distance education in the region.
- To contribute to conserve and promote cultural heritage, literature, traditional knowledge and environment conducting short programmes, workshops, seminars and research in interdisciplinary field.

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BLOCK I

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UNIT 1: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

UNIT 2: DIFFERENT APPROACHES AND METHODOLOGIES INCLUDING CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

UNIT 3: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS AND LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS

MODULE II: HISTORY OF ELT IN INDIA

UNIT 4: HISTORY OF ENGLISH EDUCATION BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

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COURSE INTRODUCTION

BLOCK I

MEG-204: English Language Teaching is designed to familiarize learners with the basic concepts of English Language Teaching and the current practices of Language teaching. This course is divided into two Blocks for the benefit of the learners.

Block I is consist of two Modules. **Module I** entitled **Understanding Language** has three units in it.

Unit 1: Theoretical perspectives on language acquisition and language teaching will introduce to some of the basic concepts in language study, including the relationship between language, society and culture. Learners will also be introduced to some of the fundamental and basic concepts in English Language Teaching and provided some insight into the theoretical perspectives on language acquisition and teaching

Unit 2 is called *Different Approaches and Methodologies including current developments*. In this unit, learners will be introduced to the major approaches and methodologies of English Language Teaching and Language Acquisition. It was also present a general understanding on the learner's perspective of language learning and acquisition. Learners will also be introduced to some of the current developments in the area of English Language Teaching and Learning. The unit will try to provide insight, for the further understanding in the area.

Unit 3 Language systems and learners' linguistic problems shall discuss the language systems as well as the basic language skills required to be taught to the ESL/EFL learners, and the problems faced by the learners. It will give you idea about what comprise language systems and learners' linguistic problems in the language learning context.

Module II: History of ELT in India has two units in it.

Unit 4: History of English Education before Independence deals with the historical developments leading to the introduction of English language in India. This unit will also provide you missionaries' policy of imparting education of English in India and different British policies related to English Education along with a critique the development of English education in India during the British Rule.

Unit 5: English Education in post-independent and present India will not only present a good knowledge about the status of English and its education in the post-independent period in India, but also explain the present status of English teaching and learning in Contemporary India. Further, this unit will let you know about different Commissions and reports in India that led to the development of English education

MODULE I: UNDERSTANDING LANGUAGE

UNIT 1: THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES ON LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 1.0 Introduction: Language
- 1.1 Learning Objectives
- 1.2 Language, Society and Culture
- 1.3 English Language Teaching: An Overview
 - 1.3.1 The Grammar-Translation Method
 - 1.3.2 The Reform Movement
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1.0 INTRODUCTION: LANGUAGE

Human beings are constantly engaged in communicating with others right from the time of their birth. Communication can take place in many forms: written, oral or gestural. It is commonly noted that speech is primary, whereas writing is secondary. In other words, speech comes first and writing systems developed subsequently. Language, as we all know, is a system of human communication, used across the globe, in either written or spoken form, comprising of words that are used in a structured manner. It is a system that relates sounds or gestures to meaning. The systematic study of language is

called *linguistics*. We use language for purposes of communication – we communicate with our friends, parents, siblings, peers, neighbours, teachers, associates, etc. We also talk to our pets and dogs, and sometimes even to ourselves. Without language, it is difficult for us to express our feelings, emotions and inner thoughts to others. There are approximately 6000-7000 languages in the world today and the majority of them are spoken; many languages have no written forms till date.

Human language is complex, and this complex structure of human language makes it possible for a wide range of expressions than any other communication system. Humans acquire language basically by interacting with the society in which they live in. Therefore, apart from its communicative function, language can also have many other social and cultural uses. Languages develop, spread and change over time; and it is the most important tool for the transmission of cultures, histories, folklores and other forms of human knowledge.

1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

In this unit, learners will be introduced to some of the basic concepts in language study, including the relationship between language, society and culture. Learners will also be introduced to some of the fundamental and basic concepts in English Language Teaching and provided some insight into the theoretical perspectives on language acquisition and teaching.

1.2 LANGUAGE, SOCIETY AND CULTURE

In this section, we shall endeavour to look into various aspects of language, society and culture and also the interrelationships between these terminologies. We have already

discussed before what language is. Now, we shall briefly look into the concept of society and culture and how language shapes our culture and the society in which we live in. Language is first and foremost a powerful tool for purposes of communication. It is an integral part of being human. Language is seen as an “open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal”; it acknowledges the rich complexities of communication (Shohamy, 2007:5). Language is used in society, and is spoken by its members. Therefore, we need to study language in relation to society. A society consists of a group of individuals or people who live together in communities, and share the similar customs, beliefs, laws and practices. So, in order to live and communicate with them, the ability to use language appropriately becomes essential. Language cannot develop and exist outside the domain of society as they are complementary to each other. The study of the relationship between language and society is called *Sociolinguistics*.

Sociolinguistics is a platform where linguists and social scientists meet and discuss various issues pertaining to language and society. Among other things, they also examine the variable nature of language, where they believe that “language is not static, but a dynamic entity.” In other words, language is subject to change with time. Variation may also occur due to several factors such as geographical boundary, education, age, social class and hierarchy, caste, gender differences, dialectal variation, styles, etc. Language can also vary depending on the situation or the social context. Sociolinguists try to examine these variations in terms of personal, geographical, social and societal reasons. Gumperz (1971) has observed that ‘sociolinguistics’ is an attempt to find correlations between social structure and linguistic structure and to observe any changes that occur. The ‘social context’ is the most important in the domain of sociolinguistics.

India is a multilingual, diverse, heterogeneous country with as many as 1,652 languages being spoken in various parts of the country. Again, there are many dialectal variations too. Despite these variations, there is “unity in diversity.” To give an example, a Bhojpuri speaker based in Guwahati may speak his/her language at home with his/her family members, English at the office, Assamese with colleagues, Hindi with friends, and so on. The point to remember here is that social context may vary and must be observed in its own right. Language is also a marker of identity (individual and group), power, class, status, face, gender, solidarity, and politeness. Noam Chomsky, an influential figure in the late 20th century has made a significant contribution in the field of linguistics. He distinguishes between two concepts called “competence” and “performance”. *Competence* refers to “the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his/her language” and *Performance* refers to “the actual use of language in concrete situations.” His primary goal has always been to offer a description of competence and the innate mechanism underlying it.

Wardhaugh (2006) points out several possible relationships that exist between language and society:

- Social structure may either influence or determine the linguistic structures and/or behaviour, e.g. young children speak differently from adults; their choice of words or ways of speaking differs.
- Linguistic structure and/or behaviour may either influence or determine social structure. This is the view behind Whorfian hypothesis. The structure of a language determines the way in which speakers of that language view the world. According to Benjamin Whorf, a Native American tribe known as the Hopi believed the clouds and stones to be living entities or “animate” objects. Whorf

claims that it is their language that led them to believe this. On the other hand, English grammar does not mark them as “animate”; so English speakers do not view the world as the Hopi. In the words of Whorf, “We dissect nature along the lines laid down by our native languages”.

- Language and society may influence each other. In a Marxist view, put forward by Dittmar (1976), “Speech behaviour and social behaviour are in a state of constant interaction” and “material living conditions” are an important factor in the relationship.

Let us now look into some of the key concepts related to language and society. Languages exist in the form of varieties. Hudson (1996) defines a variety of language as “a set of linguistic items with similar distribution.” Variety is best exemplified in sports commentaries: we often come across commentaries in British, American, South African, and Indian Englishes. So, variety is something greater than a language but lesser than what is referred to as a dialect. Varieties of English may include Cockney English, Oxford English, Standard English, etc. Haugen (1966) has pointed out that language and dialect are ambiguous terminologies. He says that the terms “represent a simple dichotomy in a situation that is almost infinitely complex.” *Dialect* is an aspect of the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation of a variety of language. It can be used both for local varieties of English, e.g. Yorkshire dialect, and for various types of informal, lower-class or rural speech (Wardhaugh, 2006). Social dialects are varieties of language, used by group of individuals, classified according to education, class, age, sex, gender, religion, caste, etc. Dialects are often categorised as inferior and substandard. As Haugen argues, “In general usage it therefore remains quite undefined whether such dialects are part of the ‘language’ or not. In fact, the dialect is often thought of as standing outside the language ... As a social

norm, then, a dialect is a language that is excluded from polite society” (p. 924-5).

Another concept that one must know here is that of standardization. It refers to “the process by which a language has been codified in some way.” The process usually consists of development of grammar and its rules, books, dictionaries, written scriptures, and, more importantly, a literature. Once a language is standardized, it becomes easier and possible to teach it in a comprehensible and deliberate manner. The process is instrumental in unifying individuals and groups within a larger community thereby reflecting and symbolizing some sort of identity, prestige and status. For instance, we have Standard English, French, German, etc. Living languages keep changing, and the process of standardization is an on-going one. Bahasa Indonesia, Swahili, Hindi, Tok Pisin, etc. are still in the process of being standardized.

Once a language dies, it is gone forever. Language death or language extinction occurs when the speakers of that language die out or shift to using another more prestigious language. For example, the French dialects that are spoken in the Channel Islands of Jersey, Guernsey, and Sark are rapidly on the verge of extinction. Koro, a language spoken by a small population in Arunachal Pradesh, is an endangered language. Unlike dead languages, a living language will definitely have speakers who use the language for purposes of communication. According to Prof. Omkar N. Koul, former director of the Central Institute of Indian Languages (CIIL), certain languages face the threat of extinction as they are not used as mediums of instruction in educational institutions, government transactions, and the media. He stresses on the fact that “if a language is not getting sufficient role in these three domains, there is every possibility that it will die. The fate of a number of languages in India is the same as they are neither used for education or governance purpose.” Prof. Koul said the best way to keep a

language alive was to prepare instructional material in that language and make it part of studies. For dialects that do not have scripts, he suggested that the Roman or Devanagari scripts be used.

Let us move on to discuss two important terms called “pidgins” and “creoles”. Now, if a certain group of people speaking different languages are forced into contact with each other, they must find a way or language to communicate -- a *lingua franca*. UNESCO defined *lingua franca* as “a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication between them.” A *pidgin* is a variety of language with no native speakers, and is developed solely for practical purposes such as trade, commerce, etc. It is a contact language and a product of a multilingual setup. Pidginized English used by speakers of different Chinese languages, Bazaar Hindi, Tok Pisin, etc. are examples of *pidgins*. On the other hand, *creole* is a variety of language that is developed from a pidgin and is used as the first language of a new generation of speakers. Holmes (1992) states that “a creole is a pidgin which has expanded in structure and vocabulary to express the range of meanings and serve the range of functions required of a first language” (p. 95). For instance, Haitian Creole is a French-based creole; and Nagamese is a mixture of various Naga languages and Assamese spoken in Nagaland. Tok Pisin and Nigerian Pidgin English probably exist as both pidgins and creoles.

Language is both an individual as well as a social possession. It is an efficient and effective means of transmitting culture from one generation to another. The intrinsic relationship between language and culture has fascinated people across disciplines and from various backgrounds. Here we shall look into how language and culture are related. By culture, we do not mean the appreciation of music, art, literature, etc. Culture here simply means “a socially acquired language” or the basic

knowledge required to function in a particular society. To quote Goodenough's well-known definition (1957): "A society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members, and to do so in any role that they accept for any one of themselves" (p. 167). Culture, therefore, is the "know-how" that a person must possess in order to survive in a society. In the Whorfian view, language provides a screen or filter to reality; it determines how speakers perceive and organize the world around them, both the natural world and the social world. Romaine (1999) states the position as follows: "No particular language or way of speaking has a privileged view of the world as it 'really' is. The world is not simply the way it is but what we make of it through language. The domains of experience that are important to cultures get grammaticalized into languages ... [and] no two languages are sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality." To give an example, the Garos in Northeast India have dozens of words for different types of baskets, rice, and ants. These are important items in their culture. However, they have no single-word equivalent to the English word "ant" (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 225).

Here, one must also look at the cultural meaning and how these meanings are expressed in language. Sometimes some things are not said, and this is not because they cannot be but "people don't talk about those things"; even if they do, they speak about it in a roundabout manner. The former gives us an instance of what we call "linguistic taboo" and the latter presents us with the case of "euphemism," i.e. avoiding the mention of certain things in public directly. Tabooed subjects make us feel embarrassed, and include topics ranging from death, excretion, sex, religious sentiments, etc. Euphemistic words, phrases and expressions allow us to talk about certain unpleasant things, thereby neutralizing the effect. For example, we do not talk of sickness, death, criminal activities, failure, etc.

directly. When we talk of language, culture and society we also need to remember speech. Ethnography is the scientific description of human behaviour in terms of language use. Hymes (1974) has proposed an ethnographic framework regarding factors involving speaking, and uses the word SPEAKING as an acronym. Let us look at these factors:

Setting and Scene (S): Both the setting and scene of speech are important. Setting refers to the particular time and place where speech takes place. Scene refers to the occasion or “the abstract psychological setting” such as the President’s speech on Independence Day.

Participants (P): *Participants* includes the speaker-listener, the addressor-addressee, or the sender-receiver of that particular speech. For instance, in a typical classroom setup the teacher assumes the role of a speaker and the students are the listeners.

Ends (E): *Ends* refers to the expected outcomes of an exchange or speech as well as the personal goals that participants seek to accomplish on particular occasions. For example, an alumni meet serves a certain social end, but each participant may have his/her unique goals of attending the meeting.

Act sequence (A): *Act sequence* refers to the actual form and content of what is being said: the precise words used, how they are used, and the relationship of what is said about the actual topic at hand, e.g. public lectures, casual conversations, etc.

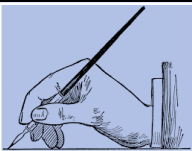
Key (K): *Key* refers to the tone, manner, or the spirit in which a particular message is conveyed: serious, joking, precise, mocking, sarcastic, etc. It may also be marked nonverbally by gesture, postures, facial expressions, etc.

Instrumentalities (I): *Instrumentalities* refers to the choice of channel (e.g., written, oral, or telegraphic) and to the actual forms of speech employed such as the language, dialect, code, or register that is chosen. Legal language is one instrumentality; code-switching between English and Italian in Toronto is another.

Norms of interaction and interpretation (N): It refers to the specific behaviours and properties that is attached to speaking and also to how these may be viewed by someone who does not share them, e.g. loudness, silence, gaze, etc.

Genre (G): *Genre* refers to clearly demarcated types of utterance: poems, proverbs, riddles, sermons, prayers, lectures, and editorials. These are all marked in specific ways in contrast to casual speech.

Thus, “ethnographies” are based on first-hand observations of behaviour in a group of people in their natural setting (Wardhaugh, 2006, p. 247).

	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1. What do you mean by Competence and Performance? ----- ----- ----- 2. Define language variety, dialect, pidgin and creole ----- ----- ----- ----- -----
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1.3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: AN OVERVIEW

English was considered to be a minority language way back in the fifteenth century, as it was spoken by a sizeable population of around two to three million. Moving ahead with time, English language gained momentum and today it is the most widely spoken language in the world. Various developments in language learning theories and teaching

practices have led to the advent of English Language Teaching as a noble and an independent profession. Today, English is seen as an international language and a language for human communication. English Language Teaching or ELT is an important field of *Applied Linguistics*, concerned with the teaching of English in general and Language in particular. To keep pace with the age of LPG (Liberalization, Privatization and Globalization), the importance of learning English cannot be overlooked. English is a dominant language for global communication and it plays a significant role in every walk of life – be it education, business, administration, judiciary, trade and commerce, mass media, politics, sports commentaries, science and technology, talk shows, etc. English is the lingua franca and the official language in India. Colonization has had a profound impact on the role of English education in the country. English is the medium of instruction at the higher level of education and is also the library language. English is also seen as the language of Information Technology; knowing English not only brings in job opportunities to the doorsteps but also opens up new vistas and avenues in the international platform.

Language Teaching can be defined as “the activities which are intended to bring about language learning” (Stern, 1983). English Language Teaching has undergone a sea change in the last say about a hundred years or so. These changes have occurred mostly due to the various developments in the field of linguistics and its allied branches. The increasing demand of English as a global language has put much emphasis on devising better teaching methods, materials, and techniques for effective second language (L2) teaching-learning. Richards & Rodgers (2001) maintain that today English is the world’s most widely studied foreign language 500 years ago it was Latin; for it was the dominant language of education, commerce, religion and government in the western world. In the sixteenth century, however, French, Italian and English gained importance as a

result of political changes in Europe and Latin gradually became displaced as a language of spoken and written communication. Children entering “grammar school” in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries in England were initially given a rigorous introduction to Latin grammar, which was taught through rote learning of grammar rules, study of declensions and conjugations, translation, and practice in writing simple sentences, sometimes with the use of parallel bilingual texts and dialogue (Kelly, 1969; Howatt, 1984). Once basic proficiency was established, students were introduced to the advanced study of grammar and rhetoric. School learning must have been a deadening experience for children, for lapses in knowledge were often met with brutal punishment (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). By the nineteenth century, this approach based on Latin model was implemented to study foreign languages in schools. The focus of the study was entirely on grammar, rote learning and direct translations. During the 1920s and 30s the emphasis was more on teaching vocabulary. Michael West came out with his “reading list” and he along with Coleman and Fife underlined the importance of reading and speaking over writing. Later on, Palmer and West also highlighted the importance of reading and selection of vocabulary, but soon with the outbreak of World War II, interest in the field slowly declined.

1.3.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method can be traced back roughly during the Greek and Latin times, where foreign languages were taught through grammar. This method was a product of German scholarship and was known in the United States as “The Prussian Method”. Some of the leading exponents of this method were Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, and J.V. Meidinger. The earliest Grammar-Translation course for the teaching of English was

written by J.C. Fick in the year 1793 and was modelled on a book for the teaching of French by J.V. Meidinger called *A Practical Course in English for Germans*. The book contained various translation exercises. Primary focus was on completion of sentence construction and accuracy. However, the spoken part was completely ignored.

Some of the key principles of the Grammar-Translation method include the following:

- Language was learnt through a detailed study of its grammar. The learner then applies these grammatical rules in translating sentences and texts from the mother tongue into the target language or vice versa. “The first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language” (Stern 1983).
- Reading and writing were given primary importance and very less attention was paid to speaking and listening.
- A great emphasis was given to “accuracy.” Learners were expected to attain high standards in translation because of “the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having intrinsic moral value, was a prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the century” (Howatt 1984: 132).
- Vocabulary was taught basically through bilingual word lists, dictionary usage, and memorization of words and their meanings. Languages were translated in the target language and vice versa. Learners’ mother tongue was used to explain new items.
- Grammar was taught in a deductive manner, i.e. by presentation and study of grammar rules, which were then practiced through translation exercises. An attempt was also made to teach grammar in a systematic and organised way.

This method dominated European and Foreign Language Teaching right from the 1840s to the 1940s, and in some parts of the globe it is still used, though in a modified manner. But this method does not have any supporters today; it is a theory less method. Although this method created frustration and distaste among students, it makes few demands on the teachers. In the mid- and late-nineteenth century, this method was widely opposed and as a result “The Reform Movement” came into being. It laid the base for newer developments in teaching languages and raised serious concerns till date.

1.3.2 The Reform Movement

Some of the Language teaching experts (Marcel, Prendergast, and Gouin) have made serious contributions in order to promote alternative approaches to language teaching, but their ideals failed to receive widespread support. However, from 1880s, linguists such as Henry Sweet in England, Paul Passy in France, etc. began delivering the intellectual leadership needed to give reformist ideas of greater credibility, recognition and acceptance. These linguists made use of Phonetics (the study of the characteristics of speech sounds) and emphasised on speech rather than written word. The International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was founded in the year 1886. The association advocated improving the teaching of modern languages and also stressed on the following:

- The study of spoken language
- Training of phonetics and sound patterns for better pronunciation
- Use of conversational texts and dialogues
- Following an inductive approach to the teaching of grammar
- Teaching of new meanings by associations within the target language

Henry Sweet argued that sound methodological principles should be based on a scientific analysis of language and a study of psychology. In his book *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899), Sweet set forth principles for the development of teaching method which included careful selection and arranging of what is to be taught in terms of the four skills, viz. listening, speaking, reading and writing. He also graded materials from simple to complex. In Germany, Wilhelm Viëtor argued that training in phonetics would enable teachers to pronounce the letter accurately. Speech patterns, rather than grammar, were the fundamental elements of language. The reformers of language teaching in general believed that:

- The spoken language is primary and should have an oral-based methodology.
- Phonetics should be used for language teaching and teacher training.
- Listening should precede the written form. Words should be presented in sentences, and sentences should be practised in meaningful contexts and not be taught in isolation.
- Grammar should be taught inductively, i.e. grammar rules should be taught only after students have practiced grammar points in context.
- Translation should be avoided.

These principles provide the theoretical base for a disciplined approach to language teaching and learning. Some of the propositions provided above suggested on how these applied linguistic principles could best be put into practice. However, none of these proposals assumed the status of a method; but it got widely recognised and uniformly implemented design for language teaching. The Reform Movement led to what has been

termed as Natural Methods, which ultimately led to the development of the Direct Method (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

1.3.3 The Direct Method

The Direct Method has its roots way back in the nineteenth century. Francois Gouin in 1880 wrote the book called *The Art of Teaching and Learning of Languages*. According to the book, a foreign language could be easily taught using a series of simple events. The teacher used complete sentences in the foreign language as input and no translation was used. This method found a ready audience in Germany, though not very popular in France. The German scholar F. Franke in 1884 wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the target language and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to language teaching. Instead of teaching grammar rules, he believed in direct and spontaneous use of foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce the rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration and pictures (Richards & Rodgers 2001). Some of the principles and procedures of the direct method include the following:

- Classroom instruction was completely based on the target language.
- The process of learning was based on direct and concrete associations; speech with appropriate action, and words with concepts and objects.
- Vocabulary and sentences for everyday use were taught.
- Both speech as well as listening comprehension was taught.
- Grammar was taught inductively. Memorization of word lists, verb inflections were discouraged and great emphasis was put on correct pronunciation and grammar.

The Direct method was quite successful in some of the private language schools, but it was difficult to implement in public secondary schools. It overemphasized and distorted the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning and failed to consider the practical realities of the classroom. Furthermore, it lacked teachers who were proficient enough in the foreign language to adhere to the principles of this method (Richards & Rodgers 2001).

1.3.4 The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach

The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach, popularly known as the S-O-S approach, came into being as an alternative approach to the direct method. The structural approach is an offshoot of the various experiments that were carried out in language teaching in the army camps during the Second World War. The entry of the USA into the war had a noteworthy effect on language teaching in America. The American government needed personnel and trainers who were fluent in Chinese, French, German, Japanese, etc. and who could work as code-breakers, interpreters, assistants and translators. Therefore, it was felt necessary to set up a special language training programme; thus, the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP) came into being in the year 1942. Although the ASTP lasted for only two years, it did make a serious impact on the academic circle. There was an increasing demand for foreign language trainers in America to teach students who came from foreign countries to America for higher studies. Thus the S-O-S approach came into existence in the mid-fifties.

The University of Michigan in 1939, established the first-ever language institute in the USA. The objective was to train teachers of English to teach English as a foreign language or as a second language. Charles Fries, the then director of the

institute and his colleagues were unhappy with the direct method of teaching English. For Fries, grammar or structure was the starting point in language teaching. The language was taught by intensive oral drilling of the basic sentence patterns. Systematic attention was paid to pronunciation. The oral approach was simultaneously developed in Britain to teach English as a foreign or second language. Two prominent figures in this movement were Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby. They developed a scientific foundation for the oral approach, and by 1950 it was an accepted British approach to English Language Teaching (Nagaraj 2008).

The S-O-S approach was based on the following principles:

- Language was primarily speech and was viewed as structurally related elements for encoding meanings. Structures or teaching items were then selected and graded.
- Language was seen as a set of habit and language learning was said to be “habit formation.” This concept was based on Skinner’s behavioural psychology, also called the Stimulus-Response theory of language learning which led to pattern-drilling, memorization, etc. According to Rivers (1968), the learners “learn to manipulate structures to a point of automatic response to a language stimulus.” Thus, “Palmer points out that there are three processes in learning a language – receiving the knowledge, or materials, fixing it in the memory by repetition, and using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill” (Frisby 1957).
- Vocabulary items were selected with reference to West’s *A General Service List of English Words* (1953). Reading and writing were based on items already introduced and practiced orally.
- The order advocated for learning language skills:

Listening ➡ Speaking ➡ Reading ➡ Writing. The language items were also selected, graded and practised in meaningful contexts.

1.3.5 The Audiolingual Method

The Audiolingual Method emerged as a result of increased attention given to foreign language teaching in the United States of America towards the end of the 1950s. Its root can be traced back to the language teaching programmes in America during World War II. The method tried to prove a point by stating that language teaching methods can be based on scientific disciplines like linguistics, applied linguistics and psychology. Its primary focus was on the learner's ability to communicate orally and to try to develop speaking and listening skills in the target language. William Moulton, an American linguist in 1961, asserted some of the linguistic principles on which the methodology should be based: "Language is speech, not writing ... A language is a set of habits ... Teach the language, not about the language ... A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say ... Languages are different" (quoted in Rivers 1964).

Some of the salient features of the Audiolingual method include the following:

- This method treated each language skills separately: listening, speaking, reading and writing. It primarily focused on listening and speaking skills.
- Dialogues and conversation remained the thrust areas in the audiolingual syllabus.
- Pattern drilling was an important part of this method.
- The language lab proved to be an important teaching aid, and learners could hone their communication skills and later on mimic or memorise language patterns.

- Dialogue formation was encouraged and the learners created their own situations. Dialogues were used for repetition and memorization. The emphasis was more on correct pronunciation, stress, rhythm and intonation.
- Reading and Writing was introduced in the next level, and graded passages from literary texts were familiarized in the advanced stage.

Thus, in Audiolingual method, foreign language learning basically became a process of mechanical habit formation where good habits were formed by correct responses. By memorizing dialogues and performing various pattern drills, the chances of making mistakes were reduced to a considerable extent. Classrooms were mostly teacher centric and the learners were viewed as “organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses.” They played a responsive role by responding to stimuli and thus have little control over the content and pace of learning. Later on, Noam Chomsky rejected structuralist approach as well as the behaviourist theory of language learning. He argues, “Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behaviour characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy.” Thus, audiolingual method could stress only on the mechanical aspect of language learning and use.

1.3.6 The Modern Approaches

In Modern approaches, we can talk briefly about the Notional-Functional syllabus and the Communicative approach. The Notional-Functional syllabus just like the Structural approach had its roots in a non-school environment. In the sixties and seventies, many countries in Europe were going through an economic upheaval. There were many workers who shifted their jobs to find better job opportunities. Industries and

other factories had people who could not speak the local language, and this led to the problem of communication. The traditional methods of language learning did not allow learners to use their skills for communicating with their co-worker or supervisor. Thus, the Council of Europe and the Council of Cultural Co-operation were given the responsibility to design courses which would fulfil the needs of language learners. The aim of Project Number Four (Modern Languages) was “improving and intensifying language learning as factors making for European understanding, co-operation and mobility.” The concepts of “threshold level,” “need analysis,” “language functions,” “notions,” etc. were also applied to designing courses. The functional syllabus was arranged in terms of functions and related language items. The table from *The Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1985) illustrates this point clearly:

Type of discourse	Skill	Function	Vocabulary	Structure
Spoken	Speaking	Asking for directions	Bank	Can you tell me where X is?
	Listening		Harbour Museum	Where is X?

The main proponent of the notional syllabus is D.A. Wilkins and it begins with the meanings and concepts (called notions) that a learner needs in order to communicate and the language needed to express them. Given below are some examples of notions from Wilkins (1976):

1. Semantico-grammar categories:

Time: point of time, duration, time relations, frequency and sequence

Quantity

Space

Sentential Relations: for example, cases

John drank the milk

The milk was drunk by *John*

It was *John* who drank the milk

2. Categories of communicative function:

Judgment and evaluation

Suasion

Argument

Informal asserted

Information sought: question, request

Information denied

Agreement

Disagreement

Concession

Communicative approach is a broader concept. Also known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), this approach shifted from viewing linguistic competence alone as the goal of language learning, but also replaced it with the notion of communicative competence. “Communicative competence” is a term proposed by Dell Hymes and it is the learners’ accurate language use for communicating effectively and appropriately. As Hymes put it, there is also knowing “when to speak, when not ... what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner.” Communicative syllabus makes use of authentic materials. The development of language learning from form-based to meaning-based approach, the move towards an eclectic approach from a rigid method, the shift from teacher-centric to learner-centric classes -- all are broadly categorized under the umbrella term “communicative approach” (Nagaraj 2008).

1.3.7 *The Humanistic Approaches*

The Humanistic Approaches are not based on any linguistic theories or pedagogical functions, but they deal with something “human”: the caring and sharing attitudes. It was developed by people outside the domain of language teaching. These approaches include: *The Silent Way*, *Communicative Language Learning*, *Suggestopaedia* and *Total Physical Response*. The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1985) defines the humanistic approach as follows:

(in language teaching) a term sometimes used for what underlies methods, in which the following principles are considered important:

- the development of human values*
- growth of self-awareness and in the understanding of others*
- sensitivity to human feelings and emotions*
- active students involvement in learning and in the way learning takes place (for the last reason such methods are also said to be student-centred)*

The Silent Way was a language teaching method devised by Caleb Gattegno, a mathematics teacher. He proposed this method in the 1960s, which was based on the principle that “teaching must be subordinate to learning.” In this method, the teacher remains passive and the students do all the talking and are active participants. Two important teaching aids include fidel (alphabet) chart and cuisiniere rods. In fidel chart, coloured blocks are used on a black background. Each block represents different sounds in the target language. Cuisiniere rods are coloured rods of a varied length, each of which stand for different words or sounds, e.g. the book (pink small rod), is (white rod), good (yellow rod), etc. The teacher uses a lot of gestures while imparting lessons and encourages peer interaction and group work. Teaching is based on “known to unknown” formula, and language learning occurs in a non-threatening

environment. *The Silent Way* belongs to a tradition that views learning as a problem-solving, creative, discovering activity in which the learner is a principal actor rather than a bench-bound listener (Bruner 1996). *Communicative Language Learning* (CLL) was developed by Charles A. Curran, a Roman Catholic priest and a professor of Clinical Psychology. He worked with adults for many years and later on established the “counselling-learning approach,” according to which the teacher was more of a “counsellor” than merely a figure of authority. Curran over a period of time realised that adults often felt threatened in new learning situations and were also afraid of appearing foolish. So in order to counteract this problem, he made the teacher a “counsellor,” i.e. a person who not only knows the target language but also understands the problems of learners while learning something new. Thus, teachers help them in overcoming their fears and difficulties and instil in them a positive zeal. CLL takes place in groups, and these groups form a community. Learner roles in CLL are well defined; they become members of the community and learn through peer interaction and group work. The main emphasis is on the learners’ personal feelings, reflection and observation while learning a foreign language. A tape recorder is the most important teaching aid used in the classroom and the learning materials are authentic. It is based on the perceptive of security and belongingness (Nagaraj 2008).

Suggestopaedia or *Desuggestopaedia* was a language teaching method advocated by the Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator Georgi Lozanov. The term is derived from Suggestology, which Lozanov describes as a “science ... concerned with the systematic study of the nonrational and/or nonconscious influences” that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick, 1976). He views that the course directs “the students not to vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but to acts of communication.” This method is

based on the principle of joy and easiness. It is the pedagogic application of suggestion that helps learners to overcome the feeling that they cannot be successful, and so remove their mental barriers to learning. It helps learners to reach out and explore their hidden reserves of the mind. The three main principles of suggestopaedia or suggestopedy include: joy and psychorelaxation, gaining access to the reserve powers of the mind and harmonious collaboration of the conscious and the unconscious. In the classroom, posters, charts, music, art, drama, etc. are used as teaching aids. Teachers also use imitation, mimes, and dialogues while the learners take the roles and do practice games and role play. Thus, learning occurs in a relaxed and happy atmosphere. *Total Physical Response* (TPR) or Comprehension approach was a language teaching method which was based on teaching language through physical (motor) activity be it speech, action etc. The method was developed by James Asher, a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California. He views successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition. It simply means that the way a child learns a first language can be reproduced in a foreign language situation. TPR basically provides a grammar-based view of language. Asher in 1977 states that “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skilful use of the imperative by the instructor.” He reflects on the use of the verb in imperative as a key motif around which language use is structured. Grammar was taught inductively. His methods consist of commands, which are followed by the learners after listening attentively. They do not speak until they are ready to do so. Learners monitor and estimate their own progress. Thus, TPR allows learners to achieve high degree of success (Nagaraj 2008).

1.4 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

Let us now make ourselves acquainted with two key concepts in the theory of learning called “language acquisition” and “language learning”. The term “acquisition” and “learning” are sometimes used interchangeably by different theorists. Stephen Krashen makes a distinction between “acquisition” and “learning” and views “acquisition” as a subconscious, natural and effortless process of internalizing language rules, as in the first language acquisition. Thus, “acquisition” refers to the natural way of picking up language by using it in natural, communicative situations. On the contrary, “learning” involves a conscious and formal effort, analysis, attention to the rules of grammar, form and error correction, usually in a typical classroom setting which allows the learner to gather metalinguistic knowledge, i.e. knowledge about the language. Acquisition is well appreciated because it leads to natural and fluent language use, whereas learning leads to “language accuracy.” Krashen claims both acquisition and learning as separate and independent processes; and learning, according to the theory, cannot lead to acquisition. Acquired and learnt knowledge also gets stored separately in the human brain.

Krashen’s ‘The Monitor Model’ is perhaps the most prominent and comprehensive of existing second language acquisition (SLA) theories. The model consists of five central hypotheses, and related to them, a number of other factors that influence SLA. The five hypotheses are: (a) *the acquisition learning hypothesis*, where the terms “acquired” and “learnt” are defined as subconscious and conscious study of language; (b) *the natural order hypothesis*, which affirms that grammatical structures are “acquired” in a predictable order; (c) *the monitor hypothesis*, where the monitor is the device that learners use to edit their language performance and utilize “learnt” knowledge

by acting upon and modifying utterances generated from “acquired” knowledge; (d) *the input hypothesis* states that “acquisition” takes place as a result of the learner having understood input that is a little beyond the current level of his competence (i.e. the $i+1$ level); (e) *the affective filter hypothesis*, where the filter controls how much input the learner comes into contact with, and how much input is converted into intake. The term affective deals with the learner’s motivation, self-confidence, or anxiety state factors (Ellis 1985).

1.5 FIRST LANGUAGE ACQUISITION VS. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

First Language Acquisition (FLA) is the first language (L1) acquired during our childhood. It is remarkable for the speed in which we learn the language. How often do we hear a child talking in this way, *Where my teddy? See my Barbie? Sit sofa? You want mum? What you do?* The child forms such questions in the various stages of his/her growth. So, these expressions are basically acquired by hearing everyday utterances in an around the child’s environment. All infants make “cooing” and “babbling” sounds during the initial one year, but infants who are deaf stop after about say six months. Children also adopt simplified speech which they hear often from the ones with whom they spend most of their time interacting with. This is called “caregiver speech,” e.g. *now daddy go go, mumma come*, etc. Prominent features of this type of speech, also called “motherese”, include the frequent asking of questions, using exaggerated intonation, loud and slow tempo with longer pauses. In the early stages, children do come up with a lot of forms associated with “baby-talk” and use simple words like *mama, papa*, etc. Then comes the one-word stage (between twelve and eighteen months), followed by the two-word stage and telegraphic speeches. Slowly, the child starts developing

morphology, syntax, semantics, etc. and starts forming questions and negative constructions.

Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is the process by which people learn languages in addition to their mother tongue. The language to be learned is often referred to as the second or target language (L2). It is the study of how second or additional languages are learned or in other words, it is the study of the acquisition of non-primary languages. SLA emerged after the failure of behaviourism and is a relatively new field of study. It deals with notions as to why some second language learners do not achieve the same degree of proficiency and knowledge in the second language as they do in their first. In addition, SLA is concerned with the nature of hypotheses that learners come up with as regards to the rules of second language. SLA is a vast, expanding and diverse field of study.

1.6 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

This section briefly discusses the four major approaches to language acquisition. These include (a) *behavioural/learning approach* (b) *nativist/innatist/mentalist/linguistic approach* (c) *cognitive approach* (d) *social interactionist approach*. Let us briefly look at these approaches. The Behaviourist approach views language as a process of habit formation. It focuses on observable behaviour and is rooted in the works of Ivan Pavlov. The process consists of three steps: *stimulus* (a signal from the environment that evokes a reaction), *response* (the learner's reaction to the stimulus) and *reinforcement* (a reward for an appropriate response: reinforced behaviour gets internalized; a behaviour that is not reinforced is extinguished). Based on this approach, Ratner (1997) describes three kinds of learning which includes classical conditioning, operant conditioning (instrumental learning) and social learning. In classical

conditioning, learning is based on stimulus and response. In operant conditioning, learner repeats the behaviour in the hope of obtaining a reward; as such, learning new skills becomes an instrument that leads to rewards. B.F. Skinner identifies three types of situations that can shape behaviour: “positive reinforcement (praise, good grades, etc.), negative reinforcement (avoiding a consequence results in the desired behaviour), and punishment (undesired behaviour).” The basic principle of social learning is that a learner does not need rewards but he/she learns imitating the people he/she admires. There have been many criticisms of this approach; one such is that it does not account for all kinds of learning, as it ignores the activities of the mind. Language errors were considered to be a hindrance in the process of L2 learning as they could lead to the development of bad language habits. This approach to error led to the development of *Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis* (CAH). CAH claims that all L2 errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between the learners’ native language and the target language (Trawinski 2005).

The Nativist or innatist approach views language to be too complex, and learning occurs too rapidly to be learnt through imitation and drilling. Children are born with a special ability to discover for themselves the underlying rules of a language system. This innate component in human beings is called the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). Chomsky’s Universal Hypothesis (1965) claimed that the human mind relies on this inborn mechanism and contains a set of abstract principles common to all human languages that enables the child to generate an infinite number of sentences. Referring to Chomsky’s Universal Hypothesis, Lenneberg in 1967 argued that LAD functions correctly only if it is activated before the brain loses its plasticity, i.e. before lateralisation is complete. This is referred to as Critical Period Hypothesis, which maintains that there is a limited period in human life during

which language acquisition is possible, natural and effortless. The *Cognitivists* are convinced that learning depends on perception and insight-formation. They consider language to be one of the many mental processes or even a subordinate part of mental development. Piaget believed that language is just one aspect of human cognition. Cognitive development is believed to rely on two processes: *assimilation* (modifying incoming information to fit our knowledge) and *accommodation* (modifying our knowledge to include new information). Unlike behaviourists, cognitivists consider error as a necessary condition of learning. *Social interactionist approach* looks at the way interaction leads to the development of language competence. Language, for them, develops through interaction with other human beings, which leads to input modification, i.e. adjusting it to the capacity of the learner. They also claim that no “critical period” for language acquisition exists as the process of interaction is not dependent on any biological or cognitive development (Trawinski 2005).

1.7 SUMMING UP

Since the time of our birth, we are constantly engaged in communication with others. Human language is often complex, yet beautiful. Human language uses finite set of discrete sounds or gestures which are combined to form meaningful structures. Both human and animal languages are unique and superior in their own way. Language develops and changes with time. It is to be noted that language cannot exist and advance outside culture and society as they are complementary to each other. Language is also a marker of identity, power, caste, status, solidarity and politeness. The study of the relationship between language and society is called Sociolinguistics. Language standardization, variety and dialectal influences are key features in sociolinguistics.

ELT is a field of applied linguistics that efficiently enhances the teaching of English in general and language in particular. The importance of English in today's world cannot be overlooked and it is a dominant language for global communication as it plays a significant role in every walk of life – be it education, business, administration, judiciary, trade and commerce, mass media, politics, etc. During the 1920s and 30s, the emphasis was more on teaching vocabulary. Thus, Michael West came out with his “reading list” and he along with Coleman and Fife underlined the importance of reading and speaking over writing. In Grammar-Translation method, the focus was on teaching grammar via translation. Reading and writing were given primary importance. The Reformers believed in language teaching through phonetics. In Direct method, the learning process was based on direct and concrete associations. Various approaches and methods of language teaching were also outlined in the unit. Krashen's Monitor model, language acquisition and learning were also briefly discussed. Last but not the least, an attempt was also made to discuss the four approaches to language acquisition and learning.



1.8 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. What is Language? What makes human language complex and unique?

How does language influence the culture and society in which we live in?

Q2. Do you consider young deaf children fluent in sign language, in support of the innateness hypothesis? Give your views.

Q3. According to Shohamy, language is seen as an “open, dynamic, energetic, constantly evolving and personal”; it

acknowledges the rich complexities of communication. Do you agree to this statement? Give a reasoned analysis.

Q4. Discuss in detail Hyme's 'ethnographic framework' involving speaking. In what specific way is a creole different from a pidgin?

Q5. Write a note on the various methods and approaches in language teaching.

Q6. In what way do you think FLA influences SLA? Mention some crucial differences between a behavioural and a nativist view of First Language Acquisition.

Q7. Elaborate on the four approaches to language acquisition.

Q8. Distinguish between acquisition and learning. Describe Krashen's Monitor Model.

Q9. How will you bring out the intrinsic relationship between language, culture and society? Do they have any influence on one another?

Q10. Could you think of some of the ways to prevent languages from dying?

Q11. Describe Hyme's ethnographic framework involving speaking.

Q12. Give a brief overview on English Language Teaching in general.

Q13. Write a short note on the various methods and approaches in language teaching.

Q14. How does the Humanistic approach influence language teaching?

Q15. What do you mean by language acquisition and learning?

Q16. Discuss Krashen's Monitor Model and Chomsky's Universal Hypothesis.

Q17. Differentiate between FLA and SLA.

Q18. Briefly discuss the four major approaches to language acquisition.



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UNIT 2: DIFFERENT APPROACHES AND METHODOLOGIES INCLUDING CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

UNIT STRUCTURE

2.0 Introduction

2.1 Learning Objectives

2.2 English Language Teaching: Approaches and Methodologies

2.2.1 Grammar-translation Approach

2.2.2 Direct Method

2.2.3 Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

2.2.3 Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

2.2.5 Natural Approach

2.2.6 Total Physical Response

2.2.7 The Silent Way

2.2.8 Community Language Learning

2.2.9 Suggestopedia

2.3 Language Acquisition and Learning

2.4 Current Developments

2.4.1 Communicative Approach

2.4.2 Content- Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning

2.4.3 Whole Language

2.4.4 Task- Based Language Teaching

2.4.5 Multiple Intelligence

2.4.6 Cooperative Language Learning

2.5 Summing Up

2.6 Assessment Questions

2.7 References and Recommended Readings

2.0 INTRODUCTION

The beginning of the 20th century saw the emergence of language teaching. The works of the applied linguists and others brought about the growth and development of designs for teaching methods and materials, which borrowed much from linguistics and psychology. Innovation and change were the guiding forces of language teaching in the twentieth century which was mostly a answer or a response to the increased number of speakers of second and foreign languages (Richards and Rodgers, 3).

The efforts to improve language teaching saw a number of changes in the teaching methods. The change in method brought about a change in the goals of language teaching along with the changes in the theories of the nature of language and language learning. “In English language teaching pedagogy the three key terms viz- Method, Approach and technique are used frequently and interchangeably. This tripartite arrangement is hierarchical in order. The term ‘Method’ is very ambiguous, and refers to the overall plan for the orderly presentations of language material, no part of which contradicts and all of which is based on selected approach and procedure.

A method includes three components viz- Approach, Design & Procedures. An ‘approach’ is concerned with the theory of the nature of language and language learning. ‘Design’ concerns itself with:

- The general and specific objectives of the course.
- A syllabus model.
- Types of learning and learning tasks.
- Roles of learners and teachers, and
- Role of learning materials.

‘Procedure’ is concerned with:

- The actual happenings in the classroom.
- Classroom techniques, practices and behaviours.”

(Shodhganga, 115-177)

“Methods are evolved for quick and effective results...The natural method of learning by trial and error has no place today as human beings cannot afford to waste time in experimenting” (Kulkarni, 29). Hence, it is the responsibility of a second language teacher to select an approach, method, and a technique keeping in mind “the learner’s educational, social and economical background; the syllabus and the textbooks prescribed, and the goals / objectives to be achieved. He should be flexible enough to swift to multiple approaches so as to enable him / her to make learning effective.” (Shodhganga, 115-177)

2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

In this unit, learners will be introduced to the major approaches and methodologies of English Language Teaching and Language Acquisition. It was also present a general understanding on the learner’s perspective of language learning and acquisition. Learners will also be introduced to some of the current developments in the area of English Language Teaching and Learning. The unit will try to provide insight, for the further understanding in the area.

2.2 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING: APPROACHES AND METHODOLOGIES

This section shall highlight the major trends and alternative approaches and methods of the twentieth- century.

2.2.1 Grammar-translation Approach

The leading exponents of this approach were Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendrof, and Johann

Meidinger. This approach is the traditional way of language teaching which began as a method to teach Latin and Greek and was used as the basis to teach any second language. The Approach uses the students' native language to teach the target language through memorized rote learning along with written grammar drills. If the goal of the learner is only to read and write, this approach is really helpful. The approach though not preferred is used widely is because of the limited use of spoken English by the teachers, it is been practiced, gives the teacher full autonomy , and works well in large classes (Richards and Rodgers, 7).

2.2.2 Direct Method

This method was a successor of the Natural Method and was in a way a response to the Grammar-translation approach. The method was widely used by Sauveur and Maximilian Berlitz. The emphasis given by this method was on the spoken language and the development of oral skills. Activities played an important role in this method, wherein learners had maximum participation. Activities like word-picture association, question-answer patterns, dialogues and role playing gave the students the chance to explore the language themselves. Target language was used solely for classroom instructions and the speaking and listening skills played very important roles. Grammar was taught inductively with major emphasis along with correct pronunciation. Though popular, the method had its limitations.

2.2.3 Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

This approach was dated to be developed and used from the 1920s and 1930s and later from the 1950s and 1960s. The Oral Approach has helped in the designing of English as a Second/ Foreign Language (ESL/EFL) textbooks and courses (Richards and Rodgers, 44). Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby

were the two prominent figures of this approach. In this approach the spoken language was given utmost importance and it was used to initiate language teaching. The language of the classroom was always the target language along with vocabulary emphasis. Situational practice of 'new language' was a major focus of the approach. Grammar was taught in a graded manner along with reading and writing.

2.2.4 Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

This method derived its theory from structural linguistics, proposed in the 1950s. The Audiolingual Method concentrates on structural patterns related to the encoding of meaning. Speech was looked at as a priority in language teaching. Proponents of the method believed that a language could be reduced to a set of sounds, which could be combined to form the spoken words. Those words, when phonetically joined, become phrases and later become sentences. Activities like role playing were used to emphasize on pronunciation and rhythm. The method borrowed ideas from the behaviorist school of psychology and hence, languages were taught through a system of reinforcement. Mistakes were welcomed and gently corrected. The end goal of the method was forming of linguistic speaking habits through correct repetitions.

2.2.5 Natural Approach

The Natural Approach was a proposal from Tracy Terrell in 1977. This approach takes its cues from how first language is naturally learned by children and is used for second language teaching. Kashen and Terrell identified this approach with the traditional approaches to language teaching, which was based on the use of language in communicative situations without any recourse to the native language (Richards and Rodgers, 261).

The Natural Approach gives time for learners to simply listen and absorb the language. Production of correctly pronounced words and phrases come later in the learning process. The ability of listening comprehension is a priority instead of speaking. The learners are made to observe, then are asked to understand the situation, they are then made to guess the meanings, and finally are encouraged to make mistakes and self-correct. The Natural Approach also emphasizes on the difference between ‘learning’ and ‘acquisition’. **Learning** a language requires a conscious effort with the help of textbooks, grammar lessons and rote memory. **Acquiring** a language on the other hand happens at a more sub-conscious level and requires an immersive process of repetition, correction and recall. The Natural Approach believes that the more the students are involved, the better they learn the language.

2.2.6 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response is a teaching method that deviates from mainstream applied linguistics. It is built around the coordination of speech and action and attempts to teach language using gestures, actions and movements or through physical motor activity (Richards and Rodgers, 277). Developed by James Asher, TPR believes that when your students see movement and when they themselves move, their brains create more neural connections that make for more efficient language acquisition. This method draws from developmental psychology, learning theory, and humanistic pedagogy, and even language teaching procedures proposed by Harold and Dorothy Palmer in 1925. TPR stresses on the development of comprehension skill before the speaking skill. Teaching of meaning over form is emphasized and a stress free teaching environment for the learners is tried to be provided through this method. Pop quizzes, role plays, slide presentations, and other activities are used in the class.

2.2.7 The Silent Way

This method of language teaching was devised by Caleb Gattegno, who based the approach on the grounds that the teacher should be silent as much as possible. The Silent Way uses silence as a teaching tool, wherein the students are given the opportunity to speak and use the language to the maximum. The method encourages the learners to be independent, to discover and figure out the language for themselves. “The Silent Way method exemplifies many of the features that characterize more traditional methods, such as Situational Language Teaching, and Audiolingualism, with a strong focus on accurate repetition of sentences, modeled initially by the teacher, and a movement through guided elicitation exercises to freer communication.” (Richards and Rodgers, 289) This method uses props in a major way and the commonly used prop option is Cuisenaire Rods (revived by Gattegno). These are rods of different color and lengths, and sounds are coded by specific colours. Learning in this method is facilitated through discovery and creation, further by accompanying, and also by problem-solving. Charts are another prop widely used.

2.2.8 Community Language Learning

This method is developed by Charles A. Curran and his associates. This method is also referred to as the ‘humanistic approach’ as the class learns together as one unit. “The content of the language class stems from topics learners want to talk about, and the teacher translates their requests into an appropriate syllabus.” (Richards and Rodgers, 303) The teacher’s role is that of a counselor, a guide, and an encourager. The Community Language Learning method brings together a lethal combination of innovative learning tasks and activities with the traditional conventional ones. Some of the tasks and activities used are- translation, group work, recording,

transcription, analysis, reflection and observation, listening, and free conversation. In this approach, the students work as a community—learning together and negotiating the lessons. Learners are encouraged and expected to “listen attentively to the knower, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, to support fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and to become counselors of other learners.” (Richards and Rodgers, 309-310)

2.2.9 Suggestopedia

This method was developed by Georgi Lozanov, a Bulgarian psychiatrist-educator. “Suggestopedia is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology, which Lozanov describes as a ‘science... concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/or non-conscious influences’ that human beings are constantly responding to (Stevick, 42). The important characteristics of this method are the decorations and furniture used in the classrooms, arrangement of the classroom, the use of music, and the authoritative command of the teacher. Lexis is central in this method and the importance of lexical translation is stressed upon rather than contextualization. The texts used needs to be meaningful and content-driven. Listening activities play an important role in the classes.

2.3 LANGUAGE ACQUISITION AND LEARNING

The learners are at the center of all theories of teaching and learning, and their role and perspective is very important. Rubin (1975: 45-48) had identified seven characteristics that are said to distinguish good learners:

1. They are willing and accurate guessers who are comfortable with uncertainty.

2. They have a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication, and are willing to do many things to get their message across.
3. They are often not inhibited and are willing to appear foolish if reasonable communication results.
4. They are prepared to attend to form, constantly looking for patterns in the language.
5. They practice and also seek out opportunities to practice.
6. They monitor their own speech and the speech of others, constantly attending to how well their speech is being received and whether their performance meets the standards they have learned.
7. They attend to meaning, knowing that in order to understand a message, it is not sufficient to attend only to the grammar or surface form of a language.

Learning Styles are “an individual’s natural, habitual and preferred ways(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills” (Reid, 8). Learners choose their own learning styles based on their preferences, the kind of activities conducted in the class, the roles assigned, grouping, and modes of learning. The teaching methods used in the classrooms are greatly influenced by the learning styles of the learners. Some learners enjoy to work independently, some like to plan, some can only focus on one task at a time, others are not comfortable with uncertainty, some learners learn best with visual cues, and some others work best when in a group. These different learning styles of learners contributes towards their learning and the teaching methods used in the class which effects language acquisition and learning in the process.

2.4 CURRENT DEVELOPMENTS

This section focuses on the recent developments made in the present time, after the 1980s.

2.4.1 Communicative Approach

This approach marks the shift within language teaching and the influence of which is seen till date. Communication is the basis for language and the Communicative Approach seeks to develop those skills that enable students to meaningfully engage with each other. “The Communicative Approach in language teaching starts from a functional theory of language—one that focuses on language as a means of communication.” (Richards and Rodgers, 87) communicative competence is the goal of this approach. Interaction, collaboration, creation, and negotiation play an important role in the communicative approach. Providing opportunities and real communication are the focus of language learning in this approach.

2.4.2 Content- Based Instruction and Content and Language Integrated Learning

Content- Based Instruction (CBI) is an approach that enables second language learning in a basic manner and teaching is organized around the content. The Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) works on similar parameters wherein content and language is integrated and taught to the learners. The two approaches are similar but are not identical, as they differ in focus. CLIL differs from CBI as it does not represent an immersion program, rather helps the development of English language skills. In CLIL, the curriculum may develop in the language classroom and depends on the language teacher but in CBI the classes always have a goal which is related to a content class. In both CBI and CLIL

negotiation of meaning plays an important role and corrective feedback. Scaffolding is encouraged along with the use of dialogue talk and comprehensive understanding of the second language.

2.4.3 Whole Language

The Whole Language approach views language organization as a ‘vehicle’ for human communication, in which the readers and writers play important roles. Authenticity is emphasized by this approach. “A whole language perspective requires an authentic, ‘real’ situation in which one truly needs to apologize to another” (Rigg, 524). The approach comes from the humanistic and constructivist schools of thought and focuses on the learners’ experience, needs, interests, and aspirations. Real-world materials are used and encouraged in the classrooms. The teacher is the facilitator and the learner is the collaborator. “The Whole Language approach uses activities such as individual and small group reading and writing, upgraded dialogue journals, writing portfolios, writing conferences, student-made books, and story writing” (Richards and Rodgers, 144).

2.4.4 Task- Based Language Teaching

This approach uses tasks as the core for language teaching. The proponents of the approach view Task-Based Language Teaching as a logical development of Communicative Language Teaching. “Task-Based Instruction is not monolithic; it does not constitute one single methodology. It is a multifaced approach, which can be used creatively with different syllabus types and for different purposes” (Leaver and Willis, 47). This approach focuses on process and not the product. The activities and elements of the approach emphasizes on communication and meaning. Purposeful interactive communication is encouraged.

All the activities and tasks of the approach is sequenced according to difficulty, depending on the various factors, such as, experience, complexity of the task in hand, language required, and the degree of support (Richards and Rodgers, 1976).

2.4.5 Multiple Intelligence

This approach is a learner- based philosophy developed by Howard Gardner, which looks at human intelligence having multiple dimensions which needs to be acknowledged and developed through education. Gardner gave nine intelligences which each learner possessed as his/her intelligence profile. The intelligences are- Linguistic intelligence, Logical intelligence, Visual/ Spatial intelligence, Kinesthetic/ Bodily intelligence, Musical intelligence, Interpersonal intelligence, Intrapersonal intelligence, Naturalist intelligence, and Existentialist intelligence. The language classes in this approach are for supporting educational systems working towards the betterment of the language learner. Projects are a major activity in this approach. The Multiple Intelligence approach looks to develop the learner as a ‘whole person’, who is well-rounded and is aware of his/her learning opportunities. The teachers in this approach are contributors towards the overall development of the learners.

2.4.6 Cooperative Language Learning

Cooperative learning is group learning activity organized so that learning is dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups and in which each learner is held accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others. (Olsen and Kagan, 8). It is a learner-centered approach in which

the classrooms may have the goals to provide opportunities for naturalistic second language acquisition through the use of interactive pair and group activities; to provide teachers with a methodology to enable them to achieve learner goals; to enable focused attention to particular lexical items, language structures, and communicative functions through the use of interactive tasks; to provide opportunities for learners to develop successful learning and communication strategies; and to enhance learner motivation and reduce learner stress and to create a positive affective classroom climate. (Richards and Rodgers, 245). Critical thinking is encouraged along with interaction among learners. Language in this approach is seen as a resource for expressing meaning, to express different communicative functions, means of interpersonal and social interaction and as a resource for carrying out tasks.

2.5 SUMMING UP

This unit has reviewed the approaches and methodologies of English Language Teaching initiated in the twentieth century. The various approach and methods changed and developed with the need of the times and evolved with the changes in society. Further, the unit looks into language acquisition and learning by the learners of the language, who are the major stakeholders of the teaching and learning system. Each learner being unique has their own language acquisition and learning skills. The unit concludes with the current developments in methods and approaches for language development. The current developments have brought quite a positive wave of language development, that are making the learners confident and willing.



2.6 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Give a brief summary of the approaches and methodologies developed in the 20th century.
2. How do you think a learner can take control of his/her own language development?
3. What are the current developments in the field of language education?
4. How will you differentiate among the approaches and methodologies of the 20th century and the current developments?
5. How are the current developments changing the concept of language learning and teaching?



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UNIT 3: LANGUAGE SYSTEMS AND LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 3.0 Introduction
- 3.1 Learning Objectives
- 3.2 Language Systems
 - 3.2.1 Phonology
 - 3.2.2 Vocabulary
 - 3.2.3 Grammar
- 3.3 Language Skills
 - 3.3.1 Listening
 - 3.3.2 Speaking
 - 3.3.3 Reading
 - 3.3.4 Writing
- 3.4 The language learners' linguistic problems
- 3.5 Summing Up
- 3.6 Assessment Questions
- 3.7 References and Recommended Readings

3.0 INTRODUCTION

In the previous Unit (Unit 2), we have discussed different approaches and methodologies in English language teaching. In this Unit, we shall discuss the language systems as well as the language skills required to be taught to the ESL/EFL learners, and the problems faced by the learners with possible solution.

It goes without saying that the basic understanding of English language systems and language skills is imperative to work in the ESL/EFL classroom with confidence. We must keep in mind that language proficiency is not only mastery of language systems such as pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar but it is also about acquiring skills of listening,

speaking, reading and writing. Possessing basic understanding of the nature of language means the teacher must be aware with structural as well as communicative view of language developed in last several decades.

Language, as we all know, is a primary means of communication. And as social beings, we cannot live without communicating with each other. S. Pit Corder(Corder, 1973 : 22)says that “The first way we can approach language is as a phenomenon of the individual person. It is concerned with describing and explaining language as a matter of human behaviour. People speak and write; they also evidently read and understand what they hear. They are not born doing so; they have to acquire these skills. Not everybody seems to develop them to the same degree. People may suffer accidents or disorder which impair their performance. Language is thus seen as a part of human psychology, a particular sort of behaviour, the behaviour which has as its principal function that of communication”

The basic difference between animals and human beings is not only that human beings use language but also that they can grasp the system of the language they use. For example, if we teach a parrot to say ‘X is playing’ when somebody named ‘X’ is playing, and to say ‘Y is reading’ when somebody called ‘Y’ is reading, it would be able to say them correctly on those two specific occasions. But if the parrot sees X reading instead of playing, it would not be able to substitute X’s name in the second sentence and produce a new sentence ‘X is reading’. But a human child can grasp the language system pretty early in his or her life and is able to make this substitution. In the process of language acquisition, a child can make numerous mistakes at first, but in course of time he or she can produce correct sentences after making their own generalizations and temporary rules and subsequent modifications about the language systems.

A child of about four year old is normally capable of understanding and producing infinite number of sentences when the occasions arise. This is done with his/her knowledge of a limited number of systems or structures or patterns. The wonderful thing about human mind is that the process of assimilation or internalization of all these systems of a language unconsciously takes place at a fairly tender age. So we can say that one knows a language when he/she is still a child. But we should also keep in mind that knowing a language and knowing about a language are not same. A child or for that matter an illiterate person may not know anything about the language he or she uses, yet they can use the language with ease for all practical purposes [Reading and writing, however, are excluded here]. They can understand as well as produce the sounds and structures of the language as a matter of habit. But a grammarian or a linguist may know a great deal about the linguistic aspects of a language but he may not be able to use it to speak or write proficiently.

One thing is universally true that language must be learnt, as one is not born speaking a particular language. Language is a 'system of systems' (J.W.F. Mulder and S.G.J. Hervey. *La Linguistique*. Vol. II, FASC. 2/1975), and limited number of items in each such systems function according to some established patterns or set rules. We get meaning with these inter-dependent systems of language, which are phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic and graphic systems. These systems operate at different levels to make meaningful communication through language possible. In second language or foreign language teaching, the teacher has to have fair idea about all these language systems. The knowledge of the language systems will give the learner the structural view of the language or 'what' constitute the language.

The other important aspect the teacher needs to be aware of is the skill of the target language, which is the 'how' part of a

language. There are four language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. For a second language or foreign language learner, it is imperative to have knowledge of these basic language skills. Listening and speaking are oral mode of skills and writing and reading are written mode of skills. Again, listening and reading are receptive skills and speaking and writing are productive skills. When we use the language, all the four skills are involved with language systems. Sufficient exposure to the target language helps the learners acquire these language skills.

The problems faced by the learner in an ESL/EFL classroom would be minimized if they have a natural, ideal situation as with their mother tongue. But that is not so in most of the cases. Thus the onus is on the teacher, who has to try to create a comfortable environment in the classroom so that the learners feel encouraged and motivated to use the language for all practical purposes. The learners should ideally have sufficient opportunities to hear the language being used in meaningful situations and also to use it in such situations. M. A. K. Halliday (Halliday, 1965: 254) says that “Teaching a language involves conjoining two essential features: first, the learner must experience the language being used in meaningful ways, either in its spoken or written form; and secondly, the learner must himself have the opportunity of performing, of trying out his own skills, of making mistakes and being corrected. Those are the essence of language learning”.

3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- Be familiar with what comprise language systems
- Know about the basic language skills

- Will appreciate the language learners' linguistic problems in the language learning context and their possible solution.

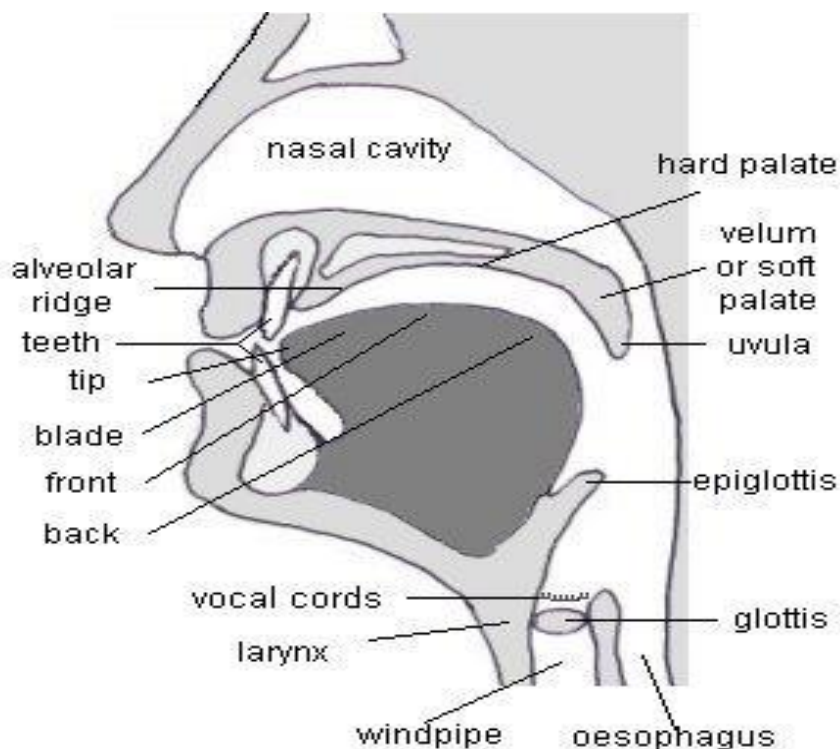
3.2 LANGUAGE SYSTEMS

As already mentioned in the Introduction, language is a system of systems. Language considered as a communication system of a particular community is called 'langue', as against 'parole' which is the way individual people speak. We may consider two views in our discussion about language systems, which are structural view and communicative view. The structural view of language covers the study of language at the level of phonology (the systematic study of sound system in a particular language), lexis (words and phrases in a language) and grammar or syntax (the way sentences are formed). Linguistics also classifies the scope of its study at these three levels. The communicative view of language extended the structural view of language adding situational and functional or communicative aspects. Research and experience have proved that both views are relevant in classroom teaching. All these in totality are called 'The Language Systems'. Now, let us discuss the language systems in three parts: (a) Phonology and (b) Vocabulary and (c) Grammar.

3.2.1 *Phonology*

Phonology is a branch of linguistics concerned with the systematic organization of sounds in languages, or the speech sounds of a language and also the study of them. When we talk of speech sounds, we must understand that they are different from the letters of the alphabet. The 26 letters of the alphabet are used in written English only, out of which there are five vowel letters (a, e, i, o, u) and the rest 21 letters are consonants. But when we use a language in its spoken form, we use sounds, not

letters. In English there are 44 primary individual sounds, out of which 20 are vowel sounds and 24 are consonant sounds. To learn a new language in its spoken form we must be able to recognize the sounds of that language. The study of sounds of a language is called Phonology. The sounds are represented as symbols in their written form, most of which have similarities with the letters. These symbols are called **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**, and you will easily find the list of these IPA symbols for English in any good English to English dictionary, such as the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. These symbols are written within two slant lines (/ /). For the production of the sounds we have to be familiar of the process and mechanism of speech production, and the **Organs of Speech**. Knowledge of the different organs of human body in the production of speech sounds will enable you to help your learners produce different sounds. The following figure illustrates the speech organs.



The main source of speech sounds is the stream of air that comes out of our lungs, which passes through the windpipe and various speech organs, finally going out of the mouth or the nose. All the organs shown in the figure, right from the vocal cords, glottis, tongue, uvula, teeth, alveolar ridge or palates to the lips are important in the articulation process. Vowel sounds are produced when our mouth is open and the tongue does not touch the top of the mouth, the teeth etc., whereas the consonant sounds are produced by completely or partly stopping the flow of air from the mouth, by the tongue, teeth, lips etc.

The Vowel Sounds of English

The vowels determine the number of syllables or important units of a word, knowledge of which are crucial in the pronunciation of the word. The vowel sounds are produced without any closure or obstruction in the air-passage through the mouth and the tongue plays an important role in the production of them. As already mentioned, there are 20 main vowel sounds – 12 pure or simple vowels and eight diphthongs or double vowels. Of the pure vowel sounds, some are short and some are long vowels. Again, the vowel sounds can be divided into front, central or back vowels according to which part of the tongue is used in their production. A vowel sound can also be rounded or unrounded according to the shape of the lips while producing it.

Let us now see the vowel sounds one by one with their respective phonetic symbols. First, the front vowel sound ‘ee’ as in the word ‘beat’. The phonetic symbol of the sound is /i:/. This particular sound, as you can see, is a long one. The sound /i:/ can occur in all positions of a word. Look at these examples: eat, feet, seat, meet, see, pea, flee – all these are pronounced with the long vowel sound /i:/. Then we have the vowel sound /i/ as in ‘it’, ‘fit’, ‘sit’, ‘hit’ etc. This is a short front vowel sound and can be clearly followed when we compare this sound with the previous one. Check these words: leave/live, seat/sit, feet/fit,

feel/fill, beat/bit, and eat/it. As you can see, the first word has the long vowel sound /i:/ and the second one has the short vowel sound /ɪ/. Many Indian speakers normally do not make a distinction between these two vowel sounds and tend to confuse between them. So you must take extra care while saying such words.

Then, we can take the other two front vowel sounds -- /e/ and /æ/. Both are short vowels and the first one is found in words such as 'bed', 'said', 'ten', 'deaf' etc. and the second sound is found in words such as 'land', 'January', 'cat', 'paddy', 'daddy' etc. The second sound may be difficult for some of us as it does not occur frequently in our languages. So we need to practise the sound a lot. The following minimal pairs of words with both of these sounds will help us distinguish the /æ/ sound from the /e/ sound: beg/bag, bed/bad, ten/tan, men/man, and pen/pan. In these words the first one has the /e/ sound and the second one has the /æ/ sound.

All the four vowel sounds we discussed are front vowels, that is, the front of the tongue is raised in the production of them. Then we have the back vowels, where the back of the tongue is raised. They are /ɔ:/, /ɒ/, /u:/, /ʊ/, and /a:/ as in words 'caught', 'cot', 'fool', 'full' and 'cart' respectively. Let us deal with them one by one.

The /ɔ:/ sound is a long one which is found in words such as caught, walk, board, lord, cord, wall, ball etc. In the production of this back vowel, the lips are rounded. The /ɒ/ sound is a short one. The lips are slightly rounded in the production of this sound, and as you can see it is a fairly easy sound for us. The examples are: cot, pot, lot, god, dog, fog etc. One interesting thing about the sound is that it does not occur at the end of a word. Check these pair of words which you can practise to learn the distinction between the /ɔ:/ and /ɒ/ sounds: caught/cot; port/pot; short/shot; corn/con; born/bon etc.

The back vowel sounds /u:/ and /u/ are, as we can see, long and short sounds respectively. The /u:/ sound is produced with the lips closely rounded and can be practised by lengthening the duration or the time of production. Examples are found in words such as fool, rule, cool, school etc. This particular sound occurs frequently in the middle of words, but rarely in the beginning. In the production of the short sound /u/, the lips are rounded and the tongue is loose. The examples are: book, good, put, full, pull etc. The following pair of words can be practised for distinguishing between these two sounds: fool/full; pool/pull; boon/bull; who'd/hood etc.

The last of the back vowels is /a:/ as in bark, park, arm, car, bar, fast, last etc. In the production of this long sound, the lips are neutral and the jaws are wide open.

After the front vowels and the back vowels, there remains the central vowel sounds where the centre of the tongue is raised. The first of them is symbolized as /ʌ/. This is an unrounded vowel sound where the lips are neutral. A few examples: but, cut, hut, blood, shut, come etc. The /ʌ/ sound does not occur finally. This particular sound can be clearly distinguished when we compare it with the previous sound /a:/: heart/hut; cart/cut; smart/smut etc. The last two vowel sounds of the twelve simple or pure vowel sounds are /ɜ:/ and /ə/. Both of them are central vowels. During the articulation of the /ɜ:/ sound, the lips are spread. This peculiar vowel sound is found in words such as bird, girl, work, world, herd etc. /ɜ:/ normally occurs in association with the /r/ sound which is not pronounced by many careful speakers of English. In such cases, the /ɜ:/ is lengthened. This is the most difficult sound for the Indian speakers of English as we are not familiar with this sound in our languages. The last of the simple or pure vowel sound is /ə/, which is the most frequently occurred sound in English. You will find this soft sound in all positions of the English word. It is also known as neutral vowel. Look at the following examples:

ability, about, away, above – where this /ə/ sound occurs in the beginning; recommend, document, wonderland – where it occurs in the middle of the word; ever, never, clever – where it occurs in the final position. One thing we should keep in mind about this special sound is that it occurs only in unstressed positions of a word.

The Diphthongs

The word ‘diphthong’ has its origin in Greek language where ‘di’ means ‘twice’ and ‘phthongos’ means ‘sound’. So, diphthong is two sounds used together. Though a diphthong may look like a double vowel or a combination of two vowel sounds in a single syllable, yet in fact there is a glide from one sound to another in a diphthong. The tongue moves from the first vowel sound to the second and the sound of the first vowel is stronger than the second. As already mentioned, there are eight diphthongs in English. These are: /eɪ/ as in ‘table’, /aɪ/ as in ‘bite’, /ɔɪ/ as in ‘boy’, /aʊ/ as in ‘how’, /əʊ/ as in ‘go’, /ɪə/ as in ‘beer’, /ʊə/ as in ‘poor’ and /eə/ as in ‘bear’. We shall discuss about them one by one with examples.

In the production of /eɪ/ sound, the tongue moves from /e/ position (as in ‘bed’) to /ɪ/ position (as in ‘bit’). The lips are spread and this sound may occur initially, medially and finally. The examples are : age, able, bay, lay, they, train, brain, pain, break etc. So the common letters representing the diphthong are – a, ay, ey, ai, ea etc.

The next diphthong /aɪ/ has a glide from /ʌ / position (as in ‘but’) to /ɪ/ position (as in ‘bit’). The lips are neutral in the beginning, and then they are loosely spread. /aɪ/ occurs in all positions in a word. A few examples: like, time, by, try, buy, either etc. The common letters representing the diphthong are i, y, uy, ei etc.

In the articulation of the diphthong /ɔɪ/, the tongue moves from the back vowel position of /ɑ/ (as in ‘box’) to the front

position of /ɪ/ (as in ‘bit’). The lips are rounded initially and then they become loosely spread. This diphthong can occur in all positions of a word and is represented by letters such as oi, oy etc. A few examples: oil, coin, boy, toy etc.

The diphthong /aʊ/ occurs in the back of our tongue, that is, the glide starts from /ʌ / to the back rounded vowel position of /u / (as in ‘bull’ or ‘book’). The lips move from being neutral to slightly rounded in the end. It occurs in all positions of a word – initial, medial and final. Examples: out, about, loud, proud, how, cow etc. So the usual letters for this diphthong are ‘ou’ and ‘ow’.

The next diphthong is /əʊ/, where there is a glide from the central vowel position of /ə/ (as in ‘away’) to the back rounded vowel of /u/. The lips are neutral in the beginning and then are slightly rounded. It may occur in all positions. Common examples are: go, no, low, boat, goat, boulder etc. So the common letter combinations used for this diphthong are o, ow, oa, ou etc.

The diphthong /ɪə/ occurs in all positions and is found in words such as ear, hear, here, dear, deer, beer, beard etc. The tongue glides from the front vowel /ɪ/ towards /ə/ in the central position. The lips are spread.

In the diphthong /uə/ there is a glide from the back rounded vowel position of /u/ (as in ‘pull’) to the central unrounded vowel /ə/. The lips are slightly rounded in the beginning, and then they become spread. This diphthong does not occur in initial position of a word. The common letters for its spelling are ‘oor’ as in poor, boor etc, ‘our’ as in pour, tour etc. and ‘ure’ as in pure, sure etc.

The eighth and the last diphthong /eə/ has a glide from the front vowel position of /e/ (as in ‘bed’) to the central unrounded vowel /ə/. It occurs in all positions and in the production of this diphthong the lips remain neutral. A few examples are: bear, bare, there, their, fair, fare etc.

The Consonant Sounds in English

As you already know, there are 20 vowel sounds in English, whereas there are only five vowel letters. There is no one to one relationship between the spelling and sound in English language – so the difference. The same is true to the consonants of English: there are 24 consonant sounds, but 21 consonant letters.

The consonants form the structure of the language while the vowels put flesh and blood in that structure. Some argue that in written English one can sometimes make out the meaning of a word even without the vowel letters. For example, from the word ‘people’ if you remove the vowel letters ‘e’, ‘o’ and ‘e’ you get ‘ppl’, or you get ‘pg’ from the word ‘page’ after removing ‘a’ and ‘e’.

In the production of the consonant sounds the air stream from our lungs is partially or completely blocked for an instance by some of the speech or vocal organs, whereas the articulation of vowel sounds is free and without any such interference. The production of the consonant sounds can be described according to the place of articulation and manner of articulation. Place of articulation is the place where the speech organs such as lips, teeth, tongue, vocal cords etc. are located. And the manner of articulation is the manner or way in which a sound is produced. We shall discuss the 24 consonant sounds according to the manner of articulation, or the manner in which they are produced.

The Plosives

First let us take the plosive sounds or the stops. The plosives are produced with slight explosion or sudden release of the air stream. There are six plosive sounds in English and as phonetic symbols they are written between two slant or oblique lines: /p/ and /b/, /t/ and /d/, /k/ and /g/.

The first sound of these three pairs is a voiceless sound, whereas the second one is a voiced sound. The vocal cords are responsible for making a sound voiced or voiceless. When there is vibration of the vocal cords the sound is voiced and when there is no vibration the sound is voiceless. You can find out for yourself if a sound is voiced or voiceless by this simple exercise : plug both of your ears with your fingers and say, for example, the words ‘pea’ and ‘bee’ alternatively. You will find that there is a greater amount of noise inside your ears in case of ‘bee’ than ‘pea’. It is because of the vibration of the vocal cords, which you can also feel on your throat if you put your palm on it or put your fingers on the Adam’s Apple.

Now on to production of the sounds of the first pair of plosives, that is /p/ and /b/. In the production of both of these plosives, the two lips take an active part. So they are called bilabial plosives. The lips are closed and the airstream is completely blocked behind them, and when the lips are drawn apart there is a slight explosion between the lips. /p/ is a voiceless bilabial plosive as there is no vibration of the vocal cords, while /b/ is a voiced bilabial plosive sound as there is vibration of the vocal cords. Like the ‘pea’ and ‘bee’, there are other examples with these bilabial plosives: pen, Ben; pin, bin; pig, big; nip, nib etc.

In the production of /t/ and /d/ as in ‘ton’ and ‘don’ the alveolar ridge (the slightly raised part behind the upper teeth) and the tongue play the main part. Therefore these two sounds are called alveolar plosives. Here the air is stopped by the alveolar ridge with the help of the front of the tongue. The first sound /t/ is a voiceless alveolar plosive sound as the vocal cords do not vibrate, but the second sound /d/ is a voiced alveolar plosive as there is vibration in the vocal cords. A few examples of /t/ and /d/ are: tin, din; ten, den; sit, Sid; site, side etc.

The last of the plosives or stops are /k/ and /g/ sounds as in ‘cap’ and ‘gap’. Both of these are produced in the velar area

where the soft palate or velum is located. This soft palate or velum is the back of the top part of the inside of the mouth known as the ‘palate’, behind the teeth ridge of alveolar ridge. In the production of these sounds, the air stream is stopped behind the soft palate or velum and there is a sudden release. These /k/ and /g/ are called velar plosives, and the first one is a voiceless sound while the second one is a voiced sound. A few examples are: cot, got; kill, gill; cake, gate etc.

The Fricatives

The fricatives represent some of the most difficult consonant sounds in English language – especially for the Indian speakers. Unlike the plosive sounds, where the sounds are produced by sudden release with a slight explosion, the fricatives are sounds produced with some friction. The air escapes through a narrow gap in a continuous stream with some friction. This frictional noise is characteristic of the English fricatives, which is uncommon in our speech. We normally tend to replace the fricatives with similar sounding plosives in our language.

Let us start with the /f/ and /v/ sounds as in ‘fan’ and ‘van’. In the production of these fricatives the lower lip comes in close contact with the upper teeth and the air passes through the narrow gap between the upper teeth and the lower lip with some friction. Because of their place of articulation, these consonants are called ‘labio-dental fricatives’. The first sound /f/ is voiceless, while the second sound /v/ is voiced. Here, we need to understand that the fricatives are often replaced with similar plosive sounds by non-native speakers, and this is a challenge for the Indian speaker. The /f/ sound for example, is often replaced by a ‘ph’ like sound in our language. But unlike the production of /f/ sound where there is a friction in the narrow passage between the upper teeth and the lower lip, in the

production of the /ph/ sound there is a complete closure of the air stream with both the lips followed by sudden release.

The next fricative sounds in pair are /s/ and /z/ as in ‘sip’ and ‘zip’ respectively. For these sounds the blade of the tongue or the front of the tongue is placed against the teeth ridge or the alveolar ridge. The air stream is released with some friction through the narrow passage while the lips remain in their normal position. These consonant sounds are called ‘alveolar fricatives’ as they are produced in the alveolar ridge or teeth ridge position. The first sound /s/ is a voiceless fricative and the second sound /z/ is a voiced fricative. These fricatives are, however, common in our languages.

Then we come to the difficult ones : the / θ/ sound as in ‘thanks’ and the / ð/ sound as in ‘the’. These are characteristically English sounds, and so not common in our languages. Both these sounds, mostly represented by ‘th’ in writing, is a fricative produced by partially obstructing the air stream by putting the tip of the tongue between the two rows of teeth. Since the teeth are in use, these sounds are called ‘dental fricatives’. The first one is voiceless and the second sound is a voiced one. Much practice is needed to produce these dental fricatives perfectly. For the second sound as in ‘the’, ‘then’, ‘them’ etc., minimal pairs with the ‘d’ sound can be used for distinction: day-they; den-then; dare-there; breed-breathe etc.

Now on to the more difficult fricatives: /ʃ/ as in ‘ship’ and /ʒ/ as in ‘pleasure’. The tongue is in close contact with the hard palate, with the tip of the tongue near the teeth ridge or alveolar ridge. So these sounds are called ‘palato-alveolar fricatives’. The friction is heard when air is released through the narrow gap. These are difficult sounds for us. But fortunately the second fricative sound which we find in ‘pleasure’, ‘measure’, ‘vision’, ‘soldier’ etc. is a rare one; but the first sound is a common sound in English. You can practise it by trying to imitate the sound of a train engine. This ‘sh’ sound or / ʃ / will be clearer when we

contrast it with the /s/ sound: self-shelf; sea-she; sell-shell; same-shame; save-shave etc.

The next two fricatives are /r/ and /h/ sounds as found in ‘red’ and ‘hall’. In the case of /r/ sound, the front of the tongue is in close approximation with the back of the alveolar ridge. This voiced ‘post alveolar fricative’ sound is produced with the rolling of the tongue, thus producing slight friction. The /h/ sound is a voiceless ‘glottal fricative’ as there is friction between the narrow opening of the vocal cords, or in the glottis. The /h/ sound does not occur finally as the /r/ sound.

The Affricates

In the production of the affricates /tʃ/ and /dʒ/ as in ‘church’ and ‘judge’, the front of the tongue or the blade of the tongue is in close contact with the alveolar ridge behind our upper teeth. This is the position for the /t/ or /d/ sound. The air pressure is built before its slow release. These are called affricates as here the plosive sounds are immediately followed by the fricatives. The first sound is a voiceless sound and the second is a voiced sound. The first sound for example, is comparable to the interjectory clicking sounds with the tongue to express sympathy, sorrow etc. Both these affricates occur in all positions of a word. Examples of the first sound are : church (compare with ‘search’), chip (compare with ‘sip’ and ‘ship’), chair (compare with ‘share’); and the second sound are : judge, jar, jug, lodge, savage etc.

The Nasal Sounds

The nasal sounds in English are /m/, /n/ and /ŋ/ as in man, nun and king. As they are the nasal sounds the airstream is released through the nose. All these sounds are voiced. In the production of the /m/ sound the lips are closed as in /b/; the air is released through the nose and so it is a ‘bilabial nasal’ sound. In the /n/ sound the front of the tongue is in close contact with the

alveolar ridge to stop the airstream from being released through the mouth. Here too the air is released through the nose, and this sound can be called ‘alveolar nasal’. In the production of the last consonant sound /ŋ/ as in king, sing, song etc the back of the tongue blocks the air passage in the mouth and the air passes through the nose.

The following Phonetic Alphabet chart with examples will help us get familiar with the phonemic symbols for both vowel and consonant sounds in English.

ɪ READ	ɪ SIT	ʊ BOOK	uː TOO	ɪə HERE	eɪ DAY		
e MEN	ə AMERICA	ɜː WORD	ɔː SORT	ʊə TOUR	ɔɪ BOY	əʊ GO	
æ CAT	ʌ BUT	ɑː PART	ɒ NOT	eə WEAR	aɪ MY	aʊ HOW	
p PIG	b BED	t TIME	d DO	tʃ CHURCH	dʒ JUDGE	k KILO	g GO
f FIVE	v VERY	θ THINK	ð THE	s SIX	z ZOO	ʃ SHORT	ʒ CASUAL
m MILK	n NO	ŋ SING	h HELLO	l LIVE	r READ	w WINDOW	j YES

The Stress in English

After knowing the important vowel and consonant sounds, it is imperative to get ourselves acquainted with the stress, rhythm and intonation of the language. Stress is the emphasis we give on some of the syllables at regular intervals. This aspect of giving greater prominence to some of the syllables is called ‘stressing’. This important and distinctive feature in English speech is used as in English we do not utter

all the syllables in a word with equal force. A syllable consists of a vowel sound and it is one of the units into which a word is divided. The stressed syllables are louder than the ‘unstressed’ ones. So stress is the degree of force with which a syllable is pronounced. ‘Stress’ as such is used to distinguish meaning, and it occurs both at the level of word (word-stress) and at the level of sentence (sentence-stress).

The Word-stress

Every English word with more than one syllable has a fixed stress pattern. It is as fixed as its spelling. That means the syllable which receives the heaviest stress will always receive prominence than the other (unstressed) syllables of the word. And if we change the stress pattern and put heavier stress on another syllable, the nature of the word may change. This usually happens in case of words with same spelling and sounds; and we can distinguish between the meanings of the two words with the help of word-stress. For example, the word ‘record’ as a noun normally receives stress on the first syllable ‘re’, and it sounds like ‘REcord’. But when we put stress on the second syllable ‘cord’ (reCORD) then it becomes a verb. Some more examples are here, where the first of the pair is a noun and second of the pair is a verb: CONtest, conTEST; CONduct, conDUCT; IMport, imPORT; OBject, obJECT; SUBject, subJECT; TRANSfer, transFER etc.

In case of words with three or more syllables, however, one of the syllables carries a medium intensity stress – known as the **secondary stress**. And the heavier stress we have been talking about is called the **primary stress**. In the words ‘education’ and ‘examination’ for example, the primary stress falls on the third syllable ‘ca’ and the fourth syllable ‘na’ respectively, while the secondary stress falls on the first syllable and the second syllable respectively. Though correct stressing is

a matter of habit, yet a few rules will be useful for practising the patterns. One or two exceptions may be there in some rules.

a) Prefixes and suffixes are usually unstressed. But in some derived words or compounds where the prefix has a distinct meaning like the root word, both are stressed: post-graduate, unbeaten, vice-chancellor etc. However, in words such as 'mid-night', 'fore-father' etc only the prefix is stressed. (a hyphen is used to distinguish between the syllables).

b) In words of two or three syllables without any prefix, the primary stress usually falls on the first syllable. Examples: father, daughter, captain, chicken etc.

c) Two-syllable words ending in -ate are usually stressed on the first syllable when they are nouns or adjectives, and when they are used as verbs the stress falls on the second syllable. Examples of nouns and adjectives are 'PRivate', 'MANdate' etc and of verbs are 'loCATE', 'reLATE' etc.

d) Words with the following endings are usually stressed on the syllable immediately preceding the ending:

-ion: eduCAtion, compeTItion, reVIision etc.

-sive: deCIusive, poSSEssive, reSPONsive etc.

-ious: amBItious, inFEctious, malLIcious etc.

-ic: acaDEmic, roMANtic, phoNEtics etc.

-ible: resPONsible, comBUStible, inCREdible etc.

-graphy: phoTOgraphy, geOgraphy, biOgraphy etc.

-logy: biOlogy, geOlogy, psyCOlogy etc.

-ial: inDUStrial, adVERbial, meMOrial etc.

-ity: pubLIcity, hospiTality, elecTRicity etc.

e) Words with ending such as '-ee', '-eer', '-ese', '-ique', '-ette' etc have primary stress on the ending itself. One example each of them are given here: guaranTEE, enginEER, assamESE, techNIQUE and cigaRETTE.

f) In longer words with four or more syllables, we have a tendency to put the heaviest stress on the third syllable from the

end: deMOcracy, indiVIIdual, specTAcular etc. However, this rule does not apply in case of words ending in –able.

The Sentence Stress

‘Stress’ is used to distinguish meaning, and it occurs both at the level of word (word-stress) and at the level of sentence (sentence-stress). We have seen that the stress-pattern of the words is more or less fixed. Here the speaker has no choice as to which syllable to stress. But at sentence level one has a choice about the words where he would put stress. We do not speak in isolated words but in continuous sentences. As sentences are important units of our speech, sentence-stress assumes significance here, and it makes the speech clear by bringing out intended meaning of the speaker.

When prominence is given to a particular word or words in a sentence, it is called sentence stress. Such prominence or stress we give on words in our speech is equivalent to *italicising*, printing in bold type or underlining we do in writing sentences. We have seen that there are few rules of thumb about word-stress, but in sentence-stress it is not possible to have definite rules. Even so on the basis of the stress-pattern sentences can broadly be divided into two major types – normal or unemphatic and contrastive or emphatic.

In a normal or unemphatic sentence no emphasis is given to a particular word, and all prominent and meaningful words are equally stressed. The structural words such as the auxiliaries, determiners etc. usually go unstressed. For example, in the sentence ‘the sun rises in the east’ the words ‘sun’, ‘rises’ and ‘east’ are equally important and are so equally stressed. In the emphatic sentences, however, the structural words may be stressed and the normal meaningful words may lose their importance. Any words may receive heavy stress depending upon the emphasis intended by the speaker. This is the nature of contrastive or emphatic sentence. This happens when the

speaker wants to put special emphasis on a particular word or wants to contrast it with something else. For example, in the sentence 'I think he wants to go' the three meaningful words 'think', 'wants' and 'go' normally get stressed when no special emphasis or contrast is intended. But depending on the contrast intended by the speaker the sentence may be stressed differently in an emphatic form. Take these three varieties of the sentence, where the word in bold capital carries the contrastive stress:

I think he wants to go.

I **THINK** he wants to go.

I think **HE** wants to go.

Of these three sentences, in the first, the first person pronoun 'I' gets more prominence than the other words, and here the meaning is 'you may not think so'. In the second sentence 'think' gets the heavier stress as the meaning here is 'I am not sure'. In the third sentence the pronoun 'he' gets the heavier stress as it means 'not she, or the others'. Such heavy stress, heavier than normal stress, is sometimes the result of high degree of emotion of the speaker, and other neighbouring words are left ignored. So the same sentence said in three different ways with stress on three different words give us three different kinds of meanings. Again take these following three sentences:

I love chocolates.

I **LOVE** chocolates.

I love **CHOCOLATES**.

In the first sentence the meaning is that I, and not you, love chocolates. In the second one the meaning is that I love, and not hate chocolates. In the third sentence the speaker wants to say that he loves chocolates, not toffees.

Then again, the sentence "Rita will buy a book" (in unemphatic form) will normally have stress on 'Rita', 'buy' and 'book'. But as an emphatic sentence, if we put stress on 'book' the meaning would be that Rita will buy a book, not a pen. And

if we put stress on ‘will’ then the meaning would be that Rita will buy a book and no one can stop her from buying it.

The time taken to say the stressed syllables or words are longer in comparison to the unstressed syllables or words. In continuous speech, the unstressed words are said ‘hurriedly’. Most of the structural words in such unstressed positions such as a, an, can, could, will, shall, and etc. have weak forms or short forms.

Rhythm in English

We already know that the prominence or degree of force given to a particular word or words in a sentence is called ‘sentence stress’. In a normal or unemphatic sentence no emphasis is given to a particular word, and all prominent and meaningful words are equally stressed. Let us take the same unemphatic or normal sentence we used last time – “Rita will buy a book”, which normally has stress on ‘Rita’, ‘buy’ and ‘book’. Here the stressed words are said at regular intervals of time. Here comes the importance of rhythm in speech. In a normal situation rhythm plays an important role in the speech flow and controls the stress pattern in the sentences.

We know that speech is a continuous activity and as a continuous activity it follows rhythm or beat as in poetry/song. The unit of rhythm is known as ‘foot’ which consists of a stressed syllable, with or without unstressed syllables before or after it. The regularity of stress at equal intervals seems difficult to maintain in each and every sentence. But this is done by hurriedly saying or passing through the structural words in their weak forms. These structural words are usually unstressed, and in their unstressed position they have weak forms. Examples are: he, him, her, me, has, have, had, do, does, to, an, am, and, can, could, shall, should, will, would, must, is, was, the, them etc. Now take these sentences below:

I want to go home.

He thinks that I want to go there.

In these two sentences there are five syllables and eight syllables respectively, but in each of them we have three stressed syllables. In the first sentence the words ‘want’, ‘go’ and ‘home’ are stressed, while in the second the words ‘thinks’, ‘want’ and ‘go’ are stressed. The point to note is that both the sentences take almost the same time to say, though the second sentence has more syllables than the first one. This is because the number of stressed syllables in each of them is same, which is three. Take another example:

I want to buy a book.

He says that he has to buy a book.

Here too we see that there are more syllables in the second sentence than the first. But both of them are said with approximately the same time as the number of stressed syllables in each of them is three. In the first sentence the three stressed syllables out of the total of six syllables are ‘want’, ‘buy’ and ‘book’, while in the second the three stressed syllables out of the nine are ‘says’, ‘buy’ and ‘book’.

English speech is ‘stressed timed’. So the time required to say a sentence mostly depends on the number of syllables in it, and not on the length of the sentence. In the longer sentences the series of unstressed syllables are said first, that is, the speaker moves fast to cover the time and where there are fewer or no such syllables the speaker slows down his pace to fill out the time.

The rhythm is regular repeated pattern of sounds in language, which is like musical notes. The high and low pitch of sounds consists of stressed and unstressed syllables in an utterance. If a stressed syllable is represented by TUM and an unstressed syllable is represented by TI, the rhythm of the sentence ‘I want to buy a book’ would be TI-TUM-TI-TUM-TI-TUM. Some more examples are given below:

I think so: TI-TUM-TI

A black board: TI-TUM-TUM

Don't disturb me: TUM-TI-TUM-TI

Say it again: TUM-TI-TI-TUM

You should keep in mind that the words 'disturb' and 'again' in the last two sentences have two syllables each of which the second syllables are stressed.

The Intonation in English speech

Intonation is basically the change of pitch of our voice: the 'tune' or the 'melody' of our speech. As we know, the 'tune' of one's voice can be polite or harsh, depending on the mood or attitude of him or her. The different intonation patterns or tunes indicate the feeling of the speaker, such as sympathy, concern, excitement, surprise, regret, anger, disgust, indifference etc. Hence, intonation is a complex aspect of speech. You may well be misunderstood by others if you do not use the right tone in the right time.

As laymen, we can easily identify two basic tunes in speech. They are the 'Falling tune' and the 'Rising tune'. The classic example of both these basic 'tunes' is the traditional starting signal in sports – one, two, three. The voice of the referee rises in saying the first two words, and it falls in the final word. The rising tune is used in the first case and falling tune is used in the second. Here you need to remember that in sentences with more than one syllable generally the rise or fall start at the first stressed syllable and continues till the last syllable. This last syllable is the most important one as here finally the pitch of our voice changes, making it the 'nucleus' or the 'tonic syllable'.

The falling intonation is generally used in 'wh' questions, ordinary statements, and commands. In spoken English, the 'wh' questions are normally spoken with a falling tone, unless the speaker is very friendly and warm with you. 'Wh' questions like 'What's your name?', 'How old are you?' etc when asked by an

official or a census personnel are asked in a falling tone. But some of us have a tendency to raise our tone as soon as we see a question mark. Anyway, complete ordinary statements that have a sense of finality also take the falling tone. Commands are expressed in falling tone too. A sentence like ‘Please go there’ or ‘Please shut the door’ can be a command when said with a falling tone. A sense of authority is felt in these sentences. But when you say them with a rising tone, they become a request!

The rising tone, on the other hand, is used to express your feeling of warmth and friendliness. In a ‘wh’ question like ‘What’s your name?’ when asked to a child may be said in a rising tone to show warmth. Then again, in yes/no questions the rising tone is used: you ask the question ‘Are you a good boy?’ with a rising tone. In requests rising intonation is normally used if you really want the request to be granted: if you choose to say ‘Could you lend me a hundred rupee note?’ in a falling tone it no longer remains a genuine request and you will be considered an arrogant or impolite person. Apart from requests, in apology or in statements expressing concern, sorrow, sympathy etc. too rising tone is used. So you say: ‘I’m so sorry’ in a rising tone. Then incomplete sentences are spoken with a rising tone – it is equivalent to our comma in a written sentence. Take this sentence: ‘When I reached the station, the train had left’. Here the first part of the sentence is said with a rising tone to imply that the expression is incomplete, and the last part is in falling tone to signal that the sentence is complete.

There is another important intonation called ‘falling-rising intonation’, which is used for expressing apologies, doubt, warning, hope and unpleasant news etc. when there is an amount of uncertainty in our voice. For example the most commonly used word for apology ‘sorry’ will sound genuine only when you say it with a falling-rising tone. If you use a falling intonation in saying ‘sorry’, you will sound rude and if you use

rising intonation in saying ‘sorry’, you will sound more cheerful than apologetic!

So we see that intonation has a function similar to the punctuation marks in written English: both of them bring out the meaning clearly and also show the attitude of the person.

3.2.2 *Vocabulary*

In any language, meaning is conveyed through sounds. A word is the smallest meaningful unit of sounds. And a word is composed of one or more ‘morphemes’, which are minimum meaningful units of language. A word in isolation has very limited scope or meaning, unless it is used with other words in an organized manner.

The sentence is the highest grammatical unit or the ‘base unit’ for practical teaching purposes comprising smaller units below it, such as clause, group, word and morpheme. The morphemes function in the word structure, the word structure in the group structure, the group structures in the clause structure and clause structures in the sentence structure. So the highest in the hierarchy, the sentence structure has several structures within it, and words or lexical items count for important teaching points in the ESL/EFL classroom.

Form and meaning are interrelated but the relation is completely arbitrary. For example, the English word ‘table’ has nothing in it to suggest that it means a piece of furniture. Form is what we see or hear, and meaning is not something pre-existing in the form. Meanings are mental concepts which we get in the physical forms of sounds or letters. They cannot be expressed without the help of forms, and different forms are necessary to express different meanings. As already mentioned, the minimum meaningful form in a language is the morpheme, which is a part of a word. The study of morphemes or Morphology is important for our knowledge of word-formation.

There are two types of morphemes – free and bound. The morpheme that can stand by itself is free morpheme and that which cannot is called bound morpheme. For example, in the word ‘underdevelopment’, ‘develop’ is free morpheme while ‘under’ and ‘ment’ are bound morphemes. The bound morphemes that are added to the free morphemes are called ‘affixes’. In English affixes are used with the base form or free morpheme. The affixes before the base form are called prefixes and those after the base form are called suffixes.

Prefixes in English modify the meaning of the free morpheme of the base form. Some of the prefixes with their tentative meaning are given below:

Prefix	Meaning	Example
anti-	Against	anti-government
bi-	twice, two	bi-monthly
co-	with	co-author
counter-	Against	counter-productive
de-	from, away	derecognize
dis-	Without	dissatisfied
em-	in, on	Empanel
equi-	equal	equidistant
Prefix	Meaning	Example
extra-	Outside	extra-marital
hyper-	abnormally high	hyper-sensitive
inter-	Between	inter-discipline
intra-	Within	intrapersonal
	Defective, bad	malfunction
	Not	misbehave
	Not	non-violence
	After	post-independence
	Before	pre-independence
quasi-	Half	quasi-passive

re-	Again	resubmit
semi-	Half	semi-final
sub-	Under	sub-division
trans-	Across	transgress
tri-	three	Tri-colour
un-	Not	Unusual
under-	not sufficient, below	undervalued
vice-	next in position	vice-president

Suffixes are divided into two classes, viz., (a) Inflectional suffixes and (b) Derivational suffixes. Both these types of suffixes are important as the inflectional suffixes are used to serve grammatical requirements and the derivational suffixes are used to derive new words from the base form. First let us point out the inflectional or grammatical suffixes.

- i. The common plural suffixes in nouns ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ as in books, pens, apples, roses etc.
- ii. The possessive case suffix ‘-s’ as in boy’s or boys’.
- iii. Present tense suffixes ‘-s’ or ‘-es’ in verbs as in runs, teaches, dances, goes etc.
- iv. The ‘-ing’ suffix in verbs, as in running, going, eating, doing etc.
- v. Past tense and past participle suffix ‘-ed’ in verbs, such as booked, wanted, looked etc. There are some other common verbs like ‘do’, ‘speak’, ‘teach’ etc. which do not take the ‘-ed’ suffix in their past tense and past participle form.
- vi. Degree suffixes such as ‘-er’ and ‘-est’ are added to some adjectives and adverbs to form their comparative and superlative degrees. For example, big-bigger-biggest or small-smaller-smallest. In some cases, however, constructions with ‘more’ and ‘most’ are used in place of them. There are again some common adjectives such as

‘good’ and ‘bad’ which do not have their degree forms in the above mentioned ways.

The derivational or lexical suffixes, as already mentioned, are used to derive new class of words. Some of the common derivational suffixes are given here:

Suffix	Class of words derived	Examples
-able	adjective	dependable
-age	Noun	breakage
-al	adjective	Constitutional
-ance, -ence	Noun	Perseverance, existence
-ate	noun, verb	directorship, educate
-dom	Noun	freedom
-ed	adjective	addicted
-en	verb, adjective	soften, silken
-ful	adjective	tasteful
-fy	Verb	Nullify
-ic	adjective	Heroic
-ical	adjective	geographical
-ing	adjective, noun	fact-finding, reading
-ise	Verb	liberalise
-ism	Noun	opportunism
-ist	adjective	opportunist
-ity	Noun	opportunity
-ive	adjective	conducive
-less	adjective	valueless
-logy	Noun	morphology
-ly	adverb, adjective	slowly, friendly
-ment	noun	deployment
-ness	noun	darkness
-ous	adjective	courageous
-some	adjective	Troublesome

-ward	adjective	westward
-y	Noun	discovery

In the examples we have seen that inflectional suffix does not change the base form as such, it only carries out certain grammatical functions in a sentence. A derivational or lexical suffix, on the other hand, changes the base into another word class. We should also note that more than one derivational suffix may occur together, as in ‘worthlessness’ or ‘personality’, while normally only one inflectional suffix occurs with the base form. The inflectional suffix also happens to be the last item added to the base, and no other suffix occurs after it.

New words have been added to the repertoire of English language each passing day. To know the morphological structure of the language we need to have knowledge about some other common ways of word formation such as compounds, blends, acronyms, conversion etc. these are discussed in brief.

Compounds

Forming of a new word by combining two or more free morphemes is called a compound. For example, ‘blackboard’ is a compound word formed from the two free forms ‘black’ and ‘board’. Some of the common combinations that occur in English to make compound words are mentioned below:

Adjective+Noun	: blackboard
Verb+Noun	: pick-pocket
Verb+Adverb	: breakdown
<i>ing</i> -form+Noun	: drinking-water
Preposition+Noun	: downhill
Noun+Noun	: screw-driver
Noun+ <i>ing</i> -form	: job-hunting
Adverb+Verb	: input
Noun+Adjective	: sky-blue

Noun+Verb : manhandle

Acronyms

It is a word formed by combining the initial letters of words. Words formed in this way are called ‘acronyms’. They are sometimes pronounced as sequences of letters: TV, PM, UN etc. and also as words: ‘UNESCO’ which is short for ‘United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation’.

Blends or Portmanteau words

It is a combination of parts of two or more words into one word. For example, the word ‘smog’ has been formed from ‘smoke’ and ‘fog’, ‘motel’ from ‘motor’ plus ‘hotel’, ‘Oxbridge’ from ‘Oxford’ and ‘Cambridge’ etc.

Conversion

One part of speech or class of word can be changed into another without addition of any affixes. For example, in the sentence ‘paper the wall’ the noun ‘paper’ has become a verb; in the sentence ‘it is a must for everyone’ the auxiliary has become a noun; in the sentence ‘There are two Johns in the room’ the proper noun ‘John’ becomes a common noun; in ‘Two teas, please’ the uncountable noun becomes countable, etc.

Clipping

A long word is sometimes shortened by deleting one or more syllables, and the process is known as ‘clipping’. Examples: ‘photo’ from ‘photograph’ and ‘phone’ from ‘telephone’.

We should also be aware of the spelling system of words in English. There is no consistent letter-to-phoneme correspondence. The same letter may stand for different phonemes in the same word, as in ‘cancel’.

3.2.3 Grammar

As already discussed, a word in isolation has very limited scope or meaning, unless it is used with other words in an

organized manner. The way of organizing words into larger units in a language falls under syntactic structure or grammar. Grammar is simplistically defined as “the way words are put together to make correct sentences.” But units smaller than sentences also follow grammatical structure or a pattern or system. For example, a phrase like ‘a big house’ sounds right, but ‘a house big’ does not. Then single words can also become grammatically incorrect if we use ‘goed’ instead of ‘went’!

We come across different opinions regarding the teaching of grammar in an ESL/EFL classroom. For many, knowledge of grammar is essential for learning a language, but even though grammar need not be taught as such, or rules of grammar need to be learned in the classroom. L. Newmark says that “The important point is that the study of grammar as such is neither necessary nor sufficient for learning to use a language”(Newmark, 1979:165). Whatever it may be, grammar supplies a linguistic base in the learning of a language and learners need to be aware of the fact. Since second language or foreign language learning like English does not have an ideal environment in the classroom where they can intuitively pick up the niceties of the structure of English, it is imperative to focus our teaching to the basics of grammar. You need to be familiar with various common terms and items used in the explanations of grammatical structures, like the Parts of Speech, which are, as we know, Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, Adverbs, Pronouns, Auxiliary verbs, Determiners, Prepositions.

The sentence is called the highest grammatical unit. It is a set of words standing on their own as a sense unit and expressing a statement, a question or an order, usually containing a subject and a verb. In English, sentences begin with a capital letter and the conclusion is marked by an end-punctuation mark like full stop or its equivalent (question mark, exclamation mark). According to structure, sentences can be three types, viz., simple, compound and complex. A simple

sentence, also called an independent clause, contains a subject and a verb, and it expresses a complete thought. For example: 'The book is on the table'. A compound sentence contains two independent clauses joined by a conjunction, as in 'John gave the welcome address and Ravi offered the vote of thanks'. A complex sentence has an independent clause joined by one or more dependent clauses. A complex sentence always has a subordinator such as *because*, *since*, *after*, *although*, or *when* (and many others) or a relative pronoun such as *that*, *who*, or *which*. For example: 'After they finished eating, they went to the market'. Or 'The man, who lives my next door, is a doctor'. Then according to function, sentences can be of five types – (a) assertive or declarative, (b) imperative, (c) interrogative, (d) exclamatory and (e) optative. These are explained in brief:

- (a) Assertive or declarative sentence: It is a normal statement, which states, asserts or declares something: 'John is a student'.
- (b) Imperative sentence: This type of sentence is used for giving commands or making a request: 'Go there' or 'Please lend me some money'.
- (c) Exclamatory sentence: It is a sentence that expresses sudden feelings, such as a surprise, wonder, pity, happiness etc.: 'How wonderful!'
- (d) Interrogative sentence: This sentence is used to ask a question: 'Where do you live?'
- (e) Optative sentence: This fifth type of sentence expressing wish is recognised by some grammarians, like 'May you live long!'

The sentence includes, as we have already mentioned in the Introduction, the Clause, Group or Phrase, Word and Morpheme. These are the units of language, which are explained in brief:

The clause: It is a kind of mini-sentence or a part of sentence. It is a set of words that includes a subject and a verb, but may not

be concluded by a full stop. A sentence may have one, two or more clauses: in 'She left the hall because she was tired', 'She left the hall' is the main clause and 'because she was tired' is the subordinate clause. But 'She was tired' is the single clause forming the same sentence.

The phrase: A phrase or the group is a shorter unit within the clause. It also forms a part of a sentence, and the group of words called 'phrase' functions as a single word. For example, the noun phrase 'driver of the car' behaves as a noun in 'I talked to the driver of the car' or the verb phrase 'was going' acts as a verb in 'I was going to school'.

The word: It is a single unit of language, a minimum normally separable form in a sentence which means something. It is distinctly marked by spaces before and after it.

The Morpheme: It is the smallest unit of meaning the word can be divided into. In the word 'pass' there is single morpheme, but in the word 'passed' there are two morphemes 'pass' and 'ed'.

As we know, series of connected sentences making up a paragraph is a larger meaningful unit, but for practical teaching purposes we shall consider the sentence or the syntactic structure as the base structure. One who does not know how words are put together in a sentence would never be able to understand the language. By knowing the syntactic structure the pupils will know the way in which words are organized in a sentence. Here comes the importance of 'word order', which is an important structural device in English. In most other languages an inflected form is used to show grammatical relation, but English does not use many inflected forms. The word order in an English sentence decides the meaning of it. For example, in the sentences (a) This is my book and (b) Is this my book? change of position of the words results in the change in meaning. So when we shift the fixed positions of the familiar Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) in a sentence we get a different meaning and variety of the sentence. Words in a sentence

structure are normally divided into content words and structural words. Class of words such as nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs normally have stable and self-sufficient meaning, and they are known as content words. The other words, the meaning of which are entirely dependent on the context are called structural words or function words, such as the, in, have, of, who, that, because, since, will etc. The structural words are normally determiners, prepositions, auxiliaries, pronouns, interrogatives, conjunctions or intensifiers.

As we said that the sentence is the base form of language, we should know the parts of a sentence. The most common parts or elements of the sentence are subject, verb and object. These can be combined into a basic pattern like ‘Corbett killed the tiger’, where ‘Corbett’ is the subject, ‘killed’ is the verb and ‘the tiger’ is the object. The object can be direct or indirect, for example, in the sentence ‘I sent him a letter’, ‘him’ is the indirect object, ‘a letter’ is the direct object. Then the complement is like an object, except the fact that it refers to the same thing as the subject. It comes after verbs like be, become, seem; so in the sentence ‘she is a good dancer’ the phrase ‘a good dancer’ is a complement. And finally, there is the adverbial, which is another word or phrase that adds further information, like yesterday, at home, on her own etc. (For example, ‘Corbett killed the tiger yesterday’.)

The fixed word-order or the basic sentence structures in English, however, can be expanded and transformed into other structures, which contribute to different shades of meaning. Some important and frequently used basic sentence structures are given here:

Subject
Birds

Verb
fly

Subject
The cup

Verb
is

Adjunct
on the plate

Subject Corbett	Verb killed	Object the tiger	
Subject Jadu	Verb is	Complement angry	
Subject He	Verb put	Object the cup	Adjunct on the plate
Subject She	Verb made	Object him	Complement angry
Subject I	Verb sent	Object (I) him	Object (D) a letter

Apart from these, aspects of grammar such as verb patterns, nouns, modifiers, adjectival, adverbials, passive voice etc. are important for teaching of English as a second or foreign language.

3.3 LANGUAGE SKILLS

Communication is a complex process using comprehensive language systems and skills. If knowledge of language cannot be transformed into skills, students will meet difficulty when they use English in communication and even when they take tests that have listening and reading comprehension as well as speaking and writing components. This part talks about how to teach language skills.

English, for that matter, any language has four basic language skills: **listening, speaking, reading** and **writing**. The first two skills are mostly ‘acquired’ by the mother tongue speakers, while they are ‘learned’ by the second or third language learners. As we can understand, for the mother tongue speakers acquiring these primary skills is an ‘unconscious’ or effortless, natural process, while for others learning them is a ‘conscious’ process. The four basic language skills reinforce

each other, and “even for the development of a single skill, same amount of emphasis on the other skills will be found beneficial” (Baruah, 1988: 9-10).

The English teacher should emphasize teaching the language as skill, not as a subject. The pupils are to be shown the major areas of difference, especially in spoken form, between their mother tongue and the target language, which is English. The teacher has to be careful so that pupils do not make generalisation about the target language, because of the ‘pull of the mother tongue’ or mother tongue interference.

For a second language or foreign language learner, it is essential to have knowledge of these basic language skills. Listening and speaking are oral mode of skills and writing and reading are written mode of skills. Again, listening and reading are receptive or passive skills and speaking and writing are productive or active skills. All these four skills are interrelated. When we use the language, all the four skills are involved with language systems, which we have already dealt with.

3.3.1. Listening

The skill of listening (understanding) precedes the skill of speaking, just as the skill of reading precedes the skill of writing. One may argue that listening is not an important skill as speaking is. He is right in the sense that we can easily acknowledge a person as a speaker of language. But one should also keep in mind that the skill of listening helps master the active skills of speaking. To speak well, one must listen carefully and attentively. He should listen to the right accent and rhythm, intonation and also word stress, apart from pronunciation of individual sounds as well as the use of words by good speakers.

Both the skills of listening and speaking are grouped under the heading of ‘aural-oral skills’ for their auditory and oral characteristics. The learners learning English as a second or

foreign language should have enough ear training to pick up the characteristic English speech sounds, and also stress and intonation patterns. You can use minimal pairs of words or sentences on the board, like sip/ship, zoo/Jew, tap/tape or ‘I’m washing the car’/‘I’m watching the car’ to bring home the basic differences in pronunciation. As a teacher you can also use drills for the learners with the minimal pairs. For stress and intonation patterns also such a technique can be used, as in reCORD/REcord or ‘Yes’ with a rising tone and a Falling tone. It would be very good if they can be exposed to real life listening in the classroom itself. There are two types of listening – intensive and extensive. In intensive listening, the learners are trained in detailed comprehension of meaning and identification of particular features of grammar, vocabulary or pronunciation. In extensive listening, on the other hand, they are supposed to enjoy the plays, stories or poems as a whole. So the passages in extensive listening are rather long. The skill of listening requires one to comprehend the spoken language at normal conversational speed. So one who understands spoken English can (a) recognize the characteristic English speech sounds, (b) understand lexical meaning of words and grammatical meaning of structures (c) distinguish the English sounds from those similar to his own mother tongue (d) understand the meaning conveyed by stress and intonation patterns (e) anticipate and guess the meaning of words and structures from the context, etc.

3.3.2 Speaking

Speaking is the most easily recognizable active skill. People who know a language are referred to as ‘speakers’ of that language. So classroom activities that develop learners’ ability to express themselves through speech seem to be an important component of language teaching course. Practice in speaking in English helps a person produce characteristic English speech sounds and patterns, and also to use appropriate stress and

intonation patterns. He or she is expected to use appropriate words and structures to express the intended meaning in appropriate contexts.

In many of the teaching-learning situations, it so happens that the learners remain passive. So the teacher needs to involve them in various group activities. Drills for pronunciation, like practice in saying individual sounds in minimal pairs (see examples of minimal pairs in vowels and consonant sounds in 1.2.1) can be helpful. Chorus drills can be encouraging for more shy students in a large classroom. Methods like role play, bench wise drills, pair activity, and individual drills can reinforce teaching English.

Let us briefly discuss **role play**, where they are given a situation or task to enact a role. 'Role-card' can also be used in role play. For example:

Role Card A: You are a customer in a clothes store to buy a shirt as a birthday gift to your friend.

Role Card B: You are a shop assistant in a clothes store.

Imitation drills for teaching of stress, rhythm and intonation to the class can also be helpful where learners repeat after the teacher. The teachers' job as a facilitator is to see that the learners do not use their mother tongue much or that their mother tongue does not come in the way of expressing in English.

Importance has been laid on learning English as a second or foreign language in meaningful situations or appropriate contexts. Here the teacher has a major role to play. He or she has to use the allotted time period of the class to the utmost advantage of the learners by giving them sufficient exposure to the target language. Simple expressions like 'Please come here', 'Close the door', 'Show me your homework' etc. can often be used in the classroom to make the learners comfortable in English language and encourage them to use the language

themselves. The teacher can make use of various language games to practice patterns already taught.

Apart from teaching pronunciation and other aspects of oral English, grammatical or syntactical and vocabulary items can also be taught to develop speaking skill of the learners. Classroom interaction is the key in oral teaching to develop the learners' speaking skill.

3.3.3 Reading

Reading is prerequisite to writing as listening is to speaking. One must read a lot of English to be able to write good English with right words and usage. Like the advantages of oral approach, learning the language through reading is also helpful.

Reading also includes understanding, which is reading with comprehension. When we begin to read a text or when there is no helpful context, we often depend on decoding letters to understand words, but as soon as we come to understand a meaningful context, we make our own generalizations about the feel or sense of the text, and no longer depend on the individual words. Understanding the meaning of some words in a text is necessary to some extent, but not all. We can arrive at an overall meaning of the text even without necessarily understanding every word. This is the field of '**extensive reading**'. This kind of reading is normally done for information or mere pleasure of reading. Here the primary objective is general comprehension and not language study. Then we have '**intensive reading**' which is not reading for detailed comprehension of the text, but also for mastering the vocabulary and structure. Intensive reading is, in fact, very useful means for building up skill in written English. So the learners should be encouraged for intensive reading.

Like other skills, reading too is a complex skill. A person with proper reading skill will be able to recognize the graphic

representation of the phonetic structure of a text, understand the structural meaning of the syntactic units and also interpret and comprehend the significance of a word, phrase or sentence in relation to the overall context of the discourse. He or she should be able to read a passage at normal speed, understand lexical and structural meanings of syntactic units, guess the meaning of unfamiliar word from the context, locate the 'topic sentence' of the paragraph, make summary or notes of important points or recognize the various graphic symbols, punctuation marks etc. The learners should know about **silent reading** and **oral reading** and also about **skimming** and **scanning**. Silent reading is a more efficient way of reading, where one can read fast with comprehension. Skimming is quickly glancing through a text, as in newspaper headlines and scanning is being careful in looking for something in a text.

There are several methods of teaching reading as a skill. Some of them are: the **Alphabet method**, where emphasis is given to learning the names of the letters. It is an out-dated method, and no longer in use. Then we have the **Syllable method**, which is an improvement on the alphabet method. Here the emphasis is on the sound of each letter, not their names. With this method we can guess the pronunciation of a new word. In the **Whole Word method**, the stress is on the whole word as minimum meaningful unit, not on the letters comprising the word and the pronunciation of the word is learnt as a single item. The **Sentence method** is like the Whole Word method, but here the minimum meaningful unit is the sentence. But to develop the skill of reading through the Sentence method, the structures and the words must be familiar to the learners and the context must be clear. The **Story method** is that where the class is told a story, or the context is provided so that they do not have much difficulty in identifying the sentences. The whole discourse or the story is regarded as the unit of thought. The teacher has to adopt a judicious method or combination of all

these methods to teach reading. The learners need to be introduced to new items of vocabulary and structures, and that is possible both through guided and independent reading.

3.3.4 *Writing*

As we know, teaching writing is different from teaching speech as both of these discourses differ in some basic characteristics. Both speech and writing are used in different situations and they serve different social functions. Spoken language can be preserved in writing which is possible without the physical presence of the speaker. While speaking, the speaker can make use of tone, stress etc. apart from the extra linguistic features such as gestures or facial expressions. The speaker also gets instant feedback from the listener. Since these advantages are not available in writing, other devices and conventions such as punctuation marks, use of capital and bold letters, paragraphing, underlining, italicizing, using sentence connectors like therefore, however, by the way etc., subheadings, etc. are used in writing.

The writing process involves three stages. In the first stage the learner uses their psycho-motor faculty to form the letters of the alphabet. In the next stage, the learner structures or organizes the letters into words, and in the third stage, which is most important, they communicate through the writing. One who is capable of expressing himself or herself in written English can (a) write the letters of the alphabet at normal speed, (b) spell the words correctly, (c) put appropriate words in sentences with correct punctuation marks, (d) organize thoughts and ideas into logical sequence and make them into paragraphs, etc.

Writing is usually known as ‘composition’. The written composition is divided into two types – **Guided** and **Free Composition**. In Guided or Controlled composition, the learners are given all the necessary structures and vocabulary along with

the ideas to be expressed. As the name suggests, the teacher guides the learners as to what to write and how to write it. As they gradually develop their skill in writing the guidance is slowly reduced finally leading them to write on their own. At this stage they are supposed to choose the structures and vocabulary and freely express their own thoughts on a given topic. So this type of composition is called free composition. Free composition is, however, expected from the learners at a later stage, and not in lower classes of school. This free composition presupposes the mastery of the structures and vocabulary required for writing about a topic and is mainly concerned with the logical arrangement of one's thoughts and ideas on the topic.

To teach writing skill, exercises on written composition, such as letter writing, report writing, topic writing, story writing, expansion of abstract ideas, précis writing and comprehension of passages can be given.

3.4 THE LANGUAGE LEARNERS' LINGUISTIC PROBLEMS

Teaching of English is not similar to the teaching of other subjects. Whereas the objective of teaching a lesson of history or economics is limited to learning the contents only, the objective of teaching an English lesson goes beyond that. Apart from the contents of the lesson, the learner of a lesson in English is supposed to learn something about the language as well. But the learners of an ESL/EFL class are bogged down with myriad problems, such as mother tongue interference, unfavourable linguistic environment, lack of motivation etc. The English teacher, in this respect, has an important role to play.

Many theories about English language teaching have been propounded over the years and the role of the teacher as

facilitator has been greatly encouraged by the theorists. English, apart from being a 'library language' [the term first used by Indian Education Commission, 1964-66], is a national as well as international link language. Various education commissions have recommended continued use of English in independent India as a second language or a third language at schools. The Official Language Commission, 1955, has suggested that the English is to be taught in schools mainly as a 'language of comprehension'. The Commission Report says: "Since we need knowledge of English for different purposes, the content and character of that language as well as the method of imparting it have to undergo a change. English has to be taught hereafter, principally as a 'language of comprehension' rather than as literary language." Linguists and theorists such as Henry Sweet, Daniel Jones, David Crystal, Michael West, Harold Palmer, A. S. Hornby et al have put forward their views on language teaching during the last part of 19th century and the 20th century; and many methods of second or foreign language teaching like grammar-translation method, bilingual method, direct method, structural approach, situational method, communicative language teaching (CLT) etc. have been evolved.

But it is generally observed that at the end of the day the teacher has to adopt his or her own method of teaching in the real classroom situations. The teacher knows the learners well and also the 'method' that suits them best. The teacher can make learning English an enjoyable experience for the pupils by best utilizing the time allotted to him or her. He or she can chalk out a suitable lesson plan full of learning activities such as role play or reading aloud in the classroom.

In the actual classroom teaching, the teacher has to make the learners understand that English is not a language to be afraid of. It is as simple as Hindi or any other Indian languages, and that constant exposure to English – in classroom, among friends and peers, on radio, TV etc. – will make them

comfortable with the language. As already mentioned, English should not be taught as a mere ‘subject’ – learners reading a few prose and poetry pieces, some grammar and writing about them in examinations. It is much beyond that. The scope of learning the English language will be very limited if the whole purpose of teaching is limited to somehow finishing the ‘course’ or ‘covering the syllabus’. The language can, however, be effectively taught through those literary pieces in the school textbooks – but that will depend on the teacher’s own innovative methodology and ability.

Language is a matter of ‘doing’ rather than ‘knowing’. Producing correct English either in spoken or written form is not enough if we cannot use the language for communication. The sole purpose of using language is to communicate with others or ‘do’ things -- such as describe objects or people, express mood or intention, give permission or advice et cetera. The teacher must take note of the fact that at the end of an English course, say after high school or higher secondary stage, the learners must be able to communicate effectively, that is, they must be able to understand English fairly well, and also make themselves understood to others. Only then they will have ‘communicative competence’ in the language.

3.5 SUMMING UP

Language is a rule-governed behaviour. So it becomes obvious that in learning a second language or foreign language, a pupil at least has to grasp the overall system of the target language. But at the same time we should note that proficiency in language does not mean mastery of language system only, but acquiring language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing is also equally important. In an ESL/EFT classroom, the language teacher as the facilitator in the learning process has

sole responsibility of delivering his or her part well. They should also be aware of the structural as well as communicative view of language developed in last several decades. An English language teacher is expected to have sound knowledge of both these language systems and skills – the ‘what’ and ‘how’ part of the target language. In this Unit, you have come to know about the language systems as well as language skills, considered so important for an ESL/EFL teacher. Now you also have some fair idea of possible linguistic challenges and problems a second/foreign language learner has to face in a language learning context. With these basic knowledge in language learning you are expected to bring in desired changes in the language learners by ensuring communicative competence in them.



3.6 ASSIGNMENTS QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by ‘The Language Systems’? In how many part we may distinguish the language systems?
2. What is ‘Phonology’? What are the different aspects of phonology in a language?
3. Write with examples about the difference between ‘word stress’ and ‘sentence stress’.
4. Prepare a note on ‘Intonation’ in English.
5. Do you think teaching of grammar is essential in an ESL/EFL classroom? Substantiate your answer.
6. What are the basic language skills? Write a note on each of them.
7. What are the linguistic problems the second language learners usually face in Indian context? As a language teacher how would you help them achieve ‘communicative competence’ in English?



3.7 REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READINGS

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MODULE II: HISTORY OF ELT IN INDIA

UNIT 4: HISTORY OF ENGLISH EDUCATION BEFORE INDEPENDENCE

UNIT STRUCTURE

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Learning Objectives

4.2 Charter Act of 1813

4.2.1 Christian Missionaries and Semi-Rationalist Movement

4.3 Macaulay's Minutes of Education

1.4.1 Long-Term Consequences of Macaulay's Minutes

4.4 Landmarks in the story of English Teaching in India

4.5 Three broad developments in English Education in India during British Rule

4.6 Summing Up

4.7 Assessment Questions

4.8 References and Recommended Reading

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Let us begin the unit with a question. Why and how did English education begin in a nation like India which was a colony under the British? The following words from Timothy J. Scrase will help us understand the answer to these questions-

“Since the days of the British Raj, English remained the language of domination, status and privilege in India. The hegemonic colonial project in India was to create and maintain a class of administrative officers, clerks and compliant civil servants to carry out the task of ruling the vast and expansive subcontinent”.

The Britishers felt that western education would empower Indians to challenge the foreign rule and so, as a political prerequisite they started encouraging Indians to continue with their native culture and education. They adopted orientalism or encouragement of classical learning for their educational policy,

which was opposed by the missionaries like Charles Grant (1746-1823) whose plan was to teach English to the people of India.

Among the liberal minded Indians, Raja Ram Mohan Roy desired English for academic, scientific and other international reasons for Indians. He along with other thinkers not only felt the superiority of English education, they even expressed the view that “the teaching of mere Hindu or Mohammedan literature meant the teaching of a great deal of what was frivolous, not a little of what was purely mischievous and a small reminder indeed in which utility was in any way concerned” (Henry 91-92). Macaulay’s motive in spreading teaching of English in India was just to create a group of Indians who would be the interpreters between their rulers and the ruled. An official resolution endorsing Macaulay’s policy of modern education through English medium was passed. But the teaching of English in a systematic way started from the declaration of Wood’s Dispatch of 1854, which has been called the ‘Magna Carta’ of Indian education. In Wood’s Dispatch it was declared: “The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. English is to be taught where there is demand for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of the country” (from Report of Indian Education Commission, 1883).

English then gradually spread wider in India and gained roots in the educational system. In 1857 and just after, five universities at Bombay, Calcutta and Madras Punjab and at Allahabad were setup. The foundation of these universities marked a new era in the history of Indian education. This resulted in the spread of schools and colleges, which ultimately resulted in the increase of more number of Indians who achieved mastery in English language.

In pre independence era Mahatma Gandhi expressed his views mentioning the effects of English education-

English today is studied because of its commercial and so called political values. Our boys and girls think that without English they cannot get government services. Girls are taught English as a passport to marriage...I know husbands who are sorry that their wives cannot talk to them and their friends in English. I know families in which English is being made the mother tongue. All these are for me signs of our slavery and degradation (Gandhi 482).

But at the same time Gandhi also appreciated the importance of a foreign language especially English. He says:

I don't want my house to be walled in all sides and my windows to be stuffed. I want the cultures of all the lands to be blown about my house as freely as possible. I would have our young men and women with literary tastes to learn as much of English and other world languages as they like and expect them to give the benefits of their learning to India and to the world (Gandhi 484).

4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- gain knowledge about the historical developments leading to introduction of the English language in India
- learn about the different British policies related to English Education in India
- understand the way the missionaries imparted the education of English in India
- critique the development of English education in India during the British Rule

4.2 CHARTER ACT OF 1813

The Charter Act of 1813 renewed the East India Company's charter for a twenty-year period. A clause was inserted requiring the Governor-General to devote an annual sum of one lakh rupees to the education of the Indians. The clause which laid the foundation of English Education in India was written as under:

...that a sum of not less than one lac of rupees in each year shall be set apart and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of the British territories in India. We should keep in mind that the clause mentioned that the money would be spent on promoting 'literature' (by which they meant English literature) and for 'encouragement of the learned natives of India'. A General Committee of Public Instruction was set up in Calcutta (now Kolkata) in 1823 for the implementation of The Charter Act of 1813. The Committee started its work with an Oriental policy, rather than a Western-oriented one because the majority of the members were Orientalists. The Act of 1813 did not mention English (or even European knowledge or literature) or the study of English as either or means of achieving the goals cited. The money available was spent mainly on the teaching of Sanskrit and Arabic and on the translation of English works into these languages. Some encouragement was also given to the production of books in English.

4.2.1 Christian missionaries and Semi-rationalist movement

A new impetus was given to the education of English from two sources of different character with the approval of the Charter Act of 1813. One was from the Christian missionaries

and the other from a ‘semi-rationalist’ movement. The Christian missionaries had started their educational activities as early as 1542, upon the arrival of St. Francis Xavier. Afterwards, the movement spread throughout the land and exercised a lasting influence on Indian education. It gave a new direction to elementary education through the introduction of instruction at regular and fixed hours with a board curriculum and a clear-cut system. The missionaries stimulated the development of Indian languages by printing books in different vernaculars. The study of the vernaculars went hand in hand with the teaching of Western subjects through the medium of English, known in India as ‘English education’.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

Q.1. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:

- a) The Charter Act of 1813 renewed _____’s charter for a _____ period.
- b) A _____ was set up in Kolkata in _____ for the implementation of the Charter Act.
- c) The Christian missionaries had started their educational activities as early as ____, upon the arrival of _____.
- d) The study of vernaculars went hand in hand with the teaching of _____ through the medium of English, known in India as _____.

4.3 MACAULAY’S MINUTES OF EDUCATION

Lord Macaulay in his famous minutes of 2 February 1835 clearly supported the western education in India through the medium of English. It is worthwhile for us to read his observations about why English should be taught in the Indian schools:

[English] stands pre-eminent even among the languages of the west...whoever knows that language, has ready access to all the vast intellectual wealth which all the wisest nations of the earth have created and hoarded in the course of ninety generation (Henry 111).

He made English the language of government, education and advancement which was immediately a symbol of imperial rule and of self-improvement. Macaulay's 'recommendations' had both immediate and long-term consequences. In fact, he threatened to resign from the Committee on Public Instruction if they were not accepted. Lord William Bentinck, the Governor-General, accepted the recommendations, acknowledging that 'the great object of the British Government ought to be the promotion of European literature and science among Indians and decreeing that 'all the funds appropriated for the purpose of education would be best employed on English education alone.' While existing schools and colleges of native learning would not be closed and while existing professors and students would continue to receive their salaries and stipends, no further stipends for students would be sanctioned. When a professor of Oriental learning left his position, the government would 'decide upon the expediency of appointing a successor'. No portion of government funds would henceforth be provided for printing Oriental works. All funds would be utilized for 'imparting to the native population knowledge of English literature and science through the medium of the English language'. The ambiguity in the Charter Act of 1813 was thus resolved in the 1835 English Education Act.

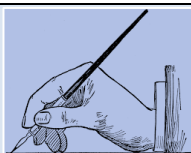
4.3.1 Long term consequences of Macaulay's Minutes

The question that comes to our mind now is that -- what were the long-term consequences of Macaulay's

recommendations and their acceptance? The withdrawal of government support-- keeping in mind that these funds grew out of Indian goods, Indian labour, Indian materials and resources -- to 'native learning' (as it was called, with its contemptuous implication) and to the printing of books in Indian languages meant that these (the learning and spread of Indian knowledge and literature through both teachers and books) would languish, as indeed happened. Macaulay did in fact succeed to a large extent, through the acceptance of his recommendations, in forming 'a class of persons, Indian in blood and colour, but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and in intellect. However, Macaulay wanted this class a) to be the 'interpreters' between the British and the millions whom they governed in India and, b) 'to refine the vernacular dialects of the country, to enrich those dialects with terms of science borrowed from the Western nomenclature, and to render them by degree fit vehicles for conveying knowledge to the great mass of the population.'

(Henry)

It is debatable whether either of these things really happened. During British rule, the class in question- the Babu class as it came to be called -- did not always play the role of the interpreter. This class often tended to gratify its own interests which it does even now. As for the second aim, both during the British rule and later after Independence, this class did not contribute as much as it should have or could have to the refinement or development of Indian languages and literature or scientific knowledge in these languages.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Which Governor-General of India accepted the recommendations in Macaulay's minutes?

2. Which curriculum was followed by the missionary institutions for English education in India?

4.4 LANDMARKS IN THE STORY OF ENGLISH TEACHING IN THE PRE-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

The story of English teaching in the remaining period of colonial rule in India can be mentioned in terms of a few landmarks: i) The establishment of universities at Calcutta, Bombay and Madras in 1857 (as a follow-up to the report of Sir Charles Wood in 1854, known as Wood's Despatch), resulting in selective higher education for training future administrators, imparted through the medium of English, which was to lead to a social stratification in the long run.

ii) The Indian Universities Act (1904) fixed the area of jurisdiction of universities.

iii) The resolution on Educational policy (1913) assigned distinct spheres of activities to universities and high schools, relieved the universities of the responsibility of granting recognition to high schools and placed the latter under the care of provincial governments.

iv) The process of separation of levels of education was continued by the report of the Calcutta University Commission (1919) which recommended the separation of intermediate classes from universities.

v) The Abbot-Wood report (1936-37) advocated basing primary and middle school education on children's natural interests and environment.

vi)The Sargent Committee report (1944) suggested the conduct of refresher courses for all teachers, particularly for those in remote rural areas.

4.5 THREE BROAD DEVELOPMENTS IN ENGLISH EDUCATION IN INDIA DURING THE BRITISH RULE

We now come to the three broad developments with regard to English education in India during the British rule:

1. *Levels of attainment in English*: While during the early years (1600-1800) of English teaching in India, the high variety (the sahib variety) was extremely imitative and formal, the low variety was a broken one called 'butler English'. But during the later years (1850-1947) with the increase in the number of Indians using English, more varieties (from a very high to a very low variety) appeared.
2. *Interaction with Indian Languages*: A number of words of Indian origin were absorbed into English, e.g., Brahmin, coolie, jungle, and so on.
3. *Methodology*: In the area of methodology, the East and the West shared a meeting-ground. Language studies in India had been based on the kavya (literature)-vyakaran (grammar) tradition, and the grammar-translation method had been the means of studying classical languages like Sanskrit or Persian. Individual learners who wished to acquire a reading knowledge of another language did so by interpreting texts with the help of dictionary (for the meaning of 'roots') and a grammar for the rules of inflection and syntax. The grammar-translation method as advocated by practitioners like Franz Ahn (1796-1865) was practical and easy. It was practiced without the spoken component, with stress on accuracy and using full sentences.

These factors partly account for the predominance of the formal mode in Indian English.

4.6 SUMMING UP

In this unit, attempt was made to introduce you to the history of English education in India during the pre-independence period that threw light on the beginnings of the British policies like The Charter Act of 1813, Macaulay's minutes of 1835, etc. We have learnt about the Charter Act that its passing required the Governor-General of India to devote one lakh of rupees annually to the education of Indians. We looked into the way the missionaries continued to offer English education from the beginning of the nineteenth century as a semi-rationalist movement. We also learnt about the recommendations of Lord Macaulay in 1835 about English education in India which led to the Governor-General declaring that the government funds would be utilized only to impart knowledge of English literature and sciences through the medium of the English language to the native population of India. We also looked into the few landmarks of the story of English teaching during the colonial rule and the three broad developments of English education in India before independence.



4.7 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1 Discuss the history of English Language Teaching in India.

Q.2 Write comprehensive notes on:

- a) The Charter act
 - c) Macaulay's Minutes
 - d) Gandhiji's views on English education
- Q.3. What were the long term consequences of Macaulay's minutes of education?



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UNIT 5: ENGLISH EDUCATION IN POST-INDEPENDENT AND PRESENT INDIA

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 5.0 Introduction
- 5.1 Learning Objectives
- 5.2 English Education in Post-Independent Period
 - 5.2.1 The Three-Language Formula
 - 5.2.2 The Important Reports
- 5.3 English Education in Present India
- 5.4 Summing Up
- 5.5 Assessment Questions
- 5.6 References and Recommended Readings

5.0 INTRODUCTION

Let us begin the second unit of this module by knowing that English, though a foreign language, has always occupied a unique position in the educational system in India. Despite the fact that it received a great setback after Independence because Hindi was declared the first official language and attempts were made to make Hindi the sole national language of India, it continues to be a major language having a prestigious position in our society. It is still the language that examines students in the universities, conducts foreign affairs, and transacts business with the world outside; the numbers waiting to learn English is increasing every day. After Independence, it received a hostile treatment not only at the hands of our political leaders but also some eminent scholars who opposed educating the Indians in English because it deprived them of their national respect and resulted in slavish behaviour.

There were, however, some people who advocated the retention of English for obvious reasons because it had been the medium of instruction, the language of administration and law; and the main vehicle to communicate with the rulers. Its abolition would have had an adverse effect on education and governmental administration. Maulana Azad and C. Rajagopalachari both realized that the abolition of English would be a great setback to the cause of education in India. Jawaharlal Nehru also voiced these fears when he said that English acted as the major window for the Indians to the outside world and its closure would spell peril for our future.

It was in 1950 that the language controversy got intense. With the commencement of our Constitution, on 26 January, 1950, it was unanimously decided that English should continue as the official language for fifteen years. Article 343(Clause 2) of the Constitution stated:

For a period of 15 years from the commencement of the Constitution, the English language shall continue to be used for all purposes of the Union for which it was being used before such commencement.

The specification of fifteen years was crucial for developing Hindi as a substitute for English; it was believed that after this period both the states and the Centre would be able to dispense with English for good. But the imposition of Hindi on non-Hindi States, particularly Madras (now Chennai) and West Bengal, resulted in clashes in these states. They argued that the removal of English would mean isolation from the main current of the knowledge of science and technology. The Official Languages Commission's Report stated in 1955:

We in India happen to have already a considerable measure of linguistic competence in the English language developed over the period of a couple of centuries of British rule, and it would be wantonly foolish to throw away this language.

The Commission realized the unique position that English occupied here. In the same report, it was argued that English could be used as a second language for specific purposes ‘for the appropriate personnel’. Although Hindi became the national language in India and efforts began to be made for its development, doing away with English seemed an uphill task. On the one hand, there were non-Hindi areas objecting to the imposition of Hindi, on the other hand, there were some reasons related to the sentiments of the people that made its adoption a very difficult task. Dr. Sunil Kumar Chatterji, one of the members on the Official Languages Commission, wrote his dissenting note on selecting Hindi out of the 14 main languages, as enumerated in the 8th Schedule of the Constitution. He opined that the situation has changed since the passing of the Constitution and large sections of people, especially in West Bengal and Madras, would like to keep English as the official language of India both because of their own languages which have benefited through English and for also reasons of Indian unity. Another member on the Commission remarked that acceptance of Hindi in the Commission was done in haste and the people in non-Hindi areas were being forced to adopt it, which resulted in their anxiety.

These attitudes obviously were quite opposite to the views held by the framers of the Constitution of free India or by those who wanted English to be replaced by Hindi within fifteen years. English, therefore, had to remain here as a window to the outside world.

5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you will be able to

- gather knowledge about the status of English and its education in the post-independent period in India

- know about the different Commissions and reports in India that led to the development of English education
- explain the present status of English teaching and learning in Contemporary India

5.2 ENGLISH EDUCATION IN POST-INDEPENDENCE PERIOD

The first education commission to be appointed in free India was the University Education Commission. It is also called the Radhakrishnan Commission after its Chairman, Dr. Sarvapalli Radhakrishnan. The Commission submitted its report in 1949. It was the tertiary level which received attention first. The Committee on Primary Education was appointed only in 1951 and the Secondary Education Commission a year later, in 1952.

It is an interesting fact to know that given the composition of the University Education Commission which consisted mostly of educationists and liberal intellectuals, it should have conceived of the role of university education in broad, universalist terms rather than in relation to the immediate social, political, economic or even the linguistic context in post-colonial India. In other words, the Commission did not go into details contenting itself with general, often vague formulations. There was, for example, certain vagueness about the recommendation regarding the medium of instruction: 'For the medium of instruction for higher education English be replaced as early as practicable by an Indian language which cannot be Sanskrit on account of vital difficulties' (Aggarwal 86). That this 'Indian language' should be Hindi was not made explicit though the Commission took it that Hindi (with a Devanagari script) would be the federal language of the union. Another example of the Commission's failure to go into details is that while recommending the three-language formula- 'the regional

language, the federal language and English’ – it did not examine the question of different learning loads; for example, the load would obviously have been lighter in universities where the regional language was the same as the federal language of the union.

The Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) was perhaps the first official body to concern itself with methods of teaching, materials for teaching and the evaluation system. The Commission was of course dealing with the teaching and evaluation of all subjects but its observations and recommendations had, and still have, particular relevance for the study of English. The statement of the Commission about methods:

Any method, good or bad, links up the teacher and his pupils into an organic relationship with constant mutual interaction....Every teacher and educationist knows that even the best curriculum and the most perfect syllabus remain dead unless quickened into life by the right methods of teaching and the right kind of teachers (Aggarwal 112-13).

The Commission insisted that “the emphasis in teaching should shift from verbalism and memorization to learning through purposeful, concrete and realistic situations and for this purpose the principles of ‘Activity Method’ and ‘Project Method’ should be assimilated in school practice.”(ibid. 115-16)

5.2.1 The Three-language Formula

Language planning in India can be said to have arrived at a crucial stage in the sixties. The anti-Hindi riots in the South as well as the ‘Angrezi-Hatao’ campaign in some parts of the North lent urgency to the problem. The conference of chief ministers in 1961 recommended the adoption of the three-language formula in all schools. This meant:

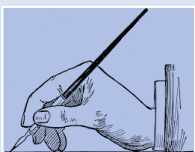
1. The regional language, or the mother tongue if different from the regional language;
2. Hindi, or any other Indian language in Hindi-speaking areas; and
3. English or any other European language.

The sense of equity behind this recommendation was not in question; the intention was to make the load of language learning equal in all parts of the country and also to achieve national integration. But it was an unrealistic formula as it ignored the lack of motivation among students in the Hindi-speaking areas to learn any other Indian language, and there was also the continuing political opposition in Tamil Nadu to the introduction of Hindi.

The three-language formula was reiterated by the Kothari Commission (1966). The Commission took note of the riots in Tamil Nadu but still recommended that both Hindi and English should be link languages, even though it felt that English could not serve as a link for the majority. It was felt that English should continue as a library language and as the medium of instruction in all major universities and that a reasonable degree of proficiency in it should be essential for the award of degree. The Commission also recommended that special units be set up for teaching English as a language skill, as distinct from teaching it as literature.

The stress on language skills led to the development at the international level from 1915 to the fifties by which time the grammar-translation method (which was not a method but a kind of bi-lingual work with a focus on grammar and literature) had made way for the Direct Method. The emergence of the Direct Method in India too, to a large extent, weakened the teaching of grammar as well as literature (i.e., what was perceived as grammar and literature by those who described them).

There was, in the fifties and sixties, an unhealthy reliance on foreign institutions, experts and theories. The structural syllabus prepared by the London School was brought to India by the British Council and introduced in Madras in 1952 through the Madras English Training teaching (MELT) campaign. The first English Language Teaching Institute (ELTI) was established in Allahabad in 1954 with collaboration of the British Council. When the All India Seminar on the Teaching of English, held at Nagpur in 1957, suggested the revision of the English syllabus at schools on a national level and accepted the structural approach as the basis for such revision, the services of the British Council were considered essential. When the Central Institute of English (now called the English and Foreign Language University) was established in Hyderabad in 1958, it was again with the collaboration of the British Council.

	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
1. What does the Article 343 (Clause 2) of the Constitution state about the English language?	
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
2. What is Three Language Formula ?	
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	

5.2.2 The Important Reports

The reports continued to be written. Reports on the ‘Study of English in India’ were submitted in 1967 and 1971 by study groups appointed by the Ministry of Education. After the Kothari Commission Report of 1966, the National Policy on

Education was formulated in 1968, largely to implement the recommendations of the Kothari Commission. It noted that the regional languages were already in use as media of instruction at the primary and secondary stages and proposed that urgent steps should now be taken to adopt them as media of instruction at university level too.

The Acharya Ramamurti Commission, appointed to review the 1986 National Policy on Education and the Programme of Action, submitted its report in 1990. The Report is important because, perhaps for the first time, it was a frank analysis of the problems in the implementation of the three-language formula. It observed that whatever the difficulties in the implementation, the three-language formula had ‘stood the test of time’ and that it was not ‘desirable or prudent to reopen it’.

The report of the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) in 1989 gives us the knowledge of the place of English in education in India. The CDCs were set up by the University Grants Commission and appointed for various subjects. The CDC report on English proposed a new undergraduate curriculum which comprises of a General English course and a Special English course. The Curriculum Development Centre report on English says the following:

If education was to be viewed as an instrument of human resource development, then, it was argued, why an MA programme in English literature (and that too, chiefly British literature) only? It was felt that we should introduce a multiplicity of MA courses in English such as MA in British literature, MA in American literature, MA in Comparative literature, MA in Creative Writing in English, MA in Modern English Languages, MA in English Language Teaching and so on, as several universities in Britain and America currently do. While

there was a broad agreement on this view, it was felt nonetheless that the time was not yet ripe for such diversification—chiefly because we do not have the human resources necessary to implement it (CDC Report 31).

5.3 ENGLISH EDUCATION IN PRESENT INDIA

To gather knowledge about the present situation of English education in India, we could ask the question -- what are the long-term goals of learning English in the modern world? It would be better to answer this question with regard to what the learners want from their education. We should perhaps start with the question: why is English education fast becoming a large-scale industry in post-colonial India? Why is there an increase in English medium schools? Why do students opt for English, even in states where it has been made optional? Why is there such a big market for institutes of spoken English with their crash courses and ‘English made easy’ programmes?

Macaulay might have thought that the knowledge of English was essential for civilizing Indians; earlier generations might have thought English was necessary for the shaping of character or the development of the aesthetic sense. But the present generation is convinced that English is needed for mobility and social and economic advancement. English is the language of opportunities because it takes one outside one’s own community to places where more opportunities are available for professional and economic growth. The students have realized that English not only gives us ‘information advantage’- it provides information in every conceivable branch of knowledge – but also ‘the power to change the world that changes us’. In other words, English is the language not of Westernization but of modernization.

The students of English in India have realized that English is necessary if they are to talk about their identity, their languages, their literature, their science and technology, their society and economy and polity, their values and culture so that the world outside will know what they are. We need English to project and interpret India to the rest of the world. The example here could be that we have to talk about Panini, Bhartrahari, Nagarjuna, Sankara and Tolkappiyar in English so that the world outside may know that there is a rich tradition of language philosophy in India that engage the latest in modern Western thought. The need is now to be in a position to talk about the ancient writers of India (Valmiki, Vemana or Tulsidas) or the contemporary writers (Premchand, or Jayakanthan) or the film-makers of India (K.Balachandar or Shyam Benegal) or about the achievements in the industrial and economic spheres or about the diversity of languages in India, which has been called as the Sociolinguist's paradise. The 'empire' should talk and write back in English. There is a need for quality translation and competent translators so that good translations in English could be attempted in the departments of English in India with the help and cooperation of other language departments which would result in encouraging a meaning interaction between Indian languages and English.

5.4 SUMMING UP

From your reading of this unit, you have come to know about the situation of English education in India after the independence. We have learnt about the language crisis between Hindi and English and also the Official Language Commission and its report which stated that the English language should not be given up. We also studied about the different commissions like the University Education Commission, Secondary Education Commission, Kothari Commission, Ramamurti Commission etc. The three-language formula and the reason for

its reiteration were also learnt by us. Besides, we learnt about the education of English that is prevalent in contemporary India with the discussion of the goals of learning English in the modern world.



5.5 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1 Write short notes on:

- a) The Three-Language formula
- b) Kothari Commission
- c) English Education in present India

Q.2 What are the long-term goals for teaching and learning English in Contemporary India. Write a comprehensive note.

Q.3 Write about the significance of a) Radhakrishnan Commission b) Secondary Education Commission.

Q.4 What does the Curriculum Development Centre report state on English education in India?

Q.5 What is the realization of the students of English and its education in contemporary India?



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PG Diploma in Renewable Energy and Energy Management	BE/B.Tech or M.Sc in Physics or Chemistry	Dr. S. Mahapatra sadhan@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275306
PG Diploma in Child Rights and Governance**	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Dr. Subhrangshu Dhar sdhar@tezu.ernet.in



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