



ENGLISH

**CENTRE FOR OPEN AND
DISTANCE LEARNING**

MEG 204: ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

BLOCK II

CENTRE FOR OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

TEZPUR UNIVERSITY (A CENTRAL UNIVERSITY)

TEZPUR, ASSAM -784028

INDIA

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Dr. Suchibrata Goswami	Assistant Professor, Centre for Open and Distance Learning, Tezpur University

CONTRIBUTORS

Amlanjyoti Sengupta	Assistant Professor, Dept. of English, Assam University, Silchar
Dr Anindya Syam Choudhury	Associate Professor, Dept. of English, Assam University, Silchar
Dr Sarat Kr Doley	Assistant Professor, Dept. of English & Foreign Languages, Tezpur University
Dr Amalesh Gope	Associate Professor, Dept. of English & Foreign Languages, Tezpur University
Tanya Brooks	Research Scholar, Dept. of EFL, Tezpur University
Bhargavi Gogoi	Lecturer, Dept. of English, Namrup College, Namrup

EDITOR

Dr. Debashis Mohapatra	Associate Professor, Dept. of English & Foreign Languages, Tezpur University
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Published by **The Director** on behalf of the Centre for Open and Distance Learning, Tezpur University, Assam.

BLOCK II

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UNIT 6: SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS OF APPLIED
LINGUISTICS

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THEORIES IN ELT

UNIT 8: GENERAL PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

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INTRODUCTION

BLOCK II

The English Language Teaching (ELT) paper offered in the second semester is a systematic approach to understanding the insides and outsides of the English language. Its wide and detailed content is focused on the learner's 'basic' and vivid comprehension of various key topics, concepts and terminology pertaining to the study, teaching and learning of the English language, with a persistent emphasis on a non-English context.

This subject, with its separate, detailed and revised chapters has been especially prepared to foster effective learning of a global language as English. The procedures and techniques in the book are intended to help the teacher teach and let the learner learn the fundamentals as well as the technicalities of this language. Besides the easy-to-grasp organization of the individual chapters and the overall network of meanings emerging altogether will enable the reader to be an adept practitioner of the lessons learnt.

Block II consists of Module III, IV and V.

Module III: Applied Linguistics and General Phonology contains four units *Unit 6: Scope and Definitions of Applied Linguistics, Unit 7: Application of Applied Linguistics theories in ELT, Unit 8: General phonetics and phonology, Unit 9: Speech Mechanism* discussing applied linguistic theories in ELT and its scope and applications. Apart from that general phonetics and phonology and speech mechanism is also discussed in this module.

Module IV: Curriculum Development contains three units. *Unit 10: Principles of Syllabus Design* deals with the basic principles to design a language syllabus in ELT, various steps of designing a syllabus, the syllabus design in general and syllabus for English language in particular.

Further, it will discuss different types of syllabuses based on the product and the process oriented approaches

Unit 11: Historical perspectives and recent developments in Course Design will enable you to understand the importance of Course Design as a properly designed, planned and organized course can only make teaching and learning a successful endeavour. In doing so we have included various theories related to course design presented by experts.

Unit 12: Teaching and Designing English Language in Bilingual/Multilingual Contexts will focus on how teaching of English in a bilingual and multilingual classroom or a linguistically heterogeneous place requires lot of teaching strategies. As several contextual variables like the types of learners, their linguistic backgrounds, the status of English in a particular area, i.e. is English taught as a second language or foreign language are important aspects that determine the design. Most important of such strategies is to focus how English can be taught effectively even addressing linguistic and cultural diversities of learners.

Module V: Approaches and Techniques of Skills Development has two units in it.

Unit 13: Oral/Speaking Skills; Sociology of Communication will help you to understand speaking skill as a measure of one's capability to learn any language effectively. Therefore, it needs to be adequately highlighted in any course on language studies/language teaching. This unit will thus, focus on the sociology of communication and the socio-cultural aspects of communication and will help the learner to be confident in language communication skill.

Unit 14: Reading Skills; Reflective Skills and Writing Skills Theories and Techniques primarily highlights the techniques of effective teaching skills which can foster learners' reading and writing skills. By elaborating in details this unit will bring out the strategic approaches to reading and writing to enhance language skills in our learners.

A cursory reading of the text even will prove the reader its significance in the modern context of learning and teaching where new methods, new ideas are implemented every day. The English Language Teaching paper spoken about here encourages newer inventions in the field of English education through the medium of proper knowledge and practical skills, in the first place. Various Extracurricular activities, field studies, group activities and sample exercises are the necessary add-ons which go deep into the practical application and utilization of ELT. All of these will make the learners ready for the contemporary academics and needless to say, the intended group of learners will prove to be successful teachers and practitioners themselves in the near future.

Therefore, Introduction to ELT serves as a useful tool to propagate the extensive study, teaching and learning of the English language in a systematic manner, and the learners will excel in keeping up with the academic prospects in this concerned area positively.

The highlights of this paper, however, are the attached Question-Answer sections which follow every chapter's discussion. These will especially help the learner to tackle and grasp all kinds of queries pertaining to a given chapter. Hope these two Blocks of MEG 204 will help the learners to articulate ideas on ELT for further references.

MODULE III: APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND GENERAL PHONOLOGY

UNIT 6: SCOPE AND DEFINITIONS OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

UNIT STRUCTURE:

- 6.1 Introduction
- 6.2 Learning Objectives
- 6.3 Definitions of Applied Linguistics
- 6.4 Scope of Applied Linguistics
- 6.5 Language Teaching and Learning as the Core of Applied Linguistics
- 6.6 The Social Turn in Applied Linguistics
- 6.7 Summing Up
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- 6.9 Answers to Check Your Progress
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6.1 INTRODUCTION

If we trace the historical development of linguistics, we find that several interdisciplinary fields have developed since the inception of linguistics because of its interaction with disciplines like anthropology, psychology, sociology, law, computer science, etc. In his encyclopedia titled *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*, the noted linguist, David Crystal (1997: 418), has made a mention of the following interdisciplinary fields: anthropological linguistics, applied linguistics, biological linguistics, clinical linguistics, computational linguistics, educational linguistics, ethnolinguistics, geographical linguistics, mathematical linguistics, neurolinguistics, philosophical linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, statistical linguistics and theolinguistics. More fields, like cognitive linguistics and corpus linguistics, for instance, can possibly be added to the list provided by Crystal. However, since this unit deals with applied linguistics, we will restrict ourselves to a discussion of what it is and what its scope is.

6.2 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After going through this unit, you should be able to

- (i) understand what applied linguistics is,
- (ii) what the scope of applied linguistics entails, and
- (ii) be familiar with the cross-currents in the development of contemporary applied

Linguistics.

6.3 DEFINITIONS OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

To begin with, it is important to assert that applied linguistics does not lend itself to any easy definition by any standard. A broad church that it has been, applied linguistics means, as Cook (2004) points out, “many things to many people.” But then, there has been a lack of consensus in defining other academic enterprises as well, especially in the humanities and the social sciences, and any attempt to pin down the domains of such disciplines to constricted ones has only resulted in failure (Davies, 2007: 1). With this idea in mind, let us now consider how some leading linguists have tried to define what applied linguistics is. Crystal (1997: 418) does so by pointing out that applied linguistics is “[t]he application of linguistic theories, methods, and findings to the elucidation of language problems that have arisen in other domains.” He further goes on to mention certain areas like foreign language learning and teaching, stylistics, lexicography, translation, language planning, clinical linguistics and educational linguistics as ones covered by the term ‘applied linguistics’. It is obvious from Crystal’s definition that applied linguistics covers a broad spectrum of disparate domains of knowledge. This, however, does not mean that linguists have not attempted to define applied linguistics tersely. Brumfit (1997: 93), for instance, offers a short definition of applied linguistics as a branch of knowledge which concerns itself with “the theoretical and empirical investigation of real-world problems in which language is a central issue.” Brumfit’s definition is important principally because of its focus on the ‘real-worldness’ of applied linguistics. There are several other definitions with a similar focus, the principal among them being the ones given by Weideman (1999), Widdowson (2000), Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002),

Grabe (2002) and Cook (2003). Weideman (1999) points out in eloquent terms how applied linguistics is concerned with the problems of the real world:

Applied linguists everywhere should be able to say to the world: here is assembled a group of dedicated experts, people informed both about the nature of language and about the acute problems accompanying the accessibility, acquisition, development, use and loss of language in our daily lives. We are a group dedicated not to give final answers to many of these problems, but determined rather to employ what skills we have mastered to the benefit of those who need us most: the underprivileged, the destitute, the handicapped. We are determined to lead our discipline into avenues that are beneficial to mankind, something that advocates of “applied” science have sometimes miserably failed in doing.

Widdowson bolsters the above idea of Weideman by stressing in his article titled ‘On the limits of linguistics applied’, which was published in the journal *Applied Linguistics* in 2000, that “applied linguistics is concerned with language problems as experienced in the real world” (3). This definition of Widdowson is somewhat similar to a later one by Cook (2003: 5) who characterises applied linguistics as an “academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world.” In a similar vein, Grabe (2002: 9) points out that “the focus of applied linguistics is on trying to resolve language-based problems that people encounter in the real world, whether they be learners, teachers, supervisors, academics, lawyers, service providers, those who need social services, test takers, policy developers, dictionary makers, translators, or a whole range of business clients.” Schmitt and Celce-Murcia (2002: 1) also focus on the real-worldiness of applied linguistics, defining it as a branch of knowledge which uses “what we know about (a) language, (b) how it is learned, and (c) how it is used, in order to achieve some purpose or solve some problem in the real world”. However, what is also perceptible in the definition of Schmitt and Celce-Murcia is their attempt

at delimiting the domain of applied linguistics by focusing on second language acquisition theory, second language pedagogy and the interface between the two as its primary concerns.

There are two very important ideas which can be culled from the above definitions of applied linguistics. The first is how the stress on the ‘real-worldiness’ of applied linguistics in the above definitions possibly succeeds in driving home the important distinction between the practical nature of applied linguistics and the abstract nature of theoretical linguistics. A clear formulation of this distinction is conceptualised by Corder in his 1973 book titled *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, which is regarded as one of the earliest attempts at ascertaining what applied linguistics is. Corder (1973: 10) points out that

[t]he application of linguistic knowledge to some object of applied linguistics, as its name applies, is an activity. It is not a theoretical study. It makes use of the findings of theoretical studies. The applied linguist is a consumer, or user, not a producer, of theories.

While Corder’s attempt at determining what applied linguistics is and what it does is appreciable, it would possibly be a mistake to assume that applied linguistics and theoretical linguistics can be put into watertight compartments for they are, in fact, interlinked and interdependent in the sense that while theoretical linguists and their work provide the theoretical bases which applied linguists use in their research, the latter in turn offer confirmation or repudiation of the hypotheses of theoretical linguistics in the process of their application to various practical situations. The second idea that is discernible in the above definitions is the difficulty in thinking about real-world problems in which language does not seem to be an important component for language is a central issue in almost all human endeavour, an issue which possibly makes Cook (2003: 7) say that “the scope of applied linguistics remains rather vague.” In the next section, the issue of the scope of applied linguistics is dealt with in some detail.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

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

- a) Brumfit's definition of applied linguistics focuses primarily on its _____.
- b) In _____ definition of applied linguistics, areas like stylistics, lexicography, translation and language planning find a mention.
- c) According to _____, the scope of applied linguistics remains rather vague.
- d) Corder attempted to make a distinction between _____ and _____.

Q2. Which are the three things which Schmitt and Celce-Murcia focus on in their definition of applied linguistics?

6.4 SCOPE OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

It is obvious from the definitions of applied linguistics in the previous section that there has been a continued struggle for applied linguistics with regard to its identity. On the one hand, we have always had inclusive definitions, a tendency reflected in the descriptions of the scope of applied linguistics in two prominent handbooks: *The Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, edited by Davies and Elder (2004), and *The Routledge Handbook of Applied Linguistics*, edited by Simpson (2011). Davies and Elder, for instance, begin the general introduction to their handbook by detailing the scope of applied linguistics in the following manner:

Applied linguistics is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language. The problems applied linguistics concerns itself with are likely to be: How can we teach languages better? How can we improve the training of translators and interpreters? How can we write a valid language examination? How can we evaluate a school bilingual program? How can we determine the literacy levels of a whole population? How can we helpfully discuss the language of a text? What advice can we offer a Ministry of Education on a proposal to introduce a new medium of instruction? How can we compare the acquisition of a European and an Asian language? What advice should we give a defense lawyer on the authenticity of a police transcript of an interview with a suspect? (Davies and Elder 2004: 1)

In a similar way, Simpson (2011), in his introduction to his handbook, clearly spells out in no uncertain terms the wide scope of contemporary applied linguistics:

...applied linguistics concerns range from the well-established ones of language learning, teaching, testing and teacher education, to matters as disparate as language and the law, the language of institutions, medical communication, media discourse, translation and interpreting, and language planning. Applied linguistics engages with contemporary social questions of culture, ethnicity, gender, identity, ageing, and migration. Applied linguists adopt perspectives on language in use spanning critical discourse analysis, linguistic ethnography, sociocultural theories, literacy, stylistics and sociolinguistics.

Both these descriptions of the scope of applied linguistics are broad and inclusive ones making us believe that applied linguistics could be considered “an open field” (Rampton, 1997: 14) but the fundamental question that remains to be answered is whether anything and everything that has to do with language should come within the ambit of applied linguistics. If we trace the history of the growth and development of applied linguistics, we find that there have often been attempts at restricting its scope to language teaching and learning. Corder (1973), for instance, has argued that applied linguistics is basically a collection

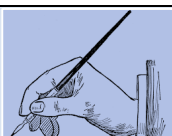
of applications of linguistics at various levels to the domain of language teaching. Widdowson (1984: 22) contends that the activity which “has commonly been called *applied linguistics*” is basically an “attempt to work out a principled approach to the solution of practical problems in the acquisition and use of language” (italics in original). What, then, could be the possible reason for considering language teaching and learning to be the heart and core of applied linguistics? An attempt to answer this question will be made in the next section.

6.5 LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING AS THE CORE OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS

One possible answer to the question raised in the last part of the previous section is that when a tremendous expansion happened in the domain of language teaching and learning (especially, in English language teaching and learning) post the Second World War, and it was sadly found that both language teachers and their trainers were largely ill-equipped with regard to knowledge about language, applied linguistics was set up to fill the gap by providing them with sound insights into language, language learning and language teaching.

In addition, applied linguistics was also expected to address the issue of difficulty in learning a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL), assuming that the difficulty was mainly caused by what was regarded as the interference of the learners’ first language (L1). This set the trend for applied linguists comparing and contrasting the structures of L1 of the learners and the new languages that they intended to learn with a view to developing a hierarchy of difficulties in the learning of the latter. This endeavour resulted in the emergence of a new domain called contrastive linguistics, the growth of which was accentuated by the structural approach in linguistics and the behaviouristic theory of learning in psychology prevalent during the 1960s and the 1970s. The behaviouristic theory considered all learning to be a matter of habit formation which, in the case of L2 or FL learning, could be reinforced or impeded by the

existing language habits. It is in this context that contrastive linguistics gained currency for it was at least able to come out with a list of structural features of a first language which were supposed to cause impediment to the learning of second or foreign languages. However, while contrastive linguistics was able to develop an inventory of differences between languages by applying its tools of analyses, it was not very successful in accounting for the persistence of learner errors in the learners' 'interlanguage', a term introduced by Selinker (1972) by which he referred to an intermediary stage in the L2 or FL learner's path towards attaining perfection in the target language, i.e., the language that he or she is attempting to learn. This endeavour led to the development in applied linguistics of the domain of error analysis, which primarily concerned itself with an analysis of a learner's performance in the target language to ascertain his or her present competence in the same.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Who said that applied linguistics is basically an attempt to work out a principled approach for solving problems that arise in the acquisition and use of language?

2. Who points out that contemporary applied linguistics engages with as diverse areas as ethnicity, gender, identity, ageing, etc.?

Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:

a) Rampton calls applied linguistics _____.

b) The aftermath of the Second World War saw the emergence of applied linguistics as a discipline to primarily address the issue of _____.

c) According to _____, applied is often said to be concerned with solving or at least ameliorating social problems involving language.

6.6 THE SOCIAL TURN IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS

While language teaching and learning has always remained important to applied linguistics to a great extent, a marked change in the scenario also began to be seen in the last few decades when it came to be realised that social and contextual influences could not be divorced from individual learners in the study of language learning and use. This change is usually referred to as ‘the social turn’ in applied linguistics, and it has resulted in making applied linguistics a more multi-disciplinary affair by linking it to domains like ethnicity studies, migration studies, and so on. What was once quite a restricted field of study in many senses has now grown into areas like critical applied linguistics, a kind of sub-branch of applied linguistics which, as Pennycook (2004: 803-4) points out, “opens up a whole new array of questions and concerns, issues such as identity, sexuality, access, ethics, disparity, difference, desire, or the reproduction of Otherness that have hitherto not been considered as concerns related to applied linguistics.”

6.7 SUMMING UP

In this unit, we have tried to look at how applied linguistics as a domain of study has developed from a rather restricted one in the mid-twentieth century to a very broad one involving a wide spectrum of influences from other disciplines. In this context, we have looked at how applied linguistics has traversed the journey of being associated mainly with second and foreign language teaching and learning to taking on a new avatar, that of critical applied linguistics, thanks mainly to the social turn in applied linguistics. In our journey through the unit, we have tried to grapple with the issue of difficulty in defining what applied linguistics is and what its scope entails.



6.8 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1. Discuss some popular definitions of applied linguistics pointing out their similarities and differences.

Q.2. Write a comprehensive note on the scope of contemporary applied linguistics.

Q.3. What do you mean by 'the social turn' in applied linguistics?



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UNIT 7: APPLICATION OF APPLIED LINGUISTICS THEORIES IN ELT

7.0 Introduction

7.1 Learning Objectives

7.2 Historical perspective of Second Language (L2) learning studies

7.3 Contrastive Analysis (CA)

7.3.1 What is CA?

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7.4.3 Criticism of EA

7.5 Difference between L1 acquisition and L2 learning

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7.0 INTRODUCTION

In Module III Unit 6 of this course, we discussed the definition and scope of applied linguistics. In this unit, we will try to familiarize you with the interface between applied linguistics and English language teaching.

7.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

By the end of this unit you should be able to-

- a. understand the link between applied linguistics and language teaching,

- b. familiarize yourself with the major language teaching theories based on linguistics,
- c. use certain techniques of English language teaching in your teaching context now or in the future and
- d. differentiate between first language (L1) acquisition and second language (L2) learning

7.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE OF SECOND LANGUAGE (L2) LEARNING STUDIES

Let us begin this unit with a brief look at how applied linguistics has influenced language studies related to L2 learning and teaching. Although interest in L2 learning and teaching dates back many centuries, it is only since the 1960s that systematic theories and models to address the basic questions of L2 learning and teaching have been formulated. Prior to the 1960s, this field was tied almost exclusively to foreign language teaching concerns (Muriel Saville-Troike 2005).

Structuralism, the dominant linguistic model through the 1950s, emphasized the description of different levels of speech production: phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and lexicon. Behaviourism was the most influential cognitive model of learning applied to language learning studies at that time. The audio-lingual method, an approach to language teaching that emphasized repetition and habit formation, was the widely practiced language teaching method till the 1980s. The disciplinary framework of the audio-lingual method was the intersection of Structuralism and Behaviourism. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory that emphasized interaction with other people as critical to the language learning process was also widely accepted as a language learning theory in the mid-20th century.

Since 1960, there have been two foci for the study of L2 learning from a linguistic perspective: external and internal. The external focus for L2 learning studies emphasizes language use at different stages of the learner's speech

production. The internal focus, based primarily on the work of Noam Chomsky and his followers, studies the speaker's internalized, underlying knowledge of the language, instead of the description of surface forms (Muriel Saville-Troike 2005).

We will discuss only two of the major L2 learning approaches based on applied linguistics that have been influential in the field of English language teaching in the following sections. A discussion on the differences between L1 acquisition and L2 learning will conclude this unit.

7.3 CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS (CA)

7.3.1 *What is CA?*

Contrastive Analysis (CA) involves predicting and explaining language learner's problems based on a comparison of L1 and L2 to determine similarities and differences. Structuralism and Behaviourism contributed to the growth of CA. Explaining the desirability of CA, Fries (1945:9) writes-

The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner.

Robert Lado in his *Linguistics Across Cultures* (1957) writes that the basic assumption underlying CA is

that individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings, of their native language and culture-both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives (Lado 1957:2)

7.3.2 *Broad assumptions in CA*

Influenced by Behaviourism, the first assumption of the early proponents of CA was that language acquisition is a habit formation. It essentially involves the process of Stimulus-Response-Reinforcement (S-R-R). Language Learners respond to the stimulus (linguistic input), and reinforcement habituates the response. In other words, language learners imitate and repeat the linguistic input that they hear, and learning takes place when they are habituated for that response.

Another assumption of this approach is the concept of transfer. In L2 learning, it refers to the transfer of linguistic habits formed in the first language (L1) to the target L2. The transfer is positive when the same structure is appropriate in both the language. The transfer is negative when the L1 structure is used inappropriately in the L2.

7.3.3 Basic tenets of CA

As you can already guess, the basic tenets of CA are-

- a. The easiest L2 structures are those which exist in L1 with the same form, meaning, and distribution and are thus available for positive transfer,
 - b. Any structure in L2 which has a form not occurring in L1 needs to be learned, but this is not likely to be very difficult if it has the same meaning and distribution as an equivalent in L1,
 - c. Among the most difficult are structures where there is partial overlap but not equivalence in form, meaning, and/or distribution, and these are most likely to cause negative transfer. (Muriel Saville-Troike 2005)
-
-

Check Your Progress 2:

Focusing on one or two major differences between the two languages, note the use of English by your friends in terms of positive and negative transfer.

Check Your Progress 3:

You may also record a few minutes of conversation in English of an English as L2 learner who speaks your mother tongue. Compare the differences between your subject's pronunciation of a few speech sounds, their distribution, and placement of stress etc. with a description of Received Pronunciation (RP) and make a list of the differences.

7.3.4 Criticism of CA

The CA approach of the 1940s and 1960s was criticized on a number grounds-

- a. It was tied to Behaviourism and so it could not explain the logical problem of language learning.
- b. The analyses of CA could not always be validated by evidence from actual language learner errors.
- c. Many of the L2 problems and positive transfer predicted by CA did not materialize.
- d. It caused practical pedagogical problems as instructional materials produced by CA approach were language-specific and they were unusable in a L2 learning situation comprising multiple L1 speakers.

As a result of such criticism, the practitioners of CA were divided into two groups: supporters of the 'strong hypothesis' and the supporters of the 'weak hypothesis'. The strong hypothesis group proclaims that CA must 'predict' the potential areas of difficulty in the L2 learning. The weak hypothesis, which later merged with error analysis, claims a mere explanatory CA role in L2 learning.

7.4 ERROR ANALYSIS (EA)

7.4.1 What is EA?

Error Analysis (EA) is the first approach to L2 learning studies to focus on learners' creative ability to construct language as it is based on the description

and analysis of actual learner errors in L2. This shift in efforts to explain language learning from Behaviourism to Mentalism is attributable to Noam Chomsky's introduction of Transformational-Generative Grammar. EA largely augmented or replaced CA by the early 1970s.

The most influential publication launching Error Analysis as an approach was the article "The significance of learners' errors" (1967) by S. Pit Corder. It called on applied linguists to focus on L2 learners' errors not as "bad habits" to be corrected, but as sources of insight into the language learning processes. (Muriel Saville-Troike 2005)

7.4.2 Methodology of EA

The procedure for the analysis of learners' errors may be described in the following steps (Ellis 1994):

a. Collection of a sample of learner language:

Samples of learner language may be collected from many speakers responding to the same kind of task. Samples are also collected from a language learner over a period of weeks, months, or even years to determine patterns of change.

b. Identification of errors:

It is the determination of elements that deviate from the target L2 in the learner language sample. Corder (1967) distinguished between systematic errors resulting from learner's lack of L2 knowledge and mistakes resulting from some lapse in memory.

c. Description of errors:

In the analysis, errors are classified as per the language level such as phonological or morphological, general linguistic category such as auxiliary system or more specific linguistic elements like articles or prepositions.

d. Explanation of errors:

It refers to the act of accounting for the origin of the error. Some L2 errors are caused by interlingual factors resulting from negative transfer and some are caused by intralingual factors. Intralingual errors are also interpreted as developmental errors resulting from incomplete learning or overgeneralization of L2 rules.

e. Evaluation of errors:

It refers to the assessment of the effect the error has on the hearer. It takes into account the seriousness of the error in terms of intelligibility or social acceptability.

Check Your Progress 4: After recording a few minutes of conversation in English performed by your friends, select a few utterances that contain errors, and then carry out an error analysis of these sentences using the methodology described in this section.

Check Your Progress 5: After collecting a few erroneous sentences in English written by your friends, carry out an error analysis using the methodology described in this section.

7.4.3 Criticism of EA

Although EA is still used as a useful approach to the L2 learning studies, it has been criticized for a number of shortcomings.

- a. There is ambiguity in classification of errors. It is difficult to ascertain whether a particular error made by an L2 learner is because of L1 influence or because of a universal developmental process in the form of simplified or telegraphic utterances.
- b. The accurate account of the language learning achieved by the L2 learner may not be understood by the focus on the L2 learners' errors. In the

process, there is a possibility of overlooking the learners' correct uses of the L2.

- c. There is also a potential for the avoidance of difficult structures by the L2 learner. The absence of errors shown by the EA of the L2 learners' speech production in the L2 in such cases will be inaccurate estimate of the reality.

7.5 DIFFERENCE BETWEEN L1 ACQUISITION AND L2 LEARNING

Stephen Krashen (1981) points to this distinction that L1 is acquired and L2 is learned. An unconscious and automatic process is at the core of L1 acquisition, whereas conscious and formal instruction is involved in the learning of an L2.

a) Initial state

Linguists agree on this fact that the initial state for first language acquisition is facilitated by an innate capacity or genetic disposition for language. But linguists differ on the existence of this innate capacity in relation to second language learning. This difference of opinion ranges from the support for the argument that the innate capacity remains for an entire life time to the argument that it disappears after a certain critical period in the childhood.

Yet, linguists agree on the fact that one of the major components of the initial state for second language learning, since it follows the acquisition of the first language, is the prior knowledge of the first language. The first language learner lacks real world knowledge in the initial state of acquiring the language. Second language learners are cognitively more matured and they possess real world knowledge by virtue of being older. Second language learners are equipped with communication strategies required for various language functions like requesting, commanding, promising, and apologizing in the initial state of learning the language.

b) Intermediate state

The intermediate states of first language and second language learning may be compared by looking at the basic processes, the necessary, and the facilitating conditions associated with the learning of the languages. The basic process of

first language acquisition is correlated with cognitive maturation. An L1 child grammar, the evolving language knowledge of the L1 learner, develops spontaneously and largely unconsciously as the learner is exposed to the language. The L1 language abilities are dependent on the maturity of the learner.

On the other hand, cognitive maturity is not a significant factor in the learning of a second language. The L2 learners reach a high level of maturity and can use the L1 with authority by the time they start learning the L2. Instead of cognitive maturation, cross-linguistic influence or transfer of prior knowledge from L1 to L2 is the process involved in the development of an inter-language or learner language. This cross-linguistic influence or transfer may be positive or negative. The transfer is considered positive if the L1 structure or rule produced by the L2 learner in an L2 utterance is appropriate or correct in the L2. It is considered negative when an L1 structure or rule produced in an L2 utterance by the L2 learner is inappropriate and incorrect in the L2. Transfer may occur in vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, and all other aspects of language. Positive transfer helps learn the L2 because the L2 learner does not require learning new structure or rule. Negative transfer may be observed from the presence of L1 structure or rule in the L2 utterance considered inappropriate or incorrect in the L2.

Both first language and second language learners need language input to learn the language. Along with language input, reciprocal social interaction is a necessary condition for learning the L1. The L1 learners need to interact with other people. On the other hand, reciprocal social interaction is not a necessary condition for learning an L2. If the L2 learner is provided with the necessary language input in the L2, even though from such generally non-reciprocal sources, such as radio, television, or written text, the L2 will be learned. First language acquisition takes place without instruction, correction of immature forms, or degree of motivation.

But second language learning may be facilitated or inhibited by many social or individual factors. Feedback, aptitude, motivation, and instruction are

some of these facilitating conditions. L2 learner's mistakes may be corrected by feedback. The ultimate L2 achievement may be influenced by the aptitude or memory capacity and analytic ability of the learner. Motivation is the need and desire to learn the language, whereas instruction is the explicit teaching in school or in informal settings. Different levels of L2 achievement may result on account of differences in motivation and instruction.

c) Final state

First language and second language learning differ in their outcome. L1 learning leads to native linguistic competence in the L1. The L1 learner is able to acquire the basic phonological and grammatical systems, vocabulary knowledge and interaction skills required for communicative functions in the L1 by the age of five or six. This outcome is a universal human achievement requiring no special aptitude or motivation. Vocabulary learning and cultivation of specialized registers like formal academic writing in the L1 are additionally continued till adulthood.

In contrast, second language learning leads to highly variable level of proficiency. This proficiency level can never be completely native linguistic competence. At the most, the competence in the L2 may be near-native or native-like. Many L2 learners may only be able to reach a frozen state called fossilization. In this frozen state, instances of L1 interference or creative structures not produced by a native speaker of the L2 are exhibited in the L2 utterances of the learner. Instead of a native linguistic competence, the L2 learner achieves a multilingual competence.

7.6 SUMMING UP

In this unit we tried to understand the use of applied linguistic theories in the field of L2 teaching in general, and English language teaching in particular with reference to CA and EA. The CA approach states that language is a set of habits, and an old habit may affect the formation of a new habit. It further claims that the difference between L1 and L2 is the difficulty area for the L2 learners and so language teachers should base their teaching on the findings of

CA. The EA approach, on the other hand, views errors as windows into the language learner's mind. Errors are considered as a sign that the language learner is exploring the new system. Since these approaches are complementary to each other, an English language teacher may benefit from both. Moreover, we have also learned that L1 acquisition and L2 learning differ in the initial, intermediate and the final stages. Understanding the dynamics of these differences will facilitate a better approach to language teaching.



7.7 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- a. Write a short essay on the historical development of second language learning studies
- b. Explain Contrastive Analysis with examples.
- c. What is Error Analysis? Describe the methodology of Error Analysis.
- d. How is Contrastive Analysis related to Error Analysis?
- e. What are the basic differences between L1 acquisition and L2 leaning?
- f. Write notes on the following-
 - i. Innate Capacity
 - ii. Positive transfer
 - iii. Negative transfer
 - iv. Fossilization



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UNIT 8: GENERAL PHONETICS AND PHONOLOGY

UNIT STRUCTURE:

- 8.1 Introduction
- 8.2 Learning Objectives
- 8.3 Phonetics vs. Phonology
- 8.4 Phone, phoneme, allophone and minimal pairs
- 8.5 Speech sounds: consonants and vowels
- 8.6 Concepts of syllables and consonant clusters
- 8.7 Summing up
- 8.8 References and further studies
- 8.9 Assessment questions

8.1 INTRODUCTION

In the simplest form, *language* can be defined as a set of signals that enables humans to communicate. Apart from human beings, there are other species known to have an elaborate communication system. For example, bees can communicate about (the location of) honey, Jackals can use vocal signals to warn of danger and food, and Dolphins use whistles and clicks to communicate information on food and danger. Nonetheless, the human communication system is way too advanced in comparison to the rest of the species. You must have observed the way a Parrot utters words or small phrases in our language. We definitely understand those words or phrases produced by the Parrot; however, have you ever wondered whether the Parrot understands those or not? The Parrot may be intelligible enough to reproduce limited numbers of (spoken) words or phrases; however, it lacks the cognizance of the abstract system behind the medium of human language. Similarly, when we encounter a foreign language we are not familiar with, we may only be able to guess if the speaker is angry or annoyed from the intonation and the gestures of the speaker; but nothing beyond that. Language is thus a two-way process involving production

(associating sounds with meaning) and perception (associating meaning with sounds).

‘Phonetics’ and ‘Phonology’ are two core branches of linguistic science those deal with speech sounds. We shall first examine the concerns of these two branches and examine the distinctions between a sound, a phoneme, and an allophone.

8.2 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

This course would enable you to understand the basic concepts of phonetics and phonology. You should be able to

- draw a distinction between phonetics and phonology,
- understand the concepts of phone, phoneme and, allophones,
- explain the way speech sounds are produced, defined and classified,
- illustrate the basic concepts of syllables and clusters

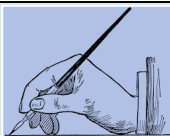
8.3 PHONETICS VS. PHONOLOGY

To understand, how phonetics differs from phonology, we shall first examine the key concerns of both. Phonetics is concerned with the characteristics of human sound-making, especially those sounds used in speech and provides methods for their description, classification and transcription (Crystal, 2008). Phonetics studies speech sounds from three perspectives-

- **Articulatory:** describes the way speech sounds are **produced** (or articulated) in the (human) vocal tract
- **Acoustics:** examines the waveforms of the speech sounds and explores their physical properties
- **Auditory:** studies the incoming acoustic signals as mediated by ear, auditory nerve, and brain.

Phonology, on the other hand, is concerned with the way sounds are organized in a language. The primary goal of phonology is to apprehend the cognitive system dealing with (grammatical) rules that the native speakers manipulate while using their mother-tongue.

By now you must have understood that phonetics deals with ‘concrete’ or ‘actual’ physical sounds manifested in human speech, and examines the physical and acoustic properties of those speech sounds. Human beings are capable of producing an infinite set of sounds, however; only a handful number of that endless set are used in actual communication. Furthermore, you would also notice that no two languages have the same set of speech sounds even if both the languages are closely related. Phonology helps us to understand how these small sets of sounds (out of those infinite numbers) are selected and organized in a given language. Phonology thus differs from phonetics in the sense that phonology is concerned with (the distribution, variations, and grouping of speech sounds) of specific languages; whereas, phonetics deals with the physical properties of speech sounds occurring in languages in general.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. How is phonetics different from phonology?

2. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:

a) Language can be defined as a _____.

b) Phonetics studies speech sounds from _____ perspectives.

b) _____ examines the waveforms of the speech sounds.

c) _____ studies the incoming acoustic signals as mediated by ear, auditory nerve, and brain.

8.4 PHONE (SOUND), PHONEME, AND ALLOPHONE

Given that phonetics and phonology both study ‘sound’ produced by (mostly) humans, we first need to understand *what a sound* is all about?

As mentioned above, the human vocal tract (see Figure 1 below and Unit 9 for further discussion) is capable of producing an infinite number of audibly distinct sounds out of which only a subset is used in actual human language. You would also notice that some sounds are more commonly occurred in many languages- for example, the m-like sound and the t-like sound are found in almost all the human languages. However, the question is how these sounds are produced and how shall we *represent* the sounds of a language. From the acoustic point of view, a ‘sound’ is a complex pattern of rapid variations in air pressure. It means that a sound must have a source of origin (imagine the vibration of a tuning fork), and it requires air to travel. In case of human speech, the usual source of a sound is the air originated from the lungs (and is called **egressive**; see unit 9 for further discussion) to be released through the mouth (known as ‘oral’ sounds) or through nostrils (known as ‘nasal’ sounds). That sound (in the form of a wave signal) enters into the ears of the hearer and causes a series of neural signals to be analyzed by the brain. A sound can thus be understood as ‘**sets of codes**’ stored in our brain those enable us to distinguish one sound from the other (for example the sound **t** as in ‘**tin**’ from the sound **b** as in ‘**bin**’).

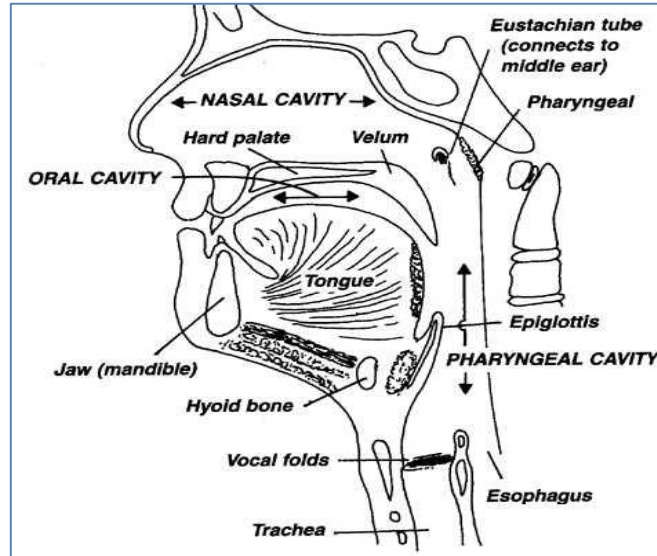


Figure 1: The organs of speech

(Source: http://www.utdallas.edu/~tres/integ/hom4/display14_10.html)

Phones are the **smallest unit** of speech sound which are physical segments. At this point, it is vital to understand that a sound (phone) can become a *phoneme* only when it is produced and perceived within the context of a particular language. What does it mean is that not all the sounds produced by a native speaker of a given language can be considered as a phoneme (however, all the phonemes are definitely speech sounds). Furthermore, you must also remember that a particular phoneme of a given language may or may not be considered as a phoneme in another language. Confused? You needn't be. You just need to remember that every language has its unique phoneme inventory and no two languages use the same set of phonemes. The question, therefore, is when or how does a sound (phone) is considered as a phoneme in a given language. To answer this question, we will first define what a *phoneme* is.

8.4.1 PHONEME

A phoneme is defined as a '**minimal meaningful sound unit**'. By 'minimal' I mean that it cannot be further subdivided into smaller units. Each phoneme is distinctive in the sense that they are produced (using different

articulators or in a ‘different manner’ or they represent different states of the glottis) differently. Therefore, when we say that a phoneme is a ‘minimal distinctive sound unit’ what we mean is that a phoneme is perceived within the context of a particular language. So for example, we can say that the sound /tʃ/ is a phoneme in English as in (/tʃə:tʃ/ ‘church’) but not in Assamese (Assamese has /s/ instead). Further, consider the English word /pen/ ‘pen’ which contains three different sounds /p/, /ɛ/ and /n/. Notice that, none of these three sounds can further be divided and each is produced differently.

Human languages of the world exploit different phonemes (consonants and vowels forming different minimal pairs) to distinguish the lexical meanings of words. For example, the English words /bʌl/ and /pʌl/ are different from each other since the first consonant of each word /b/ and /p/ are different from each other. Similarly, the words, /kʌp/ ‘cup’ and /kæp/ ‘cap’ are also different, since the vowels /ʌ/ and /æ/ are different in these words. Such minimal pairs of words are universally present in all human languages, nonetheless, the number of phonemes (consonants, vowels, semi-vowels, and diphthongs) used to employ lexical differentiation varies from one language to the other.

8.4.2 ALLOPHONE

While examining the properties of different languages, linguists also encountered some phones (sounds) which are minimal but not distinctive. What does it mean is that these sounds have limitations in occurrences and do not occur in all the possible environments? To simplify it further, these sounds do not occur in **contrastive distribution** rather they occur only in the **complimentary distribution** (when one occurs, the other does not occur). You can consider an allophone to be the two sides of the same coin; each time you toss, only a single side appear. Here, you can consider the instances of toss as different environments.


An allophone is, therefore, a concretely realized variants of a phoneme. Two factors determine the classification of a phone as an allophone of a

phoneme- (a) their distribution of occurrences, and, (b) their phonetic similarity. For example, the native English speakers pronounce the word ‘**p**aper’ as /p^heɪpə/, but ‘cup’ as /kʌ**p**/. That is to say, the sound /p/ in ‘paper’ is produced with a sound similar to /h/ (known as aspiration) while producing the word ‘paper’ but the sound /p/ remains as it is in the word ‘cup’ (or for that matter even the second /p/ in ‘paper’ is also produced normally!). The similar sort of changes (i.e., aspiration) you will also notice whenever the phoneme /t/ and /k/ occurs in the syllable (we will find the discussion on syllable towards the end of this unit) initial position of English words. So, the phonemes /p, t, and k/ in English have two representations- these are aspirated whenever they occur in **syllable-initial** position (and the syllable is **stressed**), and these are unaspirated elsewhere. Thus, these sounds are in **complementary distribution** and are considered to be **allophones** (p and p^h, t and t^h, and k and k^h) in English. However, in the case of Assamese or Hindi, these (p, p^h, t, t^h, k, and k^h) are realized as different phonemes. For example, consider the following words in Assamese /**p**al/ ‘to rear’, /**p**^hal/ ‘to split’, /**t**al/ ‘Palmyra tree’, /**t**^hal/ ‘plate’, /**k**al/ ‘time’, and /**k**^hal/ ‘ditch’. What did you notice? You must have observed that each of these phonemes (in bold /p, p^h, t, t^h, k, and k^h/) occur in the syllable-initial position and if you change one with the other, you get a different meaning (contrastive distribution). Hence, these are **phonemes** (and not allophones) in **Assamese**, but in **English**, these sounds are realized as **allophones**. So, you see, the allophones of a phoneme bear phonetic similarity (that is these sounds are produced in a similar fashion). Phonemes are distinctive phone; whereas allophones are not.

8.4.3 MINIMAL PAIR

A minimal pair can be defined as two expressions (words or morphemes) of a particular language with distinct meanings that are distinguished by only one phoneme. In other words, two words which differ in meaning when only one sound is changed are referred to as ‘minimal set’ or ‘minimal pair’. You have already encountered several such minimal pairs above

(for example, consider the Assamese words discussed above). Thus, the English words /kʌp/ ‘cup’ and /kæp/ ‘cap’ form minimal pairs since altering the vowel change the meaning of the word. Minimal sets are employed to establish the properties of phoneme (phoneme inventory) of a given language (**contrastive distribution = phoneme, complementary distribution = allophone**).

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS	
	1. Can you prepare a list of 10 minimal pairs in your own language (other than English)?
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
2. Can you check which sounds are available in your mother-tongue but not in English?	
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
3. Prepare a list of 20 words in English with allophonic variations.	
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8.5 Speech sounds: consonants and vowels

By now you have understood that speech sounds cannot be produced without air. You have also got the idea that the lungs are the usual source of air required for producing most of the speech sounds. These languages are known to have ‘**egressive** (going out) air-stream’ mechanism. While most of the languages of the world are known to have egressive air-stream mechanism,

there are, however, a few languages where sounds are produced with air sucked in through the mouth. Such sounds are called '**ingressive**' (going in) sounds (See Unit 9 for more discussion on these topics). The articulation of speech sounds involves the pharynx, the oral cavity, and the nasal cavity. Articulation of speech sounds refers to the physiological movements that modify an airflow to produce different types of speech sounds. Usually, two kinds of articulators are distinguished (depending upon their involvement in the articulation process): **active** and **passive** articulators. Active articulators are those which are movable (such as the tongue, lips, and lower jaw) and participate actively during the articulation process; whereas passive articulators are the non-movable parts of the vocal tracts (such as the roof of the mouth, upper teeth). The passive articulators provide the point of reference to the active articulators.

Speech sounds, nonetheless, can be divided into two main types- consonant and vowel. A **vowel** is a highly **sonorous** sound that generally requires **an open air passage** in the mouth. The air passage is modified by manipulating the shape of the mouth (widening (= low) or closing (= high) leading to different heights), varying the positions of the tongue (tip = front, blade = central and back = back vowels) and lips positions (rounded or unrounded). Vowels are usually voiced; i.e., the vocal cords continue to vibrate during the production of a vowel sound. Vowels are the nucleus of a syllable; i.e., you cannot form a syllable without a vowel. In that sense, every language must have (at least a) vowel sound to be able to distinguish lexical (word) meaning.

Consonants, on the other hand, involves some **sorts of constrictions** in the vocal tract. By constrictions, I mean, the air stream is restricted or (completely) stopped at some point between the vocal cords and the lips during the production of a consonant sound. They are usually quieter than vowels and consonants can be both voiced and voiceless.

8.5.1 CONSONANT

Consonants are classified using three dimensions: **state of the glottis (termed as voicing)**, **manner of articulation** and **place of articulation**.

Voicing: Voicing refers to the state of the glottis. The vocal cords vibrate during the production of a voiced consonant. [b, d, g] are voiced consonants. However, the vocal cords do not vibrate during the production of voiceless consonants. [p, t, k] are examples of voiceless consonants.

Manner of articulation

Usually, our ears can judge sounds very precisely. Thus, we can distinguish the sound of a thunderstorm from the sound of air or the sounds of rain-droplets. More specifically, we can distinguish the voiceless bilabial stop [p] (as in ‘**p**in’) from a voiced bilabial stop [b] (as in ‘**b**in’). As mentioned above, consonant sounds are produced with some sort of obstruction in the vocal tract. There are various manners of articulation associated with consonant sounds.

- **Plosives** involve complete closure at some point in the mouth followed by a sudden explosion (release of the airflow). This can be done by the two lips (the lower lip touching the upper lip), producing [p] and [b], by the tip of the tongue touching the alveolar ridge [t] and [d]; or by the body of the tongue touching the palate region [k] and [g].
- **Nasals** sounds are produced when the velum is lowered thereby completely closing the oral cavity. The air (from the lungs) is diverted towards the nasal cavity, and the air is released through the nostrils. Nasals are mostly voiced. In English, there are three nasals specified for three different places of articulation- bilabial [m] (‘**m**an’), alveolar [n] (**n**ose), and velar [ŋ] (‘**sing**’).
- **Fricative** sounds are produced when there is a tight constriction (friction) or incomplete closure at some point in the mouth. The air escapes through a narrowed channel with a hissing noise. Some of the English fricatives include [f, v, θ, ð, s, z, ʃ, ʒ, and h].

- **Affricates** are often considered to be a sound made of a plosive and a fricative. In the beginning, there is a complete closure like the way you will experience for a plosive sound followed by audible friction of a fricative sound. In English, there are two affricates [tʃ] and [dʒ].
- **Trills** involve intermittent closure. Trills are produced by repeatedly tapping the tongue against a point of contact. You will experience a trill if you roll your tongue while uttering the word ‘train’.
- **Laterals** are produced when there is partial closure in the mouth; the tip of the tongue blocks the air stream allowing the air to pass through the sides of the tongue. The [l] sound in ‘light’ and ‘full’ are examples of a lateral consonant in English.
- **Approximant or semi-vowels** refer to the sounds that begin the words ‘you’ and ‘wet’ (transcribed as [j] and [w]). They generally occur at the beginning of a word (or a syllable) and thus functionally behave like a consonant.

Place of articulation: In this unit, I will cover most of the possible places of articulation. I will go from front to back (see Figure 2). As the name suggests, the place of articulation refers to the point of articulation in the vocal tract.

- **Bilabial** sounds are those where the lower lip comes in contact with the upper lip. English has three bilabial consonants- a voiceless bilabial stop [p], a voiced bilabial stop [b] and a (voiced) bilabial nasal¹ [m].
- **Labiodental** sounds are produced when the lower lip comes in contact with the upper teeth. English has two labiodental sounds- a voiceless labiodental fricative [f] and a voiced labiodental fricative [v].

¹ The standard norm is to specify the voicing property first, followed by place and manner of articulation. Nasals and approximants are usually voiced; hence it is redundant to specify the voicing property for these two types of consonants.

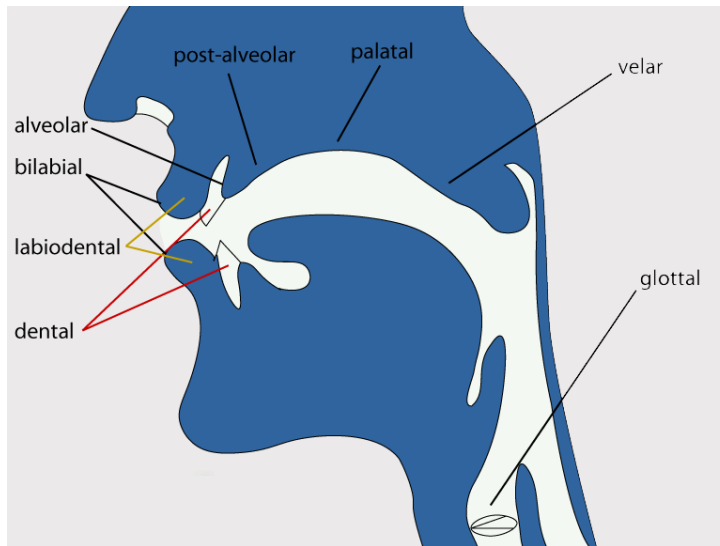


Figure 2: Places of articulation

Source: <https://www.mimicmethod.com/ft101/place-of-articulation/>

- **Dental** sounds are produced when the tip or blade of the tongue comes in contact with the upper teeth. English has two dental sounds- a voiceless dental fricative [θ] (as in the first sound of the word ‘**thin**’) and a voiced dental fricative [ð] (as in the first sound of the word ‘**the**’).
- **Alveolar** sounds those where the tip or the blade of the tongue comes in contact with the alveolar ridge (the hard portion right after the upper teeth). English has as many as seven alveolar sounds- voiceless and voiced alveolar stop [t] and [d], voiceless and voiced alveolar fricatives [s] and [z], a (voiced) alveolar nasal [n], a (voiced) alveolar lateral approximant [l], and a (voiced) alveolar approximant [ɹ].
- **Palato-alveolar** (also called as post alveolar sounds) sounds are produced when the blade of the tongue touches a location just behind the alveolar ridge. English has four palato-alveolar sounds- voiceless and voiced alveolar fricatives [ʃ] (as in ‘**shoe**’) and [ʒ] (as in ‘**vision**’), and voiceless and voiced palate-alveolar affricates [tʃ] (as in ‘**church**’) and [dʒ] (as in ‘**judge**’).

- **Retroflex** sounds are produced by curling the tip of the tongue that touches the area just behind the alveolar ridge. Some English speakers produce a (voiced) retroflex approximant [ɻ] (instead of alveolar approximant [ɹ]).
- **Palatal** sounds are produced when the blade of the tongue touches the hard palate. The sound [j] as in ‘young’ is sometimes described as a (voiced) palatal approximant.
- **Velar** sounds are produced when the back of the tongue touches the soft palate (the velar region). English has three velar sounds- a voiceless velar stop [k], a voiced velar stop [g] and a (voiced) velar nasal [ŋ] (as in ‘king’).
- **Uvular** sounds are produced when the body of the tongue goes straight back to touch the uvula and the neighboring portions of soft-palate (or velum). English doesn’t have any uvular sound. The ‘r’ sound of French and German is usually a voiced uvular fricative (transcribed as) [ʀ].
- **Pharyngeal** sounds are produced when the body of the tongue moves down and touches the pharynx. English does not have any pharyngeal sounds.
- **Glottal** sounds are produced by moving the vocal cords close to each other. English has a voiceless glottal fricative [h].

8.5.2 VOWELS

As mentioned above, vowels are highly sonorous sounds produced without any constrictions in the vocal tract. Thus, unlike consonants vowels do not have ‘places of articulation’. The entire vocal tract acts as a resonating chamber. It is very important to describe the following properties while describing a vowel:

- the length of the vowel (short or long)
- whether the vowel is oral or nasal²

² All English vowels are oral

- the highest point of the tongue (high or low)
- the degree of closeness (close or open)
- the shape of the lips (rounded or unrounded)

Basically, the vocal tract displays three primary modifications in the form of *shape*. Vowels are often described by specifying each modification involved.

- **Rounding** refers to the shape of the lips. [u], [o] are rounded vowels whereas [i], [e] are the unrounded vowels in English
- **Height (of the tongue)** refers to the **wider** or **narrower** passage of the air in the vocal tract. Widening is accomplished when the jaw or the body of the tongue is lowered towards the bottom of the mouth; whereas, narrowing is accomplished by raising the body of the tongue. Vowels are thus classified as **high**, **mid** or **low** depending upon the position of the tongue. In English, [i], [u] are high vowels, [e] [o] are mid vowels and [ɑ] is an example of low vowel.
- **Backness** refers to the vocal tract shape where either the body of the tongue moves towards the front or the back part of the mouth. Vowels so made are called **front** and **back** vowels respectively. Vowels those are neither front nor back are called the **central vowels**.

Below, I have provided an IPA chart representing the consonant and vowel sounds of the world. Note that, a fair number of these sounds appearing in the IPA chart do not occur in English.

THE INTERNATIONAL PHONETIC ALPHABET (revised to 2005)

CONSONANTS (PULMONIC)

© 2005 IPA

	Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Retroflex	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	Pharyngeal	Glottal
Plosive	p b			t d		ʈ ɖ	c ɟ	k ɡ	q ɢ		ʔ
Nasal	m	ɱ		n		ɳ	ɲ	ŋ	ɴ		
Trill	ʙ			r					ʀ		
Tap or Flap		ⱱ		ɾ		ɽ					
Fricative	ɸ β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	ʂ ʐ	ç ʝ	x ɣ	χ ʁ	ħ ʕ	h ɦ
Lateral fricative				ɬ ɮ							
Approximant		ʋ		ɹ		ɻ	j	ɰ			
Lateral approximant				l		ɭ	ʎ	ʟ			

Where symbols appear in pairs, the one to the right represents a voiced consonant. Shaded areas denote articulations judged impossible.

CONSONANTS (NON-PULMONIC)

Clicks	Voiced implosives	Ejectives
ɔ Bilabial	ɓ Bilabial	ʼ Examples:
ǀ Dental	ɗ Dental/alveolar	pʼ Bilabial
ǃ (Postalveolar)	ɟ Palatal	tʼ Dental/alveolar
ǂ Palatoalveolar	ɡ Velar	kʼ Velar
ǁ Alveolar lateral	ɠ Uvular	sʼ Alveolar fricative

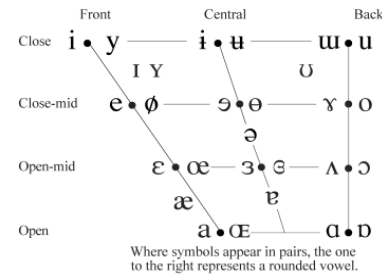
OTHER SYMBOLS

ɱ Voiceless labial-velar fricative	ɕ ʑ Alveolo-palatal fricatives
ɰ Voiced labial-velar approximant	ɺ Voiced alveolar lateral flap
ɥ Voiced labial-palatal approximant	ɧ Simultaneous ʃ and x
ʜ Voiceless epiglottal fricative	
ʢ Voiced epiglottal fricative	Affricates and double articulations can be represented by two symbols joined by a tie bar if necessary.
ʡ Epiglottal plosive	

DIACRITICS Diacritics may be placed above a symbol with a descender, e.g. ŋ̥

◌̥ Voiceless	◌̤ Breathy voiced	◌̦ Dental
◌̥ Voiced	◌̤ Creaky voiced	◌̦ Apical
◌̥ Aspirated	◌̤ Linguolabial	◌̦ Laminal
◌̥ More rounded	◌̤ Labialized	◌̦ Nasalized
◌̥ Less rounded	◌̤ Palatalized	◌̦ Nasal release
◌̥ Advanced	◌̤ Velarized	◌̦ Lateral release
◌̥ Retracted	◌̤ Pharyngealized	◌̦ No audible release
◌̥ Centralized	◌̤ Velarized or pharyngealized	
◌̥ Mid-centralized	◌̤ Raised	◌̦ (ɹ̥ = voiced alveolar fricative)
◌̥ Syllabic	◌̤ Lowered	◌̦ (β̥ = voiced bilabial approximant)
◌̥ Non-syllabic	◌̤ Advanced Tongue Root	
◌̥ Rhoticity	◌̤ Retracted Tongue Root	

VOWELS



SUPRASEGMENTALS

ˈ Primary stress
ˌ Secondary stress
ː Long
ˑ Half-long
ˑ Extra-short
ˑ Minor (foot) group
ˑ Major (intonation) group
ˑ Syllable break
ˑ Linking (absence of a break)

TONES AND WORD ACCENTS	
LEVEL	CONTOUR
˥ or ˧ Extra high	˥ or ˧ Rising
˥ High	˥ Falling
˥ Mid	˥ High rising
˥ Low	˥ Low rising
˥ Extra low	˥ Rising-falling
˥ Downstep	˥ Global rise
˥ Upstep	˥ Global fall

Source:

https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org/sites/default/files/IPA2005_1000px.png

In English, there are twenty vowel sounds- twelve monophthongs and 8 diphthongs. Diphthongs are produced by combining two monophthongs together. Following O'Connor (first edition 1973), I have listed below the vowels in English-

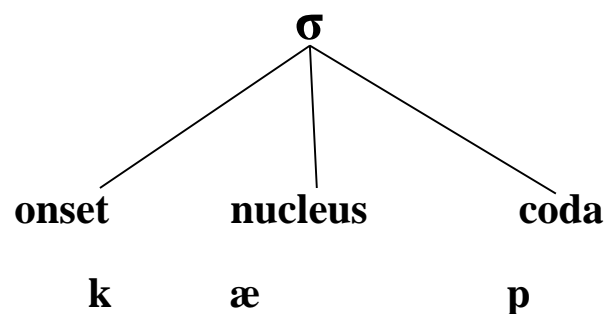
IPA (O'Connor)	Examples
1 i:	see, unique, feel
2 ɪ	wit, mystic, little
3 e	set, meant, bet
4 æ	pat, cash, bad
5 ɑ:	half, part, father
6 ɒ	not, what, cost
7 ɔ:	port, caught, all
8 ʊ	wood, could, put
9 u:	you, music, rude
10 ʌ	bus, come, but
11 ɜ:	beard, word, fur
12 ə	alone, butter
13 eɪ	lady, make
14 əʊ	go, home
15 aɪ	my, time
16 aʊ	now, round
17 ɔɪ	boy, noise
18 ɪə	here, beard
19 ɛə	fair, scarce

20 ɔə more, board

21 ʊə pure, your

8.6 SYLLABLES AND CONSONANT CLUSTERS

A **syllable** is a unit of pronunciation typically larger than a single phoneme and smaller than a *word* (of course there are mono-syllabic words consist of only one syllable). **Syllabification** refers to the division of words into syllables. Ideally, a syllable contains an **onset consonant**, a **nucleus** (usually a **vowel**) and a **coda consonant** (final consonant). Thus, a syllable must have a vowel sound and may or may not be preceded or followed by a consonant. A syllable is considered to be the phonological building block of words. An ideal syllable structure is shown below-



Consonant cluster refers to the sequence of consonant sounds (a group of two or more consonants) occurring together (in a syllable) without an intervening vowel. The English language allows several consonant clusters occurring either in the syllable-initial position or in the syllable-final position. Examples of English consonant clusters occurring in the syllable-initial position can be seen in the following words- '**s**plash', '**s**train', '**s**creech', '**p**lay', and so on. Examples of English consonant clusters occurring in the syllable-final position can be seen in the following words- '**s**cripts', '**m**id**s**t', '**f**acts' and so on.

8.7 SUMMING UP

In this unit, I have discussed the basic concepts of phonetics and phonology and draw a distinction between the two sub-disciplines of linguistics.

This unit further describes the way speech sounds (viz., consonant and vowel) are produced with special reference to the English sound systems (phoneme inventory). The unit also briefly touches upon the concepts of **syllable** and **consonant cluster**. I believe this unit will help you to understand the fundamental concepts of phonetics and phonology.



8.8 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1). Briefly discuss the consonants of English. Cite suitable examples.
- 2). What do you understand by ‘complementary’ and ‘contrastive’ distributions of speech sounds? Provide examples from your mother tongue.
- 3). Do you think that ‘phonetics’ and ‘phonology’ are separate fields? Or are they identical? Justify your argument with examples.
- 4). Can you prepare a list of twenty words representing (different types of) consonant clusters in your mother tongue?
- 5). How many vowels are there in English? Describe each vowel with example.



8.9 REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READINGS

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UNIT 9: SPEECH MECHANISM

UNIT STRUCTURE:

- 9.0 Introduction
- 9.1 Learning Objectives
- 9.2 Approaching speech sounds
- 9.3 The organs of speech
 - 9.3.1 The Lungs
 - 9.3.2 The Larynx and the Vocal Folds
 - 9.3.3 The Pharynx
 - 9.3.4 The velum or soft palate
 - 9.3.5 The hard palate and the alveolar ridge
 - 9.3.6 The tongue, the lips, and the teeth
- 9.4 Speech production and speech perception
- 9.5 Quantification of speech sounds: a brief idea
- 9.6 Summing up
- 9.7 Assessment questions
- 9.8 References and Recommended Readings

9.0 INTRODUCTION

The attributes of language most evidently distinguish humans from the rest of the animal kingdom. Humans accomplish extraordinary things by exchanging their knowledge in the form of language. Language, in that sense, is essential and central to human life. Nonetheless, the involvement of speech (sounds) in the form of language has always been a highly complicated and yet systematic and structured event. The expression of a simple event such as ‘it’s such a lovely day!’ involves a multiple numbers of complex events on the part of both the speaker and the hearer. First, the speaker frames the linguistic concepts in the brain and the brain in return transmit this message using the nervous system to the organs of speech. The speaker then makes some structured noises while s/he exhales. A successful communication will take place if- (i) those noises (hisses, hums, squeaks, pops etc.) the speaker makes are loaded with

exact sequence of information that expresses the idea of ‘it’s such a lovely day!’, and; (ii) if the hearer is accomplished to recuperate the information from the sequence of noises (mutual intelligibility). You must have realized by now that production of speech (from the point of a speaker) is dependent on both ‘psychological’ and ‘physiological’ aspects. It is psychological because the brain has to process the ideas; and, it’s physiological because the ‘organs of speech’ require to produce those noises in the form of words. However, there is a reverse process involved if you consider the hearer’s perspective- the hearer needs to receive the physical (acoustic) signals (in the form of waves³) using the hearing apparatus (hence it’s physiological) and communicate the information to the brain using the nervous system. In the next stage, the brain decodes the information (therefore, it’s psychological) and thus the event (idea) is communicated from the speaker to the hearer. Language, therefore, is loaded with substantial expressive power and it comes naturally to us. With this understanding in mind, we will then look into the ways we should speech sounds in the next section.

9.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

In the previous Unit, you have got a basic idea about the concerned areas of phonetics and phonology. You have learned that our ears are very sensitive and are capable of distinguishing various sounds. We also discussed what constitutes a language and the way speech sounds (phonemes) are categorized. In this unit, we will focus on the way we should approach speech sound. This unit would provide you a thorough knowledge about the organs involved in speech production. More specifically, we will look into the way speech is produced and processed in real time, and the way it is computed in the brain. Finally, we will also look into the way speech sounds is quantified and briefly discuss the acoustic components involved in quantifying various speech sounds.


³ Sounds travels in the air in the form of waves

9.2 APPROACHING SPEECH SOUNDS

I have already mentioned that language comes naturally to us. Therefore, the production of (speech) sounds also requires an equal level of perception. If you do not perceive (listen and process in the brain) something correctly, you won't be able to produce that thing anyway. If you think carefully, you will notice that our ears are so sensible that these can easily distinguish thousands of different sounds so efficiently. As a matter of fact, you must have experienced that you can more often than not identify the person (or rather his or her voice) while speaking over a telephone (without any sight of the person). Have you ever wondered, how do you so quickly identify your favorite singer's voice, or distinguish if a person is talking to nicely (or rudely)? All these are possible because our ears are capable of transmitting exact pitch range (be it the pitch range of a particular person or about any other sound) to our brain. Our brain stores that valuable information only to use that when our ears encounter the specific sequence of sounds the next time.

The question, therefore, is how should we approach speech sounds (or instead differentiate speech sounds from the 'other sequence of sounds'). We can compare the human voice to a musical instrument. How do you score a musical note on a musical instrument? It requires systematic strokes and precision. Speaking, therefore, can be compared to singing- tempo, rhythm, and pitch are all vital in speech production. If you are in the middle of a (face to face) conversation, you will notice that you take a turn to speak and listen and then speak again. *Euphony* or 'the principle of harmony' is central to speech production and perception. The perception of sounds starts when the baby is in the womb itself- the baby gets accustomed to the rhythmic sounds of its mother's body starting from the flowing of the blood, the fixed inhaling, and exhaling of air, the regular beating of the heart and so on. The experience a child acquires in the womb (getting used to different sounds and rhythm) turns out to be useful in language production and perception. How does a child start a language? It starts with babbling and cooing, and eventually, it starts producing a

sequence of sounds that are meaningful. You already know that phonemes are combined together to form syllables, and syllables, in turn are combined together to form words. Syllable, therefore, is the smallest rhythmic unit. If you wish to count the number of syllables in a word, the easiest way to do it is to beat a hand in time while saying it slowly. Language is a continuous process, and it requires a sequence of phonemes together to form words and sentences. We do not utter each phoneme separately, rather these are used in a sequence, and that's how we perceive those. Having said that, we assign some meaning (or concept) to those words and store that information in our mental lexicon. Each sound is assigned a meaning of its own, and that's how we distinguish one sound from the other.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS	
	<p>1. How does a successful communication take place?</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p>
<p>2. Fill in the blanks with appropriate words:</p> <p>a) Use of language is specific to _____.</p> <p>b) Production of speech (from the point of a speaker) is dependent on both _____ and _____ aspects.</p> <p>c) Sounds travels in the _____ in the form of _____.</p> <p>d) Tempo, rhythm and _____ are all vital in speech production.</p>	

9.3 THE ORGANS OF SPEECH

Humans, like other animals, use certain of his body's mechanism to produce sounds. The sounds produced by humans are unique in the sense that humans are capable of assembling the array of sounds into an exceedingly resourceful system of communication. Other species barely release sounds as a response to a few indispensable stimuli including fear, hunger, sexual excitements and alike.

You have already got the idea that the production of speech sounds requires a 'source of energy'. Production of a speech sound is a physiological phenomenon and requires the active involvement of specific organs. In this section, we will look into those organs and the way these facilitate the production of speech sounds.

9.3.1 THE LUNGS

The most common source of energy requires the production of speech sounds emanate from the lungs during normal breathing. We inhale external air (oxygen) and exhale internal air (carbon-di-oxide) from the lungs during the breathing process. While we release the air from the lungs, we involve various articulators in the oral and nasal cavities to shape different speech sounds (you have already got an idea about the kinds of articulators and types of sounds we produce in your previous unit). Since we emanate/exhale air during the process of speech sounds, the process is called **egressive airstream mechanism**. There are of course a handful of languages in the world those do not require lung (pulmonic) air for their articulation process. In those languages, speech sounds are produced while inhaling air into the lungs and the process is called **ingressive airstream mechanism**.

The utterances we make are therefore basically controlled by the physiological limitations of our lungs and by the muscles those control the actions of the lungs. During the process of articulation, we pause to refill our lungs with air.

9.3.2 THE LARYNX AND THE VOCAL FOLDS

The airstream emanated from the lungs requires significant alterations in the upper parts of the respiratory tract to be transformed into a speech sound. The airstream emanated from the lungs reaches trachea or windpipe and passes through the larynx and the vocal folds (or vocal cords). The larynx, widely known as the *voice box*, is located between the trachea and the pharynx. It is made of cartilage and muscle. *Adam's apple* or the projection shaped by the thyroid cartilage is usually found to be larger for adult male than the female.

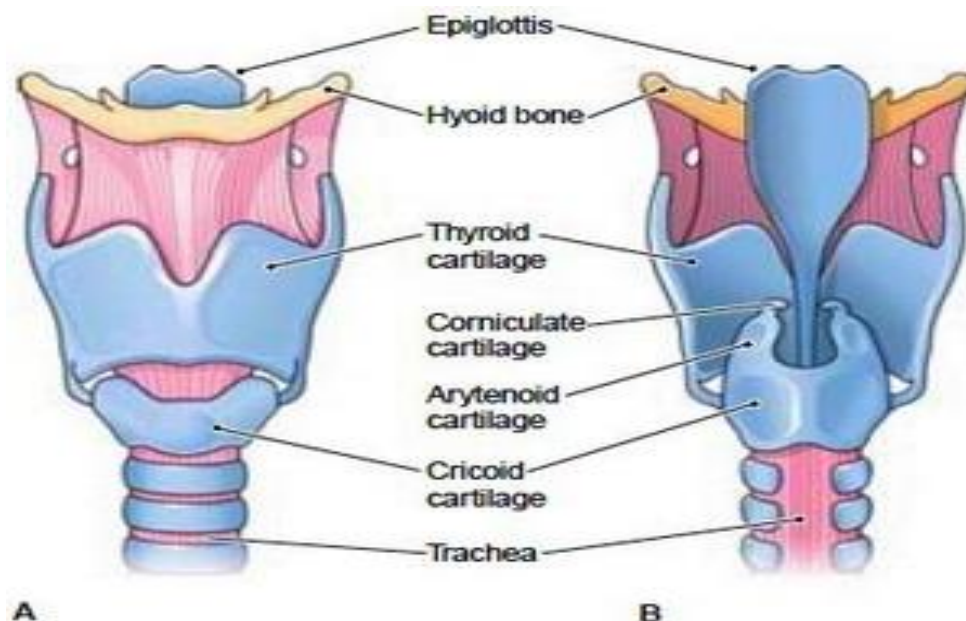


Figure 1: The Larynx. (A) Anterior view. (B) Posterior view

(Source: <http://encyclopedia.lubopitko-bg.com/Larynx.html>)

Vocal folds are made of mucous membrane and are located on both sides at the superior portion of the larynx. These two folds' elastic tissues may be closed or parted apart causing a sensation (or vibration) by the rotation of the arytenoid cartilages during the emanation of air from the lungs. The size (and the thickness) of the vocal folds depends on age and gender and is responsible for different pitch range in male, female and children. Usually, the inner edge of the vocal folds is observed to be approximately 17-22 mm long in males and

approximately 11-16 mm long in females. The size of vocal folds is inversely proportionate to pitch range, i.e., the bigger the size of the vocal folds the lesser the range of the pitch will be. Therefore, the grown-up adult males' pitch is the lowest, the grown-up adult females' possess slightly higher pitch and the children have the highest pitch.

The space between the vocal folds is called **glottis**. The primary function of the vocal folds is to prevent any object that may prevent air circulation in the lungs. Humans manipulate the opening and the closing of the vocal folds to produce a wide range of speech sounds.

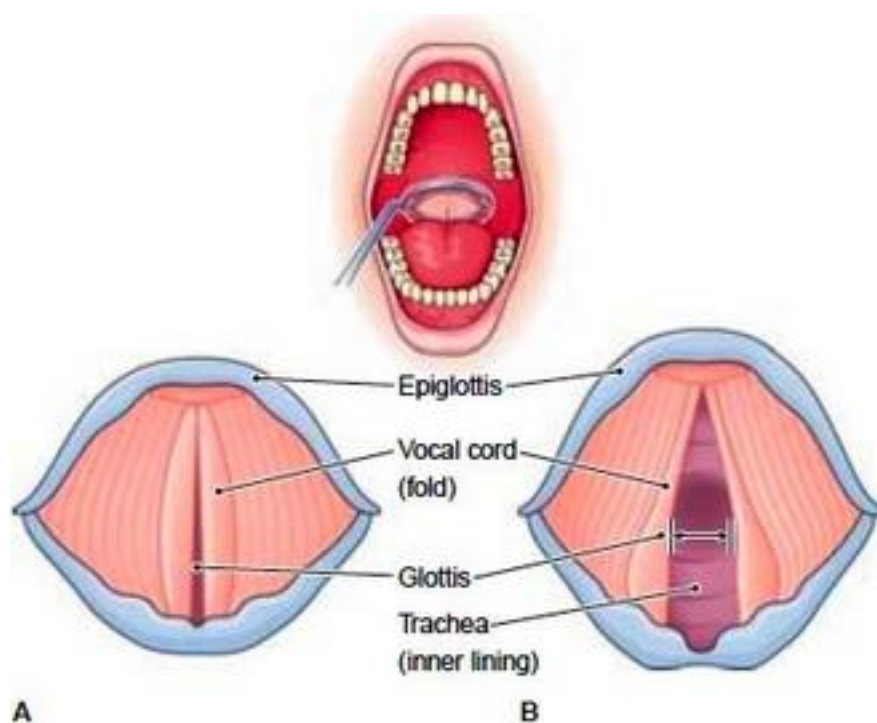


Figure 2: The superior view of the vocal folds. (A) The glottis in the closed position. (B) The glottis is the open position.

(Source: <http://encyclopedia.lubopitko-bg.com/Larynx.html>)

9.3.3 THE PHARYNX

The airstream once passes through the larynx, is further modified in the pharynx. The pharynx is a long tube (around 7 and 8 cm for female and male respectively) located just above the larynx. In the pharynx, the airstream is

modified following the shape of the upper cavities of the mouth and whether the air is released through the oral cavity or the nasal cavity. Both these cavities are considered as the chief resonators of the voice produced in the larynx.

Pharynx contains three different sections namely laryngopharynx, oropharynx, and nasopharynx. The advanced and/or retracted position of the tongue, or the positions of the soft-palate (vellum) or the raising position of the larynx affect the size and volume of this long chamber, thereby modifying different types of speech sounds.

9.3.4 THE VELUM OR SOFT PALATE

The vellum, along with various parts of tongue, lips and to some extent the lower jaw are considered as the active articulators (see Figure 3 below for their respective positions in the mouth). The velum, when it is lowered, the airstream is forced to escape through the nostrils that lead to the production of all the nasal sounds. However, when the velar is raised the air passes through the oral cavity and various oral sounds are produced depending on the constrictions by the other articulators in the mouth. English [k and g] are examples of two velar (stop) consonants.

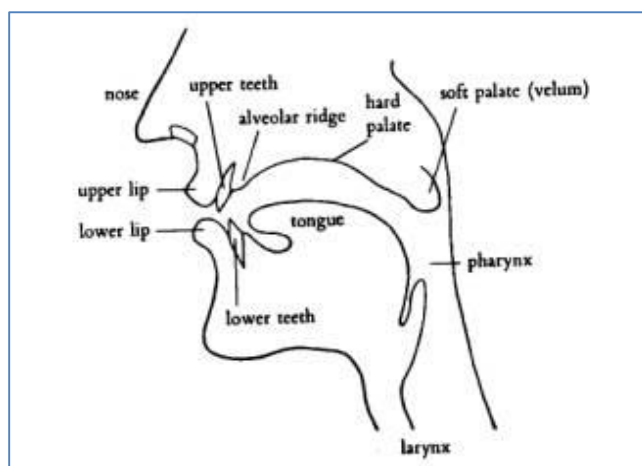


Figure 3: Airstream mechanism involving various articulators.

(Source: <http://www.personal.rdg.ac.uk/~llsroach/phon2/artic-basics.htm>)

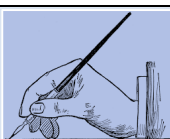
9.3.5 THE HARD PALATE AND THE ALVEOLAR RIDGE

The hard palate is also the ‘roof of the mouth’. It is the bony arch right after the velum and before the teeth ridge region (you can raise your tongue and feel the hard palate). The alveolar ridge is located right after the upper front teeth. When the tongue reaches the hard palate or the alveolar ridge during the release of the airstream, the palatal and alveolar (consonants) sounds are produced.

9.3.6 THE TONGUE, THE LIPS, AND THE TEETH

The tongue and lips form the major active articulators since these are movable and actively modify the airstream. The involvement of both the lips produces labial (consonant) sounds. Participation of various portions of the tongue (tip, blade, front, back, and root) produces different types of vowel sounds.

The teeth are very important in speech production. You might have noticed the elderly people without the front teeth often struggle to speak. Similar, a child also starts articulating proper speech sounds once it starts growing teeth. The involvements of the tongue and the upper front teeth produce the labiodental and dental (consonant) sounds.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Can you prepare a list of 5 phonemes in your language (other than English) when the air is released through your nasal cavity? (Hint. all the nasal sounds of your language)

2. Can you check which phonemes require the vibrations of vocal folds in your language?

3. List the name of the articulators associated with the production of different types of speech sounds.

9.4 SPEECH PRODUCTION AND SPEECH PERCEPTION

Production of speech is incomplete if it is not perceived by the listener (or reader). Speech for that matter is dependent on both production and perception. You have already got an idea that production of speech is part of ‘psychological to physiological’ phase (since it requires the formation of the linguistic data in the brain followed by the physical movements of the articulators to produce the systematic speech sequences). Perception of speech, on the other hand, is part of the ‘physiological to psychological’ phase (the sensory organs requires to receive the wave signals and send it to the brain to decode the speech signal). So, the question is ‘how do we perceive speech?’

As I have already mentioned that a child gets acquainted with various sounds in the womb itself. The brain stores the sounds and assigns characteristic features (say for example, how a particular (speech) sound is different (or somewhat similar) to the other. Communication would be impossible if something is not stored or decoded by our brain. This is the exact reason why we react strangely when encountered with a language (or any sound for that matter) which is not known to us.

Production of speech is achieved by **speaking** and **writing**. You can also express your ideas in the form of writing. Nonetheless, you need to remember

that language is primarily produced ‘orally’; most of the languages of the world do not have a writing system to date. Perception of speech, on the hand, depends on **listening** and **reading**. Reading also requires significant effort (by the brain) to be able to interpret the meaning (intended by the writer). Below I present a block diagram of speech production.

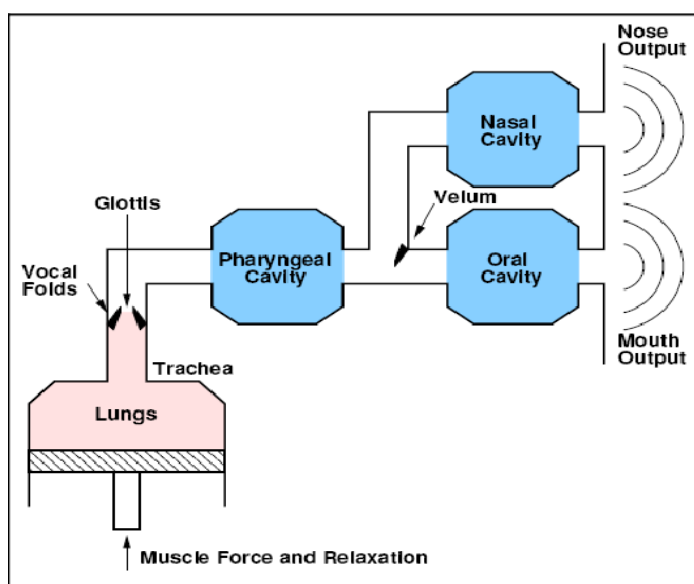


Figure 4: Model diagram of speech production (Yaacob *et al.* 2008)

9.5 THE QUANTIFICATION OF SPEECH

You must have noticed that speech is received through our sensory organs. We do not see sounds; we feel that. In case of speech sounds, we can differentiate if something is louder or mild; can distinguish if the speaker is angry or happy (following the **intonation** pattern), or if the speaker is very fast, moderate or too slow while s/he speaks. If these are the case how do we quantify speech? Or is it at all possible to quantify speech?

Well, it is very much possible to quantify speech (or any sound for that matter). There are various software (such as Praat, Wave surfer, Audacity and so on which are available freely) those are capable of recording and analyzing speech sounds. All you required is to collect audio data (you need to ensure that

there is least noise intervention in the actual recorded data). You can examine the **spectrograms** of your voice data and quantify speech! A **spectrograph** is an instrument that provides the visual representation of the acoustic components associated with a particular (speech) sound in an utterance. A **spectrogram** of an utterance displays **duration** (time taken to complete the utterance), **frequency** (or **pitch**), and intensity (or **loudness**) on a screen. All these acoustic components are measurable and using these components one can quantify speech.

9.6 SUMMING UP

This unit focuses on the processes involved in speech production and perception. I have broadly discussed the mechanism involved in speech production and the way our brain process that information in real time. We have also looked into the various organs associated with speech production and discussed the way each articulator modifies a speech sound in the oral or nasal cavity. I have also briefly discussed how we could quantify speech sounds. I believe that this unit will encourage you to explore further knowledge associated with speech mechanism.



9.7 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

- 1). Briefly discuss how we can approach speech sounds.
- 2). Briefly discuss the ‘psychological’ and ‘physiological’ aspects of speech production and speech perception.
- 3). Briefly discuss the functions of larynx and vocal folds.
- 4). Why do you think that the production of speech is incomplete without the hearer (or reader) perceiving it properly?
- 5). How do we quantify speech sounds?
- 6). Briefly discuss the functions of the pharynx and other articulators in terms of speech production.

7) Briefly describe how you can approach speech sounds.



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MODULE IV: CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 10: PRINCIPLES OF SYLLABUS DESIGN

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 10.0 Introduction to Syllabus Design
- 10.1 Learning Objectives
- 10.2 Defining a Language Syllabus
- 10.3 Characteristics of a Good Syllabus
- 10.4 Principles to Design a Language Syllabus
 - 10.4.1 Product Oriented Approach
 - 10.4.1.1 Structural Syllabus
 - 10.4.1.2 Situational Syllabus
 - 10.4.1.3 Notional-Functional Syllabus
 - 10.4.2 Process Oriented Approach
 - 10.4.2.1 Task Based Syllabus
 - 10.4.2.2 Skill Based Syllabus
 - 10.4.2.3 Content Based Syllabus
 - 10.4.2.4 Learner Led Syllabus
 - 10.4.2.5 Proportional Syllabus
- 10.5 Designing a Language Syllabus
- 10.6 Summing Up
- 10.7 Assessment Questions
- 10.8 References and Recommended Reading

10.0 INTRODUCTION TO SYLLABUS DESIGN

Syllabus design is an important phenomenon in teaching-learning a language. English language teaching is the most prominent teaching area in which teachers and students from all over the world participate.

The choice of the syllabus to be taught to the language learners is an important activity that needs a great deal of reflection and analysis. Different theories and approaches produce different syllabi. So, designing a language syllabus, though apparently seems a simple phenomenon, is a complex one. The syllabus designer needs to reflect on the following points:

- i) The nature and scope of the course.
- ii) Pedagogic principles and procedures applied for the program.
- iii) Needs of the learners
- iv) The learning outcome of the course.

Broadly speaking, a language syllabus must work with an objective of producing such skills in a student, which make him/her such productive, and efficient language user who can produce own meaningful and convincing language with verbal and non-verbal communication skills. No language syllabus can be multipurpose as the needs vary from learner to learner in general, business, social, professional and technical contexts. A general course will yield general and ineffective users in special contexts. The linguistic need of a law student differs from the needs of a student of technical education, a management student or a student of creative writing. With a very small shared space, their requirements gradually divert in terms of vocabulary and expression. Looking at this diversity of industrial requirements there is a need to frame specific syllabus for specific purposes with an aim to overcome the linguistic difficulties involved in studying English. Yet, the aim remains the same- to train an efficient language user.

10.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

This unit will help you to-

- deal with the syllabus design in general and syllabus for English language in particular.
- examine definition and function of syllabus along with various steps of designing a syllabus.
- learn about the different types of syllabuses based on the product and the process oriented approaches
- gather enough knowledge on the basic principles to design a language syllabus in ELT.

10.2 DEFINING A LANGUAGE SYLLABUS

Syllabus is the summary of a discourse, a course of study or of examination requirements .It is an expression of education ideas in practice. It gives direction both to the teachers and the students regarding the goals and objectives which are required to be achieved in language learning. Many theorists have tried to define a language syllabus. Hutchinson and Waters in their book *English For Specific Purposes: A Learning Centred Approach* (1987:80) give traditional interpretation of syllabus when they call it a statement of what is to be learnt of language and linguistic performance whereas J.Yalden in *Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching* defines it as a summary of the content to which learners will be exposed (Yalden, 1987: 87). Since syllabus is a platform where the students are introduced to the course i.e. what will be taught to him, the manner of instruction, what to learn and how to learn, course content, methodology, activities, and organization of resources so Nilson opines:

“...it is not only the road map for the term’s foray into knowledge but also a travelogue to pique students’ interest in the expedition and its leader”. (Nilson, 2010: 33).

10.3 CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD SYLLABUS

The essential characteristics of a good syllabus are as under:

- i) It sets the tone for the course by providing the course details and teaching philosophy.
- ii) It should be clear, coherent and comprehensive.
- iii) It should articulate and correspond to the rationale objectives and learning outcomes of the course.
- iv) Course objectives, course content and sequencing of material should be related to each other.
- v) It should acquaint students with the structure of the course.
- vi) It should communicate what, when, and how students will learn.
- vii) It should define expectations in terms of student responsibilities for success.
- viii) It should duly consider the level of the performance of the learners.
- ix) It should identify the effective assessment models.
- x) It should be relative to the available resources.
- xi) It should clearly mention the classroom requirements.
- xii) It should necessarily enhance student learning.

Linda B. Nilson talks of fruitful outcome of a good syllabus:

“No doubt, you want your students to learn certain things, to master a body of material. But you can’t assess how well you’ve met this goal,

or your students' learning, unless you have them do something with that material that demonstrates their learning.” (Nilson, 2010: 17)

While planning and designing a syllabus for the language course various types of approaches are available to the course designers. Two major types of syllabuses are product-oriented syllabus (focusing on the outcomes) and process-oriented syllabus. Any good language syllabus will cover more or less both the types.

10.4 PRINCIPLES TO DESIGN A LANGUAGE SYLLABUS

As mentioned earlier, many approaches of designing a language syllabus have been in practice. Broadly speaking these are: Product-oriented approaches and Process –oriented approaches. Product-oriented approaches include structural approach, situational approach and notional/functional approach. Process oriented approach includes procedural or task-based syllabus, skill-based, content-based, learner-led syllabus & proportional syllabus.

10.4.1 Product-Oriented Approach

10.4.1.1 Structural Syllabus

Traditionally, structural approach has been the most prevalent approach where the content of the syllabus depends on the complexity level of the grammatical items. In this grammatical syllabus approach the learners are exposed to various grammatical structures step by step and they are supposed to master them by internalizing the rules. It is considered that the grammatical concepts like nouns, plurals etc. can be better defined than the functional ones, so grammar becomes the most familiar learning content. The teacher chooses structures appropriate to the level of the learners and plans exercises to test the learners' knowledge. Semantically defined sentence types such as statements,

questions, interrogatives and grammatically defined types such as simple, compound and complex sentences are seen to be the focus. The entire focus is on the learning outcome. This approach is based on a theory of language learning that the functional ability arises from the structural ability. That is, the grammar or structural aspects of language are the most significant parts in language learning. Noam Chomsky also gave prominence to grammar in language learning. While elaborating the concept of ‘generative grammar’ he introduced the concept of linguistic competence which focuses on a set of finite language rules to produce the infinite utterances or sentences. But this approach was seen to be limited because of its low transferability of structural knowledge to actual language behaviour. The ultimate aim of a language course should be the learner’s ability to function in language. So this approach was criticized by functionalists and sociolinguists for its dealing only with one aspect of language and ignoring the other important aspects.

10.4.1.2 Situational Syllabus

To address the limitations and gaps of structural approach, situational approach (pragmatics) evolved. In this approach, the organizing principle of the content is based on everyday situations rather than grammatical content. Since language is always used in a context so the transmission of meaning depends not only on structural and linguistic knowledge of the speaker and listener, but also on the context of the utterance, so the learner is given a situation and s/he uses ‘fit for action’ language with reference to this context. Situational syllabus outlines such situations in which the learner is to perform linguistically. They get concrete contexts within which they learn notions, functions and structures. Examples for such contexts are ‘At a cinema’ ‘Buying a dress’ ‘Attending a phone call’ ‘At a Restaurant’ etc. In this way, the motivational level of the learners is also enhanced because they learn language to meet their most pressing everyday

needs. This approach is more suitable to teach specific language for specific situations. For instance, if one has to visit a place where the this language is spoken, the learner will require situational kind of teaching to cope with the language challenges of new environment.

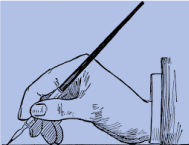
Though Wilkins feels that with this approach motivation and involvement of the learner will be heightened because it is "learner-rather than subject-centered" (Wilkins,1976: 16) but this approach was also criticized for its limitations, for its divorce from grammar and that it would not be suitable for such learners whose needs are not covered by the situations prescribed. The functions and notions will be learnt in context of one situation only but whereas the requirements of the world outside are varied and this learning seems limited and narrow. That is why a new approach took place.

Both the structural and situational approaches were criticized on the ground that these answer only the 'how' 'when' 'where' of the language but lack in defining the communicative purpose and the conceptual meaning of language (notions and functions) .

10.4.1.3 Notional-Functional Syllabus

It is a more inclusive notion based on the communicative competence theory as proposed by Dell Hymes who felt that the linguistic forms should be studied along with the ways in which these are used. Notion is a specific context in which we communicate and function in a specific purpose in that context. For instance, 'shopping' can be a notion and various language requirements like asking price, discussing the product and bargaining etc. are the functions of language. Communicative Competence includes four areas-linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic. In this approach the emphasis is on the semantic and communicative aspects without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. The syllabus designer makes a list of communicative functions (agreement, greeting etc.) for which the

learners will be using the language s/he makes a list of notions based on their culture and context (e.g. values) . Then the functions and notions are used together to perform the learning tasks. To design this syllabus need analysis of the communication requirements becomes a pre-requisite.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. How many types of syllabuses are there based on product-oriented approach?

2. What are the most important characteristics of a good syllabus?

10.4.2 Process-Oriented Approach

Opposed to the product-oriented approach evolved another approach that is called process-oriented approach with a shift from linguistic element of the product-oriented approach to the educational element with an emphasis on learning. The syllabus designer does not need to bother with the ordering of the content; rather it is organized

around tasks and activities so that while consciously solving the tasks language is perceived sub-consciously.

10.4.2.1 Procedural or Task-Based Syllabus

Task-based language teaching (TBLT), which falls within the communicative approach, has become a widely used term in second/foreign language pedagogy. Here the language learning which takes place as a process of doing a set of communicative tasks in the classroom results in language activation outside the classroom. Emphasis is laid both on the language and language learning process through interaction in the target language by using authentic materials. The real impetus for the TBLT came from the Bangalore project in which Prabhu and his colleagues designed a procedural syllabus as a reaction against structural-oral-situational (S-O-S) approach followed in their country in 1960s and 1970s. Here language acquisition occurs when learners focus their attention on meaning rather than on language forms. When learners are engrossed in doing meaning-focused activities, they are benefitted in natural communication in the classroom. The learning takes place when the target language is taught through communication and not simply for communication. Here each lesson is divided into pre-task, a task, and a quick marking component. The pre-task, however, is a teacher-guided, whole-class and preparatory activity which orients the learners to overcome the difficulties they might face while doing the task. It is viewed as a confidence building activity. The second stage is individually performing the task which should be reasonably challenging, neither too difficult nor too easy. It is followed by the marking stage when the teacher evaluates the accuracy in performance of the task, not the accuracy of the sentences. Finally incidental error correction is done instead of a systematic one.

10.4.2.2 Skill-Based Syllabus

In this syllabus some specific language skills are taught to the learners and gradually their confidence is enhanced. Linguistic competencies like pronunciation grammar etc. are grouped together and learners are required to do general activities like listening, writing etc. based on these components. Students can develop their communicative competencies, listening, speaking, writing and reading using various resources.

10.4.2.3 Content-Based Syllabus

Here the language learning occurs along with content learning. The focus is on a specific content or information rather than language. This means that content of any subject in English medium can be the text to study language drill. For example, a piece of information from rural farming is taken and in addition to the accumulation of information on various technical aspects of farming, challenges and remedies of rural farming language drill regarding vocabulary, tense used and sentence structures can also be carried on.

10.4.2.4 Learner-Led Syllabus

Proposed by Breen and Candlin (1984), this syllabus focuses on the learners who are hoped to be involved in the implementation of the syllabus design. By being fully aware of the course they are studying, it is believed that their interest and motivation will increase, coupled with the positive effect of nurturing the skills required to learn. Critics label it as radical and utopian in the sense that it will be difficult to follow as the direction of the syllabus will be largely the responsibility of the learners.

10.4.2.5 Proportional Syllabus

This kind of syllabus which focuses on overall competence was proposed by Yalden. It consists of a number of elements within the main theme playing a linking role through the units. Initially it is expected that form will be of central value, but later, the focus turns towards interactional components. Here shift from form to interaction is not limited rather it can occur at any time. As Yalden (1987) observes, it is important for a syllabus to indicate explicitly what will be taught, not what will be learnt. It is a dynamic syllabus with a focus on flexibility and feedback.

10.5 DESIGNING A LANGUAGE SYLLABUS

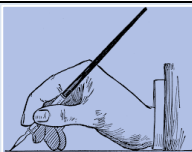
- While designing a syllabus for the course, the teacher must consider all the points discussed above as criteria of a good syllabus. Although many types of language teaching syllabi can be developed based on various approaches but none of them occur independently. Almost each language teaching syllabus draws from the valuable insights of two or more approaches defined above. In a course, one type of syllabus usually dominates, while other types of content may be combined with it. A language teaching syllabus involves the integration of subject matter and linguistic matter.
- Need analysis assumes the prime significance in the process of planning an English language syllabus. A consideration of the target students' requirements, taking stock of their linguistic strengths and weaknesses and an investigation of how the syllabus shall address their needs to produce sufficiently good language become a pre-requisite. In his book *Communicative Syllabus Design* in 1978 Munby introduced 'communication needs processor' which became launching pad for many related terms like Target Situation

Analysis, Pedagogic Needs Analysis, Strategy Analysis or Learning Needs Analysis, Discourse analysis, Deficiency Analysis, Means Analysis, Present Situation Analysis , Register analysis and Genre Analysis .

- A good language syllabus establishes a connection between the students and the teacher and sets the tone for the course. On the very first day of the class the students are excited to know about the topics to be covered in their syllabus, assignments, grading system, texts etc. Many education theorists agree that a detailed syllabus is important learning tool for the students who learn their initial anxieties about the course. Students' queries and questions should be anticipated and addressed while planning a language syllabus. Davis advises to keep the syllabus flexible so that the classes that get sidetracked can also cover up. A language syllabus should also clearly define the pre-requisites of that course. (Davis, 1999:14-15)
- Logical arrangement of the content is another precaution that a language syllabus designer must observe. It can be arranged either chronologically or according to topics or themes, from theoretical perspectives to the application of the concepts etc. It should move gradually in terms of complexity. If the content has no backward – forward linkages or continuity, it may lead to the confusion in teaching –learning of the language. The logic behind this arrangement must be clear to the students. It should also delineate not only the tasks of the teacher but also what the students are going to do during the course.
- Another aspect of designing a language course syllabus is selection of a textbook and resource material. Textbooks are the staple in a curriculum. As the ESL teachers spend a great deal of time with textbooks, so the text/texts decided to be prescribed in this course should be the most accurate and authentic one. A language textbook

should be up to date, have relevant content, culturally sensitive visuals and graphics, should incorporate higher level thinking skills, cater to the literacy need of the learners, and its material must address the diversity of learning styles. If the number of texts is more, working on an anthology or a compiled text can be a good way out. Students might find it difficult to find and purchase more number of books. Expensive and heavy texts should be avoided, if possible.

- Evaluation and grading procedures including the weights assigned to various components must also be made clear in a language syllabus.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the types of syllabuses based on process oriented approach?

2. What are the steps for designing a language syllabus?

10.6 SUMMING UP

After reading this unit, we have learnt that syllabus is a summary, a concise statement of a course of study. A language syllabus can be of many types based on many approaches – Structural, functional, communicative, task-based, skill-based, etc. The designer of a language syllabus decides which approach/approaches is/are appropriate to our teaching goals and conditions.



10.7 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q.1 Define a language syllabus. What are the characteristics of a good syllabus?

Q.2 Explain the principles of designing a language syllabus based on product-oriented approach.

Q.3 Describe the steps of designing a language syllabus based on the principles of syllabus design



10.8 REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READINGS

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UNIT 11: HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE AND RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN COURSE DESIGN

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 11.0 Introduction to Course Design
- 11.1 Learning Objectives
- 11.2 Historical Perspective
- 11.3 Recent Developments
- 11.4 Pointers to Course Design
- 11.5 Summing Up
- 11.6 Assessment Questions
- 11.7 References and Recommended Reading

11.0 INTRODUCTION TO COURSE DESIGN

"An adequate structure or design of curriculum defines the important components or aspects of curriculum and determines the pattern of their relationships to each other and to the curriculum jobs to be performed" (Herrick 17).

Course Design is the content material of education on which the structure of education is based. If the course is not designed, planned and organized, teaching and learning cannot be successful. It acts as an anchor directing the path to follow and how it is to be done. Course Design is helpful for both the teachers and the students, as it gives the student an idea of what needs to be studied, and to the teacher a blueprint of what has to be taught.

Course Design is the backbone of the education system, without which it is a complete chaos. It is the basis of all the activities and helps in the implementation of the lessons. Without the proper planning of a course design it is impossible to utilize the time learners and teachers spend in an educational setting.

“It is the means, through which the aim of education is achieved. It gives an idea to the teacher and the students of what to do, how to do, and when to do. It is the tool in the hands of the teacher through which he can mould the lives of the student. Prof. Cunningham has rightly remarked: “It is a tool in the hands of the artist (teacher) to mould his material (pupils) according to his ideal (objective) in his studio (school)” (Taneja 292).

“Today the concept of course design has assumed a new outlook. This concept is broad based. It consists of the totality of experiences that the pupil receives through the manifold activities that go into the school, in the class-room, library, laboratories, workshops, and playgrounds, and in the numerous contacts between the teachers and the pupils. It is neither dogmatic nor rigid in its formation and structure. It is neither uniform nor is it standardized to conform to a prescribed pattern. It is characterized by variety and elasticity and is tailored to the needs of the students of different age levels. It gives the students an increasing awareness of the environment around them so that they may attain the efficiency in the fabric of community life. The course design is varied and has the element of elasticity. All these things are there in order to fulfil the needs and requirements of the students. In fact the education is to be moulded according to the needs of the students and so the course has to be constructed accordingly” (Shodhganga 7).

11.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

This unit will help you to-

- understand about course design.
- trace the history of course design.
- learn about the recent developments in the field of course design.

11.2 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

“Herrick (1950) treated the topic of design as a central feature of curriculum theory. He observed: “Curriculum design is a statement of the pattern of relationships which exist among the elements of curriculum as they are used to make one consistent set of decisions about the nature of the curriculum ...” (p. 37). In his view, the function of design was to help select and organize learning experiences and to indicate the role of teachers and pupils in curriculum planning and development” (Short 1).

“When citing fully articulated, carefully explained and argued curriculum proposals from the past, the ‘**persistent life situations**’ design is one of the earliest to be found in the literature (Stratemeyer, Forkner, McKim, & Passow, 1947). **This design embraces four major categories and fifteen sub-categories of persistent life situations. The design focuses on learning activities rather than subjects (though content is always present) as vehicles for learning to cope with the level of life situation appropriate for the particular developmental stage of the student at any given time.** This singularity of focus throughout the entire course accounts for the unity of the design. It was so persuasively argued that it is still a compelling model for use in structuring curricula. It is rooted in the idea that democratic living can best be learned by confronting tasks that learners actually face and by

actively engaging students in the intellectual and emotional experience necessary for them to gradually acquire increasingly complex competence. The scope of the situations and activities employed is great enough to avoid narrow functionalist or skill orientation and to include customary knowledge and attitudes as well as immediately useful skills” (Short 3-4).

The next model of course design proposed by **Smith, Stanley, and Shores (1950)** was **built around an interactive position** (between society- centered and child-centered). **According to this design the educational ends are culturally determined and the organizing focus for curriculum content should be social and civic in character and thus common for all.** “Although this model centers on the social issues at core, it also recognizes the place of the study of the disciplines and personal interests and skills of the student in the curriculum. The model does not provide specific details of a design established on this basis but offers criteria for doing so” (Short 4-5).

“Bellack (1956, 1964) offered a proposal **that explicitly combines a three-part curriculum design into an interrelated pattern.** The first part consists of disciplines to be studied as disciplines in four groups- the natural sciences, the social sciences, mathematics, and the humanities. The second part calls for interdisciplinary studies where the relationships among these broad fields of knowledge and their modes of inquiry are explored. A third part was reserved for applying this knowledge to human affairs. The rationale for the proposal rests largely on the role of systematic knowledge in guiding intelligent action and finding meaning and order in the world” (Short 5-6).

The core curriculum course design by Faunce & Bossing (1951) gained systematic identity during the 1940s and early 1950s. The core curriculum design requires persons to exchange views effectively and to cooperate in solving common problems. Group activity and group work is the focus of the core curriculum and the

students' own informal group life is given importance. Learning through experience is the key to this design. “The core curriculum design is integrative in intent and requires the elimination of barriers between subjects and organizational time units in the school” (Short 4-5).

The secondary school design proposed by Broudy et al. (1964) is "general in the skills, ideas, and evaluations to be taught and common in the sense that all students should be taught the same things" (Short 5). The course design has five important strands that give it its shape: “(a) symbolic skills in language and mathematics; (b) basic concepts from the sciences, taught as disciplines; (c) developmental (historical) studies in three contexts- the cosmos, institutions of society, and culture; (d) value exemplars in art, literature, philosophy, and religion; and (e) social or molar problems seminars. This design incorporates several features which were typical of the times, such as structured disciplinary knowledge, optional tracks, and mastery learning, but is unique in its stress on cognitive and evaluative maps and its emphasis on applying knowledge in the problem-solving molar problems seminars. Selection and organization of knowledge into the various strands is also based on unique criteria which broke the traditional subject-centered pattern into new forms more consistent with the purposes of general education” (Short 5).

In the year 1964 and 1966 two subject-centered designs, Phenix (1964) and King and Brownell (1966) emerged. Both these designs concentrated on the study of subject knowledge. The designs are more of a meta-design which leave the task to the curriculum makers to decide. “The Phenix (1964) design is predicated upon knowledge patterned in six major realms: (a) symbolics (including ordinary language, mathematics, and non-discursive symbolic forms), (b) empirics (incl. physical science, biology, psychology, and social science), (c) esthetics (incl. music, the visual arts, movement, and literature), (d) synnoetics (incl. personal knowledge), (e) ethics (incl.

moral knowledge), and (f) synoptics (incl. history, religion, and philosophy). The assumption is that all of them should be taught in a manner that allows the student to grasp the key concepts and methods of inquiry completely and accurately, though the details might be omitted or might fall away after instruction” (Short 6).

The course design designed by Berman in 1968 was called the process-oriented curriculum. Eight processes formed the content and organizing elements in this design. The processes being - perceiving, communicating, loving, knowing, decision making, patterning, creating, and valuing. This design demands a high level of cognitive learning in all eight processes. **Frymier in 1973, 1977 had conceived an individualized curriculum design.** “A meta-design rather than an explicit design, this approach leaves to local curriculum makers the decisions about what requirements and courses should be prescribed. It sets forth a scheme for planning individualized curricula and matching instruction. The heart of this design is in a classification system of student curricular needs and available artifacts of instruction, the matching of which can be made through computer accessed categories within the system. A diagnostic-prescriptive model underlies this design and its rationale includes a well-articulated case for educating the rationally autonomous individual” (Short 6-7).

The history of course design definitely has a lot other components contributing to it but the above stated designs provide a large spectrum. These designs have collectively got together different theoretical orientations which any one of the others may resemble in type or structure. Hence the stated designs give a broader perspective to the course designs created and implemented.

11.3 RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

In recent year theorists and practitioners have tried to look into course design through the broader aspect of the student's learning process, taking into consideration the knowledge acquired, comprehension of the knowledge, application of the knowledge, and the capacity of the students to analyze, synthesize and evaluate. The present trend of education is towards competency based thinking, in which education without thinking and acting is not at all helpful. And thus, the course designs need to keep the competency factor alive, in which thinking and acting by the students is important.

The recent and relevant course designs that have taken into consideration various approaches are:

1. John Biggs (1996, 2003) wrote about curriculum coherence, by means of constructive alignment: achieving congruence between the intended learning outcomes, the teaching and learning activities and the assessment.
2. Jenniffer Moon (2001) seems curriculum development as a more iterative process, involving 'checking and improving the coherency' of a course, promoting good practice.
3. Jenkins (2009) uses the analogy of a Ouija board when considering curriculum design, showing different influencing 'forces'. Discipline, educational theories, modularity, student needs, aims and objectives, assessment as learning, classroom research, external quality requirements, learning method, student time, costs and resources, and research interests all were included in the curriculum design (Jenkins, 2009: 163).
4. JISC (2009) presents a curriculum lifecycle for integrating technology as an enabling factor.

5 the Duckling team (2009) at the University of Leicester, developed the curriculum life cycle, including action research and regular feedback from stakeholders. It also included support, dissemination, communication, evaluation, and redesigning (HERLO 38-39).

These recent developments are changing the aspect of course design in a positive way and making it more learner- friendly and achievable.

11.4 POINTERS TO COURSE DESIGN

In order to successfully design a course, careful planning and continual revision is required. Discussions are important in order to exchange key strategies used to teach a particular course and to gauge the response of students about the course. To start course designing firstly, defining course goals at the outset is extremely important. In order to design a specific course thought needs to be given to the goals so as to meet the specific goals. Questions need to be answered about the course goals in order to keep the assumptions at the least. Secondly, paying attention to the students who enroll and their needs and wants is mandatory. Knowing about the needs and wants of students and their decision to enroll into the particular course shall help the teachers think how the course will help the students. Thirdly, **determining the course content and** selecting the major topics and the order in which they will be taught is needed in order to make the classes smooth and highly functioning. Fourthly, **developing teaching methods and tools which play a very important role in the teaching and learning process.** Next, **selecting text and other materials is vital.** The text selected needs to be authentic and balanced as far as possible, they need to represent the topics genuinely and also address the learning needs of the students. Followed by, **determining the rules of evaluation,**

defining course policies, developing course schedule, writing of the course syllabus, and finally, refining of the course design if needed.

As course planning is a continual process, and needs constant refining. The stated pointers are important; they should be kept in mind, followed, and revised each time a particular course is taught.

11.5 SUMMING UP

This unit tries to summarize as briefly as possible the growth and development of course designing over the years. Course designing is not just integral to teaching but equally important for the learners in their learning process. As stated, various approaches have been tested and used for course designing over the years, with the common aim being the overall development of the learner and an aid to teacher in the teaching and learning process.



11.6 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Give a detailed historical background of course design.
2. Briefly discuss the importance of the secondary school design proposed by Broudy et al.
3. What recent changes have come into course designing?
4. Discuss the pointers to course designing.
5. Is planning important in course designing, why?



11.7 REFERENCES AND RECOMMEND READINGS

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UNIT 12: TEACHING AND DESIGNING ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN BILINGUAL/MULTILINGUAL CONTEXTS

UNIT STRUCTURE

- 12.0 Introduction
- 12.1 Learning Objectives
- 12.2 Bilingual Context
 - 12.2.1 Types of Bilingual
 - 12.2.2 Code Switching
 - 12.2.3 Interlanguage
 - 12.2.4 Implications for Classroom Teaching
- 12.3 Multilingual Context
 - 12.3.1 L1 Interference
 - 12.3.2 Educational Use of Mother Tongue
 - 12.3.3 Teaching Strategy
- 12.4 Summing Up
- 12.5 Key Terms
- 12.6 Assessment Questions
- 12.7 References and Recommended Readings

12.0 INTRODUCTION

Linguistic diversity has been a common feature of almost every society and such diversity has become the norm rather than exception throughout the globe. Bilingualism/multilingualism is a normal phenomenon for daily living and it is a requirement in this modern world. While some countries are linguistically homogeneous, such as Iceland, many countries and regions display a wealth of linguistic diversity, for example, Hong Kong, India, Indonesia, and many more.

Classroom is the mirror of society. Bilingual or multilingual classroom has become today's trend. Such classroom setting has several implications in the context of English language teaching. The

teaching of English depends on several contextual variables like- Who are the learners? What are their linguistic backgrounds? What is the status of English? Is English taught as a second language or foreign language? Is the classroom linguistically homogeneous or heterogeneous? How does our socio-cultural background shape teaching and learning of English? How can we teach English effectively while addressing linguistic and cultural diversities of learners? All these questions are important because in English language classroom, English is not only exclusively an object of teaching but also a means of communication and interaction. Therefore, there is the necessity to follow teaching strategies which are context sensitive. What are the strategies that we, the teachers should follow when our classroom context is bilingual/multilingual? Before answering to this question, let us start with bilingual and multilingual contexts.

12.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

The Unit titled "Teaching and Designing English Language in Bilingual/Multilingual Contexts" aims to make you understand the followings:

- What makes a context bilingual/multilingual?
- How does bilingualism/multilingualism affect English language teaching?
- What teaching strategies should be followed in such a context?

12.2 BILINGUAL CONTEXT

Bilingual context itself defines its meaning i.e. a situation where we get bilingual people. Some countries are officially bilingual. Two well-known examples of officially bilingual countries are Canada and Belgium.

Bilinguals are those who have the same degree of proficiency and ability in using two different languages. But very few bilinguals are equally proficient in both languages. It is estimated that between 50 and 70 percent of the world's population are bilinguals. Bloomfield defines bilinguals as those who have native-like competence in both languages. However, it is to be understood that the vast majority of bilinguals do not have native-like competence in both languages but still regularly use both languages. Few bilinguals possess the same competence as monolingual speakers in either of their languages. This is partly because bilinguals use their languages for different functions and purposes among different people. Levels of proficiency in a language may depend on in which domains and how often that language is used.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Who are the bilinguals?

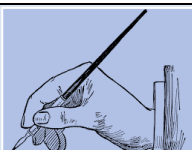
2. What are the factors which determine the levels of language proficiency among the bilingual people?

12.2.1 *Types of Bilinguals*

Bilingualism is often referred to in terms of categories and scales. These are the constructs which are related to factors like proficiency (i.e. an ideal bilingual would be fully proficient in both languages, whereas a partial bilingual would have varying levels of proficiency) and the context of language acquisition.

- **Early bilingualism:** It can be of two types- *simultaneous early bilingualism* and *consecutive (or successive) early bilingualism*. Simultaneous early bilingualism refers to a child who learns two languages at the same time, from birth. This generally produces a strong bilingualism, called *additive bilingualism*. Successive early bilingualism refers to a child who has already partially acquired a first language and then learns a second language early in childhood (for example, when a child moves to an environment where the dominant language is not his native language).
- **Late bilingualism:** Refers to bilingualism when the second language is learned after the age of six or seven; especially when it is learned in adolescence or adulthood. Late bilingualism is a consecutive bilingualism which occurs after the acquisition of the first language.
- **Additive bilingualism:** The term additive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person has acquired the two languages in a balanced manner. It is a strong bilingualism.
- **Subtractive bilingualism:** Subtractive bilingualism refers to the situation where a person learns the second language to the detriment of the first language, especially if the first language is a minority language. In this case, mastery of the first language decreases, while mastery of the other language (usually the dominant language) increases.
- **Passive bilingualism:** Refers to being able to understand a second language without being able to speak it.

Bilinguals may show some typical features. One such is **code switching** which is introduced below.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. How does the simultaneous early bilingualism differ from the consecutive early bilingualism?

2. What do you mean by strong bilingualism?

3. What is the feature of a subtractive bilingual?

12.2.2 Code Switching

In a bilingual context, second/foreign language learning normally involves code-switching as learners and teachers try to negotiate meaning in the teaching/learning situation. Code-switching occurs when bilingual or bidialectal persons systematically alternate

or use more than one language and/or variety in the same utterance or conversational exchange. Nunan and Carter (2001) briefly define the term as “a phenomenon of switching from one language to another in the same discourse” (275). The use of code switching in English language classroom may have several functions like:

- Code switching carries affective functions that serve for expression of emotions. It may be used by the teacher in order to build solidarity with the learners.
- It also carries repetitive function. In this case, the teacher uses code switching in order to transfer the necessary knowledge to the learners effectively.
- Learners may code switch due to the deficiency in linguistic competence of the target language.
- Learners may code switch for reiteration, which is pointed by Eldridge (1996) as: “messages are reinforced, emphasized, or clarified where the message has already been transmitted in one code, but not understood” (306). In this case, the message in target language is repeated by the learner in native tongue through which the learner tries to give the meaning by making use of a repetition technique.

Many teachers, who are in favour of the applications of communicative techniques in the language teaching environment, oppose any form of native language use during classroom instruction. Contrary to this, supporters of the use of native language in the form of code switching, suggest that it may be an effective strategy in various aspects. Cook (2002:333) handles the subject matter considering multilingual classrooms in saying that the application of code switching in classes which do not share the same native language may create problems, as some of the learners (though few in number) will somehow be neglected. So, at this point it may be suggested that the learners should share the same native language, if code switching will be applied in instruction. Another point to consider in this respect is

that the competence of the teacher in mother tongue of students also plays a vital role, if positive contributions of code switching are expected.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is 'code switching'?

2. What are the uses of 'code switching' in English language classroom?

3. Mention few problems behind the use of 'code switching' in a language classroom?

12.2.3 Interlanguage

A child acquires its mother tongue unconsciously but has to

make a conscious effort to learn other languages in formal situations. In learning L2, the child has to show insight, understanding and application. Interlanguage is the type of language produced by second and foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a language, who has not become fully proficient yet but is approximating the target language. An interlanguage is idiosyncratically based on the learners' experiences with the L2. Selinker coined the term 'interlanguage' to refer to the systematic knowledge of a L2 which is independent of the learner's L1 and the target language. Interlanguage is a system based upon the best attempt of learners to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. By a gradual process of trial and error and hypothesis testing, learners slowly and tediously succeed in establishing closer and closer approximations to the system used by native speakers of the language.

In language learning, interlanguage may be the cause of learners' typical errors which are caused by different processors. These include:

a) Borrowing patterns from the mother-tongue

Two types of language transfer may occur. Language transfer is the effect of one language on the learning of another. *Negative transfer*, also known as *interference*, is the use of L1 pattern or rule which leads to an error or inappropriate form in the Target Language (TL). For example, a French learner of English may produce the wrong sentence *I am here since Tuesday* instead of *I have been here since Tuesday* because of the transfer of the French pattern *je suis ici depuis lundi* ('I am here since Tuesday'). Similarly, in Hindi, there is no distinction between present continuous tense and present perfect continuous. For example,

'Main baat kar rahi hu.'

'Main chhey baje se baat kar rahi hu'

Influenced by these structures, learners may transfer the same to the

Target Language (TL). *Positive transfer* makes learning easier, and may occur when both the native language and the target language have the same form. For example, both French and English have the word ‘*table*’, which can have the same meaning in both languages.

b) Extending patterns from the target language, e.g., by analogy or overgeneralization

This is a process which is commonly found in both first and second language learning, in which a learner extends the use of a grammatical rule or linguistic structure beyond its accepted uses. Overgeneralization of target language rules is a phenomenon well known to language teacher. Speakers of many languages could produce a sentence of the following kind in their English IL (interlanguage):

**What did he intended to do?*

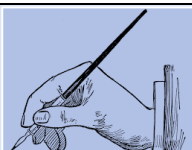
Here the past tense morpheme – *ed* is extended to an environment where the sentence stands grammatically inappropriate.

c) Expressing meaning using the words and grammar which are already known (communication strategy): The learner may have a limited command of the target language. While communicating, s/he may experience a lack of knowledge of grammar or vocabulary. For example, the learner may not be able to say ‘*It’s against the law to park here*’ and so s/he may say:

**This place, cannot park.*

We may sometimes paraphrase, or use simpler words and sentence structures when we talk to a class of young children. Such communication strategies (including gestures and mime) characterize the interlanguage of some language learners. Since the language which the learner produces, using these processes, differs from both the mother tongue and the target language (English, in our context), it is sometimes called an *interlanguage* as it results from the learner’s interlanguage system or approximate system.

But what happens when a child refuses to change his/her interlanguage i.e. when he/she does not show any improvement in the Target Language (TL)? Then his/her language is said to be fossilized. In second or foreign language learning, *fossilization* is a process in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language. Aspects of pronunciation, vocabulary usage, and grammar may become fixed or fossilized in second/foreign language learning.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What do you mean by 'interlanguage'?

2. Mention some of the typical errors of language learners which are caused by interlanguage.

3. What does the term 'fossilization' indicate?

12.2.4 *Implications for Classroom Teaching*

These issues like code switching, interlanguage, and fossilization have great significance for language teacher. Teacher needs to be realistic in the sense that he/she should accept these as natural aspects of second/foreign language learners at their early stage of learning and the teacher should also see that accuracy and acceptability of language leading to intelligibility must be achieved gradually. In other sense, the learners must show the sign of improvement in using the Target Language (TL). The issue of improvement undoubtedly entails the question of *standard* or *idealized* form of language. But as language teachers, how do we form a bridge between the existing *non-standard* forms and the *target standard*? Which target the teacher should aim at? One of the vexed questions to be settled with regard to English in a linguistically diverse set up is the *norm* or *standard* to be followed in educational institutions. The majority may support to follow the *Received Pronunciation* (R.P.) as a model for pronunciation and the British vocabulary and syntactical patterns. But we must not forget that even R.P. is also subject to change over a period of time. Moreover, every language has socio-cultural orientations and may manifest differently in different locations. The standard form could be abstracted and determined at a later stage of learning. Initially, *fluency* of the language should be the target which then, should be followed by *accuracy*. In other sense, grammatical errors at the early stages of learning must be considered as signs of learning and error identification and rectification must not discourage the learner from using the target

language.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. How does a language teacher treat the issues like code switching, interlanguage and fossilization in his/her classroom?

2. How can a language teacher bridge the gap between the non-standard form and the target standard form of language in a classroom?

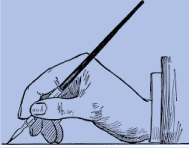
3. When should the fluency and accuracy of language be highlighted among language learners?

12.3 *Multilingual Context*

Same like bilingual context, a multilingual context is the one where we see multilingual people. Multilingualism refers to the use of two or more languages by an individual or by a group of speakers. Presently, the multilingual speakers have outnumbered the monolingual speakers in the world's population. Multilingualism is becoming a social phenomenon governed by the needs of globalization and cultural openness. A multilingual person is generally known as a polyglot. Multilingualism can be the result of different factors. Some of them are given below:

- Historical or political movements such as imperialism or colonialism.
- Economic movements in the case of migration. The weak economic conditions of some areas and countries results in movement of the population to other countries/locations and we see the consequent development of multilingual and multicultural communities in the host countries/locations.
- Increasing communications among different parts of the world and the need to be competent in languages for wider communication.
- Social and cultural identity and the interest for maintenance and revival of minority languages.
- Second and foreign languages are parts of the curriculum in many countries.

Multilingualism has brought a few key issues in the context of English language teaching like *mother tongue (L1) interference* and the *use of student's mother tongue* in the instructional process which are briefly discussed below.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

What makes a multilingual context?

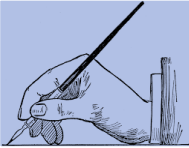
2. Mention the word which is used to refer to a multilingual person.

3. Mention some of the factors which give birth to multilingualism.

12.3.1 *Mother Tongue (L1) Interference*

Mother tongue (L1) interference (also known as linguistic transfer, linguistic interference and crosslinguistic influence) refers to speaker's application of the knowledge of one language to another. **Interference** is the transfer of elements of one language into the learning of another. Elements may include phonological, grammatical, lexical, and orthographical. It is the transfer of linguistic features between languages in the speech repertoire of a bilingual or multilingual individual, whether from first to second, second to first or

many other relationships. In the context of second language learning, interference may lead to either *negative transfer* (transfer which results in non-target like use of L2) or *positive transfer* (transfer resulting in target like use of L2). Generally interference carries a negative connotation and has therefore increasingly tended to avoid it.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is L1 interference?

2. How does the negative transfer of interference differ from positive transfer?

12.3.2 Educational Use of Mother Tongue

It is a great debate whether mother tongue (L1) should be used in the English language classroom or otherwise. Cook (2001) argues for judicious use of L1 in the teaching of second/foreign languages but cautions that despite the legitimacy of using the L1 under certain

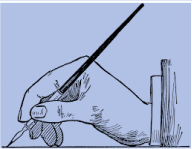
conditions, “It is clearly useful to employ large quantities of the L2, everything else being equal” (413). Native teachers of English argue that foreign language learning needs as much exposure to the L2 as possible during precious classroom time, and any usage of the L1 or translation is a waste of time. In the past, most methods in L2 language pedagogy dictated that L1 should be prohibited in the classroom. Communicative approaches to language learning in the 1970s and 1980s considered the use of the L1 as undesirable. However, recently the attitude to mother tongue in second language classes has undergone a positive change. Mother tongue has potentially positive and negative consequences. Use of mother tongue relates to learner’s identity. Another reason for L1 use in the classroom is to foster a *positive affective environment*. Negative impact of mother tongue use is that too much reliance on the L1 may undermine the interaction in English. Ernest Macaro observed that some of the factors which commonly lead to the use of the mother tongue are as follows:

- Using the first language for giving instructions about activities
- Translating and checking comprehension
- Individual comment to student
- Giving feedbacks to students
- Using the first language to maintain discipline.

According to Wigglesworth (2003: 22), teachers need to be aware of four different aspects in relation to the L1 use in the classroom:

- The conditions under which the first language may be profitably employed.
- Teacher’s code- switching in the classroom as a useful pragmatic strategy in the EFL classroom.
- Use of the first language as a cognitive bridge to the second language.
- Use of the first language in the classroom can be beneficial either to

the students with lower cognitive level or beginners.

	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
1. Should L1 be used in English language classroom?	
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2. What are the benefits behind the use of L1 in English language classroom?	
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	

12.3.3 Teaching Strategy

What should be the English language teaching strategy in a multilingual classroom? Certainly it will differ to some extent from a ***monolingual context***. In a monolingual context, instruction is carried out exclusively in the target language without recourse to student's mother tongue (L1). Translation between L1 and L2 has no place in the teaching of language. In the context of second and foreign language teaching, use of translation is typically identified with the discredited

grammar-translation method that sought to teach languages primarily by means of translation of texts and learning of grammatical rules. These assumptions reflect what Howatt in his *History of English Language Teaching* (1984) referred to as the “*monolingual principle*”. This principle emphasizes the instructional use of the target language (TL) to the exclusion of students’ L1, with the goal of enabling learners to think in the target language with minimal *interference* from L1. But Phillipson (1992) challenged the following five interrelated assumptions underlying much English language teaching in global contexts:

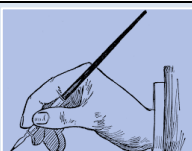
- English is best taught monolingually.
- The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.
- The earlier English is taught, the better the results.
- The more English is taught, the better the results.
- Standards of English will decline if other languages are used for any significant amount of instructional time.

But without going into the detailed study of Phillipson’s arguments, let us discuss some instructional strategies which can maximise learning in a multilingual context:

- **Value for linguistic diversity:** It is necessary to respect for and interest in diverse learners’ home languages. Positive linguistic attitudes toward learners’ languages encourage them to engage actively in learning.
- **Recognizing and accommodating cultural differences:** While teaching a second language, we cannot neglect the culture of that language. But, at the same time it is a fact that the learner of second language comes equipped with the culture of his/her first language. If no association is made between the culture of the first language and the learning of the second one, the learning will not be effective. Therefore, inclusion of local culture and context should

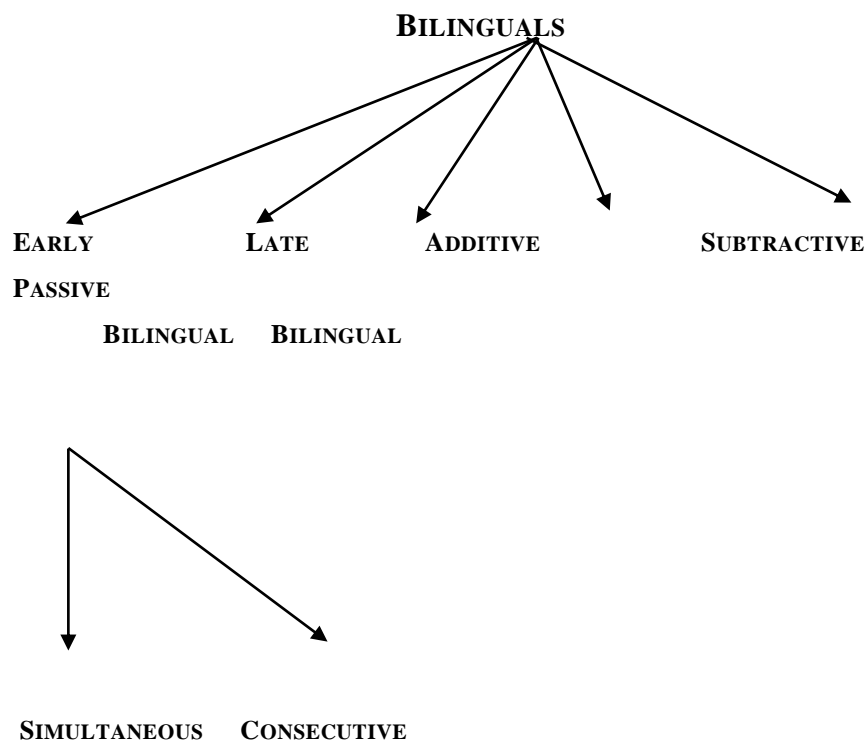
be more prominent in the initial phases and gradually gear more towards the target culture so that the integration is seamless in the end and language skill transition is more comprehensive.

- **Interrelating the content:** The content of **ESL/EFL** teaching should be interrelated to the diverse social, cultural and linguistic backgrounds of students. Language, in one way or another, should be thought in context. McKay (1997) claims that if instructional strategy fails to take into account the diverse backgrounds of students in a multilingual English classroom, it should be considered as ineffective.
- **Pairing/Grouping:** Pairing/grouping students from heterogeneous social, cultural and linguistic backgrounds is one of the effective instructional strategies that can overcome the challenges of classroom interaction in multilingual ESL/EFL classrooms. Students from diverse backgrounds learn more when they come together and work cooperatively.
- **Judicious use of mother tongue:** The use of mother tongue must be judicious so that its use must facilitate the learning of second language and avoids the negative interferences.

	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
1. How does Phillipson challenge the monolingual approach to English language teaching?	
<hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>	
2. Mention some of the teaching strategies which can foster learner's second language learning in a multilingual context.	

12.4 SUMMING UP

- Bilingual is one who has the ability to use two different languages.
- Bilinguals can be of various types based on the level of proficiency in using the two different languages.



- Code-switching occurs when bilingual or bidialectal persons

systematically alternate or use more than one language and/or variety in the same utterance or conversational exchange.

- Interlanguage is the type of language produced by second and foreign language learners who are in the process of learning a language. Such learners have not become fully proficient yet but are approximating the target language.
- In the process of learning the target language, learner may transfer his/her mother tongue structure to the target language, which is called interference.
- Positive transfer fosters the learning of a target language. Positive transfer is possible only when there are some similarities between the target language and learner's mother tongue.
- Overgeneralization is a process in which a learner extends the use of a grammatical rule or linguistic structure beyond its accepted uses.
- Communication strategies characterize the interlanguage of some language learners.
- Fossilization is a process in which incorrect linguistic features become a permanent part of the way a person speaks or writes a language.
- Multilingual is a person who is competent in understanding or using more than two languages.
- The use of mother tongue in the pedagogical context has several positive features but care must be taken to minimize negative interferences.
- Appropriate teaching strategies must be adopted in a multilingual context in order to acknowledge and accommodate linguistic and cultural diversities of students.

12.5 KEY TERMS

- ESL: It is an acronym for English as a Second Language.
- EFL: It stands for English as a Foreign Language.
- L1: First language/ mother tongue.
- L2: It stands for second language.
- SLA: Second Language Acquisition
- TR: Target Language
- Code-switching: Shifting from one language to another in mid speech, when both the speakers know the same two languages.
- Interlanguage: An independent language assumption of the language learner who distorts and invents a language system of his/her own while learning a second language.
- Fossilization: It is a process which sometimes occurs when wrong language features become a permanent aspect of the learner.
- L1 Interference: The dominance of mother tongue on a second language.



12.6 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

Q1. Explain these terms in your words, with one example for each:

- Code switching
- Interlanguage
- Communication strategy
- Fossilization

Q2. What do you mean by the standard form of language? Should it always be the goal in language teaching?

Q3. What should be the attitude of a language teacher towards learner's errors?

Q4. Explain the issues which are associated with multilingualism in the context of English language teaching.



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MODULE V: APPROACHES AND TECHNIQUES OF SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

UNIT 13: ORAL/SPEAKING SKILLS; SOCIOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION

UNIT STRUCTURE

13.0 Introduction to Speaking

13.1 Learning Objectives

13.1.1 Functions of Speaking

13.1.2 The Sub-skills of Effective Oral/Speaking Skill

13.1.3 The Techniques/Activities of Developing Speaking Skill

13.2 Sociology of Communication

13.3 Summing Up

13.4 Key Terms

13.5 Assessment Questions

13.6 References and Recommended Readings

13.0 INTRODUCTION TO SPEAKING

Speaking is quintessentially a human trait which separates human from other animals. Although animals do communicate with each other, their communications remain restricted at various levels. Unlike other animals, human beings are gifted with language wherein speaking stands prominent. Speaking is one of the skills of language which is productive in nature. It is productive because we produce socially acceptable utterances to communicate with others in order to achieve certain goals or to express our views, intentions, emotions, arguments, likings/disliking, hopes etc. Speaking can be *monologue* or *dialogue*-monologue is an individual oral presentation which remains uninterrupted by listener/s whereas dialogue focuses on interaction with each other. Speaking is the most frequently used language skill in almost each and every situation irrespective of

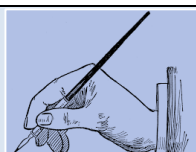
it's nature. Keeping in view the importance of speaking skill in our

lives, it is pertinent to mention that this skill needs to be adequately highlighted in any course on language studies/language teaching. In this regard, David Nunan (1999) rightly suggested that success in learning a language is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the (target) language. Therefore speaking should be the priority for the learners of English to develop the art of conversation flawlessly and spontaneously.

13.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

This Unit has the objective to make you

- understand the speaking skill as well as the sub-skills of speaking.
- know the sociology of communication and the socio-cultural aspects of communication
- more competent and confident in communication.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Why speaking is considered to be the productive skill of language?

2. How does monologue differ from a dialogue?

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13.1.1 *Functions of Speaking*

Although speaking serves numerous functions in our lives, broadly speaking, it serves one of the two main functions: **transactional** (transfer of information) and **interactional** (maintenance of social contact). Language serving transactional purpose is 'message' oriented rather than 'listener' oriented (Nunan, 1989: 27). Examples of language being used primarily for the transactional purpose may include news broadcasts, descriptions, narrations and instructions. On the other hand, some conversations are interactional in nature which play an important social role in oiling the wheels of social intercourse (Yule, 1989). Examples of interactional uses of language are greetings, small talks, and compliments which are more listener-oriented. Kingen (2000: 218) combines both the transactional and interpersonal purposes of speaking into an extensive list of twelve categories as follows:

- Personal: Expressing personal feelings, opinions, beliefs and ideas.
- Descriptive: Describing someone or something, real or imagined.
- Narrative: Creating and telling stories or chronologically sequenced events.
- Instructive: Giving instructions or providing directions designed to produce an outcome.
- Questioning: Asking questions to obtain information.
- Comparative: Comparing two or more objects, people, ideas, or opinions to make judgments about them.

- Imaginative: Expressing mental images of people, places, events, and objects.
- Predictive: Predicting possible future events.
- Interpretative: Exploring meanings, creating hypothetical deductions, and considering inferences.
- Persuasive: Changing others' opinions, attitudes, or points of view, or influencing the behaviour of others in some ways.
- Explanatory: Explaining, clarifying, and supporting ideas and opinions.
- Informative: Sharing information with others.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What do you mean by the transactional and interactional functions of speaking?

2. What do you mean by the interpretative function of speaking?

13.1.2 The Sub-skills of Effective Oral/Speaking Skill

Speaking denotes the oral ability of someone to express himself/herself coherently, fluently and appropriately in a specific context to serve both transactional and interactional purposes using correct pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and adopting the pragmatic and discourse rules of the spoken language. In other words, speaking is a language skill which encompasses multiple competencies/sub-skills. Therefore, speaking can be seen as a form of skill-learning, in which the skills to be learnt are isolated and presented separately to the learners, who have to practice them in order to master them. Although, the integration of four language skills is often considered as the most profitable exercise in the context of language teaching and learning, an awareness of the sub-skills of a specific language skill is essential for language learners. This is more conspicuous in the case of speaking because of its centrality in the case of any language.

Effective speaking is an art which can be developed only through rigorous practices. But before practices, one must know the areas to be practised in the context of speaking skill. The major areas which come under the umbrella of the sub-skills of speaking may include the following:

1. Linguistic competence/skill

- i. Using intelligible pronunciation.
- ii. Following grammatical rules accurately.
- iii. Using relevant, adequate and appropriate range of vocabulary.

2. Discourse competence/skill

- i. Structuring discourse coherently and cohesively.
- ii. Managing conversation through effective interaction to keep the conversation going.

3. Pragmatic competence/skill

- i. Ability to draw speaker's intended meaning.
- ii. Understanding the contextual background of conversation.
- iii. Ability to relate the utterances.

4. Socio-cultural competence/Skill

- i. Knowledge of the socio-cultural aspects of a situation in the context of language use.
- ii. Knowledge of the differences in dialects/ sociolect/register/slang etc. and their applications.
- iii. Ability to communicate effectively in diverse socio-cultural contexts.

5. Strategic competence/Skill

- i. Ability to manage conversation strategically to avoid misunderstanding/communication gap/ verbal conflict.
- ii. Ability to negotiate meaning and intentions.

6. Fluency

- i. It implies the flow of speaking which should remain natural.
- ii. Speaking should be smooth, clear and concise without too many pauses or hesitations.

7. Accuracy

- i. The ability to use the necessary vocabulary, grammar and punctuation correctly, such as verb forms (past tense, present tense, and so on), articles (a, an, the) and prepositions (in, on, from, at).
- ii. Speaking should maintain grammatical clarity and conceptual clarity.

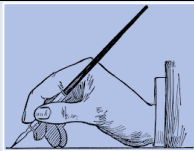
8. Non-verbal Language

- i. Appropriate use of eye contact.
- ii. Kinesics: Body movements including gesture, posture, head and hand movements etc.

- iii. Appropriate facial expressions to convey the right emotion and state of the mind.

9. Paralanguage

- i. It is concerned with the vocal aspects like volume, speed, stress, pitch, modulation, clarity etc.

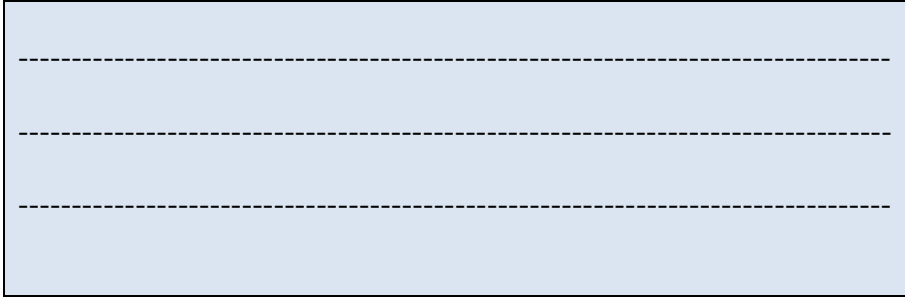


CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the sub-skills of speaking?

2. What is the role of non-verbal language in speaking?

3. What is paralanguage?



13.1.3 The Techniques and Activities of Developing Speaking Skill

Natural language acquisition of one's own mother tongue seems to be an automatic and easy phenomenon. But this cannot be the case with speaking in any second/foreign language where learners often experience language anxiety thereby remaining tongue-tied. Various speaking related problems including attitudinal, articulation, stress, intonation, the choice of vocabulary and grammatical constructions are mostly seen among the non-native learners of English. Attitudinal problems of learners can be managed by:

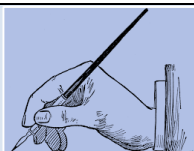
- Allowing learners to overcome the inhibition of fear by increasing their involvement in speaking.
- Reducing teacher's speaking time in class while increasing student speaking time.
- Indicating positive signs when commenting on a learner's response.
- The use of eliciting questions like "What do you mean? How did you reach that conclusion?" instead of yes/no questions.
- Encouraging learners to think in English.
- Building confidence in them.
- Promoting learners' speaking confidence through appropriately designed task.
- Involving them to participate in group activities.
- Increasing the motivational level of learners.

The problems concerning articulation, stress, intonation, vocabulary and grammar can be handled effectively by the following strategies:

- Providing a rich environment to the learners that contains collaborative work, authentic materials and tasks, and shared knowledge.
- Using audio-tape recorder for speech sounds/articulation.
- Enhancing learners' linguistic and verbal resources through reading and listening activities.
- Developing learners' vocabulary through flashcards, brainstorming, mind map, word networks and games.
- Improving learners' grammatical aspects through inductive ways.
- Involving learners in communicative activities.
- Highlighting fluency before accuracy.

To develop speaking skill, the learners need intensive practices. In the classroom setting, learners can be involved in the following speaking-based activities:

- Drills or linguistically structured activities like dialogue memorization and practice. These are controlled activities and are suitable for child learners.
- Performance-based activities include group discussion, debate, dialogues, translation, interpretation, interview, story-telling, role-play etc.
- Observation-based activities include survey and report presentation.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Mention some of the speaking related problems of L2 learners.

2. How can a language teacher develop L2 learners' verbal resources to facilitate their speaking skill?

13.2 SOCIOLOGY OF COMMUNICATION

Human communication is not simply an individual performance but an act which is collectively negotiated, determined and constructed.

Various social aspects of life including social class, caste, gender, identity, cultural norms, ethnic features, language variations, and situational differences determine the nature and type of communication. In other sense, communication is a socio-culturally ritualized act in which meaning is shaped and determined by diverse factors including addressing patterns, use of non-verbal language, direct/indirect speech act etc. As the socio-cultural patterns of human life are mostly location-specific, an awareness and internalization of context-specific norms will ensure successful communication.

Communication needs to be fitted into the situational, social, cultural and relational context. Situational context may be domestic, institutional, urban/rural, local/national etc. Similarly, social context in communication can be diverse like monolingual/multilingual situation, diasporic situation, orthodox/liberal social situation, class/caste/race/gender/age based situation etc. Much akin to the social context, there remains the cultural context which is also diverse in nature and may include like multicultural situation, monocultural situation, postcolonial hybrid situation, conventional situation and many more. Finally, relational context indicates the relationship between/among the communicators- who is interacting with whom? The nature and roles of participants in communication determine the relational context. In other sense, the relationship between the speaker and listener, their occupation, age, gender, socio-economic status along with their roles like teacher-student, husband-wife, father-son, seller-buyer, boss-subordinate etc. play vital role in any communicative event. For meaningful communication, one needs not only to be sensitive to

these contextual differences but also accommodate them in their conversational behaviours.

Human communication should be a cooperative enterprise which

needs to be mutually constructed and reconstructed for communicative benefits. In order to make communication a cooperative enterprise, the communicators need to adjust several aspects like how fast/slow he/she should interact, how long he/she should talk, whether he/she should contribute to a specific topic or not, whether code-switching can be used or not, whether he/she should use formal/casual or informal style in conversation etc.

Human communication is structured by the social norms which guide the flow of conversation from the beginning to the end. The social norms are implied in several communicative aspects including the following:

- Topic organization
- Cooperative principle
- Politeness principle.

Topic organization includes the strategies related with the topic initiation, topic maintenance and topic change. Further, it also includes the rules of turn-taking and the uses of adjacency pairs in conversation. Topic initiation involves the introduction of a topic, topic maintenance implies the continuation of a subject once it has been introduced into a conversation whereas topic change implies the change of topic in a conversation. A socio-culturally acceptable way of dealing with a topic in a conversation reduces the chances of conversational conflict and relational crisis. A coherent conversation proceeds in an orderly way by series of interaction which generally move with each participant having a turn to speak. In a communicative event, each participant needs to feel that he/she is contributing something to an interaction, so **turn-taking** is a central part of how conversations play out. The right to speak in an interaction is referred to as 'the floor' and the rules of turn-taking suggest how to get the floor, hold the floor and give up the floor. Speaker who wants to control his/her turn in a conversation may apply the strategies like using no pause at the end of a utterance or making

the utterance run on by using connectors like 'but', 'or', 'because' etc. There are certain units of speech that facilitate turn-taking and they are called *adjacency pairs*. Adjacency pairs are the communicative structures that come one after other in an interaction. For example, questions are followed by answers, greetings are followed by responses, compliments are followed by a thank you and informative comments are followed by an acknowledgement. Lack of maintenance of adjacency pairs in communication will not only develop communication gap but also spoil human relationship.

Communication is a social behaviour which is mutually constructed by the members of a specific society. The strategies like '*cooperative principle*' and '*politeness principle*' in conversation are also guided by the socio-cultural norms of a specific context. What is considered as cooperative and polite in a culture may not be the same in another culture. Therefore, the cooperative principle and politeness principle are socio-culturally and historically constructed and are not the intrinsic human properties. The cooperative principle is the assumption that participants in a conversation normally attempt to be informative, truthful, relevant, and clear and this principle was introduced by philosopher H. Paul Grice. On the other hand, the 'politeness principle' aims to safeguard the other person's face during the time of a conversation. Face of a person indicates his/her socio-economic and cultural position and if the face is respected by the other speaker, it is termed as '*face saving act*', on the contrary '*face threatening act*' implies the act of disrespecting the dignity and position of other person. Both the 'face saving' and 'face threatening' acts are culture-specific as the specific cultural norms generally determine the polite/impolite aspect of conversation. For example, in some cultures assertive and direct statement is considered polite whereas in some other cultures indirect expressions are considered

more polite and socially acceptable.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is 'topic organization'?

2. What is the role of 'turn-taking' in a conversation?

3. Mention a few examples of adjacency pairs.

4. What are the implications of 'face saving act' and 'face threatening act'?

13.3 SUMMING UP

- Speaking is one of the productive skills of language.
- Speaking can be either monologue or dialogue.
- The two main functions of speaking are transactional (transfer of information) and interactional (maintenance of social contact).
- The sub-skills of speaking include: 1) Linguistic skills 2) Discourse Skills 3) Pragmatic skills 4) Socio-cultural skills 5) Strategic skills 6) Fluency 7) Accuracy 8) Non-verbal language 9) Paralanguage
- Non-native learners often face speaking-related problems like speaking anxiety, lack of language resources, pronunciation problems etc.
- Speaking can be developed systematically through several classroom activities including controlled activities, performance-based activities and observation-based activities.
- Communication is heavily affected and determined by the social factors like social class/caste, gender, socio-economic positions of participants.
- In order to make communication effective, one needs to be sensitive towards the socio-cultural norms that govern communication.
- Several strategies of communication like topic organization, cooperative principle and politeness principle are society specific and for a successful communication, one needs to adopt appropriate patterns of the strategies as per the demands of the social situations.

13.4 KEY TERMS

- Monologue: An individual oral presentation which remains

uninterrupted by listener/s.

- Dialogue: An interactive process
- Turn taking: The right to speak in a conversation.
- Adjacency pairs: The conversational pairs which follow one after another.
- Topic organization: It includes the strategies related with the topic initiation, topic maintenance and topic change in a conversation.
- The cooperative principle: The assumption that participants in a conversation normally attempt to be informative, truthful, relevant, and clear.
- Politeness principle: It aims to safeguard the other person's face during the time of a conversation.
- Face saving act: The act of respecting the other person's social position during the time of a conversation.
- Face threatening act: It implies the act of disrespecting the dignity and position of other person during the time of a conversation.



13.5 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. How do you view the speaking skill of language?
2. How can speaking skill be developed among the non-native learners of English?
3. What does the sociology of communication signify?
4. Analyze the roles of social class/caste and gender in human communication.
5. How does the notion of 'politeness' in conversation differ from culture to culture?
6. Do you think that L2 learners' positive attitude and motivation are vitally important for developing their speaking ability in the target language? Justify your view.
7. How does social context influence human communication?

8. How to make a conversation cooperative in nature?



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UNIT 14: READING SKILLS; REFLECTIVE SKILLS AND WRITING SKILLS THEORIES AND TECHNIQUES

UNIT STRUCTURE

14.0 Introduction

14.1 Learning Objectives

14.2 What is Reading?

14.2.1 Common Views on Reading

14.2.2 Different Types of Reading

14.2.3 Reading Speed versus Reading Comprehension

14.2.4 Approaches towards Reading

14.2.5 Reading Strategies and Study Skills

14.3 Teaching Reading: Three –Stage Approaches to Reading

14.4 Introduction to Reflective Skills

14.4.1 Reflective Listening

14.5 What is Writing?

14.5.1 Smallest Unit in Writing

14.5.2 Form vs. Meaning in Writing

14.5.3 Writing Process

14.5.4 Types of Writing

14.5.5 Functions of Writing

14.6 Theories of Writing

14.7 Teaching Writing

14.7.1 Developing Content – the ‘What’ of Writing

14.7.2 The Technique of Writing- the ‘How’ of Writing

14.8 Summing Up

14.9 Key Terms

14.10 Assessment Questions

14.11 References and Recommended Readings

14.0 INTRODUCTION

Language has four skills and they are listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among these four skills, only reading and writing are the skills which can make someone literate. Moreover, these two skills are important tools for academic success. Francis Bacon remarks in his essay *Of Studies* “Reading maketh a full man; conference a ready man; and writing an exact man.” Therefore, developing learner’s competence in reading and writing skills should be highlighted in the English language classroom but it may be a challenging task on the part of a language teacher unless he/she follows appropriate teaching strategies. Before going to the strategies of teaching reading and writing skills, let us know **reading** and **writing** skills elaborately.

14.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVES

Here we have the primary objective to make you understand the effective teaching skills which can foster learners’ reading and writing skills. But, at the beginning we want you to know these two language skills- reading and writing partly in detail.

14.2 WHAT IS READING?

Reading is the process of looking at a series of written symbols and getting meaning from them. When we read, we use our eyes to receive written symbols (letters, punctuation marks and spaces) and we use our brain to convert them into words, sentences and paragraphs that communicate something to us. In other words, reading is a complex cognitive process of decoding symbols in order to construct or derive meaning (reading comprehension).

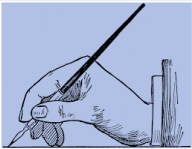
Reading is considered to be an important **receptive skill** -

through it we receive information, concept, ideas etc. Gray (1967, in Webster 1982:19) feels that when we read something, we understand it at three levels: “first, the purely literal responding to the graphic signals only with little depth of understanding, the second level at which the reader recognizes the author’s meaning, and the third level where the reader’s own personal experiences and judgements influence his/her response to the text.” These three levels can be summarized as “reading the lines, reading between the lines and reading beyond the lines.”

Reading is an **active process**. A reader can understand a text only when s/he actively puts his/her mental faculties. S/he should have:

- the knowledge of the writing system (graphemes)
- the knowledge of the language (morphology, syntax and semantics)
- the ability to interpret
- the knowledge of the world
- a reason for reading and a reading style appropriate for it.

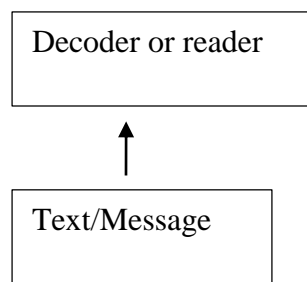
All these contribute to his/her understanding- the way in which s/he interprets the text and the meaning s/he constructs out of the text. This may be the cause why Kenneth Goodman calls reading a “**psycholinguistic guessing game**”. Thus, while reading, a reader interacts with a text, decodes it and constructs meaning in the process.

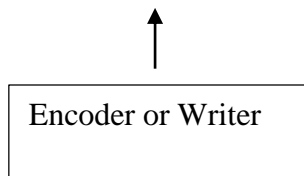
	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS
1. What do you mean by the receptive skill of language?	
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2. What makes reading an active process?

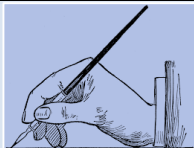
14.2.1. Common Views on Reading

- **Reading as communication:** Let us take the basic model of communication to understand this. Here we have the sender (the writer) or *encoder* who encodes the message. The message is the idea or fact that is in his/her mind. It is important that he/she puts it into words, that is, encodes it. The output of this encoding is the text. The reader *decodes* it, that is, he/she converts the code (language) into the message.





- **Reading as Interaction:** Reading is interactive where the reader brings his or her personal knowledge or schema to the text and creates and recreates meanings. Interactive reading is an active process which demands the reader to analyse and evaluate the textual meaning logically and then to interpret, construct and reconstruct meaning.
- **Reading as a Psycholinguistic Process:** This view looks at reading as a language activity as well as a psychological process. Here, reading is not seen just as a process of matching up of symbols and sounds (linguistics), but also as a process involving a lot of guessing and judging on the reader's side (psychological) as he/she progresses through the text.

	<p>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS</p> <p>1. What is an interactive reading?</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p>
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14.2.2 *Different Types of Reading*

Reading can be various types depending on the purpose for which we are reading a text. We shall have a look at these.

a) **Extensive Reading:** Sometimes, we read longer texts like a novel or a short story mainly for our pleasure. There we read rapidly and aim at a global understanding of the text. This type of reading is called extensive reading.

b) **Intensive Reading:** Intensive reading involves reading something in detail to get a deeper understanding of a text. Here we read slowly and intensively for an exact understanding of a text. It is basically done for a high degree of comprehension and retention over a long period of time. What are the situations when we require doing intensive reading?

- When we are asked to read to comment on the writer's intentions, argument, ideas, style etc.
- When we proofread a document or read for examination.
- When we read our contract before signing it.
- When we read legal documents, research papers, application forms etc.

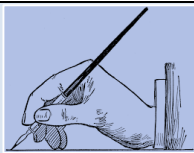
c) **Critical/Creative Reading:** Critical reading is one of the most important types of reading needed to become an effective reader. The critical reader is one who reacts to the text making decisions and judgement about it. Critical reading involves three steps:

- Determining what the author is saying by ferreting out the author's path of thinking from the beginning to the end.
- Listing out the arguments and opinions about the topic.
- Agreeing or disagreeing with the author.

A critical reader makes use of his/her whole background knowledge and experiences, taking care to avoid both slave-like submission and complete rejection of any school of thought he/she

comes across. He is always a minute observer and an impartial evaluator.

d) **Reading Aloud and Silent Reading:** Now we come to the oft-repeated question: Should we make our learners read aloud in the classroom or train them in silent reading? Most of our day-to-day reading is done silently. When we read an article or an advertisement we are engaged in the process of deriving meaning from the text. We can derive meaning more efficiently by concentrating on meaning alone which is possible only in the case of silent reading. When we read aloud, our comprehension is divided between reading and speaking. This makes reading much more difficult, resulting in problems in comprehension. But reading aloud is extremely needed when we want our learners to improve their pronunciation.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. Mention the different types of reading.

2. How does the extensive reading differ from intensive reading?

3. Which reading qualities are essential in order to be a critical reader?


14.2.3 Reading Speed vs. Reading Comprehension

Does fast reading help or hamper comprehension? Should we encourage our students to read faster? Well, we should remember that not all the words are necessary for comprehension. But it is not always the case, for example, if you take a legal document or a research article and try to read as fast as you can, will it lead to adequate comprehension? The answer is a 'no' because in a legal document, each and every word contributes to the meaning. So fast reading is of limited value. It must be remembered that we do not always attempt 100% comprehension. When we read a legal document, maybe we are interested in 100% comprehension but for most of the texts we aim at 10% to 80% comprehension. A good reader is one who can vary his/her speed depending on the purpose of his/her reading. S/he might read a novel at 400 words per minute but when it comes to reading a legal contract s/he could slow his/her rate to 80 words per minute. A less able reader tends to read all the texts slowly.

The speed of reading depends on the purpose for which we read and the level of comprehension which we are aiming at.

Speed	Purpose	Good Reader
Slow	When material is difficult and/or high comprehension is required	200-300 words per minute (wpm), 80-90% comprehension
Average	Used for everyday reading of magazines, newspapers etc.	250-500 wpm, 70% comprehension
Fast	Used when highest speed is required; comprehension is intentionally lower.	800+ wpm, 50% comprehension

(Richards, Platt and Weber, 1985: 239)



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What governs the speed of reading?

2. When do we need fast reading?

3. Which reading speed gives us the maximum level of reading comprehension?

14.2.4 *Approaches towards Reading*

Recent research findings in the field of reading have helped in formulating two main approaches towards reading, namely

- The bottom-up approach or the phonic approach
- The top-down approach or the psycholinguistic approach

The ***bottom-up approach*** holds the text at the centre. The priority here is given to the text and parts of it. This approach looks at reading as ‘a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents’ (Nunan). Let us look at this a little detail. The reader starts at the level of a text. He/she processes every letter that he/she comes across. The reader then progresses to match the letters with the phoneme (the minimum sound unit of a language). In the next stage the phonemes are blended to form words. This finally results in the derivation of meaning.

In the ***top-down approach*** to reading, the reader is at the centre. Reading is not merely a mechanical process. While reading, a reader brings in his/her past experiences and background knowledge into the text. His/her interest, values and attitudes also have a role to play. There

is an interaction between the reader and the text. Hence, this approach emphasizes the reconstruction of meaning.

14.2.5 Reading Strategies and Study Skills

Reading strategies are those techniques which make reading an effective and motivating experience. Reading strategies differ as per the purposes of our reading. Here are the strategies:

a) **Skimming:** Let us say there is a book exhibition going on in the city. What would be our purpose in visiting the exhibition? Usually, it would be to look through some books and decide if they are worth buying, is it not? How do we go about doing this? We would rapidly run through certain titles of the books, their table of contents to find out what the books are about.

Here, we do not read the contents of each and every book. We read fast in order to get a gist or overall view of the books. This type of reading where we read something to get a general understanding of something is called skimming. Skimming involves finding out what something is all about. We often skim when we have a lot of materials to read within a limited amount of time.

Why do we skim?

- To get an overview of what we wish to read/we are reading (an author's main line of argument etc.)
- To identify the main themes or ideas pursued by the author of the reading materials.

Skimming involves:

- Paying attention to headings and subheadings, key words and phrases.
- Reading the topic sentence of a paragraph.

b) **Scanning:** Scanning is a technique which refers to quick reading to

get specific information. This technique is often used while looking up a word in a dictionary or locating a telephone number from a directory.

c) **Inferring:** What you generally do when you do not get the meaning of a word or phrase or sentence while reading a text for the first time. Hopefully you try to guess the meaning depending upon the textual context. If you are doing so, you are on the right track of developing good and efficient reading habit. Seeking the help of a dictionary every time you see a new word lessens your reading speed and spirit. New words are like new friends. When we see those friends in different situations, we try to recall their names. Similarly, the meanings of those new words have to be recalled whenever we see them used in a different context.

d) **Predicting:** Predicting is the skill of guessing what comes next, making use of grammatical, logical and cultural clues. Prediction or anticipation skill is better developed when a considerable time is devoted to an unfinished passage to complete it or by going through a text little by little, stopping after each sentence to predict what is likely to come next. Prediction is a proactive skill because it makes the reader think and involve him/herself actively with the text from the outset.

Good reading habits also invite some study skills like the followings:

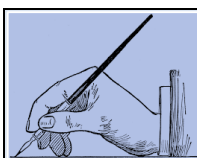
I. **Note making:** The most important thing to practise in note making is to know what to write down and what not to. Sketchy notes are insufficient to understand the text at a later stage and too wordy notes tend to take too much time to make. Hence, they do not help in distinguishing the main points and the supporting arguments, which is an essential skill for better and comprehensive reading. Note making is an important skill to be developed for reference purposes. For effective note making, the reader needs to survey his/her text thoroughly to get

the writer's main points. Note making needs to be done with the help of listing and numbering, diagrams, symbols and abbreviations.

II. Outlining: Outlining is a useful skill both in reading and writing. An efficient writer builds a piece of writing putting flesh on the skeleton of the outline while an efficient reader removes the flesh to see the skeleton underneath. Outline will include only the main and supporting ideas of a piece of text. An outline helps one as a reader to understand the way in which the writer has organized his/her writing. The outline must show the order of the various topics, the relative importance of each, and the relationship between the various parts.

III. Summarizing: Summarizing is the skill next to outlining. Summarizing helps to preserve the main points and essential facts in a brief and consolidated form. Once the outlining is done, the next step is to write a draft summary based on the notes taken and the outline that has been done earlier. The learners need to know the steps to summarize.

- Only the essential points should be included.
- The draft summary should be on the basis of the notes and not on the text.
- Necessary additions or deletions are made so as to make the summary read as a coherent piece of writing- repetitions must be avoided.
- Summary must be written in one's own language.
- Summary will be nearly one-third in length of the original text.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is skimming?

2. How do we skim a text?

3. How does skimming differ from scanning?

4. What do you mean by study skills?

5. What are the study skills of reading?



14.3 Teaching Reading: Three-Stage Approaches to Reading

While teaching reading skill, the teacher needs to observe firstly the existing reading habits of his/her learners. Paying close attention to ‘how’ our learners read would help us identify and understand where and how they make mistakes. Learners may have one or the other faulty reading habits like:

- **Reading word by word:** Some learners may read word by word and it slows down the process of reading and consequently they are having frustrating reading experience. The teacher must guide them to form the habit of reading a breath group or a sense group at a time. Breath group or sense group is the meaningful part of a sentence.
- **Finger pointing:** This refers to the tendency of learners using their fingers to point at every word they are trying to decipher. Providing text with large print may help them avoiding this habit.
- **Subvocalization:** Subvocalization or silent speech is a common habit among readers. It includes saying words in your head while reading and it’s one of the main reasons why people read slowly and have trouble improving their reading speed.
- **Regression:** This refers to the practice of moving eyes frequently back to check the previous word instead of moving steadily forward. Naturally, the speed of reading comes down. To avoid this, learner must develop the ability to hold large word group in his/her mind which he/she has just read before.

Now, let us look at the role of a teacher in helping the learners develop reading skills. The aim of a teacher in a reading class is to enable

students to read unfamiliar texts on their own, at an appropriate speed and with reasonable comprehension. We know that reading skill, like any other skill, can be acquired only when they are practised. We can divide a reading class into three stages:

- Pre-reading
- While-reading
- Post-reading

Pre-reading stage

In the pre-reading stage, the teacher should aim to arouse the learners' interest in the subject by activating their background knowledge and ideas related to the text which they are going to read.

While-reading stage

The learners are now ready for reading. The teacher should ask them to quickly go through the text and answer the questions like, 'What is the theme of the passage?' The guiding questions aim at global comprehension. They give the learners an overview of the passage. After completion of learners' answers to the guiding questions, they should be made to read the passage again and answer questions which help them in detailed comprehension. The questions should help the learners in:

- understanding explicitly stated information,
- inferring facts from given information, and
- forming their own views (reading critically) on the subject.

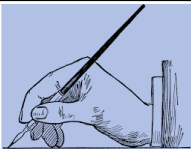
Post-reading stage

In real life, reading is most often followed by some activities. After reading, the learners either reflect upon what they have read or they relate the text to their background knowledge, interests or views. Depending on the nature of the text, the teacher can ask his/her students:

- to think of a similar situation to that presented in the text,

- to say whether they agree with the opinion of the author,
- to suggest solutions to the problems raised in the text, and
- to transcode the information in the text (drawings and diagrams based on the text).

As part of these activities the students need to speak to someone or write to someone, draw a diagram or attempt any combination of these. The idea behind this is to make the activities interactive so that learners get practice in other language skills too like writing and speaking. There are a few advantages of this three-stage approach to reading as it helps the students to activate their background knowledge so that they can apply it while reading a text. Moreover, it gives them practice in reading and other skills and thus, it leads to the integration of the language skills.

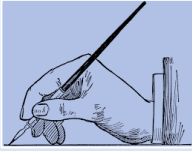
	<p>CHECK YOUR PROGRESS</p> <p>1. What are the three different stages of a reading activity?</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p> <p>-----</p>
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14.4 INTRODUCTION TO REFLECTIVE SKILLS

The term 'reflection' denotes the process of self-examination and self-evaluation which stands important in our lives. In fact, reflection is one of the life-skills which makes people more competent, confident and integrative in addressing the different aspects of life. Reflective skills are predominantly significant in our academic and professional lives as it is only through reflective interpretation and analysis of our past experiences, behaviour, feelings, responses and action that we can enrich our present. Reflection helps us to know our strength and weakness. An awareness of strength and weakness becomes vitally important for us as it gives the chance to enhance our strengths continuously and also to develop strategies to minimize our weaknesses. In this regard, Morley (2007) stated that critical reflection “highlights disparities between a practitioner’s espoused theories and their actual practice” (p. 62). Typically we do this by asking ourselves questions about what we did, how we did it, and what we learnt from doing it.

Reflective learning is a dynamic action-based process which involves learners thinking about what they have read, done or learned relating to a lesson. In other sense, reflective learning creates a linkage between present experience of learning and the past learning. It is a concept which is based on learning from experiences as it is not simply the memorization of facts and figures. Rather it encourages the learners to enter into a text/speech critically and analytically in order to comprehend a topic/subject from diverse perspectives. Through the ways of constant comparison and contrast, interpretations of intertextual references, contextual features, denotative and connotative meanings, learners can develop a critical and analytical mind which remains the hallmark of any reflective learning. Reflection can be the part of someone's listening, speaking, reading, writing and thinking as

well.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is reflective learning?

2. How does self reflection enhance learning outcome?

14.4.1 Reflective Listening

Good listening skill includes the ability to reflect words and feelings of the speaker and also to ensure that the listener has comprehended the intension of the speaker correctly. According to Dalmer Fisher, reflective listening encompasses the following:

- Focusing upon conversation by reducing or eliminating any kind of distraction.
- Genuinely embracing the speaker's perspective without necessarily agreeing with it. In other sense, one needs to be non-judgemental while reflecting on someone's speech/conversation.
- Mirroring the mood of the speaker, reflecting the emotional state with words
- Summarizing what the speaker has said.
- Responding to the speaker's specific point, without digressing to other subjects.
- Switching the roles of speaker and listener if necessary.

Reflective listening is much associated with the fields of counselling and psychotherapy which was addressed particularly by Carl Roger. The 'client-centred' therapy of Carl Roger highlights the importance of reflective process in which the listener needs to adopt the strategies like empathy, acceptance, congruence and concreteness for decoding a message. Empathy denotes a listener's desire and efforts to get inside other person's thoughts and feelings. Much like empathy, acceptance implies the respect and desire of a listener to welcome someone's message unconditionally. Congruence is the openness, frankness and genuineness on the part of a listener and concreteness refers to focusing on specific aspects of a message rather than vague generalities. Reflective listening has many advantages and some of them are as follows:

- Active engagement on the part of a listener in a conversation process.
- Creates empathy and thus enhances interpersonal relationship.
- Builds positive rapport and a deepening relationship
- Develops critical mind and creative thinking.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What should reflective listening encompass?

2. How is reflective listening associated with psychotherapy?

14.5 WHAT IS WRITING?

Language is primarily speech and writing is a means to preserve it. It presents the sounds of a language through visual symbols. Writing is an essential feature of learning a language because it provides a very

good means of reinforcing the vocabulary, spelling, and sentence pattern. Writing is the *productive skill* of language. It enriches our cognitive and intellectual parts. However, writing is a complex and highly intense, mental, physical and emotional task. Because of its complexity and difficulty, students are often in a state of confusion and wonder about what to write and how to write effectively.

14.5.1 Smallest Unit in Writing

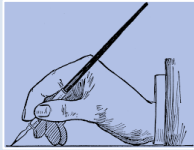
At the very beginning it is important to know what the smallest unit in writing is. Such a consideration will give us a clear direction on teaching. If we can identify this, we will firstly be able to get an understanding of the skill itself, and secondly to determine how best we can teach it. If our students do not know how to cope with the smallest unit in something, how will they deal with the larger units?

Well, one may think that the smallest unit in writing is the letter or the word or even the sentence. If you think that the smallest unit in writing is the letter or the word, you are thinking of writing in terms of motor-mechanical skills. At the early age, children have to be taught to hold a pencil, to form letters, to write in a running hand etc. In short, we are dealing here with very young children who just begin to write.

If your idea of the smallest unit in writing is the sentence, you will find that the focus then automatically falls on correct grammar. If we concentrate on the sentence, we are focussing more on grammar than on the processes of composition.

A perception of the *paragraph* as the basic unit of writing, on the other hand, carries with it several assumptions which are interesting, and are essential to understanding what writing is. Firstly, the paragraph implies discourse or a large chunk of coherently connected sentences implying a basic idea. A paragraph should have unity of sentences structured around one single idea or notion. This means that the emphasis is not simply on the correctness, though that is

essential, but on the fluency of expression. The emphasis is not on grammar but on communication.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What makes writing a complex activity?

2. Which is the smallest unit of writing?

3. What makes a paragraph?

14.5.2 Form vs. Meaning in Writing

Grammatical accuracy is a must in any good piece of writing. In fact, we hold that grammar is best taught through writing activities. What comes first in writing, form or meaning? To concentrate grammatical accuracy first is putting the cart before the horse- the student should have something to communicate before correct communication can be arrived at. To know what you want to say before you actually writing that accurately is after all, quite natural in the writing process.

14.5.3 Writing Process

Well, you probably start writing by first considering what you want to say. You should put down all your ideas first. Then probably you would do some sort of organization, then the writing of a rough draft. This could be followed by reorganization, redrafting and revision. Finally, there would be a final check or editing process for spellings and grammar. Accurate writing then comes at the end of a long process, not at the beginning. Therefore, if we focus on correct writing right at the beginning, we could lose much of the process of writing.

14.5.4 Types of Writing

Now, we need to examine the different types of writing. Writing can be:

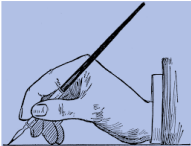
- Descriptive – of objects, people, events, processes etc.
- Narrative - sequencing of events and happenings
- Expository – giving an expose of a subject, setting it out for view, with definition, classification, examples etc.
- Argumentative – taking a point of view and supporting/opposing it
- Reflective – looking back on issues, events, activities and people
- Persuasive – getting readers to change their views
- Interpretative – giving the writer's perspective on an issue

Descriptive, narrative and expository kinds of writing are far easier than argumentative or persuasive writing. Beginners in English therefore, should not move into argument or persuasion, if simpler forms of description and narration have not been mastered.

14.5.5 Functions of Writing

When we look at the types of writing, we are also thinking of functions of writing. This aspect of writing is often neglected by the average teacher, who concentrate on the forms of writing like letter writing, essay writing, report writing, etc. without emphasizing the teaching of how language is used- the functions of language. That is, the teacher will teach letter writing by teaching salutation and greetings. We do need to write in English for academic and business purposes, and writing functions severally like:

- Invitation
- Refusal
- Agreement
- Disagreement
- Complaint
- Asking for information
- Giving instruction, etc.

	CHECK YOUR PROGRESS 1. What are the various types of writing? ----- ----- ----- -----
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2. Mention some examples of reflective and persuasive writing.

3. What are the functions of writing?

14.6 THEORIES OF WRITING

There are several theories which look at writing from diverse perspectives. Some writing theories focus on the mechanics and forms of writing whereas other theories emphasize creativity and sociability in writing. Writing can be viewed from the following theoretical perspectives:

- Cognitive theory
- Sociocultural theory

- Socio-cognitive theory

According to the cognitive theory, writing is a cognitive process. Writing is inextricably linked with the thinking process of a writer. Cognitive theory views writing as a non-linear process in which the different steps in the writing process including brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing etc. are constantly revisited by a writer in order to make any composition more effective. Moreover, this theory highlights the importance of genre, purpose and motivation in the context of writing activity. Unlike the cognitive theory, sociocultural theory solely emphasizes the social influences on writing. Sociocultural theory is strongly supported by the works of Vygotsky, according to whom children's learning take place in the society with the help of 'more knowledgeable other' (MKO). From the sociocultural perspective, writing is a collaborative social activity. Again there remains the socio-cognitive theory which is constructive in nature. According to this theory, meaning is constructed through constant negotiation between a writer and reader. This theory highlights the importance of contextual factors, identity projection and relationship between reader-writer.

14.7 TEACHING WRITING

Teaching of writing depends on the level of learners and must aim at the '*what*' and '*how*' of writing. If we say that the paragraph is the focus of teaching writing, we also mean to say that:

- Writing is the communication of ideas to someone i.e. if students have to communicate something, there must be a '*what*' in writing, or content in writing, which needs to be systematically developed.
- Writing paragraphs need to be effective in terms of cohesion. Linkers, connectives etc. have to be used for the proper sequencing of ideas. There is a relationship between the '*what*' and the '*how*' of

writing. At lower levels, learners need help and training in both these areas. It is a good idea, however, to help learners to tackle one area at a time, if they are in the lower classes or very weak in English. Teachers can involve learners in writing practice through *guided* or *controlled writing* activities like the activity of structuring language of a given content or writing a content with the help of given sentences. In this type of writing, the learners are supplied all the necessary structural and lexical items along with the thoughts and ideas to be expressed. It enables learners to work under the guidance of a teacher. Teachers can move into *free writing*, when the learners can freely choose their structure and vocabulary and express their own thoughts and ideas on a given topic without teacher's control. *Free writing* is important for developing creativity, but creative writing must be attempted only after the basic structures of language have been mastered. Guided writing certainly contributes to the mastery of structures.

14.7.1 Developing Content - the 'What' of Writing

Appropriate teaching method must be used to foster the skill of developing content among the learners. Paragraph writing can be developed with hints, which teacher can provide, or which can be arrived at together with the class. This can be done through a brainstorming session where the class can think all possible points which could go into a paragraph or essay. These points could be noted down on the blackboard, and then reorganized or categorized for sequencing or for organization in writing.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What is the difference between controlled writing and free writing?

2. How can the 'what' of writing be developed among learners?

14.7.2 *The Technique of Writing- the 'How' of Writing*

The 'how' of writing includes thematic consistency, appropriate style, tone etc. and classroom instruction must address them to make learners confident and competent in effective writing. **Effective writing** can be possible only when writing maintains several aspects of good writing habits like writing accurately, precisely, clearly and maintaining all the mechanics of writing including unity, coherence, organizing thoughts properly etc. Here is

a brief discussion on all these aspects:

- **Accuracy, Brevity and Clarity**

Accuracy includes accuracy of information and accuracy of expression. One must assure oneself of the accuracy of information before communicating. For example, if a person has to write a technical report, he/she should repeatedly check all the facts and figures that need to be included failing to which reliability of the report will remain doubtful. Accuracy of expression demands that there should be no errors of grammar, spelling, punctuation and usage. It also demands precision in the use of words, phrases and sentences. Precision is the quality of being exact, accurate and definite.

Can you figure out the accurate sentence from the following set of sentences?

- Only Rahul scored ten runs.
- Ten runs were scored by Rahul only.
- Rahul scored ten runs only.
- Ten runs only were scored by Rahul.

If you have chosen sentence (a), you are correct as the grammar says that modifiers (words like ‘only’, ‘almost’, ‘really’ etc.) are placed before the word they modify.

Brevity is the soul of wit. Brevity is the quality of being brief but comprehensive in expression. In order to be brief in writing, one must avoid wordiness and repetition. Can you say which of the following sentence maintains brevity?

- Kindly be good enough to advise us as to the date of dispatch.
- Please let us know the date of dispatch.

Hopefully, you have chosen sentence (b).

Clarity in writing is the quality of being unambiguous and easily understandable. Clarity involves both grammatical clarity and conceptual clarity. Grammatical clarity can be achieved by the correct uses of grammatical aspects like correct pronoun reference, punctuation etc. Consider the following sentence:

‘He took out his handkerchief and his pen, then wiped his forehead, blew his nose, and put it back into his pocket.’

What does the writer intend to say? Did he put his nose back into his pocket (!) or his pen or his handkerchief? What does ‘it’ refer to? The above sentence is ambiguous because here single pronoun is referring to many nouns. For clarity, each pronoun should not be too far away from the noun it refers to. Neither should it point ambiguously to several nouns. Conceptual clarity can be maintained by the correct choice of words. Words have *denotative* meaning which is its literal meaning, usually used in scientific writings. *Connotation* is the underlying feeling that you get, besides the primary meaning of the word. For example, look at this set of words: ‘smell’, ‘aroma’, and ‘stench’. All these three words mean almost the same thing, but ‘smell’ is purely denotative; ‘aroma’ gives you a positive feeling and has favourable connotations; and ‘stench’ makes you wrinkle up your nose and gives you unfavourable connotations.

- **Mechanics**

Mechanics is the term we use to describe the technical aspects of writing, such as, punctuation, capitalization, spelling etc. *Mechanics* are the conventions of writing and effective writing always maintains them. Read the following sentence:

i wrote a book with dr sharma and dr joshi and mr kulkarni edited it
You definitely find difficult to read and comprehend the above sentence as it lacks the mechanics of writing. If it had the mechanics, it could be read in either of the two ways:

a) I wrote a book with Dr. Sharma, and Dr. Joshi and Mr. Kulkarni

edited it.

Or

b) I wrote a book with Dr. Sharma and Dr. Joshi, and Mr. Kulkarni edited it.

Can you see the difference in meaning in sentences (a) and (b)? In sentence (a), Dr. Joshi and Mr. Kulkarni are the editors of the book whereas in sentence (b), the editor of the book is only Mr. Kulkarni.

- **Organization**

Organization or structure is the dress of one's thoughts/ideas. Ideas do not make much sense if they are not arranged in some way. Something has to come first, something has to go last, and several things usually end up in the middle, one after another, in a logical sequence. Organization is the structural framework for writing. It is important in effective writing because it provides readers with a framework to help them fulfil their expectations for the composition/text. Organization, simply put, is the logical progression and completeness of ideas in a composition. Different narrative and expository genres have different purposes and different audiences, and so they require different text structures. **Beginnings** and **endings** help link the text into a coherent whole. Just as a good beginning can draw a reader into a piece of writing, a mediocre beginning can discourage a reader from reading further. The beginning, also called the lead or the hook, orients the reader to the purpose of the writing by introducing characters or setting (for narrative) or the topic, thesis, or argument (for expository writing). A good beginning also sets up expectations for the purpose, style, and mood of the piece. The organization of the **middle** of a piece of writing depends on the genre and may follow organizational structures like chronological, cause-effect, compare-contrast, problem-solution etc.

- **Unity and Coherence**

A composition is more than a mere assembly of words. Any writing which is not unified ceases to be purposive distracts the reader, wastes his/her time and might even antagonize him/her. It is important to teach our students about this principle of unity and help them achieve it in their writings.

One of the ways of ensuring unity is to make sure that the composition is about *a single theme*. Focusing the single theme helps the writer unfolds the topic gradually and logically. Theme is also known as ‘*controlling idea*’, ‘*dominant idea*’ and so on. Each paragraph should deal with one aspect of the controlling idea. This leads to unity within a paragraph, a necessity for unified compositions. No paragraph should be allowed to lead the reader away from the controlling idea. And each paragraph should contribute to enhance the main idea.

For example, let us decide to write on late Dr. A.P. J. Abdul Kalam. First, let us decide the ‘theme’, which technically, is a limited aspect of a subject. Therefore, shall we look at late Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam as a scientist or as the former president of India? Once we decide which aspect we are going to write on, all our paragraphs should contribute only to that aspect of the topic. So, if we decide to write on late Dr. A.P.J. Abdul Kalam as the former president of India, it would be irrelevant to write his scientific contributions- it would detract from the unity of composition.

Ideas must therefore be grouped according to their importance and their relationship to the other ideas in the composition. Any idea, however interesting, should be given up if it does not belong there. The composition should have *a sense of direction*. When a reader feels that there is a sense of direction, s/he feels reassured. S/he

would get bogged down in one particular place in the composition if there is no sense of direction. Another factor which

ensures unity is **completeness**. Every composition should be complete, i. e. it should have all the three main parts- introduction, body and conclusion which have already been discussed earlier in detail.

- **Cohesion**

Cohesion is described as the way in which words or grammatical features of a sentence are connected to its predecessors and successors in a text. Simply speaking, cohesion presents a surface structure linkage among the elements of a text. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), cohesive ties are divided into five groups: conjunction, reference, substitution, ellipsis and lexical cohesion. Cohesion is broadly divided into **grammatical cohesion** and **lexical cohesion**. Grammatical cohesive devices include ellipsis, substitution, uses of pronouns and conjunctions etc. and lexical cohesive devices are like synonyms, antonyms, repetition of words etc. and they all make writing cohesive.



CHECK YOUR PROGRESS

1. What are the aspects of good writing habits?

2. What are the mechanics of writing?

3. How to organize writing?

4. How to achieve unity in composition?

5. What is the difference between coherence and cohesion?

14.8 SUMMING UP

- Reading is an important receptive skill.
- Reading can be viewed as communication, interaction with the text and a psychological process.
- Reading can be – extensive reading, intensive reading, critical/creative reading, reading aloud and silent reading.
- Reading speed depends on the purpose of reading and the level of comprehension that we aim at.
- Reading can be approached either by the bottom-up approach or top-down approach.
- There are several reading strategies like skimming, scanning, inferring, and predicting. Study skills like note making, outlining, and summarizing etc. make reading systematic and purposeful.
- Reading must be taught by following a three stage approaches- pre-reading, while reading and post-reading.
- Writing is an important productive skill which is highly complex mental, physical and emotional activity.
- Paragraph can be seen as the basic unit of writing.
- Writing is a process of putting down ideas, organizing, drafting, reorganizing, redrafting, revising, editing a composition.
- Although grammar is important in writing, meaning must be highlighted while teaching writing to the beginners.
- Types of writing include: Descriptive, Narrative, Expository, Argumentative, Reflective, Persuasive, and Interpretative.
- Writing performs several functions like invitation, agreement, disagreement, complaint etc. Along with the forms of writing, functions too must be taught.
- Some prominent theories of writing are cognitive theory, socio-cultural theory and socio-cognitive theory.

- The ‘what’ of writing and ‘how’ of writing are both the important aspects of teaching to the language learners.
- The ‘what’ of writing and ‘how’ of writing should be taught by guided practices when learners are at the early stage of learning. Free writing is appropriate for the learners who have mastered the art of writing and it is helpful to promote creativity among learners.
- The ‘how’ of writing can be improved among learners by teaching several aspects of effective writing like accuracy, brevity, clarity, mechanics, organization, unity, coherence, and cohesion.

14.9 KEY TERMS

Receptive skill: The skill of language through which we receive information, facts, opinions etc.

Productive skill: The skill through which we produce the language.

Comprehension: The skill of reading a text to comprehend and to extract knowledge/information.

Skimming: Reading quickly to get an overall meaning

Scanning: Reading to get specific information

Intensive reading: Reading for accuracy to get a detailed understanding of something.

Extensive reading: Reading for fluency which involves reading longer texts for pleasure.

Guided Writing: Writing exercises under the control of a teacher

Free Writing: Writing independently without a teacher’s control

Effective Writing: Writing which fulfils all it's required qualities



14.10 ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Critically discuss the role of a language teacher in developing learner's reading competency in the target language.
2. Discuss the relation between reading speed and reading comprehension and their pedagogical importance.
3. Which approach should be the better one for teaching reading to the learners of an advanced level? Justify your answer.
4. Choose any text of your choice (a poem, a report, an essay etc.) and frame pre-reading, while- reading and post-reading activities for students of an intermediate level.
5. Frame a few classroom activities for learners' free writing.
6. How do writing theories influence classroom practices?
7. What are the areas which must be highlighted during teaching to improve learner's style of writing?
8. How do you consider reading as communication?
9. How does psychology operate in the reading process?
10. What are the features of 'bottom-up' approach towards reading?
11. How does the 'bottom-up' approach differ from the 'top-down' approach towards reading?
12. What do you mean by the faulty reading habits? What are they?
13. How can a teacher involve L2 learners in the post-reading activity?
14. Do you think that writing is a process and not merely a product? Justify your view.
15. Mention the different stages of writing process.
16. What are the different theoretical perspectives towards writing?
17. How does sociocultural theory view writing?
18. What should be the aims of a teacher while teaching writing skill to L2 learners?
19. How to achieve accuracy, brevity and clarity in writing?

20. What is the significance of coherence in writing?
21. Which are the grammatical cohesive devices?
22. How can lexical cohesion be achieved in writing?



14.10 REFERENCES AND RECOMMENDED READINGS

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JOT DOWN IMPORTANT POINTS

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Programme	Eligibility	Programme Coordinator
MA in English	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Dr. Suchibrata Goswami suchitu@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275358 Dr. Pallavi Jha pjeft@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275215
MA in Mass Communication	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Ms. Madhusmita Boruah madhu@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275359 Dr. Uttam Kr. Pegu uttamkp@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275455
MA in Sociology	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Ms. Ankita Bhattacharyya ankita@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275359 Dr. Amiya Kr. Das amiyadas@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275805
PG Diploma in Human Resource Management	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Dr. Runumi Das runumi@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275015
PG Diploma in Environmental & Disaster Management	Bachelor's Degree in any discipline	Dr. N. Gogoi nirmali@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275609 Dr. Dipak Nath dipak@tezu.ernet.in 03712-275306
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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