Introduction to ELT

ENG 503

VIRTUAL UNIVERSITY OF PAKISTAN

Table of Contents

Lesson-01

INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic- 001: What is ELT?

As an academic discipline, ELT is primarily concerned with the teaching and learning of English. The majority of research work and publications in applied linguistics have been directly concerned with language teaching and learning. English language teaching is common in those countries where English is not the first language (EFL, ESL, and EIL). It is also taught in English speaking countries because many people from non-English speaking countries move there. Language teaching and learning is often assumed to be a very difficult process. The difficulties of learners also depend upon how much their native language is different from English. Learners of English language usually commit errors of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Topic- 002: Introduction to Different Methods and Approaches of ELT

Language teaching and learning is often assumed to be a very difficult process. The difficulties of learners also depend upon how much their native language is different from English. There are three principles of teaching English which help the teachers and the students alike.

1. Selection and Gradation (which material/syllabus and in what order)
2. Theoretical and Pedagogical Concerns (language teaching has to based on some theory)
3. Presentation and Practice (how and how often)

Introduction to Different Methods and Approaches of ELT

The history of language teaching is generally considered to be the history of its methods and approaches. Distinction between Approach, Method, and Technique is :

- The level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are specified is called **approach.**
- The level at which theory is put into practice and the decisions about skills and content to be taught and the order in which these will be taught are made is called **method.**
- **Technique** is the level at which classroom procedures are described (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In this regard, Kumaravadivelu (2006) classifies the methods of teaching a second language into three groups:

1. Language centered – It is organized around linguistic forms (usually grammatical structure) whose major focus is on accuracy. For example, Audio lingual and GTM.

2. Learner centered focuses on the learners' linguistic and communicative needs. They are used only for specific elements of language learning (e.g., CLT).

3. Learning centered methods define the content to be taught in non-linguistic terms, e.g., task and topics (TBL).

Important Methods

- In **Grammar-Translation Method** learning is ensured largely by translation to or from the target language.
- **The Structural Approach** envisages that language is a complex structure of grammatical rules which are to be learnt one by one in a set order.
- **The Direct Method** focuses on teaching delivered completely in the target language.
- The idea behind **Audio-lingual Method** is that the learning of a language is similar to attaining habits in life.
- **Total Physical Response Method** focuses on the importance of aural comprehension - the learner's reply to simple instructions.
- **Communicative Language Teaching** aims to assist learners to communicate effectively in different real life situations.
- **Task-Based Language Learning**, a form of CLT, focuses on the completion of a learning task by using the target language.
- **The Natural Approach** aims at finding the similarities between learning the first and second languages. Usually, there is no correction of mistakes here.

Topic- 003: Introduction to the Assessment of Learners

In ELT, assessment is used to determine what a student knows or can do about English language. The assessment of language skills may include only one skill (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) or an integration of two or more of these skills. Several kinds of assessment are used to assess the proficiency in English language. For example, formal and informal assessment, formative and summative assessment, norm-referenced and criterion referenced test, traditional and alternative assessment, and computer based testing, etc. (Douglas, 2010).

Tests are also used to assess language learners. Principles for designing a test are:

- Practicality (time and cost friendly)
- Reliability (consistent and dependable)
- Validity (measures what it is supposed to measure)

Multiple Socio-Cultural and Educational Challenges Confronting ELT

- Lack of availability of ELT experts and practitioners in many EFL contexts
- Classroom positioning
- Difficulties in interacting with native speakers in school (about both social and academic topics)
- In classroom group activities, such students often do not contribute well because of discomfiture about their English (Troynaa & Siraj-Blatchforda, 1993)

Topic- 004: Social Challenges and Benefits of ELT

ELT is beneficial in promoting local cultures (e.g., Chinese movement); therefore, it provides an opportunity to learn and absorb another culture because language and culture are interlinked. It also provides opportunities to travel abroad and access the prestigious local and international jobs.

Topic- 005: Qualification and Training of English Language Teachers

People who want to pursue a career in ELT can choose from several options to start their teaching qualifications. Generally, a Bachelor of Arts (BA) degree is a condition for gaining a position for teaching.

Masters' degree: Master of Education (MEd) in TESOL, Master of Arts (MA) or Science (MS) in Applied Linguistics, MA in English Language Teaching (ELT), MA in English with an emphasis in TESOL, and MA in Teaching (MAT) in ESL are some examples of masters degree in Englishlanguage.

In Pakistan, most common terms used for these degrees are M.Phil or MS in Applied Linguistics/TESOL. Other options include TEFL Certificate, CELTA, TESOL Certificate Course, and Trinity Certificate in TESOL etc.

Topic- 006: ELT - Professional Associations and Unions

There are plenty of professional organizations available for TESOL teachers and students across the world. For example, TESOL International Association (1966-2016) which has been one of the oldest and largest associations in the field, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE), American Association for Applied Linguistics (AAAL), International Language Testing Association (ILTA), and International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL).

Professional organizations for teachers of English at national levels include Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), TESOL Greece, ELT Organizations in Pakistan, and Society of Pakistan English Language Teachers (SPELT) etc.

A voluntary body of teachers from schools, colleges, and universities are affiliated with a number of international organizations, e.g., TESOL (USA), IATEFL (UK), Pakistan English Language Teachers' Association (PELTA), Linguistic Association of Pakistan, RELC (Singapore), and TESOL (Greece).

British Council Pakistan supports a wider knowledge of English language, e.g., Punjab Education and English Language Initiative (PEELI) and English Language Programs of US Embassy in Pakistan (e.g., Access, E-teacher, etc).

Lesson-02
NATURE AND FUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 007: What is Language?

Human beings can communicate with each other. We are able to exchange knowledge, beliefs, opinions, wishes, threats, commands, appreciation, promises, declarations, and feelings. "I will consider language to be a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length, and constructed out of a finite set of elements." (Chomsky, 1957) Our system of communication before anything else is a language. Language is a system that associates sounds (or gestures) with meanings in a way that uses words and sentences. "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions, and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols." (Sapir, 1921)

Topic- 008: Functions of Language

Not everyone who studies a second language is interested in communication with native speakers. But for most of us, it is all about the interaction and, therefore, it is important to consider the functions of language that we will need in conversation. There are six essential functions of language by the structural linguist Roman Jakobson.

The Referential Function

The Referential function is all about describing. Can you describe what you see, what is happening around you, and how you feel about it?

The Emotive Function

The Emotive function is about expressing something. We do not only state facts but also add a little emotion to our conversation.

The Conative Function

The Conative function is concerned with command. We all like to order people around but do we feel confident enough in the target language to try out the imperative?
"Go on, open it!", "Don't touch - it's dangerous!"

The Poetic Function

It is about choice of words wisely. How careful you are when you speak? Do you attempt to be eloquent? It helps us develop an appreciation for the literary and spoken word tradition of the target culture and is essential in higher levels of communication.

Phatic Function

Popularly known as 'small talk' or engage for the sake of conversation, phatic function is the non-referential use of language to share feelings or establish a mood of sociability rather than to communicate information or ideas.

The Metalingual Function

It requires analyzing language while using the target language. It can be tricky but it really is the only way to escape your mother tongue and fully immerse yourself in another register. Set your dictionary to English-English mode.

Other Functions:

Language as Power: Language as a means of control.
Language and Identity: A marker of socio-political identity, identity, and impression management.
Language as Performative: It performs functions.

Topic- 009: Features of Human Language

Communication may be the primary function but it is not a distinguishing feature of human language.

1. **Reflexivity**

Other creatures do not reflect on the way they create their communicative messages or review how they work. Humans are clearly able to reflect on language and its uses (e.g., I wish he wouldn't use so many technical terms).

2. **Displacement**

Animal communication cannot effectively be used to relate events that are far removed in time and place. Humans can refer to past and future time. This property is called displacement. It allows language users to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environment.

3. **Arbitrariness**

There is no "natural" connection between a linguistic form and its meaning or the object it describes in the world. The connection is quite arbitrary. Some words with sounds seem to "echo" the sounds of objects or activities and hence have a less arbitrary connection.

4. Productivity

Humans continually create new expressions and novel utterances by manipulating their linguistic resources to describe new objects and situations. This property is called productivity. The potential number of utterances in any human language is infinite. The communication systems of other creatures are very limited as it does not seem possible for them to produce new signals to communicate novel experiences or events.

5. Cultural transmission

The process whereby a language is passed on from one generation to the next is called cultural transmission. We acquire language in a culture with other speakers and not from parental genes.

6. Duality

Human language is organized at two levels or layers simultaneously. At one level, we have distinct sounds (n, b and i). At another level, we have different combinations of these sounds and their distinct meanings (bin, nib).

Topic- 010: The Study of Language

The study of language and the way languages work is called linguistics. It tries to observe languages and describe them accurately, find generalizations within what has been described, and draw conclusions about the general nature of human language. It concerns itself with the fundamental questions of what language is and how it is related to the other human faculties. Linguists also consider language as a cultural, social, and psychological phenomenon and seek to determine what is unique in languages, what is universal, how language is acquired, and how it changes.

Various Aspects of Learning and Teaching a Language

The Study of Sounds

Phonetics is the study of speech sounds, their production, transmission, and perception.
Phonology is the study of the sound system of language; how such systems differ from one language to another.

The Formation of Words

Morphology is the study of how words are constructed out of smaller units which have meaning or grammatical function.

The Formation of Sentences

Syntax is the study of how words combine to form sentences and the rules which govern the formation of sentences.

The Study of Meaning

Semantics is the study of literal or conventional meaning; how words and sentences are related to the real or imaginary objects they refer to and the situations they describe.
Pragmatics is the study of the meaning of the language in use.

The Study of Language and Society

Sociolinguistics is the study of Language and social factors.

Language and Mental Processes

Psycholinguistics is the study of the mental processes underlying the planning, production, perception, and comprehension of speech.

Neurolinguistics is the study of how brain functions in language production, perception, and acquisition.
Historical Linguistics is the development of language and languages over time.

Applied Linguistics is the application of the methods and results of linguistics to such areas as language teaching, national language policies, translation, language in politics, advertising, classrooms, and courts.

Topic- 011: Language and Society

A language may essentially be a set of linguistic items (sounds, words, grammatical structures, etc.) and their arrangement. It also has important socio-cultural underpinnings (Wardhaugh, 2006). A language is not some abstract object of study, it is also something that people use (Hymes, 1974). Social theorists, mainly sociologists try to understand how societies are structured and how people manage to live together. They use such concepts as identity, power, class, status, solidarity, accommodation, face, gender, and politeness, etc. to do so. Language is a key to understand and explain these aspects of a society.

Possible Relationships Between Language and Society

1. Social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/or behavior (e.g., Age-Grading phenomenon). The varieties of language speakers' use reflect their regional, social, or ethnic origin and even their gender.
2. Linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social structure (Whorfian hypothesis).
   - **Linguistic Determinism**: Different languages impose different conceptions of reality.
   - **Linguistic Relativity**: Linguistic differences between cultures are associated with cultural differences in thinking.

3. The influence is bi-directional: language and society may influence each other. This influence is dialectical in nature (Marxist view). 'Speech behavior and social behavior are in a state of constant interaction,' 'material living conditions are an important factor in the relationship.'
4. There is no relationship at all between linguistic structure and social structure and each is free of the other. (Chomsky).

Topic- 012: Linguistic Diversity

Linguistic diversity has been defined as the 'range of variations exhibited by human languages.' Linguistic diversity in the world today is an issue of growing social importance because a majority of all living languages are threatened in their continued existence. The exact number of known living languages varies from 6,000 to 7,000, depending on the definition of 'language' and, in particular, on how one defines the distinction between languages and dialects. Ethnologue describes a 'living language' as 'the language that has at least one speaker for whom it is their first language.'

English and Linguistic Diversity

Spread of English as a language of wider communication in science, technology, business, popular culture, and globalization has both positive and negative implications for linguistic diversity in the world. Nowadays multilingualism usually implies English and other languages in various countries. English has also been considered a threat for linguistic diversity (Philipson, 1992).

Reasons to Maintain Linguistic Diversity
- Languages express identity.
- Languages are repositories of history.
- Language contributes to the sum of human knowledge.
- Languages are interesting in themselves.
- Ecological diversity.

Lesson-03

HISTORY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Topic- 013: Language Change and Historical Linguistics

'There can never be a moment of true standstill in language." (Aitchison, 2013) Language is in the process of change just like other things. The branch of linguistics which studies language change is called 'Historical Linguistics.' It also studies the history of individual languages. This aspect may be applied and is extremely useful for language teaching. Students may get precious clues for learning from the history and development of a language. This may help learners grasp the contemporary semantic and pragmatic value of various words.

Language Change at Various Levels:

1. **Lexical Change**

This aspect of language change is the most easily detectable one: words come and go, some get old-fashioned, then obsolete, while new words are born almost every day.

2. **Morphological Change**

It can be quite complex. This is often connected to syntactic change and the most important type of morphological change is *analogy* which basically means that a word assumes a new form based on the pattern of the majority. For example, the past and past participle forms of *help* used to be *holp* and *holpen*, respectively.

3. **Syntactic Change**

A phenomenon related to morphologization is grammaticalization: a process whereby a lexical content word loses its lexical meaning and becomes a grammatical function word. For example, English word '*will*', originally a full verb meaning 'to want', a phrase like '*I will go*' meant 'I want to go.'

4. **Phonological Change**

Phonological change tends to be regular as compared to other ones. It can come in a variety of forms (single sound, a word, a set of words). We can observe phonological change by comparing spoken English at different points in time e.g., 'controversy.'

Topic- 014: Development of English Language

It is customary to divide the history of the studied object into periods. This is called periodization. The history of languages is also divided into periods, and the periodization generally follows important external historical dates or events.

Pre-Old English (dating from 449 AD)**:** According to tradition, three Germanic tribes (the Angles, the Saxons and the Jutes) arrived in Britain from their original homeland in Southern Scandinavia.

Old English (dating from around 700 to 1100)**:** It is from the 8th century that we possess the first surviving English texts.

Middle English: (from about 1100 to around 1500)

Early Modern English: (from about 1500 to about 1800)

Later Modern English: (from 1800 up to the present – Present day English)

Topic- 015: Early Modern English Grammar

Nouns and Adjectives

The use of an apostrophe in the genitive singular was optional in the sixteenth century; it was frequent in the seventeenth century. In the genitive plural, the apostrophe was not used in this period. In Middle English, the group genitive was a split construction.

Adjectives

All three alternatives *easier*, *more easy*, and *more easier* were acceptable in this period. In Standard English, the rule by which *-er* and *-est* are preferred in monosyllabic words and '*more'* and '*most'* are used in polysyllabic ones was established by the late seventeenth century.

Pronouns and Determiners

By 1600, in the second person, 'ye' was a rare alternative to 'you'; no case distinction remained (in earlier English, 'ye' was the subjective case and 'you' the objective). The relative pronoun 'that' remained common (as it still is), but a number of alternatives existed during the period. The *'which'* was inherited from Middle English but became rare by the mid-seventeenth century. *'Who'* as a relative pronoun was rare in the fifteenth century but became common in the later period.

Verbs

The second person singular inflection *-est* naturally declined as the use of *thou* declined. The class of 'strong' verbs (those which indicate tense by a vowel change and do not have a dental segment added) included a number of verbs which are now only 'weak.' Examples: *creep: crope, cropen; help: holp, holpen.*

Adverbs

Without the ending –ly were much common in this period (e.g., *'No man spake clear, equal, or without artifice' (*Paul Rycaut, 1681*)*.

Compound Subordinating Conjunctions

Compound subordinating conjunctions with '*that*' as their second element were common in this period (e.g., *Though that the Queene on speciall cause is here, Hir army is moued on.*).

Inversion of Verb and Subject

After an adverbial element, a conjunction, or an object was frequent in the sixteenth century (e.g., *and hereof commeth the destruction of the reprobates.*).

The Multiple Negative

It was unexceptional to negate more than one element of a sentence (e.g., *I can nat sette a gowne, I was never no taylour.*).

Topic- 016: Colonialism and Spread of English Language

From the seventeenth century onwards, the English began to extend their language across the world. English has become a global language in the last fifty years. It is also the official language of the international and multinational companies and industries, the language of internet, and intellectual exchanges.

Major Factors Behind the Spread of English:

- The power of the British Empire/Colonialism
- Industrial revolution taking place in England for the first time
- The rise of America as a world power
- Prestigious status of English in various nation states

British Colonialism

The spread of English began in the 16th century when language became a tool of imperial expansion. This was what happened in USA and other colonial areas.

Canada

The French were present in Canada from 1530 and vied with Britain for domination but were defeated by Britain in 1760; however, both French and English languages remained there. English remained in contact with native languages, but the former predominated.

The Caribbean

It has a complex colonial history. Spanish and other European languages dominated the landscape. Where African slaves in this area developed creoles among themselves, no creole ever gained the status of a national language. Nowadays, English and Spanish are the official languages.

Australia

Discovered by Captain James Cook in 1770, it became the first penal colony. By the 1900s, it had 4 million inhabitants of the British Isles which resulted in English becoming the official language. The influence of American English is noticeable these days.

New Zealand

It became an official colony in 1840. By 1900, it had a quarter of a million people.

South Africa

The British took control in 1806, and the settlement began from 1820 onwards. English became the official language of the region in 1822 and is still one of the 11 official languages. It has half a million English speaking immigrants. Afrikaans-speakers used English as an L2.

West Africa

By the 19th century, the increase in trade to the entire West African coast resulted in the development of several English-based pidgins and creoles. English is still taught and used, being an official language there (British varieties of English), e.g., in Sierra Leone, Ghana, The Gambia, Nigeria, Cameroon, and Liberia.

East Africa

The Imperial East Africa Company was founded in 1888. Six main states with a history of British rule that gave English official status are Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, Malawi, Zambia, and Zimbabwe.

Industrial Revolution

Britain was the leader of the Industrial Revolution; countries which needed this new industrial knowledge could access it via English.

American Economic and Political Superiority

By the end of the 19th and the early 20th centuries, USA emerged as an economic and political superpower. During this time, various international organizations also emerged (e.g., UN).

Topic- 017: English in South Asia

The British East India Company, founded in 1599, introduced English in India in the elitist domains of power in government, administration, judiciary, military, education, commerce, and the media. It comprises about 40 million users of English and is the 3rd-largest English using area after USA and Great Britain. English developed as a medium of control in the period of the British Raj (1765-1947), creating an English-based subculture in the subcontinent: one equated with power. The British language policy aimed at governing the empire (Cohn, 1985). It passed from an Orientalist to an Anglicist phase following Macaulay's famous "Minutes" of 1835, and English came to be used for higher education and official purposes. English continues to enjoy this dominant status in South Asia despite resistance to it in the pre-colonial India and Pakistan.

Variations in Sri Lanka and Bangladesh

In Sri Lanka, the use of English was reduced in the state sectors when Sinhala became the official language in 1956; however, this created ethic rift in the country. English managed to survive among the Westernized elite of the country.

In Nepal

As the country opened out to the forces of globalization, the role of English increased in the society.

In Bhutan and Maldives

English is used in schools. Its presence increases with the rich tourism industry of these countries.

In India and Pakistan

English was never seriously questioned. South Asian governments generally teach most children through the vernacular languages while reserving English for the elite. English-using elite are considered to be politically more liberal, democratic, and tolerant. English divide is contingent upon the distribution of power than a free choice of the medium of education. South Asian countries shifted from teaching English through its literature and grammar to ELT (EFL/ESL) from the 1970s onwards. This brought realization among ELT practitioners that non-native South Asian varieties of English should be recognized not merely as "incorrect" Englishes but as alternatives.

Lesson-04

ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

Topic- 018: English as an International Language (EIL)

What is an International Language (IL)?

Misconception: An IL is the one having the largest number of speakers.

Are Mandarin, Spanish, Hindi ILs?

Correction: An IL is the one spoken by a large number of native speakers of other languages to serve for wider communication.

To be considered an IL, a language cannot be linked to any one country or culture, rather it must belong to those who use it. Hence, the relationship between culture and language needs to be re-examined with reference to teaching and learning (e.g., discourse competence, cultural materials, and methods).

Characteristics of an International Language

- It is spoken by a lot of people of different nationalities.
- The speakers of an IL don't need to assume the culture of the said language.
- The ownership of an IL is denationalized.
- The goal of its education is to enable learners to communicate the ideas and culture to others across the world.
- A language is spread not only by its people migrating to other areas but by the people of other areas acquiring it.
- The special roles of English have been recognized by almost every country, either by making it their official language or requiring its study as a foreign language.

Kachru's Three Concentric Model

a. **Inner Circle:** 320-380 million, ENL Users, England and former settler colonies, Norm-providing

b. **Outer Circle:** 300-500 million, ESL Users, Former UK colonial dependencies, Norm-developing

c. **Expanding Circle:** 320-380 million Users, England and former settler colonies, Norm-providing

Topic- 019: Native/Non-native Divide: Politics, Policies, and Practices

A native speaker is a person who speaks a particular language since s/he was a baby, rather than having learned it as a child or adult. A non-native speaker is a person who has another native tongue other than the language being used.

Following are some important points to be considered:

- English and its non-native users

- English as a lingua franca and its users
- Davies' (2006, p. 435) criteria for 'native speakers' status: Childhood L1
- Grammatical intuition
- Capacity for fluent spontaneous discourse
- Creative Communicative Range

Native/Non-Native Debate

So far, the debate has only focused on the linguistic aspects. It has failed to engage with the political and ideological dimensions of native/non-native distinction. The politics of English emerge as a potentially imperialistic force, rather than linguistic concerns, which occupy this debate. In many cases, the categorization of speakers into native/non-native has a nonlinguistic basis (e.g., race, color). ELT institutions still largely prefer Western teachers of English. Native-speakerism is still the dominant ideology in European ELT. In ELF contexts, native-speaker norms do not enjoy undue privilege. Both 'native' and 'non-native' speakers are included amongst English as "lingua franca" researchers and those opposing them.

On one hand, this distinction is discredited by ELF researchers or treated with ambivalence, on the other, it is sustained as a basic means for labeling English users in TESOL. There should be tolerance for diversity. An international language developed and negotiated by EFL speakers rather than imposed from "above" (Seidlhofer, 2006, p.36). It is counterweight to hegemonic Anglo-American dominated English (Jenkins, 2006).

Implications for ELT

Non-native English-speaking teachers need to position themselves in their contexts, contest social inequity, and express their 'voice' to gain empowerment and promote change in their own realities.

Topic- 020: EIL: Attitudes and Identities

Native/non-native separation has been used as much in theoretical linguistics as in applied linguistics. A study concluded that students considered NNS teachers more demanding and traditional than their NS colleagues who were regarded as more outgoing, casual, and talkative.

EIL is influenced by a clear bearing on the attitudes and identities of its users and researchers. There is strong interdependency between EIL(English as International Language) and NNESTs(Non-Native English Speaking Teachers). NNSs(Native English Speakers) have a right to claim ownership but many people still think that NSs are the best teachers (Widdowson, 1994). Cook (2007) says that it depends upon the skills and capacities of teachers; still NNSs have an advantage of multilingualism. Implementation of an EIL approach depends on the teachers' exposure to different forms in which English may appear in international contexts.

Common Perceptions/Attitudes Among L2 Users

- Preference for Native/Standard accents and their users.
- Learners of English from distant contexts such as Hong Kong (Luk, 1998) and Italy (Pulcini, 1997) showed a preference for RP accented British English over their local accents. Dalton-Puffer et al. (1997) found similar results in other settings.
- Many competent NNSs identify themselves with NSs rather than with other NNSs, adopting a rather strict and derogatory attitude towards fellow NNSs (Trifonovitch, 1981).
- People with extended periods abroad are usually more willing to interact with accented speakers.

Attitude and Teaching of Culture in English Classroom

There is a constant advice to learners to imitate native norms. There is lack of cultural details that are not related to UK or USA.

Attitudes of English Language Teachers

1. Non-Native English Speaking Teachers (NNESTs)

Majority of them 'either explicitly or implicitly accepted the NS as a source of authority.' They had to 'solicit their views from fellow teachers as a signal that they did not consider their own words final.'

2. Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs)

Often relied on their own judgment and 'they quite often overtly identified themselves on the network as native speakers as if to stress that this is the source of their authority.' (Tsui & Bunton, 2000: 298) Attitudes towards different varieties of English have sometimes been associated with higher or lower degrees of intelligibility of those varieties.

NNESTs suffer from a severe self-confidence problem which at times is translated as a fear of students catching them 'in fault.' The fear is also expressed through an excess of fervor in defending the values of the NS which may eventually lead to instances of self-hatred (Macaulay, 1975). These attitudes have serious implications for the teaching of EIL , identities, and classroom practices of its teachers and learners.

Topic- 021: EIL and Teacher Education: Gaps and Challenges

NNESTs are embracing a non-centered vision of the language which they can claim as their own. However, many NNESTs still remain attached to the old values and hierarchies establishing the NS as a model and a symbol of perfection in language use. Bayyurt (2006) affirms that there is still a lot of work ahead before NNESTs to naturally incorporate the concept of EIL in their classes. NNESTs may show a reversal in their attitudes (fear, etc.) when their self-confidence increases. A change is needed to focus on teacher education and training, and actions are required to increase the self-confidence of NNESTs. There need to be more opportunities to develop their language skills and new approaches to teacher training need to be tried.

Transformative Approach

It goes beyond a 'mere description of the established theories.' It can result in teachers' increased awareness of EIL characteristics. This may enable them to 'open up to change by realizing and transforming their worldviews and perspectives about ESOL teaching.' (Sifakis, 2007, p. 370) Engage NNESTs in discussions regarding EIL and their own role in promoting a vision in which it is acceptable and desirable to use different non-native varieties of the language - the renationalization of the language. There seems a significant interest among teachers and educators in introducing EIL perspectives.

Other Ideological Concerns

- Issues of class and the complex ways in which class inequities align with globalization
- Issues relating to the outsourcing of jobs
- Issues relating to critical pedagogies for novice teachers
- Imperialism of major international tests – use only standard varieties

If teachers can do the following, they may become rightful and powerful free users and teachers of EIL:

- Personally experience the diversity of English language usage
- Reflect critically on language learning and teaching
- Perceive the change for a language for international communication

Topic- 022: The Scope of EIL: Emerging Themes

Researchers, teachers, and learners desperately need to realize the emerging scope of EIL in their individual and collective lives. They need to focus on broadening the ELF paradigm by highlighting its communicative power in international contact situations. However, empirical evidence from ELF does not support this proposal**.**

Multilingual, non-native speakers do not necessarily defer to inner circle norms when using English for contact purposes (Jenkins, 2000). There is a possibility of an evolving common norm that is neutral for all communities. 'It may not be many years before an international standard will be the starting-point with British, American, and other varieties all seen as optional localizations.' (Crystal, 2004, p. 40)

Many labels have already been suggested for this ('World Standard Spoken English', 'International' or 'global' English). Communicative behavior and negotiation strategies: both 'native' and 'non-native' speakers may communicate in global English. The grammar for that communicative context is emergent – it arises out of the negotiation strategies. Center will not be the traditional Anglo-American varieties; rather, it will be the negotiation strategies which speakers of all communities bring to the interaction. Based on a context-sensitive view of pragmatics, more attention is needed for the teaching of pragmatics in EIL classrooms. This would recognize the hybridity of modern interactions in English.

Cultural Conceptualizations

In EIL communicative events, speakers are likely to draw on their L1 systems of cultural conceptualizations, perhaps not always realizing they are doing so. There is a need for interlocutors to adopt communicative strategies, explicating, and clarifying underlying conceptualizations. There is also a need for 'greater discussion of cross cultural variation in learning and teaching' as part of 'comprehensive paradigm shift' to EIL. The norms for cultural appropriation of communication in EIL should be discussed. The growth of EIL and indigenous new varieties of English and their role in reflecting local cultures, literature, and knowledge need to be discussed too.

Lesson-05

ENGLISH IN PAKISTAN

Topic- 023: The Linguistic Picture of Pakistan

Pakistan is a multilingual and multicultural country. Almost 72 languages are spoken in Pakistan (Coleman, 2010). There are six major regional languages - Punjabi, Pashto, Sindhi, Saraiki, Urdu and Balochi. Together they comprise a dominant majority of speakers (almost 96%) with remaining 4% comprising of at least 58 minor languages (Rahman, 2003, 2007).

The national language Urdu has over 11 million mother-tongue speakers, while those who use it as a second language could be more than 105 million (Grimes 2000). The number of barely literate in Urdu is nearly 66 million (43.92 %) - (CENSUS, 2001). In comparison, nearly 26 million (17.29 %) are those who have passed matriculation and can presumably read and understand a little English (Census, 2001). Urdu is indeed the most widely understood language and the major medium of interaction in the urban areas of the country. In the beginning, a very powerful section of the bureaucracy spoke Urdu as a mother-tongue. The privileging of Urdu by the state has created ethnic opposition to it. The main reason for opposition to Urdu was that it was considered as the symbol of central rule of the Punjabi ruling elite. However, as people learn languages for pragmatic reasons (Rahman 2002, p. 36), they started learning Urdu and English and gave lesser importance to their local languages.

The biased attitude of civil bureaucracy and political elite threatens linguistic and cultural diversity in the country.

Local Languages Versus Urdu and English

There is prestige of English in Pakistan and due to its impact, even Urdu is threatened by it. There is an increasing role and socio-cultural space of English in Pakistani society. English may have a small number of proficient speakers in Pakistan, but these are very influential people.

Topic- 024: English in Language Education Policy

Language Policy has remained an ignored area in the political history of the country. After the partition in 1947, English was supposed to continue as the official language till the national language(s) replaced it. The real policy is the elite's patronage of English.

Pakistan Education Conference (1947): It was decided that Urdu would be given special status in the national structure as a lingua franca in Pakistan. It also acknowledged that making English the medium of instruction may have injurious effects. Regional languages were also considered as a tool for promoting culture. The British Colonial Government and its successor Pakistani Government rationed out English. The stated policy was to support Urdu, but that was only to create a subordinate bureaucracy at a low cost (Rahman, 2002). Urdu was kept as an anti-ethnic, centrist, and ideological symbol.

First Education Policy of Pakistan (1959): There was a minor change to the one inherited from the British. Where it recommended primary and secondary education in Urdu and higher education in English, it also recommended the national language to gradually replace English by 1974.

The **Education policy (1969):** Urdu was declared as the official language in West Pakistan and Bengali in East Pakistan. By 1974, both languages were in use in the central government.

The Education Policy (1970) links the change of medium of instruction at a higher level with the replacement of English for official purposes.

The Constitution of Pakistan (1973) endorsed that the national language of Pakistan (Urdu) should be used for official and other purposes within fifteen years. There should be promotion of Arabic, English, and provincial languages.

The National Educational Policy (1979) recommended 'Islamization and Urduisation' at every educational level – also as MOI. English language was dubbed as a legacy of colonialism and was maligned.

Education Policy (1989): New democratic government considered English as a compulsory subject from grade one. It ignored the basic role of mother tongue in primary education.

Education Policy (1992): It recommended that at tertiary level, English may be the medium of instruction for science and technical subjects.

Education Policy (2009): The promotion of English language emphasized and declared it as a compulsory subject from grade 1 up to higher levels. Mathematics and Science are to be taught in English from grade four onwards.

Topic- 025: Language Planning, Power, and Ideology

Language Planning (LP) is the systematic manipulation of language in pursuance of certain state or society-driven goals. It is a deliberate effort to influence people's behaviour with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes (Cooper,1989).

Pakistan also has many official LP organizations: The National Language Authority; The Sindhi Language Authority; The Pashto Academy; The Baluchi Academy; The Brohi Academy, and The Punjabi Adabi Board are working for the promotion of these local languages.

What do Language Planners do?

Status Planning used by Kloss (1969) for the importance given to a language by the state. The decision as to which language will be the national or official language is a case of status planning by the state.

Acquisition Planning is related to the teaching and use of language (Cooper, 1989). It also included 'language shift' (the use of one language to another, generally less powerful to more powerful (Fishman 1991)).

Corpus Planning includes efforts to change and improve the language per se whose status is the object of policy decisions (Fishman, 1977). This can be done by linguists but after the major policy decisions have been taken by the decision makers.

The Situation in Pakistan

Pakistan is a multilingual state with many ethnic groups. The ethnic/linguistic minorities have resented power and status that has been given to English and Urdu. Even the speakers of major languages resented their supremacy. Rehman (2002) stated that language became a symbol of identity when different ethnic groups competed for power and resources in Pakistan. The state's ideology was to use Islam and Urdu language as a symbol of integration and identity. Textbooks on history, social, and Pakistan studies consolidated this view. Urdu has also been used as an Islamic language since the colonial period when it was adopted by the religious scholars to disseminate Islam (Metcalf, 1982). Other language movements include Bengali, Sindhi, Pashto, and Siraiki language movements.

There was resistance to the state's language planning on ideological lines. In Pakistan, English is seen as the carrier of Western liberal values and Urdu as an Islamic and Pakistani nationalist language. English is also being appropriated by Islamic revivalists and underprivileged Pakistani groups as a language of employment and empowerment (Rehman, 2005). The indigenous languages are associated only with ethnic nationalism and identity.

In Pakistan, language planning has upheld Urdu and English on ideological and socio-economic grounds. Language is clearly related to ideology and power in Pakistan.

Topic- 026: Language Policy and Planning: Issues and Challenges

There are various issues ranging from policy/planning to implementation. The additional factors are: wrong political priorities and parochial politics. There is ambivalence about national language, official language, and MOI. Both Urdu and English were native to a minority. Recurrent claims of changing English with Urdu in official domains could not be materialized. Even Zia regime's efforts to Islamize education could not root out English. Political gimmicks are completely detached from ground realities.

According to criteria for MOI (Education Policy, 1970), a language may help students to:
(a) Acquire knowledge as effortlessly as possible
(b) Communicate with clarity and objectivity
(c) Stimulate critical thinking and objectivity
The question arises: does English fulfil this criterion?

Recommendations for Future

Clear and practical language and education policies should be promoted instead of a display of beautiful but hollow words. Roles of English, Urdu, and local languages must be clearly defined according to the cultural sensitivities of the people across the country.

Topic- 027: The Status of English in Pakistan

English enjoys even more penetration in the educational, official, and social circles of independent countries that previously formed the united India (Kachru, 2005). In the varied linguistic fabric of Pakistan, English has remained an important, dominant, and the most prestigious language (Islam, 2013). It is the primary condition for obtaining better jobs in Pakistan (Hafeez, 2004) and is used by the influential people in the domains of civil bureaucracy, military, business, law, media, multinational companies, and education. Success in these professions is heavily dependent on English language competence. Even low paid jobs directly or indirectly demand proficiency in English language – at least in writing.

- English in Education
- Compulsory subject and MOI at HE
- Language of examination
- Gateway to higher education in majority of fields – Entry tests for various HE programs

Language for Development

Both at individual and national levels, English is considered an important source of gaining modernisation, scientific and technological development, and economic advancement. It provides support to meet global challenges and opportunities.

Subsiding Concerns About English

The race for individual and collective prosperity seems to have overtaken the issues of class, identity, and cultural invasion from a colonial language. Overall, symbolic capital of English promises an easy access to economic and social capital (Islam, 2013).

Topic- 028: English Language and Educational Institutions in Pakistan

Pakistan does not have a uniform educational system: instead it has parallel systems of education like public, private educational institutions, and madaris. The public-private divide also exists in the higher education. Out of 132 universities recognised by the HEC, 59 belong to the private sector. This divide is even deeper at school level, and English is at the center of this divide.

- Another major divide: Urdu and English medium
- Divide between rural and urban schools

Institutions providing quality education in English are rated highly by the people. At present, English medium has become synonymous with 'quality education.' It is this 'symbolic value of English'

that triggered mushrooming of English medium schools in Pakistan (Shamim, 2008). These institutions reflect the complex roles of English in Pakistani society.

Division of Schools in Pakistan

Five Categories - the defining characteristic is the medium of instruction used in schools.

Elite Private Schools: The elite schools are modelled on the British Public School system; fees are extremely expensive; the medium of instruction is English.

Schools Run by the Armed Forces: They also use English as the medium of instruction.

State Schools: They serve the mass of the population. No or nominal fee is charged. The medium of instruction in most parts of the country is Urdu.

Non-Elite 'English - medium' Schools: In recent years, private schools have been established with modest fees and 'English' as medium of instruction for the children of upper working class and lower middle class.

Madrasas: It is a heterogeneous category of institutions' orientation towards religious studies.

Lesson-06

PSYCHOLOGY OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 029: Introduction to Psycholinguistics

What is Psycholinguistics?

It explores the relationship between human mind and language. It treats the language user as an individual rather than a representative of a society: the individual whose linguistic performance is determined by the strengths and limitations of the mental procedure.

Objectives of Psycholinguistics

It establishes an understanding of the language process and examines language as product of human mind. Further, it traces the similar patterns of linguistic behavior across large groups of particular language or of all languages.

Scope

It draws on ideas and knowledge from other associated areas, e.g., neurolinguistics, phonetics, and semantics.

Codification and De-codification

Codification analyses the processes that make it possible to form a correct sentence out of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Psycholinguistics also studies the factors that account for de-codification that allows us to understand utterance, sentences, texts, etc.

Major Areas of Psycholinguistics
There are six major areas:
1. **Language Processing**
   What precisely goes on when we are listening, speaking, reading and writing?
2. **Language Storage and Access**
   How is vocabulary stored in our mind?
   How do we manage to find it when we need it?
3. **Comprehension Theory**
   How do we manage to construct meaning from words that we hear or read?
4. **Language and the Brain**
   Where does the brain store linguistic knowledge?
5. **Language in Exceptional Circumstances**
   How does brain damage or age affect language?
6. **First Language Acquisition**
   How do infants come to acquire their first language?
   What evidence is there that we possess an innate faculty for language which enables us to acquire our first language, despite the poor quality of the input we receive?

The knowledge of psycholinguistics may be extremely beneficial for any L2 teachers as it is believed that knowing the processes of first language acquisition may help us understand and explain second language acquisition and learning.

Topic- 030: Language/Speech Production

Language production describes all the stages between having a concept and translating that concept into a linguistic form. It refers to the process involved in creating and expressing meaning through language (Field, 2004). It involves spoken or written language.

Model of Language Development (Levelt, 1989)

It is one of the most influential psycholinguistic models for speech production. It views language as a linear progression of four successive stages:

1. **Conceptualization**

'Where does the very beginning of any spoken utterance come from?','What sparks speech?' These are difficult questions to answer, partly because we still don't know enough about how language is produced but mainly because they deal with mental abstractions so vague that they elude empirical investigation. Some Psycholinguists, however, agree that some form of *mentalese* exists, but there is little agreement as to the properties of this pre-linguistic mental representation.

2. **Formulation**

Here, we move close enough to the eventual output of the process, more precise in our use of data. Formulation is much easier to describe than conceptualization, because analysis on eventual output of the process (such as speech errors and the choice of words or sentence structures) can be a great help for understanding speech production. This stage of speech involves thousands of split-second decisions.

3. **Articulation**

Once we have organized our thoughts into a linguistic plan, this information must be sent from the brain to the muscles in the speech system, so they can execute the required movements and produce the desired sounds. The impulses from brain cause audible articulations. We depend on vocal organs to produce speech sounds (e.g., the lungs, larynx and lips may work at the same time and thus form co-articulation).

4. **Self-monitoring**

It is the last stage of speech production. We often interrupt ourselves during a conversation and do some self-correction. These corrections are known as self-repairs.

5. **Self-repairing**

Interruption – Editing expression – Repair. The production is not one-way transmission of messages. Speakers self-regulate constantly so as to ensure that each previous stage is accurate. Production side has received less attention than the comprehension side in research. There is scarcity of empirical data, most of which relies heavily on speech errors.

Topic- 031: Lexical Processing

Visual word recognition (lexical processing) provides the base for constructing meaning from text as words are the primary meaning bearing elements provided to the reader. The recognition involves identifying an item as familiar. How do we assess a word's familiarity, recognize it, and access its meaning?

Knowing the 'Word'

A word is a moveable unit of meaning which cannot be broken into smaller free standing meaning (Field, 2003). A word's meaning can only be accessed after it has been recognized. It is also about vocabulary and how we use it. The studies regarding this fall into three areas:

Lexical Entries: What information do we need to store in our mind about lexical items?
Lexical Storage: How lexical items are stored in relation to each other?
Lexical Access: What is the process that enables us to retrieve lexical items?

Content of a Lexical Entry

Language users have a personal vocabulary store or lexicon which consists of a large set of lexical entries. They select words for use from it.

Content Words - (noun, verbs, adjective, and adverbs) carry dictionary meaning, also called lexical words.

Function Words - (article, prepositions, and auxiliary) words don't have clear dictionary meaning but contribute in syntactic structures.

- Function words form a closed set, whereas, the set of content words is open.
- Lexical entry for a content word must provide information about form and meaning.

Form: Phonological/Orthographic Information

We need mental representation of a word against any word that we encountered. This stored information varies according to modality. If we are dealing with speech, we need phonological model. If reading, we need orthographic model.

Morphological Information: We need to store information on inflections and derivations.

Syntactic Information: Grammar and vocabulary are closely linked.

Meaning: Meaning has a range of senses.
- It attaches meaning to the words.
- One word may have several linked senses.

Storage and Access

Words are not stored in the mind independently. Every content word has close links to others.

Example: If you want to buy a fruit, you might retrieve the whole set of fruits, e.g. mango, apple, plum, peach, cherry, etc. Words are linked by form and meanings.

Weak and Close Links - Some words are more closely linked than others in mental lexicon (e.g., fish and chips). Strength of a connection depends on:

- **Frequency:** frequent use of certain words in a text.
- **Collocation:** certain words are closely connected than others e.g., bread and butter, not bread and milk.

Spreading Activation
- E.g., the word 'doctor' triggers off close connection to patient, hospital, or medicine.
- Methods to explore visual word recognition.
- Examining eye movements in reading, measuring, naming, lexical decision, categorization times, and tachistoscopic identification.

Topic- 032: Text/Discourse Comprehension

DC involves building meaning from extended segments of language, such as novels, news articles, conversations, textbooks, and other everyday materials. **Text** is printed or written material, usually longer than a sentence. **Discourse** is the spoken equivalent of text which may be used interchangeably.

This is important because we rarely speak in isolated sentences. Sentences are more ambiguous or obscure apart from their discourse context. Both semantic and referential processing is useful for comprehension. Semantic processing concerns working out what words and sentences mean.

Factors Related to DC

Local Discourse Structure (microstructure) - the relationship between individual sentences in the discourse.
Global Discourse Structure (macrostructure) - the relationship between the knowledge of the discourse and the world knowledge.

Both levels contribute to the coherence of a text.

1. **Discourse Context**

Successful DC requires making inferences to connect ideas both within and across local and global discourse contexts/structures.

2. Linguistic Cues

They directly influence the ways the reader processes and comprehends discourse. They guide construction of memory for discourse – activation of concepts and coherent mental representations, e.g., **Lexical Cues** (connectives – because, however, and not).

- Signal conceptual and logical relations among ideas are coherence.
- Pronoun referents, synonyms, and direct/indirect markers.
- Anaphors highlight important concepts from prior text.

Syntactic Clues (e.g., position of a sentence in a paragraph) reveal the subject or object of events.

- **Genre-based Knowledge:** Guides readers' expectations for text content, thereby influencing processing and subsequent recall.
- **Background Knowledge - Inferences**
- **Reader Characteristics:** Individual differences impact processing and may include: working memory capacity, understandings stored in long term memory, language ability, and goals for reading etc.

Sources of Coherence – Key to Comprehension
- Referential coherence (consistency in who or what is being talked about)
- Temporal coherence (when the events occur)
- Locational coherence (where the events occur)
- Causal coherence (why events happen)

Topic- 033: Language Development

How language develops from infancy to adolescence? Children are not born silent; they make what are known as vegetative sounds from the beginning. They cry, burp, and make sucking noises.

Brief Outline of Language Development

Birth: Crying
6 Weeks: Starts cooing
16 Weeks: Starts to Laugh
16 Weeks - 6 Months: Engages in vocal play; involves in making speech-like sounds; vowels emerge before consonants.
6-9 Months: Starts babbling: distinguished from vocal play by the presence of true syllables (consonants plus vowels), often repeated. Infant might start noticing that particular strings of sounds co-occur with particular situations. For example, whenever the sound "mummy" is heard, mother is there.
10 or 11 Months: Produces their first words which also form single-word utterances.
18 Months: A rapid explosion in vocabulary size and around this time two-word sentences emerge. They show telegraphic speech by learning 40 new words a week.
2 Years 6 Months: The child produces increasingly complex sentences. Grammatical development carries on throughout the childhood, and we never stop learning new words.

<div align="right">**Lesson-07**</div>

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION I

Topic- 034: Introduction to Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

What is Second Language?

Second languages are any languages other than the learners' 'native language' or 'mother tongue.' They encompass both languages of wider communication and foreign languages.

What is SLA?

It has two interpretations. In general terms, it is used to describe learning a second language. More specifically, it includes the theory of the process by which we acquire a second language - mainly a subconscious process during communication. It can be compared with SLL - how formal education helps us learn language through more conscious processes and also the scientific discipline devoted to studying the process of L2 acquisition.

The additional language is called a second language (L2), even though it may actually be the third, fourth, or tenth to be acquired. It is also called a target language (TL) - any language that is the aim or goal of learning.

Scope of SLA Includes

- Informal L2 learning - naturalistic contexts
- Formal L2 learning - classrooms
- L2 learning that involves a mixture of these settings

Three basic questions regarding the process of SLA are:

- What exactly does the L2 learner come to know?
- How does the learner acquire this knowledge?
- Why are some learners more successful than others?

There are no simple answers to these questions (Saville-Troike, 2006).

- Why most second language learners do not achieve the same degree of knowledge and proficiency in an L2 as they do in their L1?
- Are the rules of learning L2 like those of the L1?
- Do the rules created by second language learners vary according to individuals and the context of use?

Multidisciplinary views are involved in SLA. It is primarily from within linguistics and psychology. Linguists emphasize the characteristics of the languages that are being learned.

Topic- 035: The Role of the Native Language in SLA

The role of the native language has a rocky history during the course of SLA research. This subfield of SLA has come to be known as 'language transfer.' This central concept has been tied in with the varying theoretical perspectives on SLA. It has always been assumed that in SLL situations, learners rely extensively on their native language. 'Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings …. of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture' (Lado, 1957, p. 2). L2 material production was based on this belief that is known as Contrastive analysis.

L1 Versus L2 Learning

The comparison may be divided into three phases.

1. **Initial State** - It includes the underlying knowledge about language structures and principles in learners' heads at the start of L1 or L2 acquisition. The prior knowledge of L1 is responsible for the transfer from L1 to L2 during second language development. The initial state for L2 learning has resources of L1 competence, world knowledge, and established skills for interaction, which can be both- an asset and an impediment.
2. **Intermediate States** - It covers all stages of basic language development including maturational changes (child grammar) and the L2 developmental sequence (inter-language or IL). Development is a spontaneous and largely unconscious process in L1 child grammar and is closely correlated with cognitive maturation.
3. **Final State** - The outcome of L1 or L2 learning in the final state of L1 development is native linguistic competence. The final state of L2 development can never be totally native linguistic competence. Learners' level of proficiency is highly variable. It may still include the instances of L1 interference.

Kinds of Transfer

- **Positive Transfer** - when an L1 structure or rule is used in an L2 utterance, that use is appropriate or "correct" in the L2.
- **Negative Transfer (or interference)** - when an L1 structure or rule is used in an L2 utterance which is inappropriate, it is considered an error.

Topic- 036: Early Perspectives on SLA

Theorizing about SLA remained adjunct to the practical business of language teaching. The idea that language teaching methods had to be justified in terms of an underlying learning theory was well established since the pedagogy reform movements of the late 19th century. Initially, the learning theory to which language teaching experts and reformers were appealing to was behaviorism, dominant in main psychology in the 50-60s.

Behaviorism

Language learning is seen as the formation of *habits,* similar to any other kind of learning. It is based on the notions of *stimulus* and *response*. Human beings are being exposed to numerous stimuli in their environment. The response they give to such stimulus will be reinforced if successful, that is, if some desired outcome is obtained.

Contrastive Analysis (CA)

CA introduced a continuing major theme of SLA research: 'the influence of L1 on L2'. It involves predicting and explaining learner problems based on the comparison of L1 and L2 to determine similarities and differences. It is influenced by the theories of Structuralism and Behaviorism. The focus of CA is on the surface forms of both L1 and L2 systems and on describing and comparing the languages one level at a time – generally contrasting the phonology of L1 and L2 first, then morphology, and then syntax. Lexicon and discourse usually receive little attention. Following behaviorist view, CA assumed that language acquisition essentially involves habit formation in a process of Stimulus – Response – Reinforcement (S-R-R). Assumption - transfer of elements acquired in L1 to the target L2.

The process of CA involves analyzing roughly comparable segments of the languages for elements which are likely to cause problems for learners. Effective teaching would concentrate on areas of differences and prepare materials accordingly.

Criticism of CA

- Cannot explain how learners know more than they have heard or have been taught.
- CA analyses were not always validated by evidence, and also missed many learner errors.
- Instructional materials produced according to this approach are language-specific.

Topic- 037: Early Perspectives on SLA II

Error Analysis (EA)

It is the first approach which includes an internal focus on learners' creative ability to construct language. There was disillusionment with CA - interest in language produced by learners. It is based on the description and analysis of actual learner errors in L2. Coder (1967) was the first to focus attention on the importance of studying learners' errors as it became evident that they did not all originate in the first language.

The procedure for EA (Ellis, 1994) includes the following steps:

- Collection of a sample of learner language
- Identification of errors (elements in the sample of learner language which deviate from the target L2 in some way)
- Description of errors (classification according to language level)
- Explanation of errors ('why' – interlingual and intralingual factors)
- Evaluation of errors

Shortcomings of EA

- Ambiguity in classification
- Lack of positive data
- Focuses on errors alone does not necessarily provide information on what the L2 learner has acquired
- Potential for avoidance
- Learners may deliberately avoid difficult structures

Interlanguage

Larry Selinker (1972) introduced the term Interlanguage (IL), which is the intermediate state (or interim grammars) of a learner's language as it moves toward the target L2. The development of the IL is a creative process – influenced by both L1 and L2. IL itself is a third language system in its own right which differs from both L1 and L2. IL development in SLA and L1 acquisition by children is different. There is likelihood of fossilization which means the probability that L2 learners will cease their IL development in some respects before they reach TL norms.

Morpheme Order Studies

There is a natural order (or universal sequence) in the grammatical development of L2 learners. Assumption - if we find that the same elements of an L2 are learned first, no matter what the learner's L1 is, the transfer from L1 is less important.

Monitor Model

Krashen (1978) is a collection of five hypotheses:

- Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis
- Monitor Hypothesis (What is "learned" is available only as a monitor, for purposes of editing or making changes to what has already been produced)
- Natural Order Hypothesis (predictable order)
- Input Hypothesis (comprehensible input)
- Affective Filter Hypothesis

Topic- 038: Formal Approaches to SLA

It includes nativist approaches to language which claim that at least some aspects of language learning involve innateness. Central to these approaches is an understanding of language as a system with its own rules. General nativist versus special nativist positions are also considered.

Universal Grammar (UG)

Universal principles form part of the mental representation of language. It is this mental grammar that mediates between the sound and meaning of language. Properties of the human mind are what make languages universal. What all languages have in common is UG - the theory of languages and the expressions they generate is Universal Grammar (Chomsky, 1995, p. 167). Assumption is UG is the guiding force of child language acquisition.

Key Concepts

- Linguistic Competence-speaker-hearers' underlying knowledge of language. This needs to be accounted for in language acquisition.
- Linguistic performance - speaker-hearers' actual use of language.
- Logical problem of language learning - knowledge of language is more than the input people receive.
- Successful and speedy acquisition in spite of insufficient input.

Principles and Parameters

- Language consists of a set of abstract principles that characterize core grammars of all natural languages.
- These principles are invariable (i.e. all languages have them).
- In addition, there are parameters that vary across languages.

Topic- 039: Functional Approaches to SLA

The functional models of analysis date back to the early twentieth century having its roots in the Prague School of Linguistics. These models emphasize on the information content of utterances and consider language primarily as a system of communication rather than as a set of rules.

Structural Function: The role which elements of language structure play as an actor or goal.

Pragmatic Function: It is opposed to those in Chomskyan tradition. The focus is on 'performance' as well as 'competence' and no sharp distinction is made between the two.

Four Functional Approaches

Systemic Linguistics

A model for analyzing language in terms of the interrelated system of choices available for expressing meaning.

Halliday (1950s onwards)

- Language learning 'needs to be seen as the mastery of linguistic functions… learning how to mean' (Halliday 1973, p. 345).
- Universal functions of language.
- Instrumental, regulatory, heuristic, interactional, personal, imaginative, representational.

Functional Typology

It is based on the comparative study and classification of a wide range of the world's languages. It describes patterns of similarities and differences among them and determines which types and pattern.s occur more/less frequently or are universal in distribution. It is applied to the study of SLA in accounting for developmental stages of L2 acquisition. Comparison is drawn at all levels of languages.

Function-to-Form Mapping

It is analysis of interlanguage which emphasizes function-to-form mapping in the acquisitional sequence. Grammaticalization involves grammatical function to making inference based on the context of discourse, a lexical word, and grammatical marker.

Information Organization

A functional approach which focuses on utterance structure or "the way in which learners put their words together" (Klein and Perdue 1993:3). It includes describing the structures of interlanguage.

Lesson -08

SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION II

Topic- 040: Interlanguage in Context

The basic premise of sociolinguistic-based SLA research is that second language data does not represent a static phenomenon. Many external variables affect learner production and the developing interlanguage system. Therefore, learners in some instances produce different forms of language.

Interlanguage Variation

ILs seems to exhibit more variability than native languages. For example, a learner might alternate between forms to express the same language function.

There is alternation between *no* and *not*.

My husband not here.

No English.

Initially, the variation is non-systematic. The forms are used interchangeably with no apparent difference in meaning. There is a gradual establishment of a one-to-one form-function relationship. Thus, variation is the initial step in the eventual emergence of target-like usage. The variation focuses on the 'correlations of social facts and linguistic forms.'

Social Interactional Approach

Learning is not an intra-psychological process. It is not situated entirely in an individual's cognition; rather, it is linked to social and local ecology. It is adaptive to a set of resources embodied in social interaction. Linguistic code cannot be understood as an isolated phenomenon outside of its social context nor can one understand how learning takes place without the support of the social context.

Interlanguage Pragmatics

It deals with both: the acquisition and use of L2 pragmatic knowledge. In learning an L2, one must learn more than just the pronunciation, the lexical items, and the appropriate word order; one must also learn the appropriate way to use those words and sentences in the L2.

Isolated grammatical judgments or experiments of psycholinguistic processing make little sense within this paradigm. Much of the work in inter-language pragmatics has been conducted within the framework of speech acts. Miscommunication and misunderstandings occur if the form of a speech act differs from culture to culture. Pragmatics is one of the most difficult areas for L2 learners.

Topic- 041: Input, Interaction, and Output

There is distinction between Input and Intake. Input refers to what is available to the learner, whereas, intake refers to what is actually internalized by the learner (Coder, 1967).

E.g., incomprehensible language may be related to input; it is not intake because it is not integrated into the learner-language system.

Krashen's 'Input Hypothesis'

The Input hypothesis claims that exposure to comprehensible input is both necessary and sufficient for second language learning to take place. "Humans acquire language in only one way - by understanding messages or by receiving "comprehensible input." Comprehensible input is slightly ahead of a learner's current state of grammatical knowledge. "We move from i (our current level) to i + 1 (the next level), along the natural order by understanding input containing i + 1" (1985, p. 2). The input activates innate mental structure of a learner.

Implications

Speaking is a result of acquisition and not its cause; if input is understood, and there is enough of it, the necessary grammar is automatically provided.

Criticism

● Little empirical evidence and it is not easily testable

● Sufficient quantity of the appropriate input

Comprehensible Output Hypothesis

It refers to the need for a learner to be "pushed towards the delivery of a message that is not only conveyed but that is conveyed precisely, coherently and appropriately." (Swain, 1985, p.249) Input alone is not sufficient for acquisition. Output may stimulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, non-deterministic, and strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production.

Swain argues that comprehension of L2 input is often achievable by semantic/pragmatic means making it unnecessary for the L2 listener to struggle to process unfamiliar syntax in full. It is the effort of composing new utterances which is more likely to drive learners to form new hypothesis about target language syntax and to try them out.

Therefore, the acquisition of new syntactic structures in particular is more likely to result from learners' attempts at L2 production than simply from the struggle to comprehend i+1 utterance.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis

Long was critical of the descriptivism of the early studies and proposed a more systematic approach to linking features of 'environmental' language and learners' L2 development. He argued that this could be done in the following ways:

• Show that (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (b) comprehension of input
• Show that (b) comprehensible input promotes (c) acquisition
• Deduce that (a) linguistic/conversational adjustments promote (c) acquisition

Topic- 042: Beyond the Domain of Language

One of the most widely recognized facts about SLL is that some individuals are more successful than other individuals. There may be some non-language factors responsible for these differences: such as age, aptitude motivation, attitude, and socio-psychological influences.

There are many reasons for an apparent lack of success, many of which are not related to language or psycholinguistic factors.

1. Competence

As a major concern, modern linguistics emphasizes what speakers know, rather than what they actually do on some particular occasion (performance). However, it is not so clear whether the competence that linguistics attempts to discover is common to all native speakers of a language or not.

2. Affect

Affect refers to feelings or emotions that individuals have about something. In the case of language learning, it can refer to feelings or emotional reactions about the language, about the people who speak that language, or about the culture where that language is spoken.

3. Language Anxiety

It is an important factor for affecting learning and is a matter of personality: an emotional reaction to a situation or a combination. Its low levels help, whereas high levels hurt.

4. Social Distance

These are the instances in which an L2 learner does not feel an affinity with the target language community. It results in a diminished amount of input. The learners create both psychological and social distances from L2 speakers. Schumann's (1978) **Acculturation Model** - if learners acculturate, they will learn. Thus, acculturation initiates a chain reaction including contact in the middle and acquisition as its outcome.

5. Age Differences

It is commonly believed that children are better language learners than adults in the sense that they can gain the mastery of an L2, whereas adults cannot.

6. Aptitude

It refers to one's potential for learning new knowledge or new skills.

7. Motivation

A social-psychological factor frequently used to account for differential success in learning an L2. It makes sense that individuals who are motivated will learn another language faster. Numerous studies show that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success.

Topic- 043: The Lexicon

The lexicon may be the most important language component for learners. Of all error types, learners consider vocabulary errors the most serious. Additionally, large corpora of errors consistently indicate that lexical errors are the most common among L2 learners.

Categories of Lexical Knowledge: Some Dichotomies

It deals with 'Production' and 'Reception.' It is an initial consideration that learners appear to have differing degrees of knowledge of their L2 lexicon. Nation (2001, p. 27) lists the following as necessary word knowledge types:

Receptive Knowledge Includes

- Recognizing the word in writing or orally.
- Knowing the general meaning.
- Knowing that it is made up of the component parts.
- Knowing that it has a possible connotation.

Productive Knowledge Involves Greater Specificity and Includes

- Knowing how to accurately pronounce a word or correctly spell it.
- Knowing the precise meaning in a variety of contexts.
- Knowing the precise use of context.
- Learners generally have a wider range of receptive vocabulary than productive vocabulary.
- Another important distinction is between potential and real vocabulary.

Knowledge and Control

Knowledge is defined as "the way in which the language system is represented in the mind of the learner."

Control is "the processing system for controlling that system during actual performance."

Breadth and Depth

Breadth of knowledge refers to the number of words a learner knows (Nation, 2001 Nassaji, 2004). The depth of vocabulary knowledge is a quality measure (Meare, 1996). Both breadth and depth of knowledge play a role in comprehension.

Topic- 044: The Integrated View of Second Language Acquisition

There are several approaches to acquisition which are crucial in dealing with a part of what happens in learning a second language. However, none of them alone is able to account for the total picture. The learning of an L2 is a multifaceted endeavor. One must consider what is learned and what is not learned. The learners must focus on five stages to convert input to output.

1. Apperceived Input

The first stage of input utilization is called apperceived input. Apperception is the process of understanding by which newly observed qualities of an object are related to past experiences. It is an internal cognitive act, identifying a linguistic form as being related to some prior knowledge. It is a priming device that prepares the input for further analysis.

2. Comprehended Input

There are two differences between the notion of **comprehended input** and that of **comprehensible input**. Comprehensible input is controlled by the person providing input, whereas comprehended input is learner-controlled. Secondly, a comprehensible input in Krashen's sense is treated as a dichotomous variable: that it is either comprehensible or it is not. But there are different levels of comprehension.

3. Intake

It is the process of assimilating linguistic material. The mental activity that mediates between input and grammar. This suggests that intake is not merely a subset of input. It is different from apperception or comprehension as the latter two do not necessarily lead to grammar formation.

4. Integration

After there is language intake, there are at least two possible outcomes, both of which are a form of integration:

- The development per se of one's second language grammar and storage.
- Integration is not necessarily a one-time affair; rather, there are different levels of analysis and reanalysis from storage into grammar and within the grammar itself.
- Integration component does not function as an independent unit.

5. Output

The final stage that needs to be examined is that of output. The concept of output necessitates a feedback loop to comprehend input. Learner output is often equated with their grammar. But it is not identical to one's grammar and is suggested by a number of factors, e.g., the recognition that there are individual differences among learners. Learners produce different linguistic forms that have varying amounts of accuracy depending on the context and the task performed.

Lesson-09

METHODS AND APPROACHES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING I

Topic- 045: History and Major Trends of Language Teaching

Many current issues in language teaching are not particularly new. Today's controversies reflect contemporary responses to the questions often asked throughout the history of language teaching. Changes in LT methods throughout history have reflected the changes in the kind of proficiency learners need. Throughout history, bilingualism has been the norm rather than the exception. 60 percent of today's population is multilingual. It is fair then, to say, that foreign language learning has always been an important practical concern. Whereas, today English is the world's most widely studied FL; 500 years ago it was Latin.

In the sixteenth century, however, French, Italian, and English gained importance as a result of political changes in Europe. Latin was still regarded as the classical and most ideal form of language.

History of ELT

During the 15th century, King Henry V proclaimed English as the official language. During the 16th cent., the expansion of English Empire and maritime power led to a growing interest in learning English. Gabriel Meurier – 'A Treatise for to Learn to Speak French and English.'

Jaques Bellot taught English to the French community and authored two books: The English Schoolmaster (1580), and Familiar Dialogues (1586). In the beginning of the 20th cent., ELT institutes and publishers along with BBC and British Council were located only in London city.

This scenario changed with the arrival of a large number of immigrants to UK during 1960s.

- 'English for Immigrants.'
- By 1970 it was renamed as TESL - Teaching of English as Second Language.
- English for Special Purposes in 1970s.
- 'ARELS' in 1960 - a source for ELT resources.
- ELT in post-colonial societies.

Majority of English language teachers in the world are nonnative speakers (NNS). However, the field of English language teaching is still dominated by British and American interests.

Topic- 046: Approach, Method, Technique, Design, and Procedure

In describing methods, the difference between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a set of derived procedures for teaching a language is central.

Approach

It refers to theories about the nature of language and language learning that serve as the source of practices and principles in LT. An approach describes how language is used and how its constituent parts interlock. The question arises as to how people acquire their knowledge of language?

Theoretical Views of Language

- Structural view - language is a system of structurally related elements for the coding of meaning. - The ALM embodies this particular view.
- Functional view - language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning. - The communicative movement in language teaching subscribes to this view.
- Interactional view - sees language as a vehicle for the realization of interpersonal relations. - TBL Teaching.

Theories of Language Learning

For example: behaviorist and cognitivist views.

Design

- The level of method analysis deals with
- Objectives of a method
- Selection and organization of language content
- Types of learning tasks and teaching activities
- The roles of learners and teachers
- The role of teaching materials

Procedure

These are the actual moment-to-moment techniques, practices, and behaviors that operate in teaching a language. The question is: how a method realizes its approach and design in classroom behavior and how these tasks and activities are integrated into lessons and used as the basis for teaching and learning. Procedure is an ordered sequence of techniques.

Technique

It is implementational in nature. A particular trick, stratagem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques may be consistent with a method.

Method

It is the overall, the practical realization of an approach. Methods include various procedures and techniques. Methods are easy to follow when they have fixed procedures and clear approaches tied to them.

Topic- 047: Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

GTM is also known as the classical method. It is one of the oldest or traditional methods, hence it is difficult to trace its origin. In the early 1500s, GTM was used for teaching of Latin and Greek. It was popular in FL classrooms from the mid-19th century to the mid-20th century.

Basic Assumptions

- A foreign language can easily be learnt through translation.
- Grammar is the soul of language.

- Learning foreign languages was a part of a truly liberal education.
- The structure of foreign language can best be taught by comparing it with that of L1.

Goals of GTM

- To learn a language in order to read its literature or in order to benefit from development that results from L2 study.
- To be able to translate from one language to another.
- The L1 is maintained as the reference system in L2 learning.
- It views language learning as consisting of little more than memorizing rules.
- To be able to learn vocabulary items and grammatical rules through memorization.

Practices and Techniques in GTM

Words are taught through bilingual word lists and dictionary. Grammar is taught deductively – that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules in an organized and systematic way and then practiced through translation exercises.

GTM Lesson

A reading passage, comprehension questions, antonyms/synonyms, cognates, grammar exercises, using words in sentences, memorization, composition, and summarizing.

Criticism

- Teacher - centered and aims at improving accuracy, not fluency.
- Does not cater for the communicative aspect of language.
- Overemphasis on the language as a mass of rules and vocabulary to be memorized and translated.

Topic- 048: Audio-lingual Method

Background

Before World War II, there were three methods: Modified Direct Method, Reading Approach, and Reading-Oral Approach.

ALM

ALM was introduced in the 1950s. It is contrary to Grammar Translation Method and is based on a solid theoretical background provided by behaviorist psychology and structuralist linguistics. The more we practice language, the better users we will be (Behaviorists). It focuses on phonology, morphology, and syntax of different languages (Structural linguists). These elements help students build their own sentences. Primarily, language is speaking; writing is of secondary importance. Through learning language elements (sounds, words, grammar, sentence structures), we can build grammatically correct sentences and texts in speaking. Writing only helps students reinforce the learnt elements.

Characteristics of ALM

- New language items are presented in dialogues.
- Repetition of learnt language structures.

- Pronunciation is important and grammatical explanation is minimal.
- Excessive use of language laboratories.
- Formation of correct sentences.

Learner Roles

- They can be directed by skilled training techniques.
- Reactive role.
- They do not initiate interaction.

Teacher Roles

- Central and active
- Model of the TL
- Monitors and controls the process of learning

The Role of Instructional Materials

- Teacher - oriented.
- Tape recorders, a language laboratory and audiovisual equipment are important.
- Focus on positive reinforcement (stimulus-response-reinforcement).
- ALM relies heavily on drills.
- Substitution is used to make learners know more linguistic items.

Criticism

May not be applicable where there is:

- Lack of necessary labs
- Lack of teacher expertise
- Little focus on real-life context
- Premium on accuracy

Topic- 049: Oral Approach

Oral approach is also known as Structural - Situational Method and Situational LT. It emerged in Europe and the United States of America in 1920s and 1930s. This method was an attempt by Harold Palmer and Hornby to present language items in a systematic way in the classroom. Language was viewed as a system of structurally related elements i.e. phonemes, morphemes, words, structures, and sentence types. These elements were must for the learners to master to encode and decode the meaning.

Objectives

- To develop oral proficiency
- Focus on vocabulary control
- The use of mother tongue is avoided
- Reading and writing are not neglected
- Grading the grammatical items

- Grammar control

Theoretical Assumptions

Speech is considered the primary element. The methodology involves three basic principles:

1. Choosing lexical and grammatical items
2. Organizing and sequencing content
3. Techniques for presentation

Characteristics

- Language teaching begins with spoken language
- TL is the medium within the classroom
- New language items are introduced and practiced situationally
- Vocabulary selection is made
- Grammar items are graded - reading and writing later on

Techniques Used in the Classroom

Dialogues for memorization, expansion drills, repetition drills, substitution drills, transformation drills, question-answer drills, minimal-pair technique, completion drills, grammar games, and so on.

Role of a Teacher

In the presentation stage, the teacher serves as the model (creates the situation). Later on, s/he turns into a conductor.

Critical Appreciation

It does not require many resources and is easy to understand as items are presented in real situations. It includes all major skills.

Disadvantages

- Learner has no control over content of learning – listens to, repeats what the teacher says, responds to teachers' questions and commands.
- There is no account for the uniqueness of individual sentences.

Topic- 050: Direct Method

Background

The impetus to DM came from the need to teach foreign languages to facilitate trade, commerce, travel, etc. Sauveur (1826–1907) and other believers in the Natural Method argued that a FL could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's native language. Meaning may be conveyed directly through demonstration and action.

The German scholar Franke (1884) wrote on the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meanings in the TL and provided a theoretical justification for a monolingual approach to teaching.

Reaction to GTM

GTM was considered to be inadequate and ineffective in developing communicative ability in learners. Reformists strongly advocated an alternative method in which language was presented in contexts and the mother tongue (L1) was avoided. DM was first used in France and Germany

Objectives

- The use of every day vocabulary and structures.
- Grammar is taught inductively.
- Oral skills are developed through carefully graded programmes.
- Interaction between teachers and students.
- L2 learning must be an imitation of L1 learning and there should be good pronunciation.
- Both speaking and listening skills are emphasized.
- Meanings are taught through demonstration, pictures, objects, etc.
- Printed word must be kept away from L2 learner for as long as possible.
- The written word must be kept away until after the printed word has been introduced.

Classroom Technique

- Teacher presents a short text and Students derive grammar rules on their own.
- Difficult words/phrases are explained in the TL (paraphrase, demonstration).
- Exercise includes transposition, substitution, dictation, free composition, etc.

Critical Appreciation

- Difficult to implement in many L2 contexts because of the proficiency demands on teachers.
- Difficulty to explain a word in TL and inability to grade materials.
- Fallacy of the belief that L2 can be learnt on the pattern of L1 learning – far less time and opportunities available in schools.

<div align="right">**Lesson-10**</div>

METHODS AND APPROACHES OF LANGUAGE TEACHING II

Topic- 051: The Communicative Approach

The ever-growing need for good communication skills in English has created a huge demand for English teaching around the world. Since its inception in the 1970s, CLT has served as a major source of influence on language teaching practices. It showed dissatisfaction with earlier approaches of LT. The earlier approaches focused on the product rather than the process. Further, it needs to focus on:

- A communicative or functional approach to language teaching.
- What learners need to understand and express through the TL and not on the accumulation of grammatical items and structures.

Major Influences

Candlin and Widdowson drew on the work of British functional linguists (e.g., Firth, Halliday), American work in sociolinguistics (e.g., Hymes, Gumperz, Labov) as well as work in philosophy (e.g., Austin and Searle). The changing political and educational realities in Europe also had their influence.

Aims of CLT

- Makes communicative competence the goal of language teaching.
- Develops procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.

Strong (learning to use) and **Weak** (using an L2 to learn it) CLT

Principles of CLT

- Learners learn a language through usage and communication.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills.
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error.

Major Functions of Language (Halliday)

Instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, and representational language errors are sometimes tolerated.

Activities

It is based on communicative processes such as information sharing, negotiation of meaning, and interaction (completing a map/picture, dialogues, role plays, simulations, skits, improvisations, and debates).

Role of a Learner

Negotiator – Between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning

Contributor - Learner is not a passive recipient of knowledge

Roles of a Teacher

- Facilitator - between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and the various activities and texts.
- Participant - within the learning - teaching group.
- Organizer, guide
- Researcher, learner
- Needs Analyst, counselor

The Role of Instructional Materials

They ought to be authentic and from-life (signs, magazines, advertisements, and newspapers, etc.) and graphic and visual sources (e.g., maps, pictures, symbols, graphs, and charts).

Critical Appreciation

It is popular in many contexts since its inception. There is not a single, uniform method that could be called 'communicative' – different techniques. There is no textbook – virtually no formal teaching. It is difficult to implement – demands on a teacher.

Topic- 052: Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT)

TBLT can be regarded as a recent version or logical development of communicative methodology and seeks to reconcile methodology with current theories of SLA. It makes the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching. There is focus on classroom processes.

Assumptions of TBLT (Feez, 1998,p.17)

- Basic elements are purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning.
- Activities and tasks are related to learners' real life communication needs and pedagogical purposes within the classroom.
- Activities and tasks of a task-based syllabus are sequenced according to difficulty.
- The difficulty of a task depends on a range of factors: the previous experience of the learner, the complexity of the task, the language required to undertake the task, and the degree of support available.

The Concept of *'Task'*

It is an important element in syllabus design, classroom teaching, and learner assessment. It is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, e.g., finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map, and giving directions, etc. It focuses on meaning.

Task involves two or more learners and calls upon the learners' use of communication strategies and interactional skills. It has an outcome and resemblance to real-life language use.

Syllabus in TBLT

It might specify two types of tasks:

1. Real-world tasks: Based on some needs analysis

2. Pedagogical tasks: Based on SLA theory

Types of Tasks

- Listing, ordering and sorting, comparing, problem solving, sharing personal experiences, creative tasks (Willis, 1996).
- Jigsaw tasks, Information gap, Decision-making.
- One-way or two-way, convergent or divergent, collaborative or competitive, simple or complex processing, etc.

Roles of a Learner: Group participant, monitor, risk-taker, and innovator

Roles of a Teacher: Selector and sequencer of tasks, preparing learners for tasks, consciousness-raising

Role of Teaching Materials: Dependent on a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks

Procedure: Sequence of activities, pre-task, task and post-task activities

Critical Appreciation

- Tasks provide both the input and output.
- Task activity and achievement are motivational. However, task development may require considerable time, ingenuity, and resources.
- Many aspects of TBLT have yet to be justified (e.g., evaluation of tasks).

Topic- 053: The Silent Way

It was devised by Caleb Gattegno and is based on the premise that the teacher should be silent as much as possible in the classroom but the learner should be encouraged to produce as much language as possible. It makes use of color charts and the colored Cuisenaire rods.

Assumptions

- Learning is facilitated if the learner discovers or creates rather than remembers and repeats what is to be learned.
- Learning is facilitated by accompanying (mediating) physical objects.
- Learning is facilitated by problem solving involving the material to be learned.

Approach of Learning

What matters is grasping the "spirit" of the language, and not just its component forms. "Spirit"- each language is composed of phonological and suprasegmental elements that combine to give the language its unique sound system and melody. It is structural approach to the organization of language to be taught. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching. Teacher focuses on propositional meaning rather than communicative value. It emphasizes on learning the grammar rules through largely inductive processes.

Silence – the best vehicle for learning because it enables students to concentrate on the task to be accomplished and the potential means to its accomplishment.

Design and Objectives

- To give beginning-level students oral and aural facility in basic elements of the target language.
- The general goal - near-native fluency: Correct pronunciation and mastery of the prosodic elements of L2.
- Basic practical knowledge of grammar.
- Simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models (minimal) a word, phrase, sentence.
- Learners create their own utterances by putting together old and new information.
- Charts, rods, and other aids may be used to elicit learner responses.

Learners are independent, autonomous, and responsible. They work cooperatively rather than competitively. **The teacher** is like a complete dramatist: writes the script; chooses the props; sets the mood; models the action; designates the players; and acts as a critic for the performance.

Topic- 054: The Bilingual Method

It was developed by Dr. C.J. Dodson to improve audio-visual method. It is also a reaction against the direct method. The excessive use of the DM would result in disappearance of the vernacular in future.

DM operates at the expense of the first language, and cannot make the learner bilingual. The Bilingual method makes use of two languages - the mother tongue and the TL and may be considered as a combination of DM and GTM. L1 is used to gloss difficult words and not for translating the whole language as was done in GTM.

Assumptions

- L2 may be learnt with the help of L1 – provided it is not used as translation but as a means to achieve communication ends.
- L1 is not considered as interfering with the learning process in L2.
- Teacher may banish L1 from the classroom but not from the learners' mind.
- Language is a way of making infinite use of finite means.
- L1 seems to be the ideal means of getting the meaning across completely and quickly.

Procedures of Bilingual Method

This approach aims to develop L2 spontaneously within a lesson cycle. Well-ordered activities are to take the students up to a conversational level in the shortest possible time. A teacher reads out a

dialogue to the class just once which students listen to with their books closed. The class repeats the lines with their books open.

Principles of the Bilingual Method

- Controlled use of the students' mother-tongue
- Early introduction of reading and writing
- Integration of various skills

How Ddoes it Differ from GTM?

Only the teacher uses L1 in BM to explain meaning. The pupils are given a lot of practice in the drill of sentence patterns that is not provided in GTM.

Critical Appreciation

- Not an innovative method, still similar to GTM, L1 use.
- Demands on teachers – proficiency in both L1 and L2.
- Scarcity of good teachers with excellent command of spoken and written L2 may be a difficulty in implementing this method.

Topic- 055: The Post-Methods Era

Background

The notion of methods came under criticism in the 1990s. A number of limitations implicit in the notion of all-purpose methods were raised. Mainstream language teaching no longer regarded methods as the key factor in accounting for success or failure. Some spoke of the death of methods and approaches and the term "post-methods era" was used.

Criticism on Methods

Methods typically prescribe for teachers what and how to teach.

- Good teaching is regarded as correct use of the method.
- The role of the teacher is marginalized. Moreover, learners are also sometimes viewed as the passive recipients of the method, i.e. they must submit themselves to its regime of exercises and activities.
- The concept of learner-centeredness and teacher creativity remains absent.
- Methods remain less flexible and adaptive to learners' needs and interests.

Role of Contextual Factors

Methods claim all-purpose solutions to teaching problems - useful in any context and under any circumstance. Therefore, teachers ignore a careful consideration of the context. This includes the cultural context, the political context, the local institutional context, and the context constituted by the teachers and learners in their classrooms. It talks about assumptions; about the roles of teachers and learners that are not necessarily culturally universal, and cultural imperialism.

The Need for Curriculum Development Processes

- Curriculum planners debate over 'teaching method' as part of a broader set of educational planning decisions.
- Choice of method cannot, therefore, be determined in isolation from other planning and implementation practices.

Lack of Research Basis

Approaches and methods are often based on the assumption that the processes of L2 learning are fully understood. Much of such research does not support the often simplistic theories and prescriptions found in some approaches and methods.

Similarity of Classroom Practices

Many of the distinctions used to contrast methods did not exist in the actual practice of classroom activities.

Beyond Approaches and Methods

There is need to learn how to use different approaches and methods when they might be useful. Teachers may develop their personal approach by realizing:

1. Their role in the classroom and the structure of an effective lesson.
2. The nature of effective teaching and learning and the difficulties of learners and their solutions.
3. Successful learning activities.

<div align="right">**Lesson-11**</div>

TEACHING OF LISTENING SKILLS

Topic- 056: Listening Process

In reality, listening is used far more than any other single language skill in normal daily life. On average, we expect to listen twice as much as we speak, four times more than we read, and five times more than we write (Rivers, 1981). Arguments for listening comprehension began to be voiced in the mid-1960s and early 1970s.

Listening Modes

If we consider the roles we play in our listening interactions, we can identify three specific communicative listening modes:

1. Bidirectional

The obvious mode is two-way or bidirectional communication listening. Reciprocal speech chain of speaker/listener is easily observed. Two participants take turns exchanging speaker and listener role as they engage in face-to-face or telephone verbal interaction.

2. Unidirectional

The second mode is one-way or unidirectional communicative listening. The auditory input surrounds us as we move through the day. The input comes from a variety of sources: overheard conversations, public announcements, recorded messages, instructional situations of all kinds, and public performances. As we hear speakers but are unable to interact, we often talk to ourselves in a reactive or self-dialogue manner as we analyze what we hear.

3. Auto Directional

We think of this as self-dialogue communication in which we may not be aware of our internal roles as both speaker and listener/reactor in our own thought processes. Sometimes we recreate language internally and "listen again" as we retell and relive communicative interludes. Sometimes we simply attend to our own internal language which we produce as we think through alternatives, plan strategies, and make decisions - all by talking to ourselves and listening to ourselves.

Listening Process/Stages in Communication

Generally, five stages are involved in the listening process:

1. Receiving

The response caused by sound waves stimulating the sensory receptors of the ear - receiving the words while we hear.

2. Understanding

Learning what the speaker means – the thoughts and emotions.

3. Remembering

Adding the message to mind's storage box - as our attention is selective, what is remembered may be different from what was originally heard.

4. Evaluating

Judging the message in some way – speaker's intentions or motives - even without conscious awareness.

5. Responding

Verbal and/or nonverbal feedback determines if a message has been received and it also tells aboutthe degree of success in communication.

Topic- 057: Extensive and Intensive Listening

The students can improve their listening skills, if they get valuable input. It is a combination of extensive and intensive listening materials and procedures may improve listening skills quickly. This provides learners with the opportunities to hear people in addition to an instructor; it enables them to acquire good speaking habits and pronunciation.

Extensive Listening

The teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they listen to and to do so for pleasure and general language improvement (Harmer, 2007: 303). It usually takes place outside the classroom (home, car or on music players while travelling) and may increase the students' motivation dramatically. The students have a choice of the material they want to listen to. It involves high levels of comprehension and students are allowed to listen without being constrained by pre-set tasks.

Materials for extensive listening can be obtained from a number of sources: tapes, CDs, and podcasts which accompany books. There is a need to select material according to the level of students.

Extensive Listening Involves

- Listening to massive amounts of text.
- High levels of comprehension.
- Listening without being constrained by pre-set questions or tasks.
- Listening at or below one's comfortable fluent listening ability.

Activities/Tasks for EL

- Recording the responses to what students hear.
- Fill in report forms after listening to a material.
- Summarize the contents of a listening material.

Intensive Listening

It aims at improving specific skills or answering pre-determined questions. Intensive listening is more specific in nature. It requires more detailed understanding. It raises the learners' awareness of how differences in sound, structure, and lexical choices can affect meaning. IL activities are contextualized - placed in a real or easily imagined situation. Students are encouraged to look at certain grammatical structures in the text to see how they can aid comprehension.

Listening for specific information, listening for the exact words of a phrase or expression, and listening to mimic a text are examples of intensive listening. It also includes getting more detailed understanding of some segments of the text, transcribing certain segments in the text, and guessing the meaning of a word or phrase from context.

IL Materials: Audio recorded material, live listening, film clips, or video, etc.

Role of Teacher in IL

The teacher in IL has following roles:

- Organizer: tells the purpose, gives clear instructions
- Machine operator
- Feedback organizer
- Prompter: listening to a text again and notice

Topic- 058: Teaching of Listening Skills

Listening is usually taken for granted by many teachers and learners. Listening is not only a foundation for speaking but also a skill in its own right. The role of listening and the purpose of listening comprehension instruction in S/FL curriculum can be one of four different perspectives.

Model 1: Listening and Repeating: the learner's goals are to pattern-match, to listen and imitate, to memorize.

Model 2: Listening and answering comprehension questions: the learner's goals are to process discrete-point information and to listen and answer comprehension questions.

Model 3: Listening: the learner's goals are to process spoken discourse for functional purposes, to listen and do something with the information, that is, carry out real tasks using the information received.

Model 4: Interactive Listening: the learner's goals are to develop aural/oral skills in semiformal interactive academic communication, to develop critical listening, critical thinking, and effective speaking abilities.

Principles for Teaching Listening (Harmer, 1998)

1. Equipment (recorder, player, speakers, etc.) is as important as the listening material itself.
2. Preparation is necessary.
3. Teachers need to listen to the material before they come to the class.
4. Help them judge whether students will be able to cope with the listening material and tasks.
5. Need for repetition.
6. Subsequent listening is easier for students and helps them learn important linguistic features.
7. Encouragement to focus on the content of listening, not the language alone.
8. Different listening stages demand different listening tasks.
9. Good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.

Topic- 059: Use of Audio-visual Aids in the Teaching of Listening

Many teachers use audio material on tape, CD, or hard disk when they want their students to practice listening skills. This has a number of advantages and disadvantages.

Advantages

- Recorded material allows students to hear a variety of different voices apart from just their own teacher's.
- It gives them an opportunity to 'meet' a range of different characters, especially where 'real' people are talking.
- Even when recordings contain written dialogues or extracts from plays, they offer a wide variety of situations and voices.
- Audio material is portable and readily available.
- Teachers can also play digital material directly from their computers.

For all these reasons, most course books include CDs and tapes and many teachers rely on recorded material to provide a significant source of language input.

Disadvantages

- In big classrooms, with poor acoustics, the audibility of recorded material often gives cause for concern.
- It is sometimes difficult to ensure that all the students in a room can hear equally well.
- Another problem with recorded material in the classroom is that everyone has to listen at the same speed, a speed dictated by the recording, not by the listeners.
- Learners cannot interact with speakers on the audio.
- Having a group of people sit around listening to a tape recorder or CD player is not an entirely natural occupation.

The question now arises as to how often a teacher should play the audio tracks? The teachers should encourage students to get as much information as is necessary from a single hearing (Ur, 1996) – replicates real life. However, the material may be replayed when needed – student satisfaction.

Control of the Recorded Material

Steps important to address the speed issue with the recorded material are as follows:

- Students control stop and start.
- Tell the teacher when they want to pause.
- Students have access to different machines so they may listen to different machines in small groups.
- Students work in a language laboratory or listening centre.
- All students can work with the same material and also have control of their machines.

Topic- 060: Techniques and Tasks for Listening Skills

Principles for Developing Listening Material

In order to get learners' attention, to keep them actively and purposefully engaged in the task at hand, and to maximize the effectiveness of listening/language learning experiences, three material development principles are necessary.

1. **Relevance**

Both the listening lesson content (i.e. the information) and the outcome (i.e., the nature of the use of the information) need to be as relevant as possible to the learner. Lessons need to feature content and outcomes that have "face validity" for students.

Motivational impact: The more the lessons focus on things with real life relevance, the more they appeal to students and the better the chance of having learners' waiting to listen.

2. Transferability/Applicability

Whatever is relevant is also likely to have potential for transferability. In order to foster transfer of training, the best listening lessons present in-class activities that mirror real life. For example, the use of radio or television news broadcasts in adult classes - real experience in listening comprehension, and content that can be applicable outside of class as a source of conversation topics.

3. Task Orientation

In formal language classes for teenage and adult students, and in language activity lessons for children, it is productive to combine two different kinds of focus: (1) language use tasks and (2) language analysis activities. Notion of task have developed out of communicative teaching and materials production.

1. Language Use Tasks

The purpose here is to give students practice in listening for information and then immediately doing something with it. These features are:

- Listening and performing actions (e.g., command games and songs such as do the listening and performing operations (e.g., listening and constructing a figure, drawing a map).
- Listening and solving problems (e.g., riddles, intellectual or logic puzzles, real-life numerical spatial, or transcribing, taking telephone messages, writing notes).
- Listening and summarizing information (e.g., outlining, giving the gist of a message either verbally or in writing).
- Interactive listening and negotiating meaning through questioning/answering routines (e.g., for repetition, verification, clarification, elaboration of information).

Benefits: It increases predictive power for future communicative situations including schemata and scripts.

2. Language Analysis Tasks

It aims to give students opportunities to analyze selected aspects of both structure and language use and to develop some personal strategies to facilitate learning. For example, analysis of some features of "fast speech," analysis of phrasing and pause points and giving attention to the ways the grouping of words is done into functional units.

Lesson-12

TEACHING OF SPEAKING SKILLS

Topic- 061: Elements of Speaking

Speaking may be defined as an interactive process of constructing meaning in a context. The students' ability to express themselves orally, coherently, fluently and appropriately to serve both transactional and interactional purposes. Speaking in an L2 is the most demanding of the four skills (Bailey & Savage, 1994 p.7). Perhaps the most difficult aspect of speaking is that it is almost always accomplished via interaction with at least one other speaker.

Essentials of Good L2 Speaking

Pronunciation: The way in which students produce clearer language when they speak; phonological process of how sounds vary.

Grammar: It is needed for students to arrange a correct sentence in conversation. Students' ability to manipulate structure and distinguish appropriate grammatical form from an inappropriate one.

Vocabulary: The appropriate diction used in communication. Limited vocabulary is a barrier in L2 learning.

Fluency: The ability to speak fluently and accurately. A reasonably fast speed of speaking - speaker does not have to spend a lot of time searching for the language items needed to express the message. Fluent speech contains reduced forms, such as contractions, vowel reduction, and elision.

- Learners who are not exposed to reduced speech will retain their formal full forms
- Stress, rhythm, and intonation
- Pragmatic and discourse rules
- Ability to speak in a range of genres and situations
- Ability to use a range of conversational and conversational repair strategies

Speaking Events

Transactional Functions: conveying information and facilitating the exchange of goods and services.
Interpersonal Functions: all about maintaining and sustaining good relations between people.
Interactive: when we buy a newspaper at a news kiosk, it is interactive.
Non-Interactive: leaving a message on an answer phone is non-interactive.
Planned: Such as a Lesson or wedding speech.
Unplanned: a conversation that takes place spontaneously when we bump into someone on the street.

More Genres (Carter and McCarthy, 1997)
Narrative: everyday anecdotes told with active listener participation.
Identifying: Extracts in which people talk about themselves.
Language-in-Action: Data recorded while people are doing things such as cooking, packing, etc.

Comment-Elaboration: casual opinions and comments on things, other people.

Debate and Argument: Data, in which people take up positions, pursue arguments and expound on their opinions.

Decision-Making and Negotiating Outcomes: ways in which people work towards decisions/consensus or negotiate their way through problems towards solutions.

Topic- 062: Teaching of Speaking Skills

Oral skills do not always figure centrally in L2 pedagogy. But with the advent of the theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) and the practice of CLT, the teaching of speaking skills as a contextualized socio-cultural activity has become the focal point in many ESL classrooms. Canale and Swain's (1980) adaptation of Hymes's theory of communicative competence comprises four dimensions:

1. **Grammatical Competence** – language rules (including rules of phonology, orthography, vocabulary, word formation, and sentence formation)
2. **Sociolinguistic Competence** (rules for the expression and understanding of appropriate social meanings and grammatical forms in different contexts)
3. **Discourse Competence** (rules of both cohesion and coherence)
4. **Strategic Competence** (compensatory strategies)

Impact of Communicative Theory Based Teaching

Today teachers are expected to balance a focus on accuracy with a focus on fluency as well. A second implication is that multiple skills should be taught whenever possible. Teachers should connect speaking, listening and pronunciation teaching.

Students and Speaking

It is not easy to get students going for speaking. Learners may be trained to use strategies and take responsibility for their own learning. They should be encouraged to initiate communication when possible, to determine the content of their responses or contributions and allowed to evaluate their own production and learning progress. One basic consideration is the level of the students and their perceived needs. Oral skills courses for nonacademic adults focus on survival of English and basic communication functions. Academic ESL students need extensive authentic practice in class participation, such as taking part in discussions, interacting with peers and professors, and asking and answering questions.

Things to Help Reluctant Students

- Preparation: planning and rehearsal for speaking: Giving students quiet time to think in their heads about how they will speak.
- Repetition: allowing students to improve on what they did before.
- Plan – perform – analyze – repeat: Dividing students into small groups if they are afraid of big groups.
- Mandatory participation.

The Role of the Teacher

The teacher has the following roles:

- **Prompter:** may suggest things when students are stuck
- **Participant:** teachers should be good animators when asking students to produce language
- **Feedback Provider:** over-correction may be counter-productive

Topic- 063: Fluency and Accuracy

Accuracy and Fluency are two factors which can determine the success of English language students in the future. Dilemma in choosing either to put the focus of teaching on the fluency or accuracy aspects of the English language. It is hard to ignore either of these two as each has its own strengths and weaknesses.

Fluency

Fluency is the quality or condition of being fluent, in particular, the ability to express oneself easily and articulately. It is the production of language in real time without undue pausing or hesitation. (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005) and a level of proficiency in communication.

It is the ability to produce written and spoken sentences with ease, efficiency, or without a breakdown of communication. A fluent person does not have to stop many times to think of what to say next and how to phrase it (Fillmore, 1979). The learner may make grammatical errors but will speak or write efficiently. Fluency generally increases as learner's progress in learning.

Fluency will depend on a range of factors:

- Quick access to and practiced control of lexical and syntactic devices of the language.
- Ability to decide readily when it is appropriate and efficient to use them.
- Familiarity with interactional and discourse schemata.

Fluency can be measured by looking at:

- The speed and flow of language production
- The degree of control of language items
- The way of language and content interaction

Fluency-led teachers aim to produce students who are competent in expressing themselves and giving responses in communication. They focus more on meaning and context rather than grammatical structure or errors.

Classroom activities for fluency-based learning: public speaking, debate, role play, group works, and games.

Accuracy

Accuracy is the quality or state of being correct or precise. How correct learners' use of the language system is, including their use of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary. Teachers who believe

accuracy is the key, help their students to produce written and spoken English with zero mistake and perfect correctness.

Classroom activities for accuracy-based learning: grammar drilling, fill-in-the-gaps exercises, error analysis and grammar presentation.

Accuracy Versus Fluency

Which of these two approaches is the best and most ideal in the teaching of English? Where does come first fluency or accuracy?

- They may differ according to teachers' preferences and students' needs.
- The distinction between accuracy and fluency is essentially a methodological distinction.
- Traditional classrooms and systems – Accuracy.
- Communicative teaching – Fluency.

Topic- 064: Techniques and Activities for Developing Speaking Skills I

There are a number of widely-used categories of speaking activities. In the past, speaking activities that focused on accuracy invariably involved drills which have for the most part fallen out of favor in language teaching. There is a shift to more authentic communication activities.

In centered activities, explicit error correction will probably be out of place because it disrupts the communication that is going on. Teachers may note errors that occur at these times and may provide instructions to the class as a whole or to individual students.

1. **Early Activities**

- Students getting acquainted with each other in a realistic context.
- "Two Minute Conversations" (Wong, 1994).
- Structured interview - students talk to their classmates.
- Requires the use of wh- and/or yes-no questions.

2. **Acting from a Script**

- Students to act out scenes from plays and/or their course books.
- Students often act out dialogues they have written themselves.
- Students should treat it as real acting.
- Teachers should help their students go through the scripts similar to theatre directors.
- Draw attention to appropriate stress, intonation and speed.
- Acting out is both a learning and a language producing activity.
- Apart from pronunciation and general language use, this helps to build student confidence, contextualize language, develop students' empathy for other people, etc.

3. Communication Games

- Information gap games
- One student has to talk to a partner in order to solve a puzzle, draw a picture, put things in the right order or find similarities and differences between pictures
- Television/Radio Games
- Provide good fluency activities – e.g., 'twenty questions'

4. Prepared Talks/Speeches

- A student makes a presentation on a topic of their own choice.
- Not designed for informal spontaneous conversation.
- Students may speak from notes rather than from a script.
- Students should be given a chance to prepare and rehearse their presentation.
- Topics for speeches will vary depending on the level of the students and the focus of the class.
- Teachers can provide the structure for the speech - its rhetorical genre and time restrictions – while the students select the content.

It is a good idea to assign some responsibilities to listeners during the speeches:

- May require peer evaluation of a classmate's speech.
- Videotaping of speeches allows all evaluators (the speakers, peers, and teachers) to do a more in-depth critique at a later time.
- Students themselves can come up with their own evaluation guidelines, use teacher-made criteria, or a combination of the two.

Topic- 065: Techniques and Activities for Developing Speaking Skills II

1. Discussions

It is probably the most commonly used activity in the oral skills class. It ranges from highly formal, whole group staged events to informal small group interactions. Typically the students are introduced to a topic via a reading, a listening passage, or a videotape. Then the students are asked to get into pairs or groups to discuss a related topic in order to come up with a solution or a response.

Planning and Setting up a Discussion Activity

First, planned grouping or pairing of students may be necessary to ensure a successful discussion outcome. While there is no one right way to group students, considerations such as gender, ethnicity, background, and talkativeness, etc. may come into play.

Second, students need to be reminded that each person should have a specific responsibility in the discussion, whether it is to keep time, take notes, or report results.

Finally, students need to be clear about what they are to discuss, why they are discussing it, and what outcome is expected.

Buzz group, instant comment (first thing that comes into their mind), formal debates, unplanned discussion, reaching a consensus are popular forms of discussions.

2. Simulations and Role Play

- Students simulate a real-life encounter (such as a business meeting, an interview or conversation in an aero plane, a hotel, a shop or a cafeteria).
- Students can take on the role of a completely different character and express thoughts they do not necessarily share.
- Simulation and role-play can be used to encourage general fluency or to train students for specific situations.
- Students may be given enough information about a situation. They may be allowed to be as creative as possible. It works wells when participants have to come to some kind of a decision.

Advantages

- Fun and motivating, it allows hesitant students to be more forthright in their opinions.
- Use a much wider range of language as it includes the world outside the classroom.
- Suitable for practicing the socio-culture variations in speech acts.
- Depending on student level, role plays can be performed from prepared scripts, created from a set of prompts and expressions, etc.
- Ordinarily, the students give an audiocassette tape to the teacher, who starts oral journal on the tape by giving some directions for the assignment and perhaps suggesting a topic.
- Can be an excellent resource for the teacher to provide individual feedback and instruction on pronunciation or grammar problems.

Lesson-13

TEACHING OF READING SKILLS

Topic- 066: Reading and Comprehension

Reading is the process of constructing meaning from written texts, comprehending, and actively responding to what is read. It is a complex skill requiring the coordination of a number of interrelated sources of information.

1. The reader's existing knowledge
2. The information suggested by the text being read
3. The context of the reading situation (Wixson et al., 1987)

Reading Involves

- Identify the words in print – word recognition
- Construct an understanding from them – comprehension
- Coordinate identifying words and making meaning so that reading is automatic and accurate – fluency

Extensive and Intensive Reading

To get maximum benefit from reading, the students need to be involved in both extensive and intensive reading. With the extensive reading, a teacher encourages students to choose for themselves what they read and do so for pleasure and general language improvement. Intensive reading is teacher-chosen and directed. It is designed to enable students to develop specific receptive skills.

Such as reading for gist (or general understanding – often called skimming), reading for specific information (often called scanning), reading for detailed comprehension or reading for inference (what is behind the words) and attitude.

Reading Purpose Comprehension

Reading is a purposeful activity. The purpose(s) for reading guide the reader's selection of texts. A person may read in order to gain information or verify existing knowledge, or in order to critique a writer's ideas or writing style. A person may also read for enjoyment, or to enhance knowledge of the language being read. The purpose for reading also determines the appropriate approach to reading comprehension.

Attributes of a Good Reader

- Reads extensively and has a flexible reading style, depending on what s/he is reading.
- Integrates information in the text with existing knowledge.
- Is motivated and reads for a purpose; reading serves a function.
- Relies on different skills interacting: perceptual processing, phonemic processing, recall.

Reading as a Process

Reading is an interactive process that goes on between the reader and the text, resulting in comprehension. The text presents letters, words, sentences, and paragraphs that encode meaning. The reader uses knowledge, skills, and strategies to determine what that meaning is.

Topic- 067: Extensive Reading

Extensive Reading

It is the practice of reading large amounts of text for extended period of time. It is a central component of any course with the goal of building academic reading abilities. One does not become a good reader unless one reads a lot. Several ways to engage students in ER, both in and out of class. It is not enough to tell students to 'read a lot' rather offer them a programme which includes appropriate materials, guidance, tasks and facilities, such as libraries.

Extensive Reading Materials

- If they are struggling to understand every word, they can hardly read for pleasure; therefore, make interesting, attractive and level appropriate reading materials available, i.e books which students can understand and are readily accessible.

- Specially written materials for ER – 'language learner literature' (Day & Bamford, 1998: 61) also known as 'graded readers' or 'simplified readers'. These may include original fiction and non-fiction as well as simplifications of established works of literature.

- Writers or adaptors work within specific lists of allowed words and grammar. Target students can read them with ease and confidence. At their best, such books can speak to the reader through the creation of atmosphere and/or compelling plot lines.

Library Facilities

Build a well-stocked, diverse class library with clear indications of topic and genre. It should be according to the level of difficulty for each text and may appear costly but is money well spent. Libraries can be in the classroom – or in boxes and trolleys. It is best to explain the classification of books to students and keep track of them.

Role of the Teacher in ER program

Organizer

- Creates opportunities for all types of reading.
- Finds out what students like to read and why.
- Keeps records of the amounts of extensive reading completed by students.
- Creates a reading lab, if possible.

Tutor

- Reads interesting materials aloud to students on the consistent basis
- Visits the school library regularly and set aside time for browsing and reading
- Explains to students, how to make a choice of what to read according to genre, level of understanding and interest
- Tells them what s/he expect over a period

Motivator

- Persuades students to read extensively by focusing on its benefits
- Create incentives for students to read at home
- Allows students to take books home to read
- Have students share and recommend reading materials to classmates

ER Tasks

- Weekly reading diary
- Short book reviews for class noticeboards
- Reading record charts
- Oral interviews about what students read

Topic- 068: Intensive Reading

It involves learners reading in detail with specific learning aims and tasks. It can be compared with extensive reading, which involves learners reading texts for enjoyment and to develop general reading skills.

Example: The learners read a short text and put events from it into chronological order.

Reasons for Introducing IR Sequences in a Class

- It helps students practice specific skills such as skimming for general understanding or 'gist' or scanning to extract specific information.
- On the other hand, we can get students to read texts for communicative purposes, as part of other activities, as sources of information.
- To identify specific uses of language.

Intensive Reading Activities

- Skimming a text for specific information to answer true or false statements or to fill gaps.
- Scanning a text to match headings to paragraphs.
- Scanning jumbled paragraphs to put them into the correct order.

Roles of a Teacher in IR Classrooms

Organizer

- Tells students exactly about the purpose of their reading
- Gives them instructions about how to achieve it
- Explains for how long they have to do it

Observer

- Gives the students due space when they are reading on their own
- Restrains from interrupting the reading
- Observes the students' progress when they are reading as it may give us clues what to do next

Feedback Organizer

- Feedback session is arranged to check whether students have completed reading task successfully.
- Teachers may start by having them compare their answers in pairs.
- Asks students to say where in the text they find the relevant information.
- Helps teachers know comprehension problems students may have come across.
- Needs to be supportive in order to sustain students' motivation.

Prompter

Teacher may prompt students to notice certain language features when they have read the text.

Question of Vocabulary Learning

A common paradox in reading lessons – students may be worried about the meaning of every single word whereas teachers may focus on understanding.

Solution: Students may be asked to read for general understanding in the first or second reading and then, later on, they may be allowed to ask about individual words.

Enhancing Student Participation

- They may be allowed to express their affective responses to the content.
- They ought to be allowed to create their own comprehension tasks.

Jigsaw Reading – students read different texts and then share the information they have gathered in order to piece together the whole story.

Topic- 069: Strategies for Developing Reading skills

Effective language instructors help students develop a set of reading strategies so that they may adjust their reading behavior to deal with a variety of situations, types of input, and reading purposes. A major goal for academic reading instruction is the development of strategic readers.

Strategic Readers: Understand the goals of a reading activity, and have a range of well-practiced reading strategies at their disposal; apply them in efficient combinations, monitor comprehension appropriately, recognize miscomprehension, and repair comprehension problems effectively.

Commonly Used Strategies

Previewing: Reviewing titles, section headings, and photo captions to get a sense of the structure and content of a reading selection.

Predicting: Using knowledge of the subject matter to make predictions about content and vocabulary and comprehension; using knowledge of the text type and purpose to make predictions about discourse structure; using knowledge about the author to make predictions about writing style, vocabulary, and content.

Skimming and Scanning: Using a quick survey of the text to get the main idea, identify text structure, confirm or question predictions.
Guessing from Context: Using prior knowledge of the subject and the ideas in the text as clues to the meanings of unknown words, instead of stopping to look them up.

Paraphrasing: Stopping at the end of a section to check comprehension by restating the information and ideas in the text; learning new words through the analysis of word stems and affixes.

Summarizing: Generating appropriate questions about the text; repairing miscomprehension.

Some strategy may be part of every lesson as the ultimate goal is to develop automatic routines that work to resolve general reading comprehension issues.

How These Strategies may be Introduced in the Classroom?

- By modeling the strategies aloud, talking through the processes of previewing, predicting, skimming and scanning, and paraphrasing, etc. This shows students how the strategies work and how much they can know about a text before they begin to read word by word.
- By allowing time in class for group and individual activities as preparation for in-class or out-of-class reading.
- By using cloze (fill in the blank) exercises to review vocabulary items (guess meaning from context).
- By encouraging students to talk about what strategies they think will help them approach a reading assignment.

Topic- 070: Goals and Techniques for Teaching Reading

Instructors aim to produce students who can use reading strategies to maximize their comprehension of text, identify relevant and non-relevant information, and tolerate less than word-by-word comprehension. To accomplish this goal, instructors need to focus more on the process of reading rather than on its product.

The Reading Process

1. They develop students' awareness of the reading process and reading strategies by asking students to think and talk about how they read in their native language.
2. They allow students to practice the full repertoire of reading strategies by using authentic reading tasks.
3. They show students the strategies that will work best for the reading purpose and the type of text.
4. They also encourage students practice reading strategies outside the class in their reading assignments.
5. They periodically review how and when to use particular strategies.
6. They do not assume that students will transfer strategy use from one task to another. They explicitly mention how a particular strategy can be used in a different type of reading task.

Integrating Reading Strategies in Instruction

Effective readers know how to use strategies before, during, and after reading.

Before reading: Plan for the reading task. Set a purpose or decide in advance what to read for. Decide if more linguistic or background knowledge is needed. Determine whether to enter the text from the top down (attend to the overall meaning) or from the bottom up (focus on the words and phrases).

During and After Reading: Monitor comprehension. Verify predictions and check for inaccurate guesses. Decide what is and is not important to understand. Re-read to check comprehension. Ask for help, if needed.

After Reading: Evaluate comprehension and strategy use. Evaluate comprehension in a particular task. Evaluate overall progress in reading and in particular reading tasks. Decide if the strategies used were appropriate for the purpose and task. Modify strategies, if necessary.

Use of Authentic Materials

It is the kind of material that students will need and want to read using the language in other contexts outside the classroom. The difficulty of a reading text is less a function of the language, and more a function of the conceptual difficulty and the task(s) that students are expected to complete. Rather than simplifying a text by changing its language, make it more approachable by eliciting students' existing knowledge in pre-reading discussion, reviewing new vocabulary before reading, and asking students to perform tasks that are within their competence (skimming or scanning, etc.) before they begin intensive reading.

Topic- 071: Activities for Developing Reading Skills

Developing reading activities involves more than identifying the right level of a text, writing a set of comprehension questions, handing out the assignment and sending students away to do it. A fully-developed reading activity supports students as readers through pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading activities. Construct the reading activity around a purpose that has significance for the students. Recognizing the purpose for reading will help students select appropriate reading strategies. Define the activity's instructional goal and the appropriate type of response.

Pre-Reading Tasks

(www.teachingenglish.org.uk)

- Aim to raise the readers' knowledge of what they are about to read (their schematic knowledge). This may help them to understand the text.
- In our L1 we use this knowledge subconsciously and as a result, need to raise it consciously in an L2. This raising of awareness is most effectively done collaboratively.

Activities

- Tell your partner what you know about the topic.
- Do a quiz in pairs to find out what you know about the topic.
- Look at some pictures related to the topic.
- Skimming the first paragraph for gist and then predicting.

Predictions can be Based Upon:

- A title or visuals
- Knowledge of the author
- A skim of the first paragraph
- A set of keywords from the text
- Reading the end, predicting the beginning
- Reading the middle, predicting the beginning and the end

While-Reading Tasks

Activities

- **Slashed / Cut up Texts**: This is a genuinely collaborative reading activity.
- **Jigsaw Reading.**
- **Running and Reading**: this approach especially lends itself to scanning as the idea is to encourage the students to read as quickly as possible in a race.

Running and Reading Activity

- Divide the class into student A and student B pairs. Student A sits at one end of the classroom.
- Stick the text to be read on the wall at the other end of the room. Give student a list of questions. Student A reads the first question to student B who has to run down the classroom to find the answer in the text, and then run back to dictate the answer to student A, who then tells B question 2 and so on.

        The first pair to answer all the questions wins. (I ask the students to swap roles halfway through so everyone gets a chance to scan).

Post-Reading Tasks: Telling someone about what we have read is a very natural reaction to a text.

Activities

- Discussions about the text; summarizing texts; reviewing texts
- Follow-up speaking task related to the topic
- Looking at the language of the text (e.g., collocations)

Lesson-14

TEACHING OF WRITING SKILLS

Topic- 072: Writing Process

Writing, similar to reading, follows a sequential process. The writing process teaches students to internalize the steps for producing a finished piece of writing. Learning, implementing, and internalizing the writing process helps students to produce effective writing for a variety of purposes. Teachers may use the following steps to provide structure and continuity in all forms of writing.

1. **Prewriting**

It is the planning phase of the writing process; one can decide the type of writing, the intended audience, and determine the purpose for writing. Children brainstorm to generate ideas for writing. This stage helps expand or narrow focus, and identify and/or organize ideas. Charts, story webs, and graphic organizers can be used to help develop a word list for writing.

2. **Rough Draft**

Children put their ideas on paper; they write without major attention to punctuation or grammar. The purpose of this rough draft is to make students focus on their ideas and get them on paper without the distraction or fear of making mistakes in word choice, sentence structure, conventions, and presentation. Models of exemplary writing help students build a visual map in order to draft their ideas.

3. **Peer Editing**

Classmates share their rough drafts and make suggestions to each other for improvement. They help each other to understand the story by asking who, what, when, where, why, and how questions. They look for better words to express ideas and discuss among themselves how to make the writing clearer.

4. **Revising**

The students use the suggestions from classmates to make additions or clarify details. The teacher may step in at this stage. Students rethink, rework, and refine their writing - improve on their own.
Skills: Idea organization, Voice, Word choice, and Sentence fluency.

5. **Editing**

Children work with the teacher and/or peers to correct all errors in grammar, mechanics, and usage. The knowledge of the conventions of writing in a discipline may be beneficial at this phase of the writing process.

6. **Final Draft**

Children produce a copy of their writing with all corrections made from the editing stage and then discuss this final draft with the teacher. The teacher offers the last suggestions for improvement.

7. Publishing

This stage involves sharing the writing with an intended audience. It involves preparing a neatly handwritten or word processed copy of the final draft and the addition of illustrations or other graphic elements. Publication may extend to a multimedia presentation, a public performance or send their work to local newspapers. Here, the teacher is a member of the audience.

Topic- 073: Approaches to Writing

There are a number of approaches to the practice of writing skills both in and outside the classroom. We need to choose:

- Whether we want students to focus more on the process of writing than its product.
- Whether we want them to study different genres.
- Whether we want to encourage creative writing.

Process and Product

In the teaching of writing we can either focus on the product of writing or on the writing process itself. When concentrating on the product, we are only interested in the aim of a task and in the end product (e.g., genre approach). Process approach pays attention to the various stages that any piece of writing goes through.

By spending time with learners on pre-writing phases; editing, redrafting and finally producing a finished version of their work, a process approach aims to get to the heart of the various skills that most writers employ. Editing and re-drafting (process approach) are more important while writing in a foreign language. Writing process is complex and recursive in nature. Focusing on the process of writing may be time consuming. The writing process is at least as important as the product.

Genre

Genre represents the norms of different kinds of writing. Students who are writing within a certain genre need to consider a number of different factors. They need to have knowledge of the topic, the convention, and style of the genre. The context in which their writing will be read as well as by whom. It is appropriate, especially, for students of ESP. However, this can be prescriptive as it may encourage students to see writing as a form of 'reproduction' rather than as a creative act.

Creative Writing

The term creative writing suggests imaginative tasks, such as writing poetry, stories and plays. Creative writing is a journey and self-discovery promotes effective learning (Gaffield-Vile,1998:31) When teachers set up imaginative writing tasks, those students frequently strive harder than usual. There is always a danger that students may find writing imaginatively difficult. A lot depends on how we encourage them - providing students with motivating straightforward tasks to persuade them that writing can also be great fun.

Writing as a Cooperative Activity

While writing, students may have advantage of the presence of others. Cooperative writing works well whether the focus is on the writing process or on genre. Successful if students are writing on computer. The students and teachers can gradually co-construct a final product.

Building the Writing Habit

It especially is for the students lacking confidence.

Topic- 074: Teaching of Writing Skills in the Classroom

The teaching of the mechanics of writing aims at three different goals:

1. Enhance letter recognition - especially when learners come from a different writing system
2. To practice sound spelling correspondence via all four language skills
3. To help the learner move from letters and words to meaningful sentences and larger units of discourse.

Recognition and writing drills constitute the first step in the effective writing habits. However, to acquire mastery of the sound-spelling correspondence, it is necessary to arrive at relevant generalizations.

Three major types of recognition tasks are used at this stage of writing.

- Matching tasks
- Writing tasks
- Meaningful sound-spelling correspondence practice

Capitalization and basic punctuation rules are an important feature of this early stage of writing. At this early stage of writing, learners should be given plenty of opportunities for copying. However such copying activities can be cognitively more demanding if students are guided to search for meaningful words and to create sentences in new contexts.

Sound - Spelling Correspondences

English presents the learner with a number of unique problems related to its orthographic rules, even in cases in which the learner comes from a first language that uses a version of the Roman alphabet. English writing system is much more rule governed. It enables the second language teacher to combine the teaching of phonetic units with graphemic units and to give practice in pronunciation along with the practice in spellings.
Students may tend to look for a one to one letter sound correspondence and then discover that they get into a lot of trouble by doing so. The vowel letter in English presents more complex sound-spelling correspondences. However, there is much more consistency and predictability than many learners realize. It is important for a learner of English to realize that English orthography is by no means a one-to-one letter sound correspondence system. It has its own consistency embedded in the combination of letters with their immediate environments, resulting in what we tend to call sound-spelling patterns.

Topic- 075: Strategies and Activities for Developing Writing Skills

There may be several strategies and activities to develop writing skills:

1. Practical Writing Tasks

These writing tasks are procedural in nature and have a predictable format. Particularly suitable for writing activities that focus primarily on spelling and morphology. Lists of various types, notes, short messages, simple instructions, etc, such writing tasks are particularly useful in reinforcing classroom work.

2. Personal Writing Tasks

Primarily includes letter to friends and narratives describing personal experiences, as well as personal journals and diaries. When dealing with letter writing, emphasis can be placed on format, pronunciation and spelling of appropriate phrases and expressions. When writing about personal experiences, it is usually done in a narrative format. Spellings of past-tense forms can be viewed and practiced. Entries in diaries and journals can take the form of personal letters and serve as a review of letter writing in general.

3. School Oriented Tasks

One of the most important functions of writing in a student's life is the function it plays in school. Individual learning - writing assignments, summaries, answers to questions, or a variety of essay types. In most cases, the audience for these writing tasks is the teacher. Gradually, students must learn to write to an unknown reader. All of these writings activities should be given attention, both at the linguistic accuracy level and at the message transmission level.

4. Dialogue Journal Writing at the Early Stages

It enables students and teachers to interact on a one-to one basis at any level and in any learning context. It is also very useful in communicative events at the early stages of learning to write in a new language. The dialogue journal enables the beginner to generate some personal input and receive the teacher's direct feedback to it. The dialogue journal, like any other type of writing activity, can be done via email.

The Role of the Teacher

Besides usual roles teacher is a:

Motivator

- Creating the right conditions for the generation of ideas.
- Persuading them of the usefulness of the activity.
- Encouraging them to make maximum effort.
- Prompting students with our own ideas.
- Resource.

During extended writing tasks, teachers should be ready to supply information and language.

Feedback Provider

- Needs special care.
- Teachers should respond positively and encouragingly to the content.
- When offering correction, teachers need to choose what and how much to focus on, based on students' needs and stages of learning.

Topic- 076: Strategies and Activities for Developing Writing Skills II

They expose students to a variety of strategies for getting started with, and encourage each student to try to discover which strategies work best for him/her. Regardless of the type of writing tasks, a good place to begin is to explore the prewriting stage, the stage prior to actual production of a working text.

Brainstorming

This is often a group exercise in which all students in the class are encouraged to participate by sharing their collective knowledge about a particular subject. It generates far more material than any one student thinks of on his/her own. Students can then utilize any or all of the information while preparing their first draft.

Listing

Unlike brainstorming, listing can be a quiet and essentially individual activity. The student is encouraged to produce as lengthy a list as possible, of all the main ideas and subcategories that come to mind. This is a useful activity for students who might be constrained by undue concern for expressing their thoughts in grammatically correct sentences.

Clustering

Another technique for getting many ideas down quickly, clustering begins with a key word or central ideas placed in the center of a page. Around which the student quickly jots down all of the free-associations triggered by the subject matter, using words or short phrases. Unlike listing, the words or phrases generated are put on the page or board in a pattern which takes shape from the connections the writer sees as each new thought emerges.

Completed clusters can look like spokes on a wheel or any other pattern of connected lines depending on how the individual associations relate to each other. By sharing their cluster patterns with others in the class, students can be exposed to a wide variety of approaches to the subject matter, which generates further material.

Free Writing

A prewriting technique in which a person writes continuously for a set period without regard to spelling, grammar, or topic. It produces raw material, but helps writers overcome blocks of apathy and self-criticism. It works best if the teacher provides an opening clause or sentence. It is collaborative drafting, where teacher and students form a small group.

Revising

Revising is about reformatting longer writings into separate pages/parts, cutting them up, and moving them around to reorganize. For example, peer-review, color-coding activities (green dot for understanding, yellow dot for questions, red dot for confusion/inaccuracies) etc.

Editing

Teacher-created checklists.

Role-play Writing

Chance to write to an imaginary character.

Post Cards

Writing post cards and their responses

Text Lingo

Mobile phones - writing text messages and their replies to friends.
www.teachingenglish.org.uk

Topic- 077: Assessment of Writing Skills

Several ways of assessing the writing of L2 learners.

Writing Assignment

The writing assignment is a key component of all writing classes. Since the object of any writing class is to have students work on their writing skills, all assignment topics must be carefully designed, sequenced and structured. The teacher should know exactly what the learning goal of each assignment is and what students may gain by working on a given assignment.

Responding

Responding to student writing, once seen as the main task of the writing teacher and certainly the most time-consuming one, is a complex process. It involves a number of critical decisions:

- What are the general goals within the writing course for providing feedback to students?
- What are the specific goals for providing feedback on a particular piece of writing?
- At what stage in the writing process feedback should be offered?
- What form should feedback take?
- Who should provide the feedback?
- What should students do with the feedback they receive?

Goal – Setting

Teachers need to develop responding methodologies which can foster improvements in students' writing as it is the general goal of a writing course. They need to know how to measure or recognize improvements when they occur. In setting goals, teacher should focus on a variety of response types. They should focus on training students to maximize the insights of prior feedback on future writing occasions.

Strategic Use of Questioning

Questioning helps teachers identify and correct misunderstandings and gaps in knowledge. It gives teachers information about what learners know, understand and can do.
Closed questions only ask learners to recall. Use open questions to encourage the use of thinking skills and eliciting more information.

Examples: Is X important? Why is X important?
Use 'might' - when questioning, use the word 'might' to encourage learners to think and explore possible answers.

Comment-Only Feedback

Only write comments on learners' work, and don't give marks. This helps learners to focus on progress instead of a reward or punishment.

Peer and Self-Assessment

Model how to give peer feedback. Learning wall - where learners can post positive feedback about others.

Self-Assessment Prompts

Teachers can also provide self-assessment prompts in the beginning that would make students enough skillful to make self-assessment of their writing.

Teaching of Integrated Skills

Integrated skills teaching focuses on the four main English skills - reading, writing, speaking and listening through a "Communicative Language Teaching" methodology. It means that realistic communication is an integral part of essential conditions for language learning. It is contrary to segregated skills teaching, where language learning is restricted to a very narrow, non-communicative range that does not prepare students to use the language in everyday life. This integration supports to build new knowledge and skills on to what students already know and can do. For example, if students are able to read a short story, this skill will help them to write their own story.

While teaching a language, an instructor has to instill a large number of words, idioms and grammatical structures to improve learner's language ability. "It is impossible to teach reading without the extensive use of writing, speaking, and listening", and that "students can benefit from practicing all of the language skills in integrated. (Chen, 2002)

In teaching of a language, "teacher, learner, setting, and relevant language" are important strands to weave together, e.g., the instructor's teaching style must address the learning style of the learner, the learner must be motivated, and the setting must provide resources and values that strongly support the teaching of the language. In a practical sense, one of the most crucial of these strands consists of the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking, and writing. This strand also includes associated or related skills such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage. Integration of the four skills is concerned with realistic communication means we are teaching at the discourse level (a whole unit of communicative text, either spoken or written).

Two Types of Integrated-Skill Instruction

1. Content-Based Instruction

Students practice all the language skills in a highly integrated, communicative way while learning a particular content (science, mathematics, and social studies). Content-based language instruction is valuable at all levels of proficiency, but the nature of the content can vary by proficiency level or the level of learners.
There are three models of content-based language instruction exist: theme-based, adjunct, and sheltered (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992).

a. The Theme-Based Model:

It integrates the language skills into the study of a theme (e.g., urban violence, cross-cultural differences in marriage practices, natural wonders of the world, or a broad topic such as change). The theme must be very interesting to students and must allow a wide variety of language skills to be practiced, always in the service of communicating about the theme. This is the most useful and

widespread form of content-based instruction today and it is found in many innovative ESL and EFL textbooks.

b. In the Adjunct Model:

Language and content courses are taught separately but are carefully coordinated.

c. In the Sheltered Model:
The subject matter is taught in simplified English tailored to students' English proficiency level.

2. Task-Based Instruction
     Students participate in communicative tasks. The task-based model is beginning to influence the measurement of learning strategies. The basic pair work and group work are often used to increase student interaction and collaboration. For instance, students work together to write and edit a class newspaper, develop a television commercial, enact scenes from a play, or take part in other joint tasks. Task-based instruction is relevant to all levels of language proficiency, but the nature of the task varies from one level to the other. Tasks become increasingly complex at higher proficiency levels.

Advantages of the Integrated-Skill Teaching

1. Integrated-skill teaching is at the level of realistic communication, that is the goal of communicative approach and many researchers believe that it is an integral part of essential conditions for language learning
2. It exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language.
3. It stresses that English is not just an object of academic interest nor merely a key to passing an examination; instead, English becomes a real means of interaction and sharing among people.
4. It allows teachers to track students' progress in multiple skills at the same time. Integrating the language skills also promotes the learning of real content, not just the dissection of language forms.
5. The integrated-skill approach, whether found in content-based or task-based language instruction form, can be highly motivating to students of all ages and backgrounds.

How to Integrate the Four Skills

The easiest form of integration is within the same medium (either oral or written), from receptive to productive skills.

	Receptive Skill	Productive Skill
Oral Medium	*listening*	*speaking*
Written Medium	*reading*	*writing*

The second kind is complex integration. This involves constructing a series of activities that use a variety of skills. However, it's important to make sure that one activity is closely linked thematically to the next one.

Limitations of Integrated-Skill Teaching:

- It is necessary for teachers to maintain an appropriate balance between integration and separation.

- It can be time-consuming, requiring a lot of preparation on behalf of language teacher.

<div align="right">**Lesson-15**</div>

ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS I

Topic- 078: What is Assessment of Language Skills?

It is a field of AL; the assessment of first, second or the other language in the school, college, or university. The assessment of language use in the workplace, immigration, and citizenship. The assessment may include listening, speaking, reading, and writing, an integration of two or more of these skills. Equal weight may be placed on knowledge (understanding how the language works theoretically) and proficiency (ability to use the language practically), or greater weight may be given to one aspect or the other.

History of LA

The earliest works in language assessment date back to the 1950s. Pioneering studies and test were created by Robert Lado and David Harris. The earliest large scale assessments in the US were referred to as TOEFL, developed by ETS, Princeton. Launched in 1961, it was designed to assess the English language ability of students applying for admission to U.S. and Canadian universities. Later on, many other language proficiency tests were started such as CELA, IELTS, GEPT, etc.

Informal and Formal Assessment

Informal Assessment can take a number of forms: starting with incidental, unplanned comments and responses, along with coaching and other important feedback to the students. Examples include saying "Nice job", "Good work!" "Did you say can or can't?" etc. Usually embedded in classroom tasks, they are designed to elicit performance without recording results and making fixed judgments. Formal assessments are exercises or procedures specifically designed to know the skills and knowledge. They are systematic, planned sampling techniques and are constructed to give teacher and student an appraisal of student's achievement.

Formative Assessment

Evaluating students in the process of "forming" their competencies and skills with the goal of helping them to continue that growth process. For all practical purposes, virtually all kinds of informal assessment are (or should be) formative. It is done at a micro level every time we indicate that something is wrong and help students get it right. But it can also take place when teachers go through the results of progress and achievement tests.

Summative Assessment

It aims to measure, or summarize, what a student has grasped, and typically occurs at the end of a course or a unit of instruction. There are final exams in a course or general proficiency exams. Most of the prevailing tests in an L2 instruction include (quizzes, periodic tests, midterm exams, etc.)

Topic- 079: Testing, Assessment, and Teaching

It shows the important relationship among testing, assessing, and teaching. However, there are some differences between Language Assessment and Testing.

1. **Test**

A test, in simple terms, is a method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain (Brown, 2004). A test is first a method: it is an instrument - a set of techniques, procedures, or items. To qualify as a test, the method must be explicit and structured: multiple-choice questions with prescribed correct answers; a writing prompt with a scoring rubric; an oral interview. It is a writing prompt with a scoring rubric; an oral interview based on a question script.

Tests, Assessment and Teaching
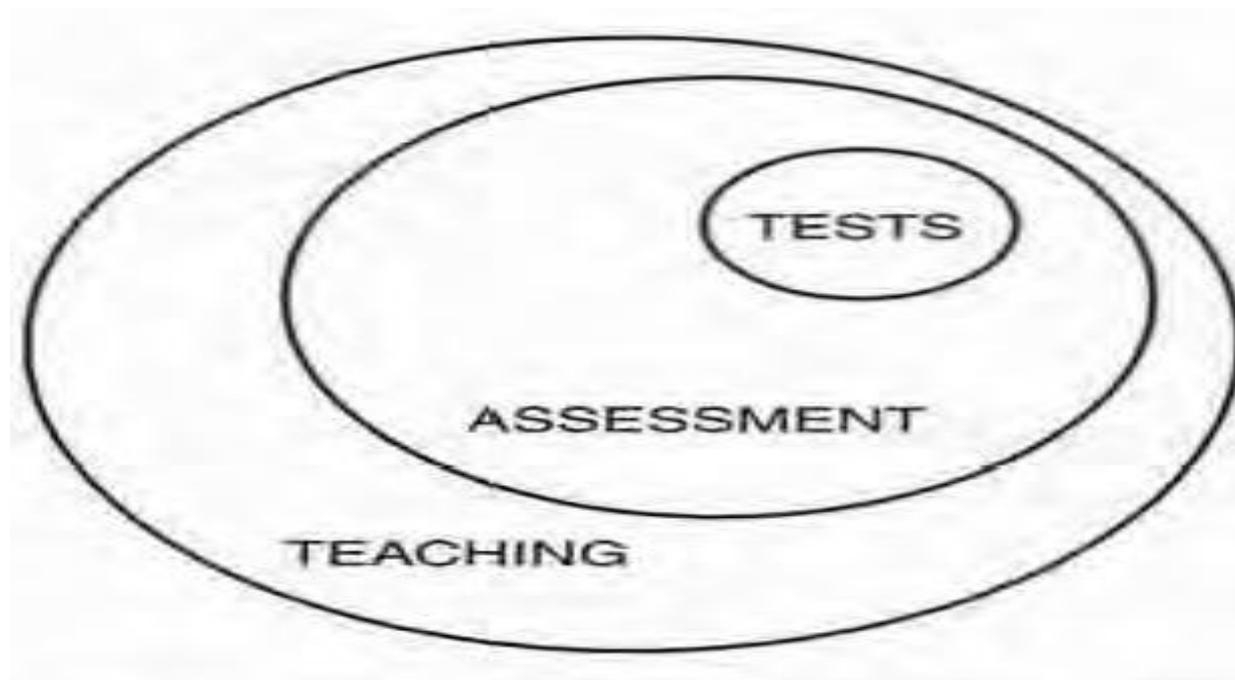
(Brown, 2004, p. 05)

It is a checklist of expected responses to be filled in by the administrator. Secondly, a test must measure and base on a question script. Some tests measure general ability while others focus on very specific competencies or objectives. For example: A multi-skill proficiency test determines a general ability level.

A quiz, on recognizing correct use of definite articles, measures specific knowledge. The testers need to understand who the test-takers are and what is their previous experience and background. A test measures performance, but the results imply the test taker's competence. Finally, a test measures a given domain. A well-constructed test is an instrument that provides an accurate measure of the test-taker's ability within a particular domain. Tests are prepared administrative procedures and occur at identifiable times in a curriculum, when learners muster all their faculties to offer peak performance knowing that their responses are being measured and evaluated.

2.   Assessment and Teaching

On the other hand, assessment is an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain. Whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teacher subconsciously makes an assessment of the student's performance. Tests are a subset of assessment - only one among many procedures and tasks that teachers can ultimately use to assess students. Teaching is an overall process in which first comes assessment and then testing. Teaching sets up the practice games of language learning: the opportunities for learners to listen, think, take risks, set goals, and process feedback.

Are teachers constantly assessing students with no interaction that is assessment-free?

Topic- 080: Kinds of Testing

There are various reasons for testing which give rise to various categories of tests.

Placement Tests

These are used to place students in classes/programs which are appropriate to their level of proficiency. Usually based on syllabus and material, they define characteristics of each level of proficiency, test grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and assess students' productive and receptive skills.

Diagnostic Achievement Tests

These are used to explore learners' difficulties, gaps in their knowledge and skill deficiencies during a course. They identify students' strengths and weaknesses. Although difficult to construct, they benefit future instruction.

Progress or Achievement Tests

They are designed to measure learners' language and skills progress in relation to the syllabus they have been following, i.e. how successful students are in achieving the objectives of a lesson? Closely related to the content of a particular lesson/course/curriculum, they are often written by the teachers and given to students every few weeks to see how well they are doing. They can form part of a formative assessment. These tests only work, if they contain item types which the students are familiar with.

Proficiency Tests

These tests give a general picture of a student's knowledge and ability in a language. They are frequently used as stages people have to reach if they want to be admitted to a foreign university, get a job or obtain some kind of certificate.

Aptitude Tests

These are used to predict a person's future success in learning a foreign language. They are usually taken before actual learning.

Language Dominance Tests

These are used to assess bilingual learners' relative strength in two or more languages. Portfolio Assessment: It has many benefits - provides evidence of students' efforts; helps students become more autonomous and self-monitor their own learning. It has clear validity since students have a chance to edit before submitting their work and has an extremely positive wash back effect.

Topic- 081: Principles of Language Assessment

In order to judge effectiveness of any test, it is sensible to lay down criteria against which a test can be measured.

1. Validity

A test is valid if it tests what it is supposed to test; if it produces similar results to some other measures – that is if we can show that Test A gives us the same kind of results as Test B. A test is only valid if there is validity in the way it is marked - if we score short written answers to a listening test for spelling and grammar, then it is not necessarily a valid test of listening. It is not valid to test writing ability with an essay question that requires specialist knowledge of History or Biology unless all students share the same knowledge.

2. Reliability

A good test should give consistent results**, e.g.,** if the same group of students took the same test twice within two days - without reflecting on the first test, they should get the same results on each occasion. If they took another similar test, the marking range would be the same. Reliability may be enhanced by making the test instruction absolutely clear, restricting the scope for variety in the answers and making sure that test conditions remain constant.

3.   Wash Back Effect

Teaching may become dominated by the needs of future tests and their components as teachers want their students to pass the tests and exams. Where non-exam teachers might use a range of different activities, exam teachers suffering from the wash back effect, might stick rigidly to exam format activities.

Things to consider about wash back effect:

In the **first place**, modern tests, especially the direct items included in them, are grounded far more in classroom activities and methodologies. **Secondly**, even if preparing students for a particular test format is a necessity, it is equally important to build variety and fun into an exam in order to drive students towards learning. For good exam preparation, teachers need to familiarize themselves with the tests and they need to be able to answer their students' concerns and worries. However, they need to be able to walk a fine line between good exam preparations on one hand, and not being swept away by the wash back effect on the other.

What can we do?

Train for Test Type

- Show our students various test types and ask them what each item is testing so that they are clear about what is required.
- Getting inside the heads of the designers will help students focus on what they are being asked for.
- Help them approach test items - their level of ability may not be obscured by their unfamiliarity with the test. For example, if the test or exam is likely to contain MCQs, we can help students to appreciate the advantages of finding the obvious detractor first.

Discuss General Exam Skills

- Without it much of work they do will be wasted.

- Ensure that they do not spend a disproportionate amount of time on only a part of an exam.

Do Practice Tests and Have Fun

Encourage students to write their own test items, based on their previous language learning.

Topic- 082: Designing Classroom Language Tests

An innovative testing format takes a lot of effort to be designed and a long time to be refined through trial and error. Some practical steps/questions in constructing classroom tests are the following:

Knowing the Purpose of the Test: i.e. why am I creating this test or why was it created by someone else? Was it created for an evaluation of overall proficiency? Or to place students into a course? Once you have established the major purpose of a test, you can determine its objectives.

Assessing Clear, Unambiguous Objectives: Carefully examine the objectives of the test. This involves a number of issues, ranging from relatively simple ones about forms and functions covered in a course unit to much more complex ones.

Decisions about what language abilities are to be assessed – what do you want to test exactly?

Every curriculum should have clearly framed assessable objectives stated in terms of overt performance by students. For example, an objective "student will learn tag questions" is not specific as it is not clear that students will do so either in written or in spoken form, or in which context, etc. 'Students will recognize and produce tag questions, with the correct grammatical form and final intonation pattern, in simple social conversations' is the correct manner.

Drawing Up Test Specifications

Test specification should consist of: a broad outline of the test; what skills will be tested; what the items will look like.

Devising Test Tasks: The tasks that the test-takers must perform need to be practical. They should be reliable and easily evaluative by the teacher. The tasks themselves should strive for authenticity, and the progression of tasks ought to be biased for best performance. Start with some warm up questions and comments, then put objective questions that are level check questions, then probe (opinion based question). In the end, wind down (comments or reassurance). Designing multiple choice items and design each item to measure a specific objective. State both stem and options as simply as possible and make certain that the intended answer is clear and the only correct one. Use item indices to accept, discard, or revise items.

Scoring, Grading and/or Feedback: Tests vary in the form and function of feedback, depending on their purpose.

Topic- 083: Standardized Testing

A standardized test requires:

(1) All test takers to answer the same questions or a selection of questions from common bank of questions in the same way.

(2) Is scored in a "standard" or consistent manner which makes it possible to compare the relative performance of individual students or groups of students.

The term is primarily associated with large-scale tests administered to large populations of students, such as a multiple-choice test given to all the eighth-grade public-school students in a particular state. Standardized tests can also include true-false questions, short-answer questions, essay questions, or a mix of question types. These are increasingly being administered on computers connected to online programs. For example, http://edglossary.org/standardized-test/ College entrance tests, such as SAT, GMAT, GRE are the standardized types of tests. Similarly, English language proficiency tests, such as TOEFL and IELTS, are also the examples of standardized tests.

Advantages of Standardized Tests

- A ready-made previously validated product that frees the teacher from having to spend hours creating a test.
- Easily administered to large groups within reasonable time limits.
- Scoring procedures are streamlined.
- Provide teachers with guidance for what and when something needs to be taught.
- Objective in nature.
- Provide accurate comparisons between subgroups.

Disadvantages of Standardized Tests

- Evaluates a student's performance on one particular day and does not take external factors in account.
- Also seems to ignore the gradual growth of a student over a period.
- Can create a lot of stress on both educators and students.
- Inappropriate use of such tests – e.g., using an overall proficiency test as an achievement test because of the convenience of the standardization.

Standardization presupposes certain standard criteria that are held constant across one form of the test to another. The criteria in large-scale standardized tests are designed to apply to a broad band of competencies that are usually not exclusive to one particular curriculum. A good standardized test is the product of a thorough process of empirical research and development.

Norm-Referenced Tests:

These tests are standardized tests designed to compare and rank test takers in relation to one another. A norm-referenced score is typically reported as a percentile ranking. E.g., an individual who scores in the 90th percentile has performed as well as or better than 90% of other test takers.

Criterion-Referenced Tests:

It measures an individual's performance against a set of predetermined criteria or performance standards. It is desirable for an individual to earn a perfect score.

In educational settings, these tests may be used to assess whether the student has learned a specific body of knowledge.

Lesson-16

ASSESSMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS II

Topic- 084: Grading and Student Evaluation

Our educational lives are determined by the test grades that are obtained from tests. Educational systems define exceptional students, failing students, and average students in different manner.. This doesn't depend on their performance/skills, rather it depends on their grades. This increases the importance of how grades should be assigned.

Guidelines for Selecting Grading Criteria

Grade should be based on students' achievement only and should represent the extent to which the intended learning outcomes were achieved. They should not be contaminated by students' tardiness, misbehavior, and other extraneous factors; therefore, it is essential for all components of grading to be consistent with an institutional philosophy and/or regulations. Some institutions, for example, mandate deductions for unexcused absences, whereas others require that only the final exam determines a course grade, and so on. The components of a final grade need to be explicitly stated in writing to students at the beginning of a term with a designation of percentages for each component.

Calculating Grades: Absolute and Relative

If you pre-specify standards of performance on a numerical point system, it is known as absolute system of grading. For example, established points for a midterm test, points for a final exam, and points accumulated for the semester etc. In many educational contexts, relative grading is more commonly used than absolute grading.. This has the advantage of allowing your own interpretation and of adjusting for unpredicted ease or difficulty of a test. This is usually accomplished by ranking students in the order of performance (percentile ranks).

Cross-Cultural Factors and the Question of Difficulty

- People learning English as L2 have different cultural backgrounds for grading the tests.
- Teachers should understand the context in which they are teaching.
- In many cultures similar to Pakistan: Students are not asked to self-assess themselves. Teacher assigns a grade, and nobody questions the teacher's criteria.
- A good teacher is one who can design a test that is so difficult that no student could achieve a perfect score - a demonstration of the teacher's superiority.
- One final examination is the accepted determinant of a student's entire course grade.
- The notion of a teacher's preparing students to do their best on a test is an educational contradiction. These cross cultural constraints make it difficult to grade students.

Prototypes

A preproduction model is used to evaluate all types of validity, perceived authenticity, and educational appropriateness of student assessments. These are used to test various aspects of an assessment, and gather early user feedback. Initially, one or more prototypes are made which may guide the teacher about consequences of test results.

Topic- 085: Administration and Training

The delivery of tests require an infrastructure, and a set of procedures to be followed. This whole process is important because any mistakes, inconsistencies or abnormalities at any stage in the test administration can threaten validity and any non-standard practice is a potential threat to it. Consider these examples: An item writer does not follow the test specifications. The usher at one test center is rude and aggressive. One of the venues for a speaking test is next to a major road where road work has just begun. We should think in terms of the quality assurance procedures.

Essential Things for the Administration of Tests

Construction Systems

In large-scale testing, even for institutional testing, there may be a need for more than one form of the test, especially if testing is to take place at different times; therefore,, test security is essential.

Item Writing and Review

Writing test items is a difficult task. For this, writers need to be trained to follow the test specifications and be supplied with item-writing templates. The most problematic task is to ensure the items meet the specifications.

Item Banking

All items or tasks that survive review need to be banked, or stored, in a format that allows easy retrieval according to any number of search criteria that may be used as identifiers. These criteria are usually those used in describing tasks for test specifications. However, the item bank should also contain any statistical data that are associated with an item or task, such as its facility value, discrimination index or difficulty estimate.

This allows test assemblers to find items that meet a specific criteria.

Preparation and Dispatch

The presentation of a test should be uniform across all forms, i.e. a test should resemble its previous forms. The computer interface should be the same for all test takers and all instructions should be standardized and presented in the same font type, style and size.

Distribution Systems

Physical test components need to be extracted from storage and dispatched by secure means to centers. Receipt of materials needs to be confirmed and the number of tests dispatched needs to match the number of test takers registered.

Training

The training of all staff who administers tests is important. It is probably the most discussed area is the training of raters for speaking and writing tests. This has frequently been the reason why some large-scale language tests have not contained the tests of speaking, even if speaking has been considered extremely important. If the invigilator is interrupting test takers, it can also affect their score. Hence, a general training of test administration staff is very important.

Topic- 086: Ethics and Fairness

Shohamy (1997) and others (such as Spolsky, 1997; Ramp-Lyons, 2001 cited in Brown, 2004), see the ethics of testing as an extension of what educators call critical pedagogy, or more precisely in this case, critical language testing.
"Tests are most powerful as they are often the single indicators for determining the future of individuals". (Shohamy, 1997).

Proponents of critical approach to language testing claim that large-scale standardized testing is not an unbiased process, rather is the "agent of cultural, social, political, educational, and ideological agendas that shape the lives of individual participants, teachers, and learners" (Shohamy, 1997, p. 3). "Tests represent a social technology deeply embedded in education, government, and business; as such they provide the mechanism for enforcing power and contro.l"

Issues of Critical Language Testing

Psychometric traditions are challenged by interpretive, individualized procedures for predicting success and evaluating ability. Test designers have a responsibility to offer multiple modes of performance to account for varying styles and abilities among test-takers. Tests are deeply embedded in culture and ideology and test-takers are political subjects in a political context. They are are always in a position of power over test-takers. Further, they can impose social and political ideologies on test-takers through standards of acceptable and unacceptable items. Tests are used in some countries to deny citizenship. Tests promote the notion that answers to real-world problems have unambiguous right and wrong answers with no shades of grey.

Language tests, some may argue, are less susceptible than general-knowledge tests to such sociopolitical overtones. As a language teacher, you might be able to exercise some influence in the ways tests are used in your own milieu. If you are offered a variety of choices in standardized tests, you could choose a test that offers the latest degree of culture bias. You might encourage the use of multiple measures of performance (varying item types, oral and written production, or other alternatives to traditional assessment) even though this might cost more money.

Teachers might help establish an institutional system of evaluation that places less emphasis on standardized tests and more emphasis on an ongoing process of formative evaluation. In so doing, you might be offering educational opportunity to a few more people who would otherwise be eliminated from contention.

Topic- 087: Alternatives in Assessment I

There is a strong criticism of the standardized tests because test industry has become a powerful source of influence on decisions about people's lives (Kohn 2000). Some people accept the results of test while others believe that all testing is invidious. As tests are one aspect - there are other possible ways of assessment.

A test is administered for a specific purpose within a strict time limitation while assessment is a broader concept. In early 1990s, many people opposed the idea that all skills of all people can be measured by traditional tests. A novel concept emerged that began to be labeled as "alternative" assessment.

Common Characteristics of Various Alternatives in Assessment

Requires students to perform, create, produce, or do something:

1. Use real-world contexts or simulations
2. Are nonintrusive in that they extend the day-to-day classroom activities
3. Allow students to be assessed on what they normally do in class
4. Use tasks that represent meaningful instructional activities
5. Focus on processes as well as products
6. Tap into higher-level thinking and problem-solving skills
7. Provide information about both the strengths and weaknesses of students
8. Become multi-culturally sensitive
9. Ensure that people, not machines, do the scoring using human judgment
10. Encourage open disclosure of standards and rating criteria
11. Call upon teachers to perform new instructional and assessment roles

Common Modes of Alternative Assessment

Portfolios

This is one of most common alternative in assessment. It includes materials such as: Essays and compositions in draft and final forms; reports, project outlines; poetry and creative prose; artwork, photos, newspaper or magazine clippings; audio and/or video recordings of presentations, demonstrations, etc.; journals, diaries, and other personal reflections; tests, test scores, and written homework exercises, and notes on lessons.

Journals

A journal is an account of one's thoughts, feelings, reactions, assessments, ideas, or progress toward goals. Usually written with little attention to structure, form, or correctness, it allows learners to articulate their thoughts without the threat of those thoughts being judged later (usually by the teacher). Most classroom oriented journals are known as 'dialogue journals'. They imply an interaction between a reader (the teacher) and the student through dialogues or responses.

Topic- 088: Alternatives in Assessment II

Conferences and Interviews

Conferences have been a routine part of the language classrooms, especially of courses in writing where mainly students participate and the teachers play the role of a facilitator. It is a conversation about a draft that facilitates the improvement of the written work. Here, the teacher is able to direct feedback toward a student's specific needs. Conferences are not limited to written drafts.

Possible Functions of Conferencing:

- Commenting on drafts of essays and reports
- Reviewing portfolios
- Responding to journals
- Advising on a student's plan for oral presentations
- Assessing a proposal for a project
- Giving feedback on the results of a test
- Clarifying understanding of a reading
- Setting personal goals for the near future
- Assessing general progress in a course

Useful Questions in a Conference

What did you like about this work?
What do you think you did well?
How does it show improvement from previous work?
Did you have any difficulties with this piece of work?

Interview

It denotes a context in which a teacher interviews a student for a designated assessment purpose.

Possible Goals for an Interview

- To assesses a student's oral production
- Ascertain a student's needs before designing a course or curriculum
- discover a student's learning styles/preferences
- request an evaluation of a course
- Teachers may be friendly and willing to reframe questions

Observations

Observation is a systematic, planned procedure for real-time. All teachers, whether they are aware of it or not, constantly observe their students in the classroom. These intuitive perceptions are stored as little pieces of information about students that can form a composite impression of a student's ability.

Important Steps for an Observation

1. Determine the specific objectives of the observation.
2. Decide how many students will be observed.
3. Set up the logistics for making unnoticed observations.
4. Design a system for recording observation.
5. Limited number of elements to be observed.
6. Determine specifically how you will use the results.
7. Recording, checklists, rating scales.

Self and Peer Assessments

A conventional view might consider them a reversal of power relationships. Where self-assessment derives its theoretical justification from various principles; e.g., learner autonomy and intrinsic motivation, peer-assessment appeals to similar principles, e.g., cooperative learning.

Types of Self- and Peer-Assessment

- Direct Assessment of (a specific) performance.
- Indirect assessment of (general) competence.
- Takes larger chunks of time with a view to rendering an evaluation of general ability.
- Metacognitive assessment (for setting goals).
- Also keeping an eye of the process of their pursuit.
- Socio-affective assessment.
- Student - generated tests .

Lesson-17

TEACHING THE SOUNDS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Topic- 089: Introduction to Phonetics and Phonology

Phonetics is concerned with how sounds are produced, transmitted and perceived.

Phonology is concerned with how sounds function in relation to each other in a language.

In other words, phonetics is about sounds of language, phonology is about the sound system of a language. Phonetics is a descriptive tool necessary to the study of the phonological aspects of a language while Phonology is, in effect, based on a theory of what every speaker of a language unconsciously knows about the sound patterns of that language. Therefore, phonology is concerned with the abstract or mental aspect of the sounds in a language rather than with the actual physical articulation of speech sounds.

Phonetics

The central concern in phonetics is the discovery of: how speech sounds are produced; how they are used in spoken language; how we can record speech sounds with written symbols and how we hear and recognize different sounds.

Branches of Phonetics

Articulatory Phonetics: the study of how speech sounds are made or articulated.

Acoustic Phonetics: deals with the physical properties of speech sounds such as sound waves in the air.

Auditory Phonetics: deals with the perception of speech sounds via the ear.

Topic- 090: Phonemes and Symbols

Consonants

p	pip	ʒ	measure
b	bib	h	hen
t	ten	tʃ	church
d	den	dʒ	judge
k	cat	m	man
g	get	n	now
f	fish	ŋ	sing
θ	thigh	l	let
ð	this	r	ride
s	set	w	wet
z	zoo	j	yet
ʃ	ship		

Phonemes

It is the meaning-distinguishing sound in a language. When we learn to use alphabetic writing, we are actually using the concept of the phoneme as the single stable sound type which is represented by a single written symbol.It is in this sense that the phoneme /t/ is described as a sound type, of which all the different spoken versions of [t] are tokens.

An essential property of a phoneme is that it functions contrastively. We know there are two phonemes /f/ and /v/ in English because they are the only basis of the contrast in meaning between the words fat and vat, or fine and vine. This contrastive property is the basic operational test for determining the phonemes that exist in a language. If we substitute one sound for another in a word and there is a change of meaning, then the two sounds represent different phonemes.

Articulation of Sounds

All the sounds we make when we speak are the result of muscles contracting. The muscles in the chest are used for breathing and they produce the flow of air that is needed for almost all speech sounds. Muscles in the larynx produce many different modifications in the flow of air from.

Phonetics	Phonology
The study of the nature of sound itself.	The study of the sound system of a language.
Simply describes the articulatory and acoustic properties of phones (speech sounds).	Studies how sound interact as a system in a particular language.
Studies which sounds are present in a language, and how these sounds can be presented using the International Phonetics Alphabets (IPA).	Studies how sounds combine and how they change in combination, as well as which sounds can contrast to produce differences in meaning.
How the vocal tract apparatus modifies to produce recognizable speech sounds.	How can we describe all languages' sounds in terms of smaller components called "distinctive features."
Phonetics studies how articulation of individual sounds varies according to dialect and other factors.	Phonology studies how syllabification and other phenomena affects the articulation of sounds.
How sounds overlap with each other in co-articulation.	How can we describe common linguistic changes in terms of how humans might process them in the brain.

International Phonetic Association (IPA)

One of the most important achievements of phonetics in the past century has been to arrive at a system of phonetic symbols that anyone can learn to use. The IPA is the major as well as the oldest representative organization for phoneticians (established in 1886). The aim of the IPA is to promote the scientific study of phonetics and the various practical applications of that science.A reproduction of the latest version of the IPA (2005) is available at the website of IPA.
http://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org

Topic- 091: English Vowels and Consonants

Speech sounds are made by modifying an airstream. An air stream involves the passage of air from the lungs out through the oral and nasal cavity.There are many points at which the air stream can be modified, and several ways in which it may happen. The first point at which the flow of air can be modified is in the larynx (in which vocal folds are located). On the way out, the air flow can be more or less obstructed, producing a consonant, or is simply modified, giving a vowel.

If you pronounce the first sound of the word 'paper,' you close your mouth completely and that is the utmost obstruction, whereas if you pronounce the first sound of the word 'after' the mouth is more open than normal, the air flows as freely as it possibly can.

Consonants are often classified by being given a so-called VPM-label. VPM stands for Voicing, Place, and Manner.

Voicing means that the vocal folds are used; if they are not, the sound is voiceless (note that vowels always imply the use of vocal folds).

Place of Articulation is the place where the air flow will be more or less obstructed.

Manner is concerned with the nature of the obstruction.

Voiced and Voiceless Sounds

Speech sounds produced by the air pushed out by the lungs up through the trachea (or windpipe) to the larynx. In short, sounds which are produced with vocal fold vibration are said to be 'voiced' sounds. E.g., the sound of [z] in the word 'hazy'. You can feel the vibration, if you put your fingers to your larynx and produce [z]. The sounds which are produced without such vibration are called 'voiceless' sounds. E.g., the sound of [s] in the word 'miss'.

Topic- 092: Place and Manner of Articulation

Place of Articulation

Once the air has passed through the larynx, it comes up and out through the mouth and/or the nose. Most consonant sounds are produced by using the tongue and other parts of the mouth to constrict in some way and the shape of the oral cavity, through which the air passes, is modified. The terms used to describe many sounds in phonetics are those which denote the place of articulation of the sound.

Manner of Articulation

It has to do with the kind of obstruction the air meets on its way out. For example: a complete closure (plosives), an almost complete closure (fricatives), a smaller degree of closure (approximants). The obstruents are plosives, fricatives and affricates, all sounds with a high degree of obstruction. Obstruents usually come in pairs, one voiceless, one voiced, e.g., [p/b, t/d].*Sonorants* have much less obstruction and are all voiced and, therefore, more sonorous. They include nasals, the lateral, and approximants.

Topic- 093: Vowels

A vowel is a type of sound for which there is no closure of the throat or mouth at any point where vocalization occurs. For close vowels, the tongue is quite high in the mouth, for mid vowels, the tongue is neither high nor low in the mouth, whereas for open vowels, the tongue is low in the mouth.

To describe vowel sounds, we consider the way in which the tongue influences the shape of oral cavity through which the airflow must pass. Thus, in the pronunciation of 'heat' and 'hit', we talk about "high and front" vowels because the sound is made with the front part of the tongue in a raised position. In contrast, the vowel sound in 'hat' is produced with the tongue in a lower position and the sound in 'hot' can be described as a "low back" vowel.

Short and Long Vowels

English has a large number of vowel sounds which may have quite different lengths in different contexts. Short vowels are only relatively short. There are five long vowels; these are the vowels which tend to be longer than the short vowels in similar contexts. It is necessary to say "in similar contexts" because the length of all English vowels sounds varies according to their context and the presence or absence of stress. The symbols consist of one vowel symbol plus a length mark made of two dots ":".

Diphthongs are the sounds which consist of a movement or glide from one vowel to another. In terms of length, diphthongs are similar to the long vowels described above. The total number of diphthongs is eight.

Lesson -18

TEACHING THE WORDS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Topic- 094: Introduction to Morphology

Its etymology is Greek: morph - means 'shape or form'. The term literally means "the study of forms". It was originally used in biology, but since the middle of the nineteenth century, it has also been used to describe the type of investigation that analyzes all those basic "elements" used in a language.

A study of investigating basic forms in a language is generally known as **morphology**. Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words, word formation, including the ways new words are coined in the languages of the world. It also include forms of words that vary depending on their useage in sentences. Words have internal structure in two very different senses. On one hand, they are made up of sequences of sounds, i.e. they have internal phonological structure, e.g., English word 'nuts' consists of four sounds. While on the other hand, variation in the shapes of words correlate systematically with semantic changes. For instance, the words nuts, necks, backs share not only a phonological segment (final 's') but also a semantic component: they all refer to the multiplicity of entities from the same class.

Words, like sentences and clauses, have a predictable internal structure. The plural marker on nouns, for instance, occurs at the end of a word (e.g., law + s); while derivational affixes can occur at either the beginning or the end of a word (e.g., un + law + ful). Morphology includes not only inflection but also derivation, e.g., 'singing', 'singer'. It handles both inflection and derivation by means of rules operating upon the same basic units – morphemes.

Native speakers have intuitive knowledge of how to form new words in their language. Every day, they recognize and understand new words that they have never heard before.

Morphology is not equally prominent in all (spoken) languages.

What one language expresses morphologically may be expressed by a separate word or left implicit in another language, e.g., English expresses the plural of nouns by means of morphology (nut/nuts) but 'Yoruba' uses a separate word for expressing the same thing. There are languages that make more use of morphology than English, e.g., Sumerian uses morphology to distinguish between 'he went' and 'I went' and between 'he went' and 'he went to him', where English uses separate words.

Topic- 095: Words and Dictionaries

The most basic concept of morphology is the concept of a 'word'. A word is a sequence of one or more morphemes that can stand alone in a language. When a word is used in some text or in speech, that occurrence of word is sometimes referred to as a word token.

A lexeme is a word in an abstract sense. E.g.,'live' is a verb lexeme. It represents the core meaning shared by forms such as live, lives, lived, and living. In most languages, dictionaries are organized according to lexemes, so it is usually reasonable to think of a lexeme as a dictionary word. We need to think about how dictionaries come to be, and how much we credit them with the authority to decide what a word is. What gets into dictionaries has historically been subjected to the individual foibles of lexicographers, not to mention the mores of society.

Neither lexicographers nor the dictionaries they create are infallible. On one hand, dictionaries do not list all the words of any language. They cannot list all derivatives with living prefixes and suffixes, or all technical, scientific, regional, or slang words. On the other hand, they sometimes include words used only once whose meanings are completely unknown - or the items we might hesitate to call words.

Mental Lexicon

For the most part, dictionaries do not fix or codify the words of a language, but rather reflect the words that native speakers use. Those words are encoded in what we will call the mental lexicon, the sum total of word knowledge that native speakers carry around in their heads. This includes information about pronunciation, category, meaning, syntactic properties, level of formality, and the specific conditions under which we might use the word.

The average English-speaking six-year-old knows 10,000 words, and the average high-school graduate knows around 60,000 words. Mental lexicon is not organized alphabetically like a dictionary. Rather, it is a complex web composed of stored items that may be related to each other. These stored items may also have rules that allow us to combine them in different ways.

Dictionary Entries

Core and other words (Murray et al., 1888).

Common Words occur in all registers of English, e.g., mother, dog, and walk.

Literary Words recognized when we read, but would not necessarily be used in daily conversation, e.g., omnipotent, etc.

Colloquial Words are used frequently in spoken language, but far less frequently in written or formal language, for example, grubby, etc. Nobody would dispute the place of core words in the dictionary.

Deciding which of these uncommon words merit inclusion in the dictionary is a judgment call, the size of the dictionary, its intended audience, etc. It is difficult to pin down all words in a pervasive language similar to English.

Topic- 096: Morphemes

Most native speakers of English will recognize that words like unwipe, headcover or schooling are made up of several meaningful pieces: un / wipe, head / cover, school / ing. These pieces are called morphemes: the minimal meaningful units that are used to form words. The words 'reopened' and 'tourists' consist of three morphemes: open / re - ("again") / -ed (indicating past tense), tour / -ist (marking "person who does something") / -s (indicating plural).

Kinds of Morphemes

Free and Bound Morphemes

A **free morpheme** can stand alone as a word and does not need anything attached to it to make a word. It act as 'roots', e.g., 'cat, open, tour' are free morphemes.

Lexical/Content Morphemes

Morphemes with definitions outside the language. A set of ordinary nouns, adjectives and verbs carry the "content" of the messages we convey, e.g., girl, man, house, tiger, yellow, etc. We can add new lexical morphemes to the language rather easily, so they are treated as an "open" class of words.

Functional Morphemes: Morphemes with purely grammatical purposes. They consists largely of the functional words in the language; conjunctions, prepositions, articles and pronouns. For example, 'and, but, when, because, on, near, above, in, the, that, it, them,' etc. Because we almost never add new functional morphemes to the language, they are described as a "closed" class of words.

Bound Morphemes: cannot stand alone as a word – attached to other forms, e.g., the 's' in 'cats' is a bound morpheme. It does not have any meaning without the free morpheme 'cat'.Examples: un-, -less, -s, -er, -est.

Derivational Morphemes: These are used to make new words of a different grammatical category from the stem. Further, they change the definition of a word/class of a word. Example: the addition of the derivational morpheme '-ness' changes the adjective 'good' to the noun 'goodness'. Care + ful (careful).

Inflectional Morphemes:These are not used to produce new words in a language, but rather to indicate aspects of the grammatical function (e.g., tense, number). English has only eight inflectional morphemes: Noun + -'s, -s; Verb + -s, -ing, -ed, -en; Adjective + -er, -est.

Allomorphs: different phonetic variations of a morpheme; e.g., the final morphemes in the following words are pronounced differently, but they all indicate plurality: dogs, cats, and horses.

Topic- 097: Word Formation I

There is a lot of regularity in the word-formation processes in a language.

Etymology

It is the study of the origin and history of a word. The word 'etymology' has its origins in Greek (´etymon "original form" + logia "study of"). Etymologies of words reveal that there are many different ways in which new words can enter the language. It is the constant evolution of new words and new uses of old words as a reassuring sign of vitality and creativeness in the way a language is shaped by the needs of its users.

Coinage

It is one of the least common processes of word formation in English. It is the invention of entirely new terms deliberately or accidentally. The most typical sources are invented trade names for commercial products that become general terms, e.g., : aspirin, nylon, Vaseline, granola, kleenex, Teflon etc.

The obscure technical origins e.g., 'Google' is originally a mis-spelling for the word googol, later became the name of a company (Google). The term Google (without a capital letter) has become a widely used expression meaning "to use the internet to find information".New words based on the name of a person or a place are called *eponyms*.

Examples: hoover, Spangler, jeans, Fahrenheit, Volt, and Watt, etc.

Borrowing

Borrowing is the taking over of words from other languages. It is one of the most common sources of new words. Throughout its history, English has adopted a vast number of words from other languages: croissant (French), dope (Dutch), piano (Italian), pretzel (German), sofa (Arabic), tycoon (Japanese), yogurt (Turkish). Other languages also borrow terms from English, as in the Japanese use of 'suupaamaaketto' ("supermarket").

A special type of borrowing is described as 'loan-translation' or 'calque', which is a direct translation of the elements of a word into the borrowing language. For example, 'aero plane' '(hawai jahaz in Urdu)

Compounding

It is a joining of two separate words to produce a single form. It is very common in languages such as German and English, but much less common in languages such as French and Spanish.

Examples: bookcase, doorknob, fingerprint, sunburn, textbook, wallpaper, wastebasket and waterbed. Compounds of adjectives: (fast) adjective plus noun (food) as in a fast-food restaurant or a full-time job.

Compound adjectives: good-looking, low-paid. Such examples are found in all languages.

Topic- 098: Word Formation II

Blending

The combination of two separate forms to produce a single new term is also present in the process of blending. However, blending is typically accomplished by taking only the beginning of one word and joining it to the end of the other word.

Example: Smoke + fog: Smog; smaze: smoke + haze; smurk: smoke + murk.
Bit: binary + digit; brunch: breakfast + lunch. Motel: motor + hotel.
Common on Media: e.g., telecast, telethon, infotainment.
Mixing of languages: e.g., Spanglish-Spanish/English
In a few blends, we combine the beginnings of both words; modem (modulator/demodulator).

Clipping

The element of reduction is even more apparent in the process of clipping.This occurs when a word of more than one syllable (facsimile) is reduced to a shorter form (fax), usually beginning in casual speech. Example: Gasoline – gas; ad – advertisement; fan – fanatic; flu – influenza. Clipping in educational environments: chem, exam, gym, lab, math, prof and typo.

Hypocorisms

A longer word is reduced to a single syllable, then -y or -ie is added to the end. Examples: Movie ("moving pictures"), telly ("television"), Aussie ("Australian").

Backformation

A word of one type (usually a noun) is reduced to form a word of another type (usually a verb).Example: Televise from television, donate from donation, emote from emotion. A regular source of back-formed verbs in English is based on the common pattern of worker – work.

Conversion

A change in the function of a word, for example, when a noun comes to be used as a verb without any reduction. Examples: A number of nouns such as bottle, butter, chair and vacation have come to be used as verbs. 'Someone has to chair the meeting', 'They are vacationing in Muree.'

Acronyms

New words formed from the initial letters of a set of other words. Example: CD (compact disk) or VCR (video cassette recorder) - pronunciation consists of saying each separate letter. Acronyms with single word pronunciation - NATO, NASA or UNESCO.

Derivation

The most common word formation process to be found in the production of new English words can be accomplished with the help of affixes, e.g., pre-fixes: (e.g.,un-, mis-), suffixes: (e.g., -less, -ish).

Lesson-19

TEACHING THE SENTENCE PATTERNS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE

Topic- 099: Introduction to Syntax

The field of linguistics that studies the pattern of words, phrases, and clauses within a sentence is called syntax. Every language has a particular structure of words, phrases and clauses in sentences. Syntax is the arrangement of words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language. An important feature of language, more central to syntax, is that it makes infinite use of finite set of rules or principles.

If a sentence is an arrangement of words and we have five words such as man, ball, a, the, and kicked, how many possible combinations can we have from these five words? There can be 120 different combinations from these five words.

However, only six form grammatical English.

- The man kicked a ball.
- A man kicked the ball.
- The ball kicked a man.
- A ball kicked the man.
- The ball, a man kicked.
- The man, a ball kicked.

Other 114 combinations are unacceptable to native speakers of English. Notation * is used to indicate that an example is ungrammatical.

*Kicked the man the ball.

*Man the ball kicked the.

*The man a ball kicked.

The job of syntax is to discover and formulate these rules or principles. These rules tell us how words are put together to form grammatical phrases and sentences. Syntax is one of the major components of grammar other than morphology and semantics. The study of syntax helps us: to illustrate the patterns of a language more effectively and clearly.

Topic- 100: Constituents and Constituency Tests

In analyzing sentences, it is helpful to recognize that sentences consist not of words strung together like beads on a string, but of organized constituents (Finegan, 2008, p.141).

Constituent: 'a syntactic unit that functions as part of a larger unit within a sentence'. A constituent can be a word, phrase, clause or a sentence, but it will function as a complete unit (Meyer, 2009). Constituency is at the center of any discussion of syntax. Syntactic units are not simply arbitrarily grouped and ordered, but form identifiable units. Syntacticians have identified four different levels of structure at which constituents occur:

sentences → clauses → phrases → words

The largest constituent is the sentence; the smallest is the word. Sometimes sentences and clauses are identical: a declarative sentence, for instance, may consist of one main clause.

Types of Constituents

There are two types: Immediate constituents and ultimate constituents. Exactly which elements constitute immediate constituents depends upon what level of structure is there (sentence, clause, and phrase). At the highest level, the sentence itself is a constituent. But within it, one can find several immediate constituents: separate units into which a given structure can be divided. (e.g., subject and predicate).

Constituency Test

It help in identifying the constituent structure of sentences (Roberts, 1997). Many constituents are phrases. A phrase is a sequence of one or more words built around a head lexical item and working as a unit within a sentence. There are numerous constituency tests applied to English language sentences.

Substitution (Replacement) Test

Whether one word can be substituted for another (e.g., a pronoun for a noun) and if such a change yields a grammatical sentence where the general structure has not been altered, then the test sequence is a constituent (Redford, 2004): e.g., I don't know the man who is sleeping in the car.

I don't know him.

Omission (Deletion) Test

Whether a sequence of words can be omitted without influencing the grammaticality? Constructions can be moved when systematic changes are made to a sentence. This usually involves using a definite pro-form (it, he, there, here, etc.) in place of a phrase or a clause. In most cases, adverbials (that give additional information) can be safely omitted and thus qualify as constituents (Roberts, 1997). For example, Fred relaxes at night on his couch.

- Fred relaxes on his couch.
- Fred relaxes at night.

Prepositional phrases 'at night' and 'on his couch' are constituents.

Movement (Fronting) Test

Two or more words form a syntactic constituent if they can be moved together as one single unit to another position in the same sentence.

Example: The man sat on the chair.

On the chair, the man sat.

The sentence has been moved without making the sequence ungrammatical.

Other Constituency tests: Answer ellipsis (question) test, Clefting Test, etc.

Topic- 101: Form and Function

Thsee are different words in any language, which are called parts of speech. There are eight parts of speech in English language (Eastwood, 2008). They are Noun, Pronoun, Determiner, Verb, Adjective, Adverb, Conjunction, and Preposition. 'Form' and 'function' are two extremely important concepts - how

grammar works (Aarts, 2015). **'Form'** refers to the category labels we use for the building blocks of grammar, i.e. word classes, phrases, and clauses. Consider the following sentence:

My daughter bought a completely useless smartphone over the summer.

Looking deeper into the phrase 'a completely useless smartphone' and 'over the summer' we can also say that: Completely useless is an adjective phrase within the larger noun phrase a completely useless smartphone. With the preposition phrase over the summer, we have an embedded noun phrase, namely the summer

Common Forms of Phrases and their Symbols are:

• Noun phrase (NP)
• Verb phrase (VP)
• Adjective phrase (AP)
• Adverb phrase (AdvP)
• prepositional phrase (PP)

Other common symbols: Sentence (S), Proper noun (PN), Noun (N), Adverb (Adv), Verb (V), Adjective (Adj), Preposition (Prep), article (Art), Pronoun (Pro).

Similarly, these phrases are also called by their grammatical **functions**. Familiar grammatical function labels are subject, verb, object and complement (which include subject complement and object complement, and adverbial.

Here is an example of forms and functions: In sentence "We had a picnic in the park.", 'We' is a NP functioning as Subject, 'had' is a VP functioning as Verb, 'a picnic' is an NP functioning as an Object and 'in the park' is a PP functioning as an Adverbial phrase.

Topic- 102: Head, Compliment, and Modifier

Words make phrases, phrases make clauses, clauses make sentences, and sentences make speech.

Head is a central part of any phrase. Generally, it is a lexical word and defines the category of the phrase.

A phrase can be a single word or group of words. The words other than head are called modifiers.

A Modifier is a word, especially an adjective or noun used attributively, that restricts or adds to the sense of a head noun (e.g., *good* and *family* in a 'good family house') - make its meaning more specific. The modifiers before head are called pre-modifiers while after head are called post-modifiers.In the noun phrase 'a boy with black hat', 'boy' is a head word and article 'a' is a pre-modifier and 'with black hat' is a post-modifier. Similarly, 'very cheap' is an adjective phrase in which 'cheap' is a head word whereas 'very' is a modifier.

Compliments: Other phrases in a sentence that are not optional like modifiers; they are necessary to complete the sense. Example: *'He is a tall boy'.* In this sentence, "a tall boy" is a noun phrase functioning as a compliment. Without this phrase, the meaning of the sentence is not complete.

The difference between modifiers and compliments is that modifiers are optional and compliments are obligatory. This difference can be shown through a tree diagram.

He ate some food in the room.

As represented in the tree structures, complements are sisters of the lexical head V, whereas modifiers are sisters of a phrasal head VP**.** Most common compliments include: direct object, indirect object, subjective complement, and objective compliment.

Topic- 103: Phrase Structures and Their Uses

Phrases are projected from lexical categories, and hence we have phrases such as NP, VP, PP, etc.

Description of Phrases

NP (Noun Phrase)

Structure

A noun phrase is a word/group of words in which the head word is a noun.

E.g., 'A beautiful house', 'a man in black suit', 'the largest tower', etc.

A Noun Phrase
It can be a noun (proper noun, plural noun) or a pronoun: e.g., People like to have money. It is getting late.
Or a determiner and a noun - 'Our friends have bought a house in the village.'
Or with an adjective and a determiner – 'Our closest friends have just bought a new house in the village.'
Or with a post-modifier –'Both of my younger brothers are married.'
A noun phrase can occur in this way:
Determiner + Adjective + Noun + Adjective / Prepositional Phrase.

Uses of NP
A noun phrase is used as a subject, object, compliment or adverbial in a sentence.

VP (Verb Phrase)

In which the head word is a verb. e.g.,'Has been eating, eats, ate, is eating' etc.

Structure: It consists of a main verb alone, or a main verb plus any modal and/or auxiliary.

The main verb always comes last in VP
We all laughed (main verb).
Computers can (modal) be very annoying (main verb).
Use
A verb phrase is used as a verb in the sentence and is the most important element in predicate.

PP (Preposition Phrase)

A preposition preceded by a noun phrase makes a prepositional phrase. E.g., In the room, at the party, for me, etc.

Structure
Both preposition and a noun phrase are compulsory. For a preposition, it is necessary to take a noun phrase; otherwise it cannot stand alone.
Use
A PP can be used as a complement, or modifier in a phrase/a sentence.
He is in the class (complement).

He with his friends is playing (modifier).

AP (Adjective Phrase)

In which the head word is an adjective. e.g., *Very sensitive, too big, strong enough* .

Structure

An AP can consist of a single adjective or with a modifier.

1. He is very tall.
2. He is hardworking.

Use

AP is used as a modifier in a noun phrase or as a complement in a sentence.

Ex.: She is very intelligent. (complement) He is a smart boy(modifier).

AdvP (Adverb Phrase)

In which the head word is an adverb. e.g., *Very immediately, here*, etc.

Structure

It can consist of a single adverb or with a modifier.

Use

As a modifier in an adjective phrase or as an adverbial in a sentence.
We were very tired after our climb. (modifier) She'll be here soon. (adverbial)

<div align="right">**Lesson-20**</div>

STUDYING AND TEACHING THE MEANINGS OF LANGUAGE

Topic- 104: Introduction to Semantics

Many linguists define Semantics as :

Semantics is the study of meaning. (Lyons, 1977).

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. (Hurford & Heasley, 1983).

Semantics is the study of meaning communicated through language. (Saeed, 1997).

The part of linguistics that is concerned with meaning. (Löbner, 2002).

Linguistic semantics is the study of literal, de-contextualized, grammatical meaning (Frawley, 1992).

Linguistic semantics is the study of how languages organize and express meanings (Kreidler, 1998).

Language uses a system of linguistic signs, each of which is a combination of meaning and phonological and/or orthographic forms. According to Yule, Semantics is the study of the meaning of words, phrases and sentences. **In semantic analysis**, there is always an attempt to focus on what the words conventionally mean, rather than on what an individual speaker might want hearer to mean on a particular occasion.

Etymology: From the Greek, 'sign'. The term semantics was coined by French linguist Michel Bréal (1832-1915), who is commonly regarded as the founder of modern semantics. It focuses on the relation between signifiers, e.g., words, phrases, signs, and symbols, and what they stand for, their denotation.

Semantics: It also tries to understand what meaning is as an element of language and how it is constructed by language as well as interpreted, obscured, and negotiated by speakers and listeners of language. Semantics is closely linked with another sub discipline of linguistics **'Pragmatics.'** However, unlike **pragmatics**, semantics is a highly theoretical research perspective, and looks at meaning in language in isolation, whereas pragmatics is a more practical subject and is interested in meaning in language in use. It often uses native speaker intuitions about the meaning of words.

Semantics and Semiotics

Semantics: The study of meaning within a linguistic system e.g., words and sentences.

Semiotics: The study of signs and symbols, not necessarily linguistic.

Types of Signs

Signs are of three types:

Iconic sign physically resembles what it stands for (e.g., a picture).

An **indexical sign** is related with some sensory feature (something directly visible, audible, etc.) e.g., smoke signifies fire.

Symbolic signs have no relation with what they refer to.

The relation between signifier and signified is purely conventional and culturally specific, e.g., most words.

Kinds of Semantics

Lexical Semantics deals with the meaning of individual words. (e.g., man: two - legged mammal, relatively hairless, questionably smart).

Structural Semantics deals with the meaning of words in relation to each other. e.g., 'Dog bites man'. (Dog = agent, man = patient)

These definitions, however, leave us with another question:

1. What do we understand by "meaning"?
2. What is that "meaning" that is organized and expressed by languages?

Topic- 105: What is Meaning?

What does 'meaning' mean? To what extent is it a linguistic matter?

The meaning of words cannot be derived only from their physical properties; it cannot be reducd only to the real-world objects or their perception, cannot be reduced only to the particular image or concept your mind. The meaning of words is to be derived from the relations between words, concepts and things in the real world. Words and linguistic signs have a representational or symbolic function (i.e., they are about something that goes beyond their physical shape).One possible definition of 'meaning': To understand a sentence is to be able to relate it to the outside world.

Meaning = Extension and Intention

Extension: The thing in the world that the word/phrase refers to.

Intention: The concepts/mental images that the word/phrase evokes (Wood, 2011).

The symbolic function of linguistic signs crucially rely on the intentions of language users to use linguistic signs in order to communicate certain meanings to other language users. In addition, linguistic meaning is more than a matter of intentions on the part of individual language users. It is also a matter of convention**.**

The representational/symbolic function of a language: sign X is constituted by the 'stand for' relation, where one thing X represents another Y (its status function or meaning) by convention that is publicly acknowledged. This is essential that the connection between a linguistic sign and what it stands for is arbitrary.

Theories of Meaning

•   **Referential Theory of Meaning**

Meaning is reference to facts or objects in the world.

•   **Ideational Theory of Meaning**

The ideational theory takes speaker's meaning as fundamental. It assumes that meaning is attached to, but separable from words, because it originates somewhere else, namely in the mind, in the form of ideas.

•   **Mentalistic, Cognitive and Conceptual Theories of Meaning**

They deal with speakers' psychological grasp of the meaning, of expressions of their language; rather than with the relation between the expression and the possible worlds.

Prototype Theory of Meaning

A mode of graded categorization in cognitive science. Where some members of a category are more central than others.

Example: When asked to give an example of the concept furniture, chair is more frequently cited than stool.

Topic- 106: Semantic Features

Semantic Features: One way in which the study of basic conceptual meaning might be helpful, would be as a means of accounting for the "oddness" we experience when we read sentence such as: 'The burger ate the boy'.This sentence is syntactically good, but semantically odd. Since the sentence "The boy ate the burger" is perfectly acceptable. We can use the idea to describe part of the meaning of words as either having (+) or not having (−) that particular feature.

Features such as "+animate, −animate," "+human, −human," "+female, −female" can be treated as the basic elements involved in differentiating the meaning of each word in a language from every other word.

Assumptions in Semantics

Theories of Semantics revolve around some basic ideas called assumptions.

1. Reference and Sense

Reference: Palmer says "reference deals with the relationship between the linguistic elements, words, sentences, etc., and the non-linguistic world of experience" (Palmer, 1981). John I. Saeed claims that "The relationship by which language looks onto the world is usually called reference. Example: "I am an M.A ELT student." "I" refers to X. X is a person who lives in a real word.

Sense: "The semantic links between elements within the vocabulary system is an aspect of their sense, or meaning" (Saeed, 2009). "Sense" exists in word. This is a word to word relation. Example: Dog: domesticated canine mammal, occurring in many breeds showing great size, color, and form.

Meaning of linguistic expressions derives from **TWO** sources:

•   Language they are part of.

•   The world they describe.

2. Utterances, Sentences and Propositions

Utterance is created by speaking (or writing). Sentence plus sound is equal to utterance. It is considered to be the most concrete level of language. e.g., "I am reading the novel Great Expectations." **Sentence** is some higher level of language. **Proposition** is a purely abstract level (Saeed, 2003) - more abstract than sentences; a way of capturing part of the meaning of sentences. Logicians discovered that certain elements of grammatical information in sentences were irrelevant e.g., active and passive. Only lexical words are considered propositions. E.g., Alice invaded wonderland --- Wonderland was invaded by Alice. Both are equivalent for whenever A is true, B is also true.

3. Literal and Non-literal Meanings

Literal meanings are dictionary meanings. Non-literal uses are traditionally called figurative. They are described by rhetorical terms including metaphor, irony, metonymy etc. (Saeed, 2003, pp.17).

4. Semantics and Pragmatics

Semantics: transmission of meaning through language – sentence/word meaning.

Pragmatics: transmission of meaning through language in use - speaker's meaning.

<u>**Topic 107: Semantic Roles**</u>

Semantic/Thematic roles were introduced in generative grammar during the mid 1960ss and early 1970s and are also called participant roles, theta roles, semantic cases and deep cases. In **thematic roles**, entities are described by the action of the verb**.** The roles that referents of the arguments of a verb play in an event or as the state that the verb denotes. Arguments are the constituents that are required for a sentence to be grammatical (subject, object, etc.)

Following are the widely accepted semantic/thematic roles (Saeed, 2010):

Agent

The initiator of some action – capable of acting with volition.

 E.g., Rashid cooked the meat.

The fox jumped out of the bridge.

Patient

The entity/person undergoing the effect of some action; usually undergoing some change in state. **E.g., John cut some wood. The sun melted the ice.**

Theme

The entity (person or thing) which is moved by an action or whose location is described by verb. **E.g., the book is in the library, Ali passed the ball.**

Experiencer

The entity which is aware of the action or state described by the predicate but which is not in control of action or state. **E.g., Kamran heard the door shut. Naeem saw the smoke.**

Beneficiary

The entity for whose benefit the action was performed. **E.g., the clerk filled the form for his grandmother. The manager signed a cheque for the visitor.**

Instrument

The means by which an action is performed or something comes about. **E.g., I write a letter with the pen. Ali opened the lock with the key.**

Location

The place in which something is situated or takes place. **E.g., the baby was hiding behind the curtain. We offered prayers in the Mosque.**

Goal

The entity towards which something is moved, either literally or metaphorically. **E.g., The driver handed his license to the police man. He told the joke to his friends.**

Source

The entity from which something moves, either literally or metaphorically. **E.g., He returned from Russia. We got the idea from a TV programme.**

Stimulus

The entity causing an effect (usually psychological) during an experience. **E.g., The noise of the horn frightened the passengers. The last performer entertained the guests.**

Recipient

A role of recipient is sometimes identified as a type of goal involved in actions describing changes of possession. **E.g., He sold me this house. He left his fortune to the church.**

Topic- 108: Lexical Relations

Not only can words be treated as "containers" of meaning, or as fulfilling "roles" in events, they can also have "relationships" with each other. In everyday talk, we often explain the meanings of words in terms of their relationships. E.g., 'what is the meaning of the word conceal?' 'It's the same as hide'. We also give the meaning of "shallow' as "the opposite of deep", or the meaning of 'daffodil' as "a kind of flower". A particular word may be simultaneously in a number of these relations - more accurate to think of the lexicon as a network.

Synonymy

Words with very closely related/similar meanings are called synonyms. They can often, though not always, be substituted for each other. In the appropriate circumstances, we can say, what was his answer? Or what was his reply? With much the same meaning. Other common examples: almost/nearly, big/large, broad/wide, buy/purchase, cab/taxi, car/automobile, couch/sofa, freedom / liberty.

Antonym

Between the words which are opposite in meaning. Simple Antonyms: (non-gradable) such a relation between words such that the negative of one implies the positive of the other. The pair is also sometimes called complementary pairs or binary pairs. E.g., dead/alive, pass/fail, hit/miss, male/female.

Gradable Antonyms

Such a relationship between opposites where the positive of one term does not necessarily imply the negative of the other, for example rich/poor, fast/slow, young/old, beautiful/ugly, old/new. Can be used in comparative constructions; I'm bigger than you.

Hyponymy

A relation of inclusion; a hyponym includes the meaning of a more general word, e.g., dog and cat are hyponyms of animal. The more general term is called superordinate. If an object is a rose, then it is necessarily a flower – rose includes the meaning of flower.

Metonymy

One word or phrase is substituted for another with which it is closely associated. E.g., 'crown' for 'royalty.'

Meronymy

Describes a part-whole relationship between lexical items.Cars have parts: engine, headlight, wheel. Engines have parts: crankcase, carburetor.

Collocation

A collocation is made up of two or more words that are commonly used together in English. E.g., 'close a deal', 'open an account.'

Homonymy

Homonyms are unrelated senses of the same phonological words. *E.g., lap 'circuit of a course' and lap 'part of the body.''*

Polysemy

When the senses are judged to be related under same lexical entry. E.g., hook n. 1. A piece of material used to suspend, catch, hold, or pull something. 2. Short for fish-hook. 3. A trap or snare. Polysemous senses are related and listed under the same lexical entry and Homonyms are unrelated senses under separate entries.

Topic- 109: Modality and Evidentiality

Modality

A cover term for devices which allow speakers to express varying degrees of commitment to, or belief in, a proposition (Saeed, 2003: 135). It modifies the meaning of the event or action we talk about, to include ways to "influence" the event described. Modality may express what the speaker wants to do (give permission, describe ability, suggest, request, offer, prohibit, express desires or necessity, etc.).

Types of Modality

1. Deontic Modality

Verbs mark the speaker's attitude to social factors of obligation, responsibility and permission.They express ways to influence the action or event we talk about.

2. Epistemic Modality

It conveys a speaker's degree of knowledge about something. How sure or unsure the speaker is? Example: Consider this sentence: *You can drive this car.* A speaker can use this to mean either of these meanings: It is possible for you to drive this car. (Epistemic modality) and You have my permission to drive this car (Deontic modality).

The Expression of Modality

They are expressed by means of modal verbs.

You must speak up. Maya can speak Spanish very well.

Examples of non-modal verbs with the same function as modal verbs are: Sarah had to leave early. Maya will be able to speak Spanish soon. Adverbs, nouns, adjectives that indicate modality are especially certainty, possibility, or probability. E.g., Perhaps it will rain. Maya is probably at home now.

Evidentiality

It allows a speaker to communicate her attitude to the source of her/his information and to check whether the evidence exists for the statement and/or what kind of evidence exists (McLendon, 2003).

Types of Evidentiality

1. Witness Evidentiality

I saw him breaking the window.

2. Sensory Evidentiality

It smells like they are having a barbecue here.

3. Inferential Evidentiality

You must be very tired after a long journey.

4. Reportative Evidentiality

The jeweler was the criminal, allegedly.

5. Assumed Evidentiality

I think that he will go to seaside on this beautiful day.

Lesson-21

UNDERSTANDING AND TEACHING THE LANGUAGE IN USE

Topic- 110: What is Pragmatics?

The study of what speakers mean or "speaker's meaning" is called pragmatics. "It is the study of "invisible" meaning or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn't actually said or written" (Yule, 2010). This includes background knowledge of context i.e. people know about each other and the world. People have a shared understanding of how they should co-operate in their communication (Cooperative Principle).

Pragmatics may vary from culture to culture. The relationship between the linguistic form and communicative function is of central interest in Pragmatics. It looks at the ways in which people perform speech acts (e.g., apologizing, requesting, etc.) and choose to perform a speech act in a particular way (e.g., reasons and manners of politeness in different cultures).

Context and Pragmatics

It is important to analyze what is said and what is understood. This may include:

Physical Context

- The social context, the mental worlds and the roles of people are involved in the interaction.
- The social, political and cultural understandings that is relevant to interaction.
- The background knowledge of context is cultural and interpersonal knowledge.

Linguistic Context (Co-text)

Co-textual context: what people 'know about what they have been saying' (Cutting, 2002, p.3). The co-text of a word is the set of other words used in the same phrase or sentence.

Topic- 111: Deixis and Reference

Deixis (Greek) means 'pointing' via language. The deictic expressions always take their meaning from some aspects of the context in which they are uttered. It is also known as the 'Indexicality of language' or 'Indexicals' as they operate as indexes of specific meaning in a context, for example: here, there, this, that, now, then, pronouns (you, me, she, him), etc. Some modifiers with deictic reference are used alongside referring expressions in order to help interlocutors to identify the particular referents of an expression, such as demonstrative pronouns, as in 'this dog', 'that woman', 'these tables', 'those helicopters'. Some verbs are deictic too, e.g., 'come' and 'go', as they give evidence of location.

Major Kinds of Deixis

Person Deixis: They usually operate in three-part division of pronouns; those of first person (I, we), second person (you), and third person (he, she, they).

Examples of personal deixis are him, them, those, Khan, Qureshi, etc.

Spatial Deixis: Spatial deixis are used to indicate the relative location of people and things. They are also known as 'place deixis'.

Examples are here, there, near that, etc.

Temporal Deixis: It is also known as 'time deixis.' Temporal deixis and the choice of verbs are present tense (proximal form) and past tense (distal form). Psychological basis of temporal deixisis 'the coming week' is now (present) Versus then (past and future), last week, next week, today, tonight, and yesterday, etc.

Reference: An act by which a speaker (or writer) uses language to enable a listener (or reader) to identify something. The words don't refer to anything, people do by using proper nouns, other nouns or pronouns. There is a range of references for each word or phrase. The pronouns (e.g. it, they, he, she, them, etc.), demonstratives (this, that, these, those), the article the, etc. are used for identification.

Major Forms of Reference

Endophoric Reference (Endophora) - where the interpretive source lies in the co-text.

An Endophoric reference can be divided into two sub-types:

- **Anaphoric Reference (Anaphora):** where the referent lies in the prior text, e.g. respect a man, he will do the more.
- **Cataphoric Reference (Cataphora):** where the referent lies in the text to come, e.g. When I met her, Mary looked ill.

Exophoric Reference (Exophora): where the interpretive source lies in the context, e.g. (Mary is standing there) I like her.

Topic- 112: Presupposition and Entailment

Presupposition: A presupposition is something the speaker assumes to be the case prior to making an utterance. Speakers, not sentences, have presupposition. It is treated as a relationship between two propositions. E.g.,
- Mary's dog is cute.   (=p)
- Marry has a dog.   (=q)
    p >> q

Types of Presupposition

1. **Existential Presupposition** - It is the assumption of the existence of entities named/committed by the speaker. Present in possessive constructions (your car – you have a car) and more generally in any definite noun phrase (the prince of Haiderabad, the cat, etc.).

    Tom's car is new.

2. **Factive Presupposition** - The assumption that something is true due to the presence of some verbs such as 'know', 'realize', 'regret', 'odd', and 'glad'.

    Example

    1. I'm glad it's over. (It is over now.)
    2. We regret inviting him. (We invited him.)
    3. She did not realize he was ill. (He was ill.)

3. **Lexical Presupposition -** Use of one form with its asserted meaning is conventionally interpreted with the presupposition that another (non-asserted) meaning is also understood (Yule).
    - He managed to do something. ('Succeeded' + 'tried')

- Andrew stopped running. (>> He used to run.)

4. **Structural Presupposition** – The certain sentence structures have been analyzed as conventional and regular, presupposing that part of the structure is already assumed to be true.

   Example: wh - question in English.

   - When did she travel to the USA? (>> she travelled.)
   - Where did you buy the house? (>> you bought the house).

5. **Non-Factive Presupposition** – The assumption that something is not true, like verbs "dream" "imagine" and "pretend" follows what is not true.

   Example

   - I dreamed that I was rich. (>> I am not rich.)
   - He pretends to be rich (>> He is not rich.).

6. **Counterfactual Presupposition** - What is presupposed is not only untrue but is the opposite of

   what is true, or contrary to facts.

   E.g., If you were my daughter, I would not allow you to do this. (>> you are not my daughter)

7. **Entailment:** An entailment is something that logically follows from what is asserted in the utterance. Sentences, not speakers, have entailments. The relationship between two sentences where the truth of one (A) requires the truth of the other (B).

   Example: (A) The president was assassinated entails (B) the president is dead.

Topic- 113: Cooperative Principle and Implicature

The speakers and listeners involved in conversation generally cooperate with each other. In other words, in cooperative principle, "the listener presumes that the speaker is being cooperative and is speaking truthfully, informatively, relevantly, exactly, and appropriately". Grice's central claim was that an overarching principle of human interaction was an impulse towards cooperative behavior. "The cooperative principle" is an umbrella term for the principles or general norms that sound like a rule of etiquette or a guide to our conversation and good social behavior.

Maxims of Conversation

There are four categories:

1. Quantity (give as much information as is required, and no more than is required).
2. Quality (do not say what is false or that for which you lack adequate evidence).
3. Relation (be relevant).
4. Manner (be clear, be orderly, be brief, and avoid ambiguity).

Implicature: What a speaker implies, suggests or means is distinct from what the speaker literally says. (Grice1975) "It is any meaning which is conveyed indirectly or through hints, and understood implicitly" (Grundy, 2000: 73). It covers the family of verbs such as 'imply', 'suggest', 'mean' - meaning of an utterance as understood in a given context.

Example: **A: My ex-husband has just told me he can't look after our daughter tomorrow after all.**

B: He's such a considerate man!

Literal meaning of B's words can't tell us everything. It is perhaps most likely that she is speaking sarcastically.

1. Conventional Implicature

It is associated with specific words and result in additional conveyed meanings when those words are used. E.g., but, even, yet, and.

2. Conversational Implicature

These are the assumptions suggested by the speaker and inferred by the hearer in an exchange situation. They aren't encoded in the said words, but are generated by the interlocutors' cooperation to achieve rational communication.

Particularized Conversational Implicature: Inferences which are worked out while drawing totally on the specific context of the utterance.

E.g., A: are you coming to the party tonight. B: some guests visiting.

Generalized Conversational Implicature: "No special background knowledge of the context of utterance is required" (Yule, 1996:40).

Example: A: Did you buy bread and cheese.
    B: I bought bread.

Scalar Implicature: It is by choosing a word which expresses one value from a scale; e.g., all, most, many, few/always, often, sometimes.

Topic- 114: Politeness Theory

Politeness generally refers to the ideas like, being tactful, modest and nice to other people. In pragmatics, politeness can be defined as 'showing awareness and consideration of another person's face' (Yule, 2010). Politeness in language is centered on the notion of face.

Face: It is defined as "the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself", and the efforts made by interlocutors to "maintain each other's face". Under politeness theory, there is a positive and a negative face.

Positive face reflects the desire to have one's self-image approved of by others.

Negative face is a part of personality that desires not to be imposed upon.

Politeness strategies will differ depending on whether a person is dealing with another's positive or negative face.

Face-Threatening act - If you say something that represents a threat to another person's self-image.

Example: If you use a direct speech act to get someone to do something (Give me that paper!), you are behaving as if you have more social power than the other person.

Face-Saving act- Whenever you say something that lessens the possible threat to another's face.

Example: An indirect speech act, in the form associated with a question (Could you pass me that paper?), removes the assumption of social power - this makes your request less threatening.

Negative and Positive Politeness

Negative Politeness - A face saving act which is oriented towards a person's negative face. It tends to show deference, concern for other's time and may also include an apology for the imposition.

Examples: Could you lend me your pen? I am sorry to bother you, but can I ask for a pen or something.

Positive Politeness – A face saving act which is concerned with the person's positive face.

It tends to show solidarity, emphasize that both speakers want the same thing, and they have a common goal : appeal to friendship. It may be preceded by some 'getting to know you' talk.

Example: Hey, buddy, I'd appreciate it if you'd let me use your pen.

Three Maxims of Politeness (Lakoff, 1973)

1. '**Don't impose**' – 'I'm sorry to bother you but….'
2. '**Give options**' – 'Do you think you could possibly come to pick me up?'
3. '**Make your hearer feel good**' – 'You're better at this than me', 'Oh that'd be great'.

Topic- 115: Speech Act Theory

According to Austin (1975), the speech act theory is a foundational part of pragmatics. It attempts to explain the processes of how meanings are constructed within conversations. According to Austin and Searle "Language is used to 'do things' other than just refer to the truth and falseness of particular statements." Speech acts are defined as what actions we perform when we produce utterances.Similar to physical acts, people also perform acts by using language, e.g., to give orders, to make requests, to give warnings or to give advice to do things that go beyond the literal meanings of what we say.

Facets of Speech Acts

According to Austin, there are three part system for describing a speech act.

- **Locutionary Act** -- Literal meanings of the actual words. What speaker says and makes sense; i.e. follows the rules of pronunciation and grammar.
- **Illocutionary Act -** Speaker's intention in uttering the words; the uses to which language is put in a society.
- **Perlocutionary Act -** The effect or 'take up' of an utterance on the thoughts or actions of the other person; what follows an utterance.

Types of Speech Acts

According to Searle (1976), all speech acts fall into five main types.

Representatives – commit the speakers to the truth of the expressed proposition, state what the speaker believes to be the case or not (e.g., asserting, concluding, statements of fact)

The earth is flat; It was a warm sunny day.

Directives – attempt by the speaker to get the addressee to do something , what speaker wants (requesting, questioning)

Example: Gimme a cup of coffee, don't touch that.

Commissives – commit the speaker to some future course of action – what s/he intends (promising, threatening, offering, refusing)

Ex.: I'll be back, we will not do that..

Expressives – express a psychological state or what a speaker feels (thanking, apologizing, welcoming, congratulating).

Ex.: I am really sorry!, Congratulations!,oh, yes, great

Declarations – effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs - rely on extra-linguistic institutions (marrying, declaring war, and firing from employment)

Ex.: I now pronounce you husband and wife, you are out.

<div align="right">**Lesson-22**</div>

LANGUAGE AND SOCIETY

Topic- 116: Introduction to Sociolinguistics

It is a very broad field which describes many different social ways of studying a language, and focuses on how individual speakers use language, e.g., in different towns or regions. It intends to achieve a better understanding of the nature of human language. It studies about how a nation decides what languages will be recognized in courts or in education.

Sociolinguistics - study of the relationship between language and society.

Society - any group of people who are drawn together for a certain purpose or purposes.

Language - what the members of a particular society speak.

Labov resisted the term 'sociolinguistics' for many years since 'it implies that there can be a successful linguistic theory or practice which is not social' (1972: xiii). The field of sociolinguistics has covered a long distance in a short time and achieved a wider acceptability. Linguistics differ from sociolinguistics in taking account only of the structure of language, to the exclusion of social contexts in which it is learned and used. Sociolinguistics is partly empirical and partly theoretical.

Possible Relationships Between Language and Society

There are different theories on relationship between language and society.

- Social structure may either influence or determine linguistic structure and/or behavior (Age-Grading).
- Linguistic structure and/or behavior may either influence or determine social structure (Whorfian hypothesis).
- Language and society may influence each other (Marxist View).
- There is no relationship at all between linguistic structure and social structure (Chomsky).

Topic- 117: Variation in language

Variety: Variety is a neutral term and refers to any kind of language; a dialect, accent, sociolect, style or register. It is useful to avoid prejudging the issue of whether a given entity is 'a language' or 'a dialect'. A variety can be something greater than a single language as well as something less than a dialect. According to Hudson, a variety of language is 'a set of linguistic items with similar social distribution' (1996, p. 22). This definition allows us 'to treat all the languages of some multilingual speaker, or community, as a single variety, since all the linguistic items concerned have a similar social distribution'**.**

Varieties of Language

- **Abstand** is a variety considered as a language, rather than a dialect, by virtue of being different in its linguistic characteristics.
- **Ausbau** is a variety which derives its status as a language, not so much from its linguistic characteristics but from its social, cultural and political characteristics (Norwegian and Swedish).
- **Dialect** is a language variety, spoken by a speech community, that is characterized by systematic features (e.g., phonological, lexical, grammatical) that distinguish it from other varieties of the same lang

Types of Dialect

Idiolect - The speech variety of an individual speaker.

Sociolect - A variety or lect which is thought of as being related to its speaker's social background rather than geographical background. E.g., in India, social system "caste" determines which variety of a language a speaker uses.

Factors that contribute to bring variation in a Language : There are many factors to cause variation like social situation, occupation, age, geography, education, gender, social status/class, and ethnicity.

Topic- 118: Language Choice and Code Switching

Language Choice

Language choice is a careful selection of word, phrase, clause or sentence of another language within the speaker's linguistic repertoire. For bilinguals and multi-linguals, the occurrence of language choice seems natural, automatic and unplanned. Language choice occurs because speakers choose an appropriate register, genre, style, medium, or tone of voice in relation to the interlocutor (who), topic (what), context (where) and medium (how) in every talk. David (2006) argues that language choice is triggered by factors such as: social status, gender, educational attainment, ethnicity, age, occupation, rural and urban origin, speakers, topic, place, media and formality of the situation.

Code Switching

It is a process in which the bilingual speakers shift back and forth between one language or a dialect and another language or dialect within the same conversation (Trudgill, 2003). Myers-Scotton (1993) coined a cover term for "alternations of linguistic varieties within the same conversation".

Code Switching and Code Mixing

There is difference between code switching and code mixing. Some linguistis (Kachru, 1983; Singh, 1985; Sridhar & Sridhar, 1980) reserve the term code switching for inter-sentential switches only, and instead prefer to use code-mixing for intra-sentential switches. Code mixing requires the integration of the rules of the two languages in the discourse. Muysken (2000) avoids using the term code switching as a cover term because they believe that switching suggests alternation only, as in the case of switching between turns or utterances, but not necessarily insertion. Instead, they prefer to use code-mixing as a hyponym to cover both code switching (intra-sentential only) and borrowing.

Borrowing

It is a process by which bilingual/multilingual speakers introduce words from one language into another language, and these words eventually become an integral part of the second language. E.g., 'restaurant' is a French word and now it has become an integral part of English language.

Kinds of Code-switching

1.   Situational Code-Switching

It is a tendency to used different codes in different situations. When code switching is constrained by where speakers happen to be, it can be called 'domain-based' or 'situational code switching'. When it is constrained by who a speaker happens to be talking to, it can be called addressee-based.

2. Metaphorical Code-Witching

Each of the code represents a set of social meanings is called metaphorical code switching.

Reasons for Code-Switching

- To show identity with a group
- Lack of facility/vocabulary
- Lack of register
- To seek attention (advertisements)
- To express emotions and amusement

Topic- 119: Gender and Language Use

Gender is a social construct. Unlike sex, which is based on biological division and is specific in character, gender is more amorphous in nature and is subject to change with reference to context and time. It owes its creation to a number of social institutions, some of these include family, educational institutions, judiciary, religion, etc. In recent times, media has emerged as a powerful constitutive agent of gender related ideas and notions. The problem with this division of male and female starts when one is considered inferior to the other which is regarded as superior.

Language Differences

Lakoff (1975) presented a set of basic assumptions about what marks out the language of women.

Hedges: e.g., "sort of", "kind of"or "it seems like"

Use of (super) polite forms: "Would you mind...", ""...if you don't mind."

Use of "wh-" imperatives: "Why don't you open the door?"

Overuse qualifiers: "I think that..."

Apologize more: "I'm sorry, but I think that..."

Orders Versus Suggestions: Men/boys give orders like "give me that" or "get out of here!", while women express their preferences, as suggestions like "let's do this" or "how about doing that" (Tannen1991:44).

Conflict Versus Compromise

Men choose the conflict while women compromise.

Advice Versus Understanding

Status Versus Support

Dominance Theory

Men are more likely to interrupt than women to show their dominance.

Difference Theory

Many of the differences "arise because boys and girls grow up in what are essentially different cultures, so talk between women and men is cross-cultural communication"(Tannen, 1991, p. 18).

Topic- 120: Language Contact

A contact between different languages, it takes place typically when the languages are spoken in the same or adjoining regions and when there is a high degree of communication between the people speaking them (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics). A term used to apply to the situations where two or more groups of speakers who do not have a native language in common, are in social contact with each other or come into such contact" (Trudgill 2003).

Causes of Language Contact

- Increase of social interaction
- Colonization
- Conquests
- Missionaries
- Spread of Language of Power, Knowledge and Prestige
- Trade and Commerce
- Migrants
- Globalization and Communication

Outcomes of Language Contact

Pidgins and Creoles

Pidgin is a variety of language without native speakers which arises in a language contact situation and operates as a lingua franca. Pidgin language, later on, can have native speakers, but that pidgin is called creole.

Diglossia

Diglossic situation exists in a society when it has two distinct languages which show clear functional separation; that is, one is employed in one set of circumstances and the other is entirely different set. "High" Versus "low" variety of a language.

Topic-121: Bilingualism and Multilingualism

About 7000 languages are spoken in a world of about 200 nation states. Most communities are multilingual for the need of communication. Approximately, half of the people in the world are native speakers of more than one language. In many parts of Asia and Africa, Bilingualism is the norm.

Use of the Terms Bi-lingual and Multi-lingual

Bilingualism- for individuals, even if they are trilingual, quadrilingual, etc.

Trudgill - 'the ability of an individual to speak two or more languages' (1992, p. 13) .

Weinreich - 'the practice of alternately using two languages' 1968, p. 5).

Multilingual - For nations or societies, even if only two languages are involved. Use of three or more languages by an individual or a group of speakers (Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics, 1985). A sociolinguistic situation in which more than one language is involved.

Bilingual Competence- There is no clear definition of what it means to "speak a language".

Native like Proficiency

- Native like control over two languages and equal mastery of two languages. (Bloomfield)
- Ability to communicate.
- At least minimum competence in four basic language skills (Macnamara).

Kinds of Bilingualism

1. **Simultaneous Bilinguals:** Children acquiring two first languages since birth, but one language usually dominates the other.
2. **Additive Bilingualism:** A majority group learns a second language without this being a threat to its first language (e.g., Urdu speakers learning any regional language).
3. **Subtractive Bilingualism:** A speaker is forced to learn a high status language, and in doing so, also absorbs its values. As such, they learn to view their own language as inferior.
4. **Cultural Advantage:** Bilingualism develops a broader cultural understanding, multicultural sensitivity, greater tolerance and social harmony.
5. **Personal Advantage:** Bilingualism stimulates creativity, raises self-esteem, enhances interpersonal and social skills, and develops greater social sensitivity.

TEACHING DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Topic- 122: Teaching Discourse and its Analysis

What is Discourse?

It is defined as 'a stretch of language in use, of any length and in any mode, which achieves meaning and coherence for those involved.'

What is Discourse Analysis (DA)?

'The use and development of theories and methods which elucidate how this meaning and coherence is achieved' (Cook, 2012).First introduced by Zelling Harris in 1952 to examine; the language beyond the level of the sentence and relation between linguistic and non-linguistic behavior. It make us to look at patterns of language across texts as well as the social and cultural contexts in which the text occurs. It ranges from textually-oriented views of discourse to socially-oriented views of discourse. Applied linguists' interest in discourse analysis originated in an awareness of the inability of formal linguistics to account for how participants in communication achieve meaning.

An early narrow conception of AL as a subsidiary discipline which merely applies insights from linguistics to language-related problems is ended. It is a problematic area since the beginning of this field. DA is concerned not only with language, but with all elements and processes which contribute to communication. Approaches to language beyond linguistics - pragmatics, schema theory, conversation analysis, ethnography, semiotics, multimodal analysis, literary theory, rhetoric, genre analysis, and social theory.

Different Aspects of DA

- Discourse as the social construction of reality.
- Discourse and socially situated identities.
- Discourse and Performance: 'a Discourse is a 'dance' (Gee, 2005, p. 19). While we say something, we also do it.
- Discourse and Intertextuality.
- Difference between spoken and written Discourse: Writing is more structurally complex; spoken discourse has its own complexity.
- Grammatical intricacy.

Lexical Density: Written discourse tends to be more lexically dense because of the ratio of content words.

Nominalization: There is a high level of nominalization in written texts ; actions and events are presented as nouns rather than as verbs.

Explicitness: Writing is considered to be more explicit than speech. This view, however, is not absolute.

Contextualization: Writing is more decontextualized than speech. Speech depends on a shared situation and background.

Spontaneity: Spoken discourse is often spontaneous.

Repetition, Hesitation, and Redundancy: Spoken discourse employs more repetition, hesitation and redundancy than written discourse.

Topic- 123: Coherence and Intertextuality

The goal of discourse analysis is to examine how the reader/user of a discourse recognizes that the words /phrases/ sentences in a discourse must be co-interpreted, and that parts of a discourse are dependent on others.

Cohesion: One of the most important features of discourse is that its parts have cohesion. The cohesion refers to the grammatical and/or lexical relationship between the different elements of a discourse. This may be the relationship between different sentences or between different parts of a sentence.You can lead a horse to water but you can't make him drink.

Cohesive Devices: Sentences are explicitly linked together in a discourse by different kinds of overt devices. For example:

Reference::Pronouns, articles, demonstratives, endophoric and exophoric.

Substitution: Replacing one word by another at a particular position in a structure.

Examples:

1: I've lost my dictionary.
2: Get a new one.

Ellipsis: Leaveing out a word or phrase of a sentence for reasons of economy, emphasis or style.

1. Were you cooking?
2. No, I wasn't (cooking).

Conjunction: An item or a process whose primary function is to connect words or other constructions. E.g.,

1. **I was not invited. Otherwise, I would have been there.**
2. **I think, therefore I am.**

Lexical Cohesion: Repetition, synonyms.

However, by itself, cohesion would not be sufficient to enable us to make sense of what we read.

Coherence: It refers to the relationship which links the meanings of utterances in a discourse. Coherence focuses on the unity of meaning. What is said or written should make sense in terms of people's normal experience of things. The key to the concept of coherence ("everything fitting together well") is not something that exists in words or structures, but something that exists in people. Not all relations among the various parts of a discourse are explicitly marked. Still, we are able to understand it because socio-cultural and background knowledge.

A: Could you give me a lift home?

B: Sorry, I'm visiting my sister.

Intertextuality: A complex interrelationship between a text and other texts taken as basic to the creation or interpretation of the text. Discourse produced in one context inevitably connects to discourse produced in other contexts. As social actors interact, they draw upon established genres to frame their discourse (Hodges, 2015).

Topic- 124: Conversational Analysis (CA)

Conversation is discourse mutually constructed and negotiated in time between speakers. It is usually informal and unplanned (Cutting, 2010). A conversation can be viewed as a series of speech acts - greetings, inquiries, comments, congratulations, invitations, requests, refusals, accusations, etc. Cook (1989: 51) says that talk may be classed as conversation when:

1. It is not primarily necessitated by a practical task.
2. Any unequal power of participants is partially suspended.
3. The number of the participants is small.
4. Turns are quite short.
5. Talk is primarily for the participants not for an outside audience .(cited in Cutting, 2010)

Based on this, classroom transactions, doctor-patient interviews and TV quiz shows are not conversations because they do not have all the properties listed here. For example, teacher-pupil exchange carries an unequal power balance.

The analysis of natural conversation in order to discover what the linguistic characteristics of conversation are and how conversation is used in ordinary life is called conversational analysis (CA). It includes the study of how speakers decide when to speak during a conversation, how the utterances of two or more speakers are related.

Turn-Taking

The cooperation in conversation is managed by all participants through turn taking. In most cultures, only one person speaks at a time: speakers take turns. All cultures have their own preferences as to how long a speaker should hold the floor, how they indicate they have finished and another speaker begins.

Transition Relevance Place (TRP) – A point in a conversation where a change of turn is possible. It is usually end of a sentence.

Interruption - when speakers do not want to wait until the TRP. Usually indicated with a //.

Pause – acceptable length**.** If the pause is intended to carry meaning – attributable silence.

Adjacency Pairs

Conversation contains frequently occurring patterns, in pairs of utterances known as 'adjacency pairs'. Speech acts are ordered with a first part and a second part. Preference Structure: each first part has a preferred and a dispreferred response. E.g., 'request' has 'acceptance' and 'refusal'. Examples: question – answer, offer – accept, blame – deny, request - acceptance, promise –acknowledgement.

Sequences

As speakers mutually construct and negotiate their conversation, certain sequences emerge. Pre-sequences, insertion sequence.

Limitations of CA

• Lack of systematicity - list of all adjacency pairs is not exhaustive.
• Does not take into account pragmatic or sociolinguistic aspects of interaction.
• May be coupled with discourse analysis and cultural approaches.

Topic- 125: Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

CDA is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse; dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context (Van Dijk).

Aims of CDA

To help reveal hidden and 'often out of sight' values, positions and perspectives underlying texts (Paltridge, 2008).

"To unmask ideologically permeated and often obscured structures of power, political control, and dominance, as well as strategies of discriminatory inclusion and exclusion in language in use" (Wodak, 1992, p.8).

As a Method of Research

It is "systematic analysis and interpretation of the ways in which discourses consolidate power and colonize human subjects" (Locke, 2004). CDA 'includes not only a description and interpretation of discourse in context, but also offers an explanation of why and how discourses work (Rogers 2004, p. 2). 'Takes us beyond the level of description to a deeper understanding of texts' (Paltridge, 2006, p. 186).

Major Issues Tnvestigated in CDA

- The use of discourse in relation to social and cultural issues such as race, gender, politics, identity, ideology, etc.
- Why the discourse is used in a particular way and what are the implications of that kind of use?

Assumptions of CDA

- Language use is always social.
- Discourse both reflects and constructs the social world.
- Power relations are discursive.
- Discourse does ideological work.
- Discourse is historical.
- The link between text and society is mediated. Discourse is a form of social action.

Important Tools of CDA

CDA and Framing: The way in which the content of the text is presented to its audience, and the sort of perspective, angle and slant the writer or speaker is taking.

Foregrounding: What is chosen to emphasize.

Backgrounding: What is chosen to de-emphasize or leave out of the text. It can easily be identified in newspaper reporting.

Presupposition: Background knowledge, assumptions, attitudes and points of view that the text presupposes.

Topicalization: What has been put at the front of each sentence to indicate what it is about.

Agency: Who initiates the action, agent-patient relationship – who does what to whom? ,Who has the most authority and power in the discourse? What agents have been left out of sentences ?

Choice of words: The connotations of particular words or phrases, degree of formality/ informality, technicality, certainty, etc.

Criticisms of CDA

It should include discussions with the producers and consumers of the text. It does not always consider the role of a reader, and is not detailed and systematic.

Topic- 126: Multimodal Discourse Analysis

MDA is an emerging paradigm in discourse studies.It extends the study of in combination with other resources, such as images, scientific symbolism, gesture, action, music and sound. ('Multimodality', 'multimodal analysis', 'multimodal semiotics' and 'multimodal studies'). In multimodal texts, discourses and events, collectively called multimodal phenomena, the medium is the mean through which the multimodal phenomena materialize (e.g., newspaper, television, computer or material object and event).

Basic Ideas in MDA

While analyzing an image, we need to see what are the "elements" (parts) in the image out of which it seems to be composed of. The "image" means either a static image (like a painting) or moving images (as in a movie or video game). It identifies important elements. This will change for various images you choose and want to analyze. In one case, it might be colors and shapes and in another case, it might be the objects that compose the whole image.

"**Grammar" of Images:** We could formalize what counts as an element and what are the "rules" for combining them.

Image and Context:The meaning is only in context. Usually an image leaves much "unsaid," assuming it will be filled in by people's knowledge of the context, e.g., TV ads. Images do not just "say" things but seek to do things as well, e.g., ads want us to do something, namely buy the product being advertised. Posters and documentaries often want us to change our political views or change how we act in society. The elements in an image can make intertextual references to other images, texts, or media (just as we can do with words in language). Intertextuality is very common on media.

Words play two roles:

In one role, they are elements in language that we can analyze.
In another role, they are elements in the image and need to be analyzed as part of the image.

> What do the words add to the image?
> What does the image add to the words? and
> How and what did combining words and images communicate?

Approaches to MDA

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996, 2006) and O'Toole (1994, 2010) provided the foundations for multimodal research drawing upon Michael Halliday's (1994, 2004) social semiotic approach to language.

Issue in MDA

Modelling semiotic resources which are fundamentally different to language.

Lesson-24

TEACHING WORLD ENGLISHES

Topic- 127: Introduction to World Englishes

The latter half of the twentieth century saw an amazing phenomenon - the emergence and acceptance of a single language as an effective means of communication across the globe. English, by now, is the most widely taught, learnt and spoken language in the world. It is used by over 300 million people as a first language in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the USA, and by over 700 million people as a second language, e.g., in the countries of Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America, and among the Island nations of the world (Crystal, 1985; Kachru, 999).

The notion 'World Englishes' provides the major conceptual framework for a useful and reasoned understanding of the spread and functions of the English language. 'World Englishes' indicates a 'world language', highlighting the role of English as a world language and as an international lingua franca. To Kachru (2004), the notion of 'World Englishes' is independent of whether or not English functions as a world language. The concept intended to capture the pluralism and the regional and cross-cultural variations that are obtained among English varieties around the world, and the distinct identities of these varieties. 'World Englishes' is similar to 'New Englishes'. It is the recognition of diverse modern English varieties as legitimate, wherever they are spoken, as long as their speakers abide by some local communal norms. World English (WE) belongs to everybody who speaks it, but it is nobody's mother tongue. The diffusion of English has resulted in the emergence of three broad categories of regional varieties.

First set includes the varieties in the countries where the English language has its origin. Where it is the dominant language as a result of population migration, e.g., Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the USA.

Second set comprises the varieties that have developed in countries where English has a long history, essentially due to colonization, in which the language has undergone acculturation and nativization. It has a body of creative writing, and has an official status, e.g., India, Nigeria, Singapore, the Philippines, and others (Crystal, 1987: 357).

The third set consists of the varieties that are developing in countries where English is used primarily for international purposes and is becoming an instrument of identity construction and artistic innovation (e.g., in the People's Republic of China, Japan and Korea).

These three sets have been termed the Inner-Circle, the Outer-Circle and the Expanding-Circle varieties in the Concentric Circles model (Kachru, 1985).

Topic- 128: Conceptual Framework for World Englishes

1. The terms 'native' and 'nonnative speaker' raise a number of linguistic, ethnic, cultural, political, and educational problems in the field of theoretical and applied linguistics (Schmitz).
2. The notion 'native speaker' has been employed as a mark of power and prestige for the benefit of some individuals.
3. While 'nonnative' has also been used as an instrument to exclude others on the base of race and culture.
4. The notions 'native'/'nonnative' are operational when one compares learners of a specific language with those who acquired that language at an early age.

Native Varieties - British English (BE), American English (AE), etc.

Non-Native Varieties - Indian English (IE), Brunei English (BE) and Singaporean English (SE).

Widdowson's (1994: 385) - 'no nation can have custody,' for English is not the private property of any one nation or community.Nelson (1985:249-50) - for one group 'to claim "ownership" of English on some basis of historical antecedence is pragmatically unsound'.   Recent critics of the 'native/nonnative' distinction argue that the term 'nonnative' is not an appropriate label to describe speakers of English in outer circle countries in South-East Asia (India and Pakistan, Malaysia, and Singapore) (Singh et al. 1995; Afendras et al., 1995; and Singh, 1995). Native/non-native distinction used in the area of World English is a 'problem child' (Afendras, et al., 1995: 298). To Singh, speakers of IE and SE operate their respective varieties in the same way as speakers of AE or BE do. He concludes that both groups are native speakers (1995: 293).

Topic- 129: Profiles Across Cultures: Asian Englishes I

Asian Englishes included the Englishes of South Asia (Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka) and Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Thailand). **South Asia** is a linguistic area with one of the longest histories of contact, influence, use, teaching and learning of English. Kachru (1986: 36) argues that '[the] use of the term South Asian English is not to be understood as indicative of linguistic homogeneity in this variety nor of a uniform linguistic competence. It refers to several broad regional varieties such as Indian English, Lankan English and Pakistani English.'

Status of South Asian English

English remained a foreign language in India for several decades after independence. Kachru defines modern South Asian English (SAE) as 'the educated variety of South Asian English', with, 'varieties within this variety'. The passage of the **Official Languages Act 1967** made English co-equal with Hindi 'for all official purposes of the union, for Parliament, and for communications between the union and the states' (Ferguson, 1996: 31).

One important aspect of the value of English in South Asia is its capacity to provide neutralization. Choosing a given code in a multilingual context asserts one or more identities, for example, of religion, caste, and educational attainment, in addition to signaling the message. Similar to India, in contemporary Pakistan, English continues to have a central position in the national life.

Englishization in South Asia

The other side - 'the Englishization of South Asian languages' (Kachru, 1994, pp. 534–6).

Lexical Innovations: It means 'the intrusion from a language in contact' are exemplified by loanwords, loan shifts, and hybridization and parallel lexical sets. The motivations for such innovations are social and cultural; e.g., in Kashmiri English, widow, cancer, bathroom, are preferred by educated natives to the Kashmiri words.

Grammatical Influences: They are represented by, for example, the increased use of impersonal constructions: 'Hindi-Urdu suna gaya hai "it is rumored"; 'passive constructions with agents; and varied word order, e.g., 'SVO [Versus usual SOV] … in Hindi-Urdu is used for stylistic effect' (Kachru, 1994, p. 539). Use of code-mixed varieties of South Asian languages represent the highly innovative and creative potential of multilinguals' linguistic repertoire and is pervasive in audio-visual media, on campuses of universities and colleges, and in professional contexts.

Topic- 130: Profiles Across Cultures: Asian Englishes II

Characteristics of South Asian English.
1. Kachru (1994, pp. 514–26) provides some salient characteristics of SAE in phonology, grammar and lexicon.
2. In phonology, there are various segmental qualities that are distinctive for SAE.
3. Most diphthongs are pronounced as simple vowels.
4. In some sub-varieties the distinction between tense and lax vowels (e.g., those of deep Versus dip, seat Versus sit, and boot Versus book) is not made.
5. Hindi-Urdu speakers in India and Pakistan may pronounce sport as [isport] as the initial clusters are simplified by inserting an epenthetic vowel.
6. In grammar, the distribution of articles remains an open question.
7. Reduplication is common for emphasis: "cut it into small small pieces" (see Kachru, 1994, p. 520).
8. The items yes, no?, and isn't it? are used as general tags, e.g., he was angry, isn't it? (Kachru, 1986, p. 40).

Idioms and Metaphors are transferred from South Asian languages, e.g., Hindi-Urdu-Punjabi, we eat their salt, and as long as we eat it, we will remain loyal (Singh, 1959, p. 78).Lexicon seeks a lot of attention, since even non-linguists are aware of this level of language. E.g., chit 'a note or letter', tiffin 'snack', buggi 'carriage' Some have local currency only, though they are English formations or collocations: e.g., upliftment 'improving the plight of the downtrodden', botheration 'inconvenience' (Kachru, 1983).

Attitudes Towards English in SA

South Asians are as divided about English as about indigenous languages. The attitudes of South Asians towards English amount to what Kachru (1994, pp. 549–50) terms a linguistic 'schizophrenia.'

Three Categories of Opinions

1. The Westernization/technological progress view.
2. The absolute rejection view.
3. Neutral position - English may be retained as one of the foreign languages, but not in competition with local languages.

Topic- 131: Profiles Across Cultures: African Englishes

The colonial powers left their mark on the African continent in linguistic ways as in others. Along with French and Portuguese, English has a continuing presence in the government, education and commerce of African countries including Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa and Tanzania (McArthur, 1992; Bokamba, 1992).

Grammatical and Idiomatic Innovations

There are various broad categories of syntactic characteristics that may mark a text as 'African'. The most salient and frequent feature of African English, according to Bokamba, is 'omission of function words such as … articles.'

A second type of property is use of generic nouns or pronouns in regionally characteristic ways. E.g., he is a real/whole person [i.e. an adult]. Other examples include the use of 'boy' by girls for their friends and 'footing' to mean 'walking' in Zambia (Tripathi, 1990).

A third type of African English structure exhibits plural of nouns which in Inner-Circle varieties are in the mass or non-count category.

Bokamba offers examples such as 'all my **furnitures** and … **properties'; 'noises** of laughter and **chats***;* 'the **respects** they deserve'. He attributes this category of differences to first language influence and to the 'semantic inconsistencies of English itself' (1992, p. 131).

Coinage is an important agent of Africanization of English - rich derivational morphology (Bokamba, 1992). Example: facing a lot of *hardcap* **['hardship']**.

Compounding is very productive in all African Englishes: 'These *been-to* boys'.

Loan Translations and Analogical Formations: Functionally, English is restricted to public domains of use, such as education and broadcasting (Bokamba, 1992).

Topic- 132: Teaching and Testing World Englishes

The notion that English language instruction must be carried on by native speakers and experts has been challenged after the spread of debate on world Englishes. English is not a neutral subject or concept, and that ELT may not be considered a 'neutral' activity, as it may have been regarded in the past (Kachru & Nelson, 2006)**.** The 'linguistic arm' of the colonial powers has increased in its presence and potency, rather than the reverse, in the post-colonial decades.

Teaching and Learning of English: It should include a careful assessment of the issues of ideology, identity and attitudes associated with this language. This should not be reduced to already fixed utilitarian gains of English. New approaches to the teaching of English may include the shift in attitudes and methods appropriate to new contexts of language use. E.g., the localized varieties are not used to interact with native speakers; they are used with other multilingual English speakers for whom English is not a first language.

Professionals from the Outer and Expanding Circles: They have a difficult time establishing their relevance to ELT. Non-recognition of world Englishes may add to their problems.

World Englishes and Teacher Education: It is needed to include WE into formal teacher preparation. Students need to become aware of the ELT apparatus, practitioners and theorists that are current in areas around the world. Insistence on an Inner-Circle model of teaching for all contexts is mere 'linguistic imperialism'. Internationalization of curricula and developing awareness about it. There is a need to place journals about WE (e.g., English World-Wide, World Englishes, English Today) in libraries and ELT programmes' resource materials. International student volunteers can serve as in-class resources and exemplars. Use of movies which offer excellent instructive samples of natural conversation in WE. Local newspapers in English can be a valuable classroom aid – represent the regional and local character of English which learners will continue to encounter throughout their lives. Lexical innovations and cultural uses may be identified.

Activities for WE Classroom: Correction, Translation, Rewriting a local English text for outer circle people.

Testing of WE: The use of tests must be considered carefully. A test may be well designed in itself, but may not be applicable to all situations. There is need to address biases in the favor of native speakers' varieties.

Effects of WE Paradigm

Acceptance of local/regional norms and models is on the increase. Standardized tests, especially the TOEIC are paying more attention to getting rid of Inner-Circle-only biases. Classroom teaching materials have begun to appear, which have at least some representation of speakers from all three circles.

Lesson-25

TEACHING OF VOCABULARY

Topic- 133: Introduction to Vocabulary

Vocabulary (the knowledge of words and word meanings) is one of the key building blocks in learning a new language. Majority of meaning is carried lexically. Vocabulary is the total number of words in a language one knows. It largely consists of 'content' words as opposed to 'structure' words. The term 'word', in vocabulary teaching, refers to expressions made up of one or more terms which form units of meaning (Campillo). Therefore, idioms and multi-word verbs such as phrasal and prepositional verbs (e.g., give up, to put up with) will be considered words in the same way an single words (e.g., fan).

Importance of Vocabulary Learning

The more words a learner knows, the more they will be able to understand what they hear and read, and the better they will become at expressing what they want to when speaking or writing. Motivational impact raises achievement and confidence in L2 learning. Vocabulary helps students in becoming independent learners. Without words to express a wide range of meanings, communication in an L2 just cannot happen in a meaningful way.

Vocabulary Learning as a Complex Process

It does not mean acquiring the same amount of knowledge for every word. The distinction between productive/active vocabulary (the words learners need to be able to use and understand) and receptive/passive vocabulary (i.e. the words they need to recognize only).

Teachers should focus on the productive knowledge of words than the receptive one. It is also important to think about the most appropriate ways to build a learner's vocabulary. Learning lists of words out of context is of limited use. Learning words in context helps in purposeful communication. Key phrases and structures are generally more useful than key words, and easier for a learner to internalize and be able to reproduce.

When a teacher introduces vocabulary, there is always a chance that it is new to some students in the class. A teacher can start by showing pictures or miming the action and then nominates a student to illustrate. They can be asked to put the correct words in the sentences. This can be done with the whole class or the students can work in pairs.

Topic- 134: Remembering Words

Richards (1976) and Nation (2001) list the different things learners need to know about a word before we can say that they have learned it (cited in McCarten, 2007, p. 18). It implies the acquisition of information of various types.

1. The Meaning(s) of the Word

It is vital to get across the meaning of the item clearly and to ensure that your students have understood correctly. Be careful about confusing explanations.

2. Spoken and Written Forms

Spellings and pronunciation are problematic for learners of English; often no clear relation between spellings and pronunciation.

3. Morphology

What "word parts" it has (e.g., any prefix, suffix, and "root" form) and possible derivations.

4. Grammatical Form and Behavior

Students need to know if it is a verb/a noun/an adjective, etc. to be able to use it effectively. (e.g., its word class, typical grammatical patterns it occurs in). It is crucial when a word follows any unpredictable grammatical patterns. For example, man-men/information (uncountable) and if the word is followed by a particular preposition (e.g., depend on).

5. Collocations

The words occur together both semantically and syntactically. It is important to prevent mistakes in usage. **E.g., to ask a question you 'raise your hand' you don't say 'lift your hand'.**

6. Register

The varieties of language defined by the topic or context of use. E.g., the language of law, medicine, cooking, etc.

7. Style

The style defines the level of formality, e.g., humorous, ironic and poetic, etc.

8. Dialect

It is geographical variation of language. E.g., British English, American English, etc.
Elevator (US) – Lift (GB)

9. Associations

E.g., words that are similar or opposite in meaning; lexical sets.

10. Connotations and Polysemous Meaning

'Bachelor' is a neutral/positive word whereas 'spinster' implies a more negative image. It is about knowing different meanings associated with a word. *E.g., 'quiet' Be quiet and listen. Aamer is a quiet young man. etc.*

11. Translation

Knowledge of the equivalent in the mother tongue of learners.

12. Frequency

Frequency of occurrence of a word in a language. Some words occur more frequently in speech – 'indeed', 'by the way'. Others in writing – 'former', 'latter'.

Topic- 135: Presentation and Teaching of Vocabulary

Common ways to present words and convey their meanings: Teacher and student- centered approach.

Traditional Approaches and Techniques (Teacher- centered)

Visual and verbal techniques, translation, etc.

1. **Visual Techniques**

- Useful for teaching vocabulary at the elementary level.
- Help teachers to establish a link between a word and its meaning.
- Realia – objects in the class.
- Mime, gestures, actions, facial expressions, etc.
- Interesting, direct and makes an impression on the class.

2. **Verbal Techniques**

- By presenting examples of the type – e.g., illustrating the meanings of superordinates.
- By using illustrative situations to explain abstract words/ideas.
- Definitions to make sure that it is clear.
- They may check in a learner dictionary.
- Ask questions to check whether students have understood properly.
- Synonyms/Antonyms; the use of the words a student already knows can be effective for getting meaning across.
- Scales for Gradable items.

3. **Translation**

- If you know the students' mother tongue, then it is fast and efficient.
- Translation allows teachers to check correct comprehension.
- It should be kept under tight control because not every word has a direct translation.
- The context - think of a clear context when the word is used.

Student-Centered Learning

It allows them to ask other students in the class, showing them how to use a dictionary, and helping students to become independent of the teacher. The over-use of dictionary may slow up the flow of reading and the passage may become boring.

Contextual Guesswork

It is to infer meaning from the context in the same way as native speakers do. It can be more efficient in the long run. It give them confidence that many words can just be ignored. Encourage students to adopt a positive attitude towards new words instead of the negative one (Help!!).

Topic- 136: Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary I

1. The teaching of vocabulary can be very daunting for an L2 instructor.
2. An efficient teacher knows how to build on what the student already knows.
3. Selecting what to teach, based on frequency and usefulness to the needs of your particular students is essential.
4. The first thing you need to do is to set 'achievable' goals.

Criteria for the Selection of Vocabulary

What Vocabulary to Teach?

Teacher should be concerned about the different criteria when designing their teaching materials. Every teaching situation is different.

- **Frequency:** Useful to teach the most frequent words in any language. Lists of vocabulary can be arranged according to learners' areas of use.

- **Range:** Most useful words are those which are not only frequent but also occur across a wide variety of texts. Teachers may decide about it with the help of their intuition and experience. Good course books include such ranges.
- **Availability and expediency:** Words of special relevance to learners. E.g., words needed to understand and participate in classroom discourse.
- **Individual and collective needs of learners:** A challenge for teachers is to combine their learners' individual and collective needs. They should allow students to select any words they wish from a text. It is important for learning motivation.
- **Level of learners:** Lower the level, the more common and neutral the vocabulary to be taught.
- **Learnability:** The difficulty or lack of difficulty of a word.
- **Cultural differences:** The selection of vocabulary should reflect cultural interests of learners.

Groups of Vocabulary Items

Vocabulary items should be grouped in a systematic way which may enable learners to internalize them in a coherent way and make him aware of the organized nature of vocabulary. Some possible groups based on:

- Topics (types of fruit)
- Activity / process (e.g., opening an account)
- Similarity or opposition in meaning
- Derivatives (Science - scientist)
- Discourse markers (e.g., to begin with)
- Spelling or phonological difficulty

Topic- 137: Strategies for Teaching Vocabulary II

The certain vocabulary related principles and strategies to be followed in L2 classrooms.

Focus on the Importance and Teaching of Vocabulary

Learning a language isn't just about learning its grammar (O'Dell, 1997). "Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed" (Wilkins, 1972). Provide them clearly marked vocabulary lessons. Make the target vocabulary set stand out and give lists of vocabulary to be learned for the lesson.

Offer Variety

- Appealing content, attractive presentations, and variety.
- Different ways to present vocabulary.
- Practice activities should vary and engage students at different levels.
- Should range from simple listen-and-repeat type of practice to opportunities to use the vocabulary in meaningful, personalized ways.

Repeat and Recycle: Students generally need to see, say, and write newly learned words many times.

Provide Opportunities to Organize Vocabulary: Real-world groups, language-based groups, and personalized groups.

Make Vocabulary Learning Personal: Vocabulary Learning makes students to say and write true things about themselves and their lives. It helps students to become independent learners in and out of class with vocabulary notebooks. Research tools can be improved by Internet and the wealth of information in

learners' online dictionaries while learning new words. Everyday usage provides students with ideas to activate and practice vocabulary in their everyday life useful in non-English-speaking environments.

Activities for Teaching Vocabulary

- Semantic Map
- Word Cards
- Reading Technique
- Venn Diagram Technique
- Cross Word Puzzle
- Anagrams
- Word Definition
- One Word Substitution
- Linking Words
- Finish the Sentence

Lesson -26

TEACHING OF GRAMMAR

Topic- 138: Grammar and its Teaching

Grammar is an important part of language learning. It is the system of 'a set of rules' of a language. The word 'rules' imply that somebody created the rules first and then spoke the language. "Grammar is the business of taking a language to pieces, to see how it works" (Crystal).

However, languages did not start like that. All languages change over time. What we call 'grammar' is simply a reflection of a language at a particular time. Grammar is the mental system of rules and categories that allows humans to form and interpret the words and sentences of their language. Grammar adds meanings that are not easily inferable from the immediate context. In order for students to have a functional knowledge of a language (that they can spontaneously produce language), they must have at least some knowledge about the grammatical constructs of the language.

Importance of Teaching Grammar

Sentence - Machine Argument: Grammar enables students to generate new sentences. 'Rules' provide learners with the means to generate an enormous number of original sentences. Itpotentially limitless linguistic creativity.

The Fine-Tuning Argument: It serves as a corrective measure against ambiguities and allows for greater subtlety of meaning than a merely lexical system can cater for.

The Advance-Organizer Argument: A kind of advance organizer for one's later acquisition of the language.

The Discrete Item Argument: It helps to reduce the apparent enormity of the language learning task for both teachers and students. Grammarians make language digestible by organizing it into neat categories.

The Rule-of-Law Argument: Since grammar is a system of learnable rules, it lends itself to a view of teaching and learning known as transmission. Grammar offers the teacher a structured system that can be taught and tested in methodical steps.

Topic- 139: The Deductive Approach

It is rule driven grammar learning approach. It starts with the presentation of rules to students, which is followed by examples for explanation. Students then practice those rules. Learners engage themselves with rules through the study and manipulation of examples. A teacher - centered approach to present new content.
Example: The form and use of the 'third conditional' is explained to learners; then they have a gap-fill exercise to complete; then prepare their own examples.

Use of DA: It may be suitable, with lower level learners who need a clear base from which to begin with, or with learners who are accustomed to a more traditional approach and lack the training to find rules themselves. When dealing with highly motivated students for preparing students to write exams.

Advantages of DA

- It gets straight to the point, and can therefore be time - saving. Many rules can be explained quickly. This allows more time for practice and application.

- It respects the intelligence and maturity of many, especially adult, students and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in acquisition.

Criticism of DA (Adamson)

1. Teaches grammar in an isolated way.
2. Little attention is paid to meaning.
3. Practice is often mechanical.

Starting the lesson with a grammar presentation may be challenging for some students - may not be able to understand the concepts involved. Teacher explanation is often at the expense of student involvement and interaction. Explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation, such as demonstration.

Prescriptive Rule: A principle or order which guides behavior; how things are to be done, etc.Example: Use 'shall' for the first person and 'will' for second and third persons.

Descriptive Rule: The usual way that something happens - what speakers of the language actually do say than what they should do. Example: You do not normally use 'the' with proper nouns referring to people.

Pedagogic Rules: Rules of form and rules of use.

Attributes of a Good Rule

- Clarity and simplicity.
- Familiarity - make use of concepts already familiar to the learner.
- Relevance - should answer only those questions that the student needs answered.
- Mention limitations – on the use of a given form.

Topic- 140: The Inductive Approach

It is rule-discovery path approach. An inductive approach starts with examples and asks learners to find rules. It is more learner-centered. Instead of explaining a given concept and following its explanation with examples, the teacher presents students with many examples showing how the concept is used. The intent is for students to "notice" through examples and how the concept works. The teacher would present the students with a variety of examples for a given concept without giving any preamble about how the concept is used. It is hoped that students will notice how the concept is to be used and determine the grammar rule. As a conclusion to the activity, the teacher can ask the students to explain the grammar rule as a final check that they understand the concept. In contrast with the deductive method, inductive instruction makes use of student "noticing". It is an upward process of thought – leads to principles.

Advantages of IA

It gives new knowledge of language and its use – 'a method of discovery'. A learner acquires firsthand information by actual observation. The rules learners discover for themselves are more likely to fit their existing mental structures. It makes the rules more meaningful, memorable, and serviceable.

Activity Oriented

Students are more actively involved in the learning process, rather than being simply passive recipients - likely to be more attentive and more motivated. It favors pattern-recognition and problem-solving abilities. If the problem-solving is done collaboratively, learners get the opportunity for extra language practice. Working things out for themselves prepares students for greater learner autonomy.

Disadvantages of IA

It may make learning process slow. The time taken to work out a rule may be at the expense of time spent in putting the rule to some sort of productive practice. Students may hypothesize the wrong rule - a danger where there is no overt testing of their hypotheses. It can place heavy demands on teachers in planning a lesson; need to select and organize the data carefully so as to guide learners to an accurate formulation of the rule. Some language areas (e.g., aspect and modality) resist easy rule formulation. It may frustrate those students who prefer simply to be told the rule.

Topic- 141: Functional-Notional Approach

People who study and use a language are mainly interested in how they can do things with language - how they can make meanings, get attention to their problems and interests. They are only interested in the grammatical structure of the language as a means to getting things done.

Objectives

- To explain language in terms of how people use it to live.
- Adopts a semantic and pragmatic orientation inside the grammar.
- It does not see semantics and pragmatics as extra levels of organization but sees them as integral to the organization of the grammar.
- Communicative meanings that learners would need in order to express themselves and to understand others effectively.

Relevant Terms

Notions are meaning elements that may be expressed through nouns, pronouns, verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, adjectives or adverbs.A notion is a concept, or idea. It may be specific (virtually the same as vocabulary - dog, house) or general - time, size, emotion; movement (overlaps with the concept of "topics"), may be "time past" – e.g., phrases like a month ago, in 1995, last week, and temporal clauses beginning with when, before, after.

A function is some kind of communicative act; the use of language to achieve a purpose. Examples: suggesting, promising, apologizing, greeting, inviting.

A situation may affect variations of language such as the use of dialects, the formality or informality of the language and the mode of expression.

Criticism

- Difficulty in deciding the order in which different functions should be presented.
- Wide range of grammatical structures needed to manipulate basic functions.
- Random nature of the language used.

Advantages

It contributed a great deal to the overall store of language teaching methodology – esp. to CLT. Most new course-books contain some kind of functional syllabus alongside a focus on grammar and vocabulary. This approach provides learners with communicatively useful expressions in tandem with a structured syllabus.

Topic- 142: Teaching Grammar Through Texts

Language is context-sensitive, it means an utterance becomes fully intelligible only when it is placed in its context.If learners are to achieve a functional command of a second language, they will need to be able to understand and produce not just isolated sentences, but whole texts in that language.

Authentic Texts Versus Classroom Texts

Specially written EFL texts may be uninteresting and demotivating. They misrepresent the way the language is used in real-life contexts. Similarly, authentic texts may also become challenging for low level students. The load of unfamiliar vocabulary and syntactic complexity can make such texts impenetrable, and ultimately very demotivating. Solution: Take authentic texts and simplify them in ways which retain their genuine flavor.

Implications on Grammar Teaching

- Grammar is best taught and practiced in context.
- Using whole texts as contexts for grammar teaching.

Advantages

- If the texts are authentic, they can show how the item is used in real communication.
- Provides co-textual information, allowing learners to deduce the meaning of unfamiliar grammatical items from the co-text.
- As well as grammar input, texts provide vocabulary input, skills practice, and exposure to features of text organization.
- If the texts come from the students themselves, they may be more engaging.

Disadvantages

- The difficulty of the text, especially an authentic one, may be counter-productive.
- The alternative is to use simplified texts , may give a misleading impression as to how the language item is naturally used, again defeating the purpose of using texts.
- Not all texts will be of equal interest to students.
- Students who want quick answers to simple questions may consider the use of texts a lengthy route, and would prefer a quicker, more direct route instead.
- No single method of grammar presentation is going to be appropriate for all grammar items, nor for all learners, nor for all learning contexts.

Topic- 143: How to Test Grammar?

The testing of grammar is one of the main features of language testing. While tests test the ability to either recognize or produce correct grammar, they do not test the ability to use the language to express meaning. However, it can be argued that a basic knowledge of grammar underlies the ability to use language to express meaning. Therefore, grammar tests do have an important part to play in language programs.

Multiple Choice Test

- Error Correction
- Items to Test Knowledge of Word/Sentence Order
- Completion Items
- Transformation Items

- Word Changing Items
- Sentence Combining Exercises

Lesson-27

TEACHING OF PRONUNCIATION

Topic- 144: Teaching and Learning of Pronunciation

Teaching English pronunciation is a challenging task with different objectives at different levels. Pronunciation teaching makes students aware of different sounds and sound features and can improve their speaking immeasurably. The fact that some students are able to acquire reasonable pronunciation without overt pronunciation teaching should not blind us to the benefits of a focus on pronunciation in our lessons. Concentrating on sounds, showing where they are made in mouth, making students aware of where words should be stressed. All these things give students extra information about spoken English and help them achieve the goal of improved comprehension and intelligibility.

In some particular cases, pronunciation help allows students to get over serious intelligibility problems. Many individual sounds cause difficulty for speakers of various L1s. Some language groups may have particular intonation or stress patterns in phrases and sentences which sound strange when replicated in English. For all these people, being made aware of pronunciation issues will be of immense benefit not only to their own production, but also to their understanding of spoken English.

Challenges of Teaching Pronunciation

Teachers often find that they do not have enough time in class to give proper attention to this aspect. Drilling sounds over and over again (e.g., minimal pair work) often leads to discouraging results, and discouraged students and teachers end up wanting to avoid pronunciation altogether.

Psychological Factors - Deeply Personal

Our sense of self and community are bound up in the speech-rhythms of our first language (L1).Therefore; it is common for students to feel uneasy when they hear themselves speak with the rhythm of a second language (L2). They "sound foreign" to themselves usually unconsciously. Teachers and students can overcome the difficulties and boredom often associated with pronunciation by focusing their attention on the development of pronunciation that is "listener friendly."

Goals of Pronunciation

- Helping students to sound like native speakers.
- Unrealisticly,achieved by relatively few people.
- Helping them to learn the core elements of spoken English so that they can be easily understood by others?
- Many learners have a practical purpose for learning English.
- Teachers may consider their students' future needs (professional, academic, etc.) while deciding about the goals of teaching pronunciation.

Topic- 145: The Aspects and Fundamentals of Pronunciation

1. Sounds

The sound is a basic element. There are two types of sounds vowels and consonants. They perform different sounds in a syllable.

2. Combinations of Sounds

Sounds may occur in groups (e.g., consonant cluster).

3. Linkage of Sounds

While moving from one word to the next.

4. Rhythm

English speech resembles music as it has a beat. There are groups of syllables, within each group there are strong and weak beats**.**

5. Strong Beats

They usually fall on nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.

6. Weak Beats

Fall on prepositions, articles, and pronouns (words with a grammatical function).

7. Intonation

Speech also uses changes in pitch. Speakers change their voice by making it higher or lower in pitch at their will, it is called Intonation. The rise and fall of voice may be very sudden or gradual and can be put together in various combinations (rise-fall-rise, fall-rise-fall, etc.). Speakers use pitch to send various messages. Sentence stress and intonation work together to help speakers send precise messages.

Speaking with a Foreign Accent

- Not a learner's problem.
- Only a problem if it causes a communication failure.
- A part of our identity.

8. Pronunciation

Key factors in effective pronunciation tuition:

1. Teaching works better if the focus is on larger chunks of speech, such as words, phrases and sentences, than if the focus is on individual sounds and syllables.
2. Pronunciation lessons work best if they involve students in actual speaking, rather than in just learning facts or rules of pronunciation.
3. Many students of course feel more comfortable learning the rules of the language because it is less threatening. However, the transfer of explicit knowledge of rules into pronunciation practice is very limited.
4. Learning pronunciation requires an enormous amount of practice, especially at early stages.
5. It is not unreasonable for learners to repeat a particular phrase or sentence many times.
6. Pronunciation teaching requires thorough preparation through work on the perception of English sounds and contrasts.

Topic- 146: Factors Affecting Pronunciation

Teaching and Learning of Pronunciation may Focus on the following points:

1. **The Native Language**

Foreign accent has some characteristics of speakers /learners'native language.Difference in learners' native language pronunciation and TL pronunciation can be of critical importance.The more differences there are the more difficulties learners will have in pronouncing English.

2. **Age Factor**

Some linguists support the idea, known as the Critical Period Hypothesis that a learner needs to begin learning the language before age 7 in order to develop native-like pronunciation.However, more recent research suggests that other factors (environment, motivation, etc.) may be more important factors in the development of native-like pronunciation (Schaetzel, 2009).We do not yet have clear-cut evidence for a simple and straightforward link between age and the ability to pronounce a new language. The primary aim is that students be understood. Good pronunciation is needed for this, but a "perfect accent" is not (Harmer, 1991).

3. **Motivation and Exposure**

Learner's motivation for learning the language and the cultural group that the learner identifies with help determine his/her pronunciation skills.Personal or professional goal for learning English can influence the need and desire for native-like pronunciation.Even adults can become highly proficient, even native-like, speakers of second languages, especially if motivated to do so. Teachers may encourage learners to speak English outside the classroom.

4. **Phonetic Ability**

Some people may have a 'better ear' for foreign languages than others.They have 'aptitude for oral mimicry', 'phonetic coding ability'and 'auditory discrimination ability'.Some people are able to discriminate between two sounds better than others, and/or are able to mimic sounds more accurately.Such people benefit from pronunciation tasks more.

5. **Attitude and Identity**

A person's 'sense of identity' and feelings of 'group affiliation' are strong determiners of the acquisition of accurate pronunciation of an FL.

6. **Intelligibility and Varieties of English**

Because English has become an international language, teachers need to keep in mind that their adult students will speak with both native and nonnative English speakers outside the classroom.

Topic- 147: Intelligibility

Learning of proper/clear pronunciation in order to be understood by others in a given time and in a given situation is intelligibility.It is necessary for communication, especially, in international contexts and the most sensible goal. The degree to which students acquire 'perfect' pronunciation seems to depend very much on their attitude.

Some students want to be exposed to a 'native speaker' variety and will strive to achieve pronunciation which is indistinguishable from that of an L1English speaker. Other students, however, do

not especially want to sound like 'inner circle' speaker; frequently they wish to be the speakers of EIL. Frequently students want to retain their own accent when they speak a foreign language because this is part of their identity. Under the pressure of such personal political and phonological considerations, it has become customary for language teachers to consider intelligibility as the prime goal of pronunciation teaching. This implies that the students should be able to use pronunciation which is good enough for them to be always understood. If their pronunciation is not up to this standard, then clearly there is a danger that they will fail to communicate effectively.

Implications on Language Teaching

If intelligibility is the goal, then it suggests that some pronunciation features are more important than others. Some sounds have to be right, if speakers are to get their message across, though others may not cause a lack of intelligibility if they are used interchangeably. In the case of individual sounds, a lot depends on the context of the utterance, which frequently helps the listener to hear what the speaker intends.However, stressing words and phrases correctly is vital, if emphasis is to be given to the important parts of messages and if words are to be understood correctly.

Intonation is a vital carrier of meaning; by varying the pitch of our voice we indicate whether we are asking a question or making a statement, whether we are enthusiastic or bored, or whether we want to keep talking or whether on the contrary we are inviting someone else to come into conversation.

Intelligibility and EIL

Some specific features of pronunciation must be mastered in order for a speaker to be understood. Jenkins (2002) calls these minimal features of pronunciation 'a lingua franca core'. Teachers should be aware that the goal of improving pronunciation for many adult learners is mutual intelligibility, not perfection. Despite the fact of identity and global nature of English, some students do indeed wish to sound exactly like a native speaker. However, the argument that we may want our students to work towards an intelligibility pronunciation rather than achieve L1 speaker perfection may not appeal to all.

Topic- 148: Building Awareness and Concern for Pronunciation

Learners should be aware of exactly what is involved.Knowledge about various components of pronunciation (e.g., sounds, stress, variation in pitch, etc.)Learners should also develop a concern for pronunciation.Realize that their poor or unintelligible speech will make their attempts at conversing frustrating and unpleasant.Using awareness building activities.

Concerns for Pronunciation Teaching

Some common problems of pronunciation are related to:

1. **What Students can Hear**

Some students have great difficulty hearing pronunciation features which we want them to reproduce. Some sounds their L1 does not have. If they cannot distinguish between them, they will find it almost impossible to produce different English phonemes. There are two ways of dealing with this:

- We can show students how sounds are made through demonstration, diagrams and explanation.
- Draw the sounds to their attention every time they appear on a recording or in our own conversation.

In this way, we can gradually train students' ears. When they hear correctly, they are on the way to speak correctly.

2. What Students can Say

Learning a foreign language often presents us with the problem of physical unfamiliarity. To counter this problem, we need to be able to show and explain exactly where sounds are produced (e.g., where is the tongue in relation to the teeth? What is the shape of the lips when making a certain vowel?).

3. The Intonation Problem

For many teachers, the most problematic area of pronunciation. Some of us find it extremely difficult to hear tones or to identify the different patterns of rising and falling tones. However, this does not mean that we should abandon intonation teaching altogether.Most of us can hear when someone is surprised, enthusiastic, bored, or asking a question**.** The more aware they are the greater the chance that their own intelligibility levels will rise.

Roles of a Teacher

1. Helping learners to hear.
2. Helping learners to make sounds, especially those English sounds which do not occur in their own language.
3. Providing feedback, if teachers fail to provide feedback, students may develop wrong assumptions.
4. Establishing Priorities, a plan of action.
5. Devising activities and assessing progresscrucial factors for maintaining learner motivation.

Topic- 149: Strategies and Activities for Teaching pronunciation

Instructional strategies for teaching pronunciation that can help students to meet their personal and professional needs.

1. Cultivate Positive Attitudes Toward Accuracy

Teachers should create a classroom atmosphere in which learners work on their English pronunciation in order to be understood.Background lesson on varieties of English will help students work on specific pronunciation features.

2. Identify Specific Pronunciation Features that Pose Problems for Learners

Prior language experiences have an impact on the way a language is learned, but these experiences do not consistently have predictive value (Brown, 2000; Wardhaugh, 1970). Develop lists of sounds that native speakers of particular languages may find problematic in learning English. For example, speakers of Asian languages may have difficulty producing /l/ and /r/ sounds; speakers of Spanish may have difficulty in distinguishing between and producing /sh/ and /ch/ sounds. The checklist can also be used to make learners aware of particular problems.

3. Make Learners Aware of Prosodic Features

It is extremely important to comprehensibility. Prosodic training is for:

* Listen for rising intonation in yes/no questions.
* Compare question intonation in English with that of their native languages, imitate dialogues.
* Lead perception exercises on the duration of stress, loudness of stress, and pitch.

4. Focus on Developing Learners' Communicative Competence
Learners need exposure to conversations so they can hear variation in pronunciation.
Using audio-, videotapes, especially of speakers of different varieties of English.

Teaching Pronunciation to Beginners

       A teacher can decide the resources, lesson plans and activities to improve student's pronunciation skills according to their level. For the beginners the teacher may follow these areas.

- Syllable stress
- Voiced and voiceless consonants
- Silent letters

Pronunciation Activities

- Slap That Word!
- Fun game for learners asking them to associate words that are posted on the wall of the classroom - reinforce pronunciation patterns.
- Read and Rhyme - asking students to come up with words that rhyme with others presented on cards.
- Encourage them to speak as much as they can.

Lesson-28

TEACHING OF CREATIVE WRITING

Topic- 150: Introducing Creative Writing

Creative writing is a journey of self-discovery which promotes effective learning. It suggests imaginative tasks, such as writing poetry, stories and plays. The purpose is to express something, whether it be feelings, thoughts, or emotions. Creative writing can be opened and learned, like any craft, like any game of importance.

To Anatole France, 'You become a good writer just as you become a good carpenter: by planning down your sentences'. Creative writing is written to entertain and educate. Creative writers have the power to entertain someone, to make someone laugh, to make someone cry, to make someone think. Talent is somewhat of a necessary ingredient, if you want to write creatively. To be an original creative writer, you must first become an original reader, and also pursue your individual taste with restlessness competitiveness and trust in your intuition. Most writers agree that the best way to write well creatively is to write for yourself.

When teachers set up imaginative/creative writing tasks to make their students thoroughly engaged in it, then those students frequently strive harder than usual to produce a greater variety of correct and appropriate language then they might for more routine assignments. When students write a simple poem about someone they care about or they try to construct a narrative or tell stories of their childhood, they are tapping into their own experiences. This provides powerful motivation to write creatively. In order to bolster the 'product pride' that student may feel when they have written creatively, we need to provide an appropriate reader audience that can be the whole class. There is always a danger that students may find difficulty in writing imaginatively. Creative writing depends a lot upon how we encourage our students and make them confident enough to become creative writers who can express their imaginative world.

Topic- 151: Processes of Creative Writing

There are **eight** processes for writing creatively.

1. **Preparing**: The creative process begins in preparation, which includes active reading, imitation, research, play and reflection: all conscious actions. The time when you are settling your project, deciding exactly what you are going to do. In this stage, you are also researching ways to help you achieve it, including researching history and other factual data for fiction and creative nonfiction.

    Ask yourself two questions:

    - **What am I preparing for?**
    - **How shall I do this?**

2. **Planning**: It can include research, but can also include other factors, especially acts of premeditation. For instance, a creative nonfiction writer usually begins with subject, not structure, and makes a choice; researches the subject, and carries out interviews and archive and internet searches.

3. **Incubation**: It is about planning and preparation, may overlap with the incubation stage. In evolution stage, dreams, daydreams, unconsciousness, and random writing play an important role. Incubation creates an incoming wave of the subconscious that washes over the pages you will write.

4. **Beginning**: Writers agree that getting started on a new piece of writing is the most difficult of all the writing processes. It begins by free-writing and free-associating sentences until some patterns emerge. You have now begun to walk within the open space of the page. The journey becomes an elaborate series of gambles, and there is no sense of forward progression as such; there is shaping and reconfiguring, stepping back, inking in and beginning over.

5. **Flowing:** The habit of daily writing will lead you to enjoy the exploration and you will actively look forward to see what happens next. It maintains a steady flow of work. Steinbeck: 'Write freely and as rapidly as possible and throw the whole thing down on paper. Never correct or rewrite until the whole thing is down.'

6. **The silence reservoir**: Here writing is an organic process. You will often find your fluency naturally slowing in order to allow the reservoir of language and ideas within your unconscious mind to replenish. Finish for the day, and go for a walk. Give yourself the time to recover your eloquence through silence.

7. **Breakthroughs and finish lines**: After giving sufficient fluency through practice, you make artistic breakthroughs and leaps while writing one particular piece and move towards the finishing lines.

8. **On titles** : It is first impression to readers. A little window through which they peep at the interior - must work hard for this.

Topic- 152: The Practice of Fiction

Merriam Webster defines fiction as, "literature in the form of prose, especially novels, that describes imaginary events and people." The key elements of writing fiction are character, plot, setting, structure, issues, narrative voice, narrative viewpoint, action, dialogue, language, and style or genre (Griffith University, 2012, p. 17).

Character: These are the people (or animals, or creatures). They provide a human element that allows readers to imagine themselves inside the story. John Gardner once wrote that character is the heart and mind of your story – it is what makes it live.

Plot: The primary threads of your story form the plot. The plot is moved forward through the actions of the characters. It is driven from the inciting incident or ordinary world, through the changes that lead to the conclusion and denouement. Plot is not the story. Plot is a series of events you have devised, and these events may not even occur linearly.

Scenes: They are often perceived beforehand by the writer as they dream their way through the story. They are usually a location in which characters are seen and heard at close quarters, and they accomplish some action which has an outcome directly bearing on the forward movement of the story.

Form and Structure: are interchangeable terms because it is almost impossible to separate them in the act of writing. The structures of literary fiction allow you to frame your decision: the architecture of all the action; how you place incidents, and when; where you position and resolve conflicts.

Issues: Stories have problems. These are the things that make characters take action and that drive the story forward. It is the problems and the way characters solve these problems that make stories interesting, and building an arcing theme or moral or meaning into the story.

Narrative Viewpoint :–It relates to who is telling the story. Sometimes this is a character in the story and sometimes it is an anonymous voice in the abstract that can be presumed.

Narrative Voice: It is unique characteristics of the narrator that make him distinguishable from other narrators.

Action and Dialogue: Action is the things that characters do and dialogue is the things that characters say.

Language and Style or Genre: Our intended audience /reader influences the language we use and the style or genre we choose to write. E.g., small words are suitable for children's vocabulary.

Topic- 153: Creative Non-Fiction

A story grows from real and imagined experience. Creative nonfiction usually takes reality as its origin, and moves to the mind's natural skill for making a story. It deals with realities truthfully – experiences, events, and facts – yet the drive of the writing is the author's involvement in the story.

Under the umbrella, it is called "Creative Nonfiction", we might find a long list of **sub-genres** such as: memoirs, personal essays, meditations on ideas, nature writing, travel writing, journals or letters, cultural commentary, hybrid forms, and even, sometimes, autobiographical fiction. In creative non-fiction, reality must be transformed into literature but remains recognizable. It is grounded in life and vivid detail.

Basic Structure

- First paragraph sets up your theme.Followed by a series of paragraphs to present at least one complete idea, argument or demonstration of an aspect of that theme.
- There is usually logic to the order of these middle paragraphs, even a sense of narrative and scene building.
- Conclude with a final paragraph in which what has gone before is summarized.
- This is the indispensable structure known as introduction–body–conclusion.

Speaking with the Reader: It often takes the form of speaking up on behalf of an important personal, social or environmental issue. Writing is a matter of responsibility, and need to keep in view the concerns of your time. Creative nonfiction differs from nonfiction by its very literariness, by the quality of expression and construction. The information carried in creative nonfiction is accurate and scrupulously researched, but you deploy creative devices such as narration, edited (but real) dialogue, characterization and well-developed scenes to maintain a reader's attention.

Finding a Topic: Choose an aspect of the world or people that you know reasonably well, and then choose some aspect that is new to you and needs fieldwork. For example, you might wish to write a personal essay about one of your grandparents, but then use the impact of age on memory as a hook on which to hang the essay.

A Literature of Hope: Creative nonfiction is an international super-genre including memoirs, history, autobiography, biography, film and music writing, ethnic studies, journalism, writing on religion, and many more. It is a vast domain yet remains a huge challenge for writer to tell the truth by using art.

Topic- 154: Writing Poetry

Poems are made up of lines of words that do not usually reach the far side of the page. Words themselves possess a small amount of music because they are made up of syllables, which are themselves made up of short and long speech sounds, and gradations between, just like birdsong. It ishearing your own nature. Poetry is more natural an art form than you might have been led to believe. Lines in your poetry are units of your time. Those units of time operate with the rhythm of language, the beat of your species and of you. Hugo suggests, how we feel about ourselves may color how we write poems**.**

Inside Poetry: In writing poems, you hear, see and feel every word, space and punctuation marks intimately. Some poets write to preserve moments of significance, often small and apparently trifling instants or perceptions.

Observation and Memory are as talismanic to poetry as character and story are to fiction. Poems try to create a small and clear world that goes on recreating itself every time somebody reads it - perceptual and temporal clarity.

Awakening Language - Language is made to live through poems, but the living language of poetry does not simply begin and end with the meaning of your words, and those words combed into lines and stanzas.Words are sticky with meaning, history and association, and these elements are brought to life through their choice and combination – and by chance created by meter, rhyme and form.

Shaping Language

Form: The choice you make with the form and structure of poems will inevitably begin to shape what you can do with them. It will shape the expectation of your reader. A sonnet shape sets up quite different expectations from a haiku. The thirty-nine-line sestina tastes quite different to a terza rima of the same length. But forms are not vessels that shape language passively.

Free Verse: There is nothing free about free verse. The 'free' in 'free verse' refers to the freedom from fixed patterns of metre and rhyme, but writers of free verse use poetic devices like alliteration, figures of speech and imagery. To James Fenton, free verse seemed democratic because it offered freedom of access to writers. You can write poems in form and in free verse, and many variants between. You can write poems that are confessional, tell stories, and that lock on to one object and express it to its very atoms. Your task is to find the poems you want to write; the ones you are capable of writing well.

CORPORA AND LANGUAGE TEACHING

Topic- 155: Introduction

A 'corpus' is a 'body' of data, and linguists call their big data sets 'corpora'. It is a collection of pieces of language, when used for language research. It can be anything from newspaper articles, transcripts of everyday conversations, chat shows, Lessons, novels, letters, advertising brochures or shopping lists. Corpora first came to the attention of most English language teachers in 1987 with the publication of Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary. The following year saw the publication of an influential paper on the use of corpus - based materials in the language classroom. Over the past two decades, corpus evidence has not only been used in linguistic research but also in the teaching and learning of languages.

There is now a wide range of fully corpus -based reference works (such as dictionaries and grammars) available to learners and teachers. A number of dedicated researchers and teachers have made concrete suggestions on how concordances and corpus - derived exercises could be used in the language teaching classroom, thus significantly "[e]nriching the learning environment" (Aston 1997, 51).

Data Collection

The texts are selected and stored in **electronic format**. Written texts, if they are not already in electronic form (e.g., downloaded from the Internet, submitted by learners on a disc or CD-ROM, or sent by e-mail), must be scanned; spoken texts must be recorded and transcribed. The result of this stage is a raw corpus. Raw corpus can yield some information about language use; its usefulness is limited. E.g., frequency of a word in the raw corpus can be determined, but we will not know how many times it occurs as a noun and how many as a verb.

Another category of corpora captures the language use of language learners. The analysis of learner corpora makes it possible to track developmental aspects of learner language, as well as to highlight particular areas of difficulty for the learner.Learner corpora can be used as a basis for better descriptions of different varieties that emerge from communication between speakers who communicate in a language other than their first language**.**

Examples of Learner Corpora

1. The Cambridge Learner Corpus
2. The Longman Learners' Corpus
3. The International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE)

Topic- 156: Corpora: Nature and Types

Corpora come in many shapes and sizes and built to serve different purposes. There are two philosophies behind their design, leading to the distinction between reference and monitor corpora.

Reference Corpora have a fixed size; that is, they are not expandable (e.g., the British National Corpus).

Monitor Corpora are expandable**;** that is, texts are continuously being added (e.g., the Bank of English).

Another design-related distinction is whether a corpus contains whole texts or merely samples of a specified length. The latter option allows a greater variety of texts to be included in a corpus of a given

size. Content of corpora can be either general - attempt to reflect a specific language or variety in all its contexts of use (e.g., the American National Corpus), or specialized - focus on specific contexts and users (e.g., Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English), and they can contain written or spoken language. Corpora can also represent different varieties of a language. E.g., the International Corpus of English (ICE) contains one-million-word corpora of different varieties of English (British, Indian, Singaporean, etc.). May contain language produced by native or non-native speakers (usually learners).

Types of Corpora

Monolingual Corpus is texts in one language only. Usually tagged for parts of speech and is used by a wide range of users for various tasks from highly practical ones, e.g., checking the correct usage of a word or natural word combinations, to scientific use, e.g., identifying frequent patterns or new trends in language.

Parallel Corpus is a corpus consisting of the same text in two languages. The texts are aligned (matching segments, usually sentences are linked). The corpus allows searches in one or both languages to look up translations. The user can then observe how the search word or phrase is translated.

Multilingual Corpus contains texts in several languages which are all translations of the same text and are aligned in the same way as parallel corpora. Sketch Engine allows the user to select more than two aligned corpora and the search will display the translation into all the languages simultaneously.

Learner Corpus is texts produced by the learners of a language. Study the mistakes and problems learners have while learning an L2. Sketch Engine can use both error and correction annotation. It provides an interface to search for the error itself, error correction, and error type or for a combination of the three options**.**

Diachronic Corpus contains texts from different periods. It is used to study the development or change in language. It'ssketch Engine allows searching the corpus as a whole or only includes selected time intervals into the search.

Topic- 157: How is Corpora Relevant to Language Teaching?

Corpus has now become one of the new language teaching catch phrases, and both teachers and learners alike are increasingly becoming consumers of corpus -based educational products.   However, few teachers are clear about the nature of corpora, or their significance for language teaching**.**
The use of corpus contributes to language teaching in a number of ways.

1. The insights derived from native-speaker corpora contribute to a more accurate language description, which then feeds into the compilation of pedagogical grammars and dictionaries.
2. The analysis of learner language provides insights into learner's needs in different contexts, which then form learner dictionaries and grammars.
3. Research on learner corpora also contributes to our understanding of language learning processes (Granger et al., 2002).
4. Corpora of language teaching course books enable the examination of the language to which learners are exposed.
5. Facilitate the development of more effective pedagogical materials.
6. Corpus-based research has also revealed the inadequacy of many of the rules that still dominate ELT materials.
7. Learner corpora have the potential to contribute to the construction and evaluation of language tests in a multitude of ways, however, this potential has remained underexploited.
8. Corpus research in English language teaching has led to real innovations in material design and classroom practice.

There are two main areas in which corpora can benefit language teaching and learning:

- First, by incorporating the latest corpus-based findings into language syllabuses, teaching materials and dictionaries.
- Second, by encouraging teachers and learners to examine language patterns in corpus as part of their (independent) learning activities in and outside classrooms (see Gavioli and Aston, 2001).

In addition, corpora may provide data, especially, frequency data, which may further alter what is taught. A simple yet important role of corpora in language education is to provide more realistic examples of language usage. Alderson (1996) envisaged corpora can be used in language testing e.g., in test construction, compilation and selection, test presentation, response capture, test scoring, and calculation and delivery of results.

Topic- 158: Corpora in the Classroom

It can provide a great amount of useful information on many aspects of language teaching. It might mean a tough job of changing attitudes of teachers and learners towards using corpora as they are more used to traditional methods and may find using corpora quite challenging. To Aijmer (2009:1), the problem is to find out the ways to reach students and teachers with information about corpora and what they can do. This, on the one hand, implies educating teachers and spreading the word about corpora and, on the other, helping students with the search options, search interface and the analysis of corpus output. Using corpora in the classroom changes the student's role. With a corpus and the appropriate tool kit, "the student can actually test the conventional wisdom of the textbooks and find out what really happens in connected texts. Using learner corpora in the classroom is still a very new thing. However, "the exploration of learner corpora by learners themselves will motivate many more learners to reflect on their language use and thus raise language awareness" (Mukherjee and Rohrbach 2006, p. 228).

Students need to be trained how to use corpora. Students should be familiarized with inductive methods; otherwise they will find corpora boring and difficult. Teachers should introduce students to corpus analysis by specially prepared exercises. They must have insights into what they can learn from corpora and how they can use corpora. The students can also do various corpus studies in morphology, phraseology, syntax, etc. Some ways in which corpus can be used to create classroom activities.

E.g., show the collocates to the students and ask them to guess the word, reveal the collocates of a word one by one. In competitive groups, students have to guess what the word might be. The fewer the collocates needed to get the correct answer, the more points the group gets, e.g., ? + fees,? + framework, ? + proceedings, ? + rights, ? + system

What word could go into all FIVE gaps? If you guessed 'legal', you scored your team a point! For an extra bonus point, what do you think the top collocate of 'legal' might be? Did you say 'legal aid'? You're absolutely spot on!

Topic- 159: Corpus Use in Learning and Teaching: Prerequisites

The availability of corpora and corpus software alone cannot ensure that language teaching will take full advantage of the opportunities they offer. Language teaching institutions will have to take certain courses of action. Learners and teachers will have to adjust to changes in knowledge, skills and roles. What is apparent is the necessity of investment in computers, access to corpora, and the relevant software. This would be a costly move if a school were to opt for the hard version -(it requires learners to have direct access to computer and corpus facilities and have the skills to use them.)However, the cost would be reduced considerably if the **soft version** - (it requires only the teacher to have access to, and the skills

to use, a corpus and the relevant software) were adopted. Investment in technology is just the tip of the iceberg, in actual, it is the investment in the users of corpora, the learners and teachers.

To Leech (1997), Learners need to become familiar with corpora and in the case of the hard version, they have to be trained to use corpus software. They also have to be introduced to data-driven approaches to learning, and guided to develop the skills that such approaches require. They have to be guided away from the "single correct answer" concept, and the notion of fixed rules and exceptions, towards the recognition of patterns and alternatives, and the importance of context. To employ a popular analogy, in consulting a dictionary or grammar learners are given fish; by actively engaging in pattern recognition they learn how to fish. To Cohen (2003) and Oxford (1994), the utility of corpus use does not stop at helping learners discover language facts for themselves - when learners (are guided to) examine corpus samples they also develop a crucial element of learning skills namely the ability to recognize patterns of language structure and use. Moreover, teachers need to be informed about corpora and the relevant software, and become skilled users (Renouf, 1997). This is not expected to take place quickly, and may be met with reluctance, or even resistance, on the part of teachers (Arkin, 2003). Teachers also need to be in a position to assist and guide learners in their language investigations. This means that the teachers' awareness and knowledge of language will have to extend beyond the information in pedagogical materials (see Gabrielatos, 2002a, 2002b; Leech, 1994).**Teacher Preparation Programmes** would not only have to add components related to corpora and their uses, but also to place much greater emphasis on language awareness and description (Andrews, 1994; Sinclair, 1982).

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING I

Topic- 160: Language Curriculum Development

What is Curriculum?

A theoretical document and refers to the program of studies in an educational system or institution. Curriculum refers to all those activities in which students are engaged under the auspices of the institution. It includes, what pupils learn, how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. It deals with the abstract general goals of education and reflects educational and cultural philosophy of a country.

What is Curriculum Development?

An essentially practical activity to improve the quality of language teaching through the use of systematic planning, development, and review practices in all aspects of a language program.

- Process of curriculum development covers.
- Determining learners' needs.
- Developing objectives to address the needs.
- Appropriate syllabus, course structure, teaching methods, and materials.
- Evaluation of the language program that results from these activities.

What Questions Does the Curriculum Address?

1. What is the purpose of educating students in this particular institution / educational level?
2. What kinds of knowledge should students is taught?
3. What kinds of learning experiences do the students need to go through in order to acquire the knowledge and achieve our purposes?
4. What kinds of teaching methods should be used to help students acquire the knowledge and achieve our purposes?
5. How should these learning experiences be organized?
6. How should we assess learners in order to see whether the purposes have been achieved?

By answering these questions, a curriculum provides information on: the goals of education, subjects to be taught, activities learners should be engaged in (how), methods and materials, allocation of time and resources and assessment of students and of the curriculum itself.

Topic- 161: Syllabus Design to Curriculum Development

The history of curriculum development in language teaching starts with the notion of syllabus design. Syllabus design is one aspect of curriculum development, a process of developing a syllabus. A syllabus is a specification of the content of a course of instruction and lists what will be taught and tested. At its simplest level, a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt. Syllabus refers to the content or subject matter of an individual subject. It is a kind of plan which translates the abstract goals of the curriculum into concrete learning objectives.

Curriculum Versus Syllabus

While a curriculum is a theoretical, policy document, a syllabus is a guide for teachers and learners that indicate what is to be achieved. A curriculum is concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose, and experience, and the relationship between teachers and learners. A syllabus is more localized and is based on the accounts and records of what actually happens at the classroom level as teachers and students apply a curriculum.

What Does a Syllabus include?

Narrow View: a syllabus is only concerned with the specification of learning objectives and the selection and grading of content.

Broader View: a syllabus is not only concerned with the selection and grading of content but also with the selection of learning tasks and activities - also concerned with methodology.

Johnson (1989, p. 42)

Developmental stages	Decision-making roles	Products
Curriculum planning	Policy makers	Policy document
Specification	Needs analyst	Syllabus
Means	Methodologists	
Programme implementation	Materials writers	Teaching materials
	Teacher trainers	Teacher-training programme
	Teacher	Teaching acts
Implementation	Learner	Learning acts

Requirements of a Syllabus

- Offers a sense of continuity and direction to teachers and learners' work.
- Represents a retrospective account of what has been achieved.
- Provides a basis on which learner progress may be evaluated.

It must harmonize the three contexts within which it is located:

1. The wider language curriculum.
2. The language classroom and the participants within it.
3. The educational and social reality that the course-plan is supposed to serve.

One of the approaches taken here seeks to place teachers and language teaching professionals at the center of the planning and decision-making process of curriculum development and designing. To Johnson (1989), the products of these decision-making processes exist in the form of policy documents, syllabuses, tests, teaching materials, teaching programs, textbooks, and teaching and learning acts. However, the processes that lead to them are more difficult to identify and analyze because they often reflect the contributions of a variety of people with different roles and goals.

Topic- 162: English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

The concern to make language courses more relevant to learners' needs also led to the emergence of the language for specific purposes (LSP) movement. It is known in E LT circles as ESP (English for Specific Purposes).

The ESP - a response to a number of practical concerns:

- The need to prepare growing numbers of non-English background students for study at American and British universities from the 1950s.
- The need to teach immigrants the language needed to deal with job situations.
- The need to prepare materials to teach students who had already mastered general English, but now needed English for use in employment, such as non-English background doctors, nurses, engineers, and scientists.
- The need for materials for English for business purposes.

In 1970, there emerged a generally accepted view that there were different varieties of English, the distinctive features of which could be described and taught through the use of appropriately selected texts, and carefully devised practice exercises (Howatt, 1984: 222). It reflected in such widely used books: Course in Basic Scientific English (1969) and Writing Scientific English (1971). Throughout the 1970s, the ESP approach in language teaching drew on register analysis and discourse analysis to determine the linguistic characteristics of various disciplines.

Register Analysis studies the language of fields such as journalism, medicine, or law for distinctive patterns of occurrence of vocabulary, verb forms, noun phrases, and tense usage. E.g., Chiu (1975) analyzed the language used in administrative correspondence and boardroom discussions in Canada. She found, not surprisingly, certain verbs, such as attach, enclose, appreciate, refer, forward, request, advice, and thank, had a much higher frequency of occurrence in her corpus than in corpuses of general English. She also found distinctive uses of verb forms and verb phrases.

Discourse Analysis is to identify the linguistic structure of longer samples of speech or text. It based on the analysis of units of organization within texts (e.g., narratives, instructions, reports, and business letters) or speech events and examines patterns of rhetorical organization such as definition, identification, and comparison. It examines the communicative contexts that affect language use, e.g., in social transactions, the relationship between the discourse and the speakers and listeners. DA looks at how the choice of verb tenses or other grammatical features affect the structure of the discourse, and the relationship between utterances, e.g., aspects of cohesion, discourse markers, etc.

Topic- 163: English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

EAP has evolved rapidly over the past twenty years or so. From humble beginnings as a relatively fringe branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the early 1980s, it is today a major force in English language teaching and research around the world. Drawing its strength from a variety of theories and a commitment to research-based language education, EAP has expanded with the growth of university places in many countries and increasing numbers of international students undertaking tertiary studies in English. As a result, EAP is now situated at the front line of both theory development and innovative practice in teaching English as a second/other language. Usually defined as teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language (e.g., Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001: 8; Jordan, 1997: 1). In this sense, it is a broad term covering all areas of academic communicative practice:

- Pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (from the design of materials to Lessons and classroom tasks).
- Classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions).
- Research genres (from journal articles to conference papers and grant proposals).
- Student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses).
- Administrative practice (from course documents to doctoral oral defenses).

More specifically, current EAP aims at capturing 'thicker' descriptions of language use in the academy at all age and proficiency levels, incorporating and often going beyond immediate communicative contexts to understand the nature of disciplinary knowledge itself. It employs a range of interdisciplinary influences for its research methods, theories and practices to provide insights into the structures and meanings of spoken, written, visual texts. Demands placed by academic contexts on communicative behaviors and pedagogic practices by which these behaviors can be developed.

In short, specialized English-language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistic demands of academic target situations, and provides focused instruction informed by an understanding of texts and the constraints of academic contexts.

Topic- 164: Need Analysis

Need analysis is a procedure used to collect information about learners' needs. It is a distinct and necessary phase in planning educational programs, emerged in the 1960s, as part of the systems approach to curriculum development and was part of the prevalent philosophy of educational accountability. It is introduced into language teaching through the ESP movement. From 1960s, the demand for specialized language programs grew and applied linguists began to employ need analysis procedures in language teaching. Need analysis in language teaching may be used for a number of different purposes:

- To find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student.
- To help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students.
- To determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills.
- To identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important.
- To identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do.
- To collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing.
- To assess their level of language acquisition in their native language and in English.

Thus, need analysis basically collect information that can be used to develop a profile of the language needs of a group of learners in order to be able to make decisions about the goals and content of a language course.

Approaches to Need Analysis (Jordan, 1997)

- **Target-Situation Analysis (TSA)** - focuses on the learner's needs at the end of the course and target level performance.
- **Present-Situation Analysis (PSA)** - focuses on the learners' competence concerning skills and language at the beginning of a course.
- **Learning-Centered Approaches** is a process of negotiation between individuals and society, the latter including syllabus, materials, teaching method, etc., and divide needs into necessities, lacks and wants.
- **Strategy Analysis** focuses on methods of learning i.e. preferred learning styles and strategies.

- **Learning style** is identified as any individual's preferred way of learning i.e. auditory, visual, kinesthetic/tactile (Reid, 1987), while **learning strategy** is the mental process the learner employs to learn the language (Nunan, 1991: 168).
- **Deficiency Analysis** maps existing proficiency against target learner proficiency determining deficiencies/lacks with the use of a three-point rating scale (none/some/lots), which establishes the priority that should be given(West, 1994: 10).

Topic- 165: Situation Analysis

It is an analysis of factors in the context of a planned or present curriculum project that is made in order to assess their potential impact on the project. These factors may be political, social, economic or institutional, and complements the information gathered during needs analysis. It is sometimes considered as a dimension of needs analysis, and can be regarded as an aspect of evaluation. The goal of situation analysis is to identify key factors that might positively or negatively affect the implementation of a curriculum plan.

This is sometimes known as a SWOT analysis because it involves an examination of a language program's internal strengths and weaknesses in addition to external opportunities and threats to the existence or successful operation of the language program. Language programs are carried out in particular contexts and situations and the particular variables that come into play in a specific situation are often they key determinants of the success of a program. Each context for a curriculum or innovation thus contains factors that can potentially facilitate the change or hinders its successful implementation. It is important, therefore, to identify what these factors are and what their potential effects might be when planning a curriculum change. It helps identify potential obstacles to implementing a curriculum project and factors that need to be considered when planning the parameters of a project. The next step in curriculum planning involves using the information collected during needs analysis and situation analysis as the basis for developing program goals and objectives.

The procedures are used in situation analysis are as follow:

1. Consultation with representatives of as many relevant groups as possible, such as parents, teachers, administrators and government officials.
2. Study and analysis of relevant documents such as course appraisal documents, government reports, guidelines and policy papers, teaching materials, curriculum documents.
3. Observation of teachers and students in relevant learning settings.
4. Surveys of options of relevant parties.
5. Review of available literature related to the issue.

Lesson-31

CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN LANGUAGE TEACHING II

Topic- 166: Planning Goals and Learning Outcomes

In curriculum discussions, the terms "goal and aim" are used interchangeably to refer to the description of general purposes of a curriculum and objective to refer to a more specific and concrete description of purposes. An aim refers to a statement of a general change that a program seeks to bring about in learners. The purposes of aim statements are:

1. To provide a clear definition of the purposes of a program
2. To provide guidelines for teachers, learners, and materials writers
3. To help provide a focus for instruction
4. To describe important and realizable changes in learning

Aims statements reflect the ideology of the curriculum and show how the curriculum will seek to realize it. Following is an example of aim statements from a business English course:

1. To develop basic communication skills for use in business contexts
2. To learn how to write effective business letters
3. To learn how to participate in casual conversation with other employees in a workplace

Moreover,the aim statements are generally derived from information gathered during a needs analysis. In developing aim statements, it is important to describe more than simply the activities that students will take part in. Instead of simply stating the aim as "Students will learn about business-letter writing in English" there is a need to focus on the changes in the learners. E.g., Students will learn how to write effective business letters for use in the hotel and tourism industries. In order to give a more precise focus to program goals, aims are often accompanied by statements of more specific purposes known as objectives. An objective refers to a statement of specific changes a program seeks to bring about and results from an analysis of the aim and its different components.

Advantages of Describing Objectives are:

- They facilitate planning: once objectives have been agreed on, course/ planning, materials preparation, textbook selection, and related processes can begin.
- They "provide measurable outcomes and thus provide accountability: given a set of objectives, the success or failure of a program.

Topic- 167: Course Planning and Syllabus Design

A number of different levels of planning and development are involved in developing a course or set of instructional materials based on the aims and objectives established for a language program. The course development involves the following dimensions:

- Developing a course rationale
- Describing entry and exit levels
- Choosing course content
- Sequencing course content
- Planning the course content
- Preparing the scope and sequence plan
- Course Rationale -- starting point in course development

- A brief written description of the reasons and nature of the course

It answers the following questions:

- Who is this course for?
- What is the course about?
- What kind of teaching and learning will take place in the course?

Describing the Entry and Exit level: The information may be required on students' entry level from their results on international proficiency tests such as TOEFL or ILETS to determine the level of students' language skills. May require adjustment of the program's objectives if they appear to be aimed at too high or too low a level.

Choosing Course Content: It reflects the planners' assumptions about the nature of language, language use and language learning, what the most essential elements of language are and how these can be organized as an efficient basis for L2 learning. E.g., a writing course may be planned around: grammar, functions, topics, skills processes, texts.

Determining the Scope and Sequence : Scope is concerned with the breadth and depth of coverage of items. Sequencing may be based on the criteria of: simple to complex, chronology, need, prerequisite learning, etc.

Planning the Course Structure: It requires more detailed planning including the selection of a syllabus framework and developing instructional blocks. The selection of syllabus framework may include different syllabus frameworks such as:

- Grammatical syllabus
- Functional syllabus
- Situational syllabus
- Competency-based
- Text-based
- Task-based syllabuses
- Two commonly used instructional blocks are planning by modules and by units

Topic- 168: Providing for Effective Teaching

There are some factors that are involved in creating conditions for good teaching to take place. Quality teaching is achieved not only as a consequence of how well teachers teach but through creating contexts and work environments that can facilitate good teaching. Followings factors are important for providing effective teaching:

- The institutions
- The teachers
- The teaching process
- Developing the appraisal system
- The learning process

1. The Institution

The organizational culture of a school is one of the leading factors. It refers to the ethos and environment within a school, kinds of communications and decision making that takes place, and the management and staffing structure they support. The quality assurance mechanisms help to ensure the

quality of the practices in an institution. A sound curriculum, good internal communication system, professional treatment of teachers and providing opportunities for career development are significant for effective teaching in an institution.

2.   The Teachers

The following factors affect teachers and their role:
- Skills and qualifications
- Support for teachers
- Orientation towards work
- Adequate materials
- Course guides
- Division of responsibilities
- Future training
- Teaching release
- Mentors feedback and rewards

3.   Teaching Process

It focuses on the teaching practices that occur within a program i.e. how quality teaching can be achieved and maintained. Following are the factors important in this process

- Teaching models
- Maintaining good teaching
- Monitoring and Observation
- Identification and resolution of problems
- Shared planning
- Documentation and sharing of good practices
- Self-study of the program
- Evaluating teaching

4.   Developing the Appraisal System

The recognition of good teaching have to be developed. It recognizes the complexity of teaching.

Topic- 169: The Role and Design of Instructional Materials

Whether the teacher uses textbook, institutionally prepared materials, or his or her own materials, instructional material generally serve as the basis for much of the language input learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom. It is a key component in most language programs. In the case of inexperienced teachers, materials may also serve as a form of teachers training - they provide ideas on how to plan and teach lessons and formats that teachers can use. These may take the form of printed materials such as books, workbooks, worksheets or readers, and non-print materials such as cassette or audio materials, videos or computer based materials. The materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers and TV materials may also play a role in curriculum. To Cunningsworth (1995), the role of materials in language teaching may be related to:
- Presentation of materials (spoken and written).
- Activities for learner practice and communicative interaction.
- Reference for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and so on.

- Stimulation and ideas for classroom activities.
- A syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined).
- Some teachers use instructional materials as their primary teaching resource.
- The materials provide the basis for the content of lessons, the balance of skills taught and the kinds of language practice students take part in.
- For learners, materials may provide the major source of contact they have with the language apart from the teacher.

Topic- 170: Approaches to Evaluation

Curriculum evaluation focuses on collecting information about language program to understand how successfully it works. It enables decision making about it, such as whether the program responds to learners' needs, whether further teacher training is required for teachers, or whether students are learning sufficiently. Evaluation may focus on aspects such as:

Curriculum Design: To provide insights about the quality of program planning and organization.

Syllabus and Program Content: How relevant and engaging it was, how easy or difficult, how successful tests and assessment procedures were.

Class Processes: To provide insights about the extent to which a program is being implemented appropriately.

Materials of Instruction: To provide insights about whether specific materials are aiding students learning or not.

Monitoring of Students' Progress: To conduct formative (in-progress) evaluations of students learning.

Learner Motivation: To provide insights about effectiveness of teachers in aiding students to achieve goals and objectives.

The Institution: What administrative support was provided, what resources and communication networks were used.

Learning Environment: To what extent students are provided with a responsive environment.

Purpose of Evaluation

Formative Evaluation is carried out in order to find out what is working well, and what is not, and what problems need to be addressed.

- It focuses on going development and improvement of the program.
- Used to address problems that have been identified.

Illuminative Evaluation refers to evaluation that seeks to find out how different aspects of the program work or are being implemented.

Summative Evaluation allows teachers and program administrators to make decisions about the worth or value of different aspects of the curriculum.

USE OF LITERARY TEXTS FOR TEACHING ENGLISH

Topic- 171: Teaching Literature for Language Learning

The employment of English literature in teaching language skills is very old. The works of literature that bring delight to readers of a language should also be naturally suitable material in the teaching of the language itself. The use of literature helps promoting the teaching of academic or specific occupation-related goals.Literature can help develop an overall increase in reading proficiency. In doing so, it will certainly contribute towards English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for Specific Purposes (ESP) goals. It empowers students to interact with a text by understanding the language and comprehending the concepts presented. The literature is an effective way of apprehending the learners' attention. Besides achieving the learning objectives, literary texts make the teaching/learning process a fun and attractive experience for both teachers and students. The arguments against using English literature in teaching English language began when a new emphasis was placed on learning 'communicative' language.

Globalization and international trade has required the creation of specialized language areas such as EAP and ESP. The use of classic texts in such situations is quite impossible, since the aim of these courses is to develop the academic and professional abilities of individuals, rather than enable them to appreciate literary works. Finally, the literature of every language is situated in the **cultural milieu of the society** that speaks the particular language. Thus, such literary texts will contain a **complexity of concept,** which would burden rather than facilitate the acquisition of the target language for a non-native.

Topic- 172: Reasons to Apply Literature to ESL Teaching

Firstly, literature is considered valuable authentic material for "it is not fashioned for the specific purpose of teaching a language" (Collie & Slater, 1997). In this perspective, the professor is the grand initiator of its use and, thus, responsible for making it meaningful to the students. Another important characteristic of literature is that no matter how old it is, its meaning does not remain static. The main point is that the students, based on a wide range of diversity of background knowledge and culture, build up different interpretations.

Secondly, literature offers cultural and language enrichment. To capture the language enrichment that literary texts provide, it is necessary to make an analysis of human beings approach to overcoming any new problem or to acquiring any new knowledge. To Collie & Slater, (1997) "one can affirm that a literary piece, even with a wide range of new vocabulary and language features mostly only understood by natives, would develop on the students 'ability to make inferences from linguistic clues and deduce meaning from context.'.

Finally, literary texts can promote a deeper personal involvement for both students and teachers. Contrary to the analytical characteristic of conventional learning, through literature, the students have the opportunity to emotionally participate in the process of learning a new language. Van (2009) gives six key reasons:

- Provides meaningful contexts.
- Involves a profound range of vocabulary, dialogues and prose.
- Appeals to imagination and enhances creativity.

- Develops cultural awareness.
- Encourages critical thinking.
- It is in line with CLT (Communicative Language Teaching).

Topic- 173: Criteria for Selecting Suitable Literary Texts

The careful selection of the literary texts being used should be given paramount attention. Using works of literature that contain large numbers of outdated words is hardly going to benefit ESL students. Selecting literary works that are relatively easy to read is a key to using literature in an ESL course. However, textual matter that is over simplified or too easy, poses no challenge to the language student. This will in turn result in no actual learning takes place, so the teacher has to choose texts that have some level of vocabulary difficulty and syntactic complexity. Again, if literary texts with cultural complexity are selected for use in the ESL course, the student could face an understanding problem. For example, the social contexts of Emily Bronte's novels need to be understood in the context of Victorian morality in Britain. Therefore, a careless use of 'Wuthering Heights' in a South Asian ESL context would pose numerous problems of comprehension, rendering the student deprived of much learning.

Any text that the teacher selects should have at least some potential interest to the students. The selected texts should allow students to develop critical appreciation of the craft and aesthetics of language. The range of texts should ideally include traditional and contemporary texts The texts should represent a range of literary genre. The texts should be appropriate for the age and development of students. The selected texts should include a balance of new and established works. They should contain print and non-print texts that are available easily.

Topic- 174: Literature and the Teaching of Language Skills

The four skills associated with ELT teaching – reading, writing, listening and speaking – all are helped by the employment of literature in the language classroom. Povey (1972: 18) argues that 'Literature will increase all Language skills because literature will extend linguistic knowledge.'

Reading Skills and Literature: ESL / EFL teachers should adopt a dynamic, student-centered approach toward comprehension of a literary work. In reading lesson, discussion begins at the literal level with direct questions of fact regarding setting, characters, and plot - specific reference to the text.

Literature and Writing: Literature can be a powerful and motivating source for writing in ESL /EFL, both as a model and as subject matter. Literature as a model occurs when student writing becomes closely similar to the original work or clearly imitates its content, theme, organization, and style.

Literature, Speaking, and Listening: Playing a recording or video of a literary work, or reading literature aloud contributes to developing speaking as well as listening ability. It also leads to improving pronunciation. The pronunciation may be the focus before, during, and/or after the reading.

Drama: Literature-based dramatic activities are valuable for teaching ESL/EFL. They facilitate and accelerate development of the oral skills since they motivate students to achieve a clearer comprehension of a work's plot and a deeper awareness of its characters.

Group Activities: While teaching language skills, the use of literary texts during activities such as general class discussion, small-group work, panel discussions, and debates help in developing the speaking abilities of the students and give importance to pronunciation practice.

Topic- 175: Benefits of Different Genres of Literature

Since literature is not written with the express purpose of language teaching in mind, it generally contains a variety of language genres as well as subject themes.

Benefits of Using Poetry to Language Teaching

It is **metaphor** that is the most prominent connection between learning and poetry. According to Saraç (2003), the benefits of poetry are:

- Provides readers with a different viewpoint towards language use beyond the known usages and rules of grammar, syntax, etc.
- Evokes feelings and thoughts in heart and in mind.
- Makes students familiar with figures of speech (i.e. simile, metaphor, irony, imagery, etc.).

Using Short Stories to Language Teaching

Short fiction is a supreme resource for observing not only language but life itself. The inclusion of short fiction may:

- Make the students' reading task easier due to being simple and short.
- Motivate learners to read due to being an authentic material.
- Give students a chance to use their creativity.
- Promotes critical thinking skills.
- Facilitates teaching a foreign culture.
- Using Drama to Language Teaching.
- Learners become familiar with grammatical structures in contexts and also learn about how to use the language to express, control and inform.
- Strengthens comprehension and learning retention by involving the senses as an integral part of the learning process.
- Increases creativity, originality, sensitivity, fluency, flexibility, emotional stability, and examination of moral attitudes, while developing communication skills.

Using Novels to Language Teaching

According to Helton, Asamani and Thomas (1998), the benefits of novels are:

- Stimulate imagination.
- Help students to identify the emotions of the characters so that they can learn how others cope with situations and problems similar to their own experiences.
- Examination of moral attitudes, while developing communication skills.
- Motivate students to become a lifelong readers.
- Help them master the skills that will enable them to acquire information, process this knowledge, identify problems, formulate alternatives, and arrive at meaningful, thoughtful, effective decisions and solutions.

Topic- 176: Pakistani EFL Classrooms and Literature

The curriculum of English language at primary, secondary as well as tertiary levels in Pakistan is composed of literary texts (Khattak et al., 2010). Most of the literary works included in the language courses belong to classical English literature, e.g., Silas Marner by George Eliot (Rustam, 2008; Dubash and Anwar, 2011).The curriculum is based on English literature prose, novel giving central idea of the work (Mansoor, 2005). E.g., In Punjab University, the English compulsory course comprises book of

essays, book of short stories and one-act plays and a novel 'The old man and the Sea' (Mansoor, 2005).The course also includes grammar structures and composition (Mansoor, 2005). In the same way, this kind of course is taught in all the general (art, sciences and humanities) universities (Pathan, 2012). Novel, prose and grammar and composition are part of the syllabus for undergraduate English.

According to Dubash and Anwar (2011), "most of these textbooks are imported or are the works of English writers which are meant to be used for students whose native language is English, e.g., Shakespearian tragedies, Dickens novels etc". They are written in the background of English culture. The lack of local/native materials for academic purposes and for the teaching of Functional English has made the teaching and learning of English in Pakistan a bit suspicious (Dubash and Anwar, 2011: 37)Rustam (2008) investigated learners' needs and teachers' views about learner needs in relation to literary texts.

The study suggested:

Learners need to improve language skills as well as need to improve grammar and to introduce literature-based texts that are representative of world literature as well as Pakistani literature. There is need to include culture component in the syllabus.

<div align="right">**Lesson-33**</div>

LESSON PLANNING

Topic- 177: Introduction to Lesson Planning

A lesson plan is a framework for a lesson. It is an important tool that makes both the instructor and the learner focus on the purpose of the lesson and enables learners to efficiently meet their goals. A lesson is a unified set of activities that focuses on one teaching objective at a time. Lesson plan works as a map - shows where you start, where you finish and the route to take to get there. Lesson plans are the product of teachers' thoughts about their classes; what they hope to achieve and how they hope to achieve it. They are usually, though not always, in written form. As many different kinds of plans as there are teachers.

Trainee teachers often have to produce very detailed written plans, with descriptions, not only of each activity but also listing the exact questions and instructions they will give the class as well as the timings for every activity. In a full-time teaching situation, however, it is impractical to expect teachers to plan with this level of detail. As teachers gain experience, teachers develop the ability to plan much quicker and with less need for detail ;very experienced teachers may be able to go into a class with just a short list of notes.

Reasons for Planning a Lesson

- Planning is a sign of professionalism.
- Students can judge, whether you are prepared or not.
- Planning is a way to help gain the respect of your students.
- Planning gives you the opportunity to tailor your material and teaching to your class.
- Help considering your teaching situation and particular students.
- Gives the teacher a chance to predict possible problems in the class and think about ways to deal with them.
- Being prepared for difficult questions, the teacher can feel confident in the classroom.

Topic- 178: Pre-Planning

As teachers, it is important to provide students with lessons that are not only well-structured but which are also interesting and enjoyable. Careful thought and preparation will help to achieve this. When thinking about an English lesson, it is useful to keep the following three elements in mind:

1. **To Engage -** getting the students interested in the subject, in the class and in the language point and hopefully enjoying what they are doing.
2. **To Study -** could be a focus on any aspect of the language, such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. It does not have to be a new language input. It could also cover revision and extension of previously taught material.
3. **To Activate -** at this stage the students are given tasks, normally writing and / or speaking activities which require students to use not only the language they are studying that day, but also other language that they have learnt.

What do the students know already?

If you are planning to introduce completely new language items allow more time than if you are revising or extending a topic the class are already familiar with.

What do the students need to know?

If the students are studying for an exam, for example, then you may need to focus on different skills and language than for a General English class.

Topic- 179: Planning a Lesson

For our lessons, we may consider the following points:

1. Aims and Concepts - It's important to have clear and realistic aims for your lessons. One way to check this is actually to write out what your objectives are. It is important to identify the concept of your target language.

2. Contexts and Marker sentences - Once you have established your concept you need to consider actual contexts or situations where the language is used. Then you need to think of model or marker sentences as good examples – esp. used in the stage when presenting new language.

> To help, here is a summary of the main considerations involved in the first stages of planning our lessons:
>
> Language point: Perfect with 'for' and 'since'
>
> Concept: Talking about the duration of a continuing state or action
>
> Context: Biography (saying how long you've had a particular job or possession)
>
> Possible marker/Sentences: I've been a teacher for 15 years.
>
> I've had a bicycle since 1998.

3. Starting a Lesson: The teacher should try to engage the students from the very start of the lesson, otherwise it may not be successful. A good way of doing this is through activities called warmers or ice-breakers.

4. Presenting New Language: The teacher needs to be sure of the following points: How the language item is made - what the grammatical structure of the form is, how it is pronounced and written, how negatives and questions are formed if appropriate.

Concept is what the form actually means.

Context is when the form is actually used.

5. Controlled Practice - It focuses only on the target language giving students many opportunities to use it. Here are a few examples:

- Drills and gap-fill
- Sentence completion
- Quizzes and tests
- Games, Information search, dictation, etc.

6. Freer (less controlled) practice: Such as Role plays, discussions (on subjects of interest), writing activities (keeping a diary or writing letters and postcards), projects and tasks, etc.

7. Finishing the Lesson: By finishing the lesson properly,students have some sense of achievement. Some teachers like to give a recap of the subject of the day, highlighting again the main points.

Topic- 180: Selecting Appropriate Methodology

There is no single correct way to teach English. There are different theories as to how students learn, so there are different ideas as to what can and should be done in the classroom. For example, there are some basic ideas which are common in modern communicative methodology such as:

1. Use of the Mother Tongue: Everyone has a different opinion about when, how and how often a teacher should use the mother tongue of her/his students. You may find it necessary to give instructions or explain certain items of grammar in the mother tongue.

2. Eliciting: By drawing on the board or use pictures to elicit such things as rooms, methods of transport, etc.

- To use mime to elicit such things as sports, everyday activities, etc.
- To work backwards from answers to elicit question forms; e.g., write 'She's a doctor' on the board to elicit 'What does she do?

3. Board Work: When writing new vocabulary, try to make it clear what part of speech the word is from.

- If you only write single words, students may not remember whether it's a verb or a noun.
- Write 'a house' instead of just 'house'.

4. Drilling: The opportunity to practice saying a new word, phrase or structure in a highly controlled environment.

5. Pronunciation: It involves 'modelling' the pronunciation of new language for students to imitate. The modelling can either be done by the teacher or by playing the course book cassette.

6. Organizing Student Practice: Many ways to practice the new language such as open class, open pairs, closed pairs, group work, giving examples, etc.

7. Exploiting Listening and Reading Texts : There is a basic procedure which can be followed:

- Establish context
- Pre-teach vocabulary
- Set gist questions
- Play tape/read
- Check in pairs
- Check answer in class
- Set more detailed questions
- Play tape/read again
- Check in pairs
- Check answers in class

Topic- 181: Selecting Appropriate Technology

For many years, the blackboard was the only teaching aid many teachers had. In today's technological world, there is a wide range of modern resources available to many teachers. Technology

provides variety in your lessons and makes them more interesting. Technology can help to present ideas in different ways, generate new activities and stimulate discussion.

Following Resources are helpful in Lesson Planning:

- Overhead projectors
- Tape recorders
- Radio
- Television and video
- Computers and internet

Overhead Projector (OHP): It is a small portable machine which shines a light through a sheet of transparent plastic. Like the blackboard, an OHP is used to display information to a class. You can prepare OHTs in advance, either written or typed. Make sure your materials are clearly presented. You can use it for drawings and illustrations that might be difficult as well as time-consuming.

Tape Recorder: To play recorded material as language learning activities. For example, in an activity of comprehension, the teacher prepares a list of questions based on a song/story/interview.

Radio: There are a wide range of English language programmes broadcast around the world through oranizations such as BBC and Voice of America.

TV and Video: To have access to international satellite or cable channels that broadcast educational material. Films, documentaries, the news, etc.

Computer and the Internet - There is a range of software available for the students of English.

- There are programmes that teach and test grammar, vocabulary, writing skills and even pronunciation.
- Many programmes are available on CD-ROMs and increasingly directly on the internet.
- The internet is a resource that can be exploited for a project or research work.
- One site that does offer English learning is the BBC World Service Learning English website.
- You can find exercises at: www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish.
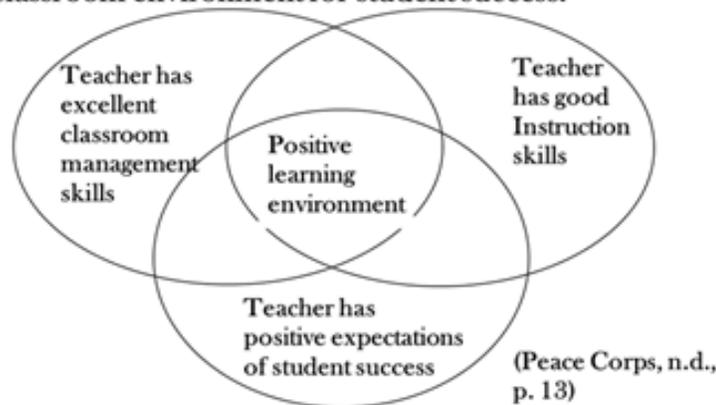
Lesson-34

CLASSROOM ISSUES AND MANAGEMENT IN ELT

Topic- 182: Managing Classrooms to Maximize Student Learning

Classroom management refers to teachers' behavior that facilitates learning. A well-managed classroom increases learning. Effective classroom managers are those who understand and use specific techniques and most effective instructional strategies. Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all levels, irrespective of diversity in their classes. Even if the school they work in is highly ineffective, individual teachers can produce powerful gains in student learning.

- Teacher can maximize students' learning by setting positive expectations of student success.
- What does a well-managed classroom look like?
- Students are deeply involved with their work.
- The climate of the classroom is work-oriented, but relaxed and pleasant.

How to Support Student Learning?

Teachers can establish classroom rules and procedures, and consistently and fairly enforce them throughout the year. It will develop a positive professional relationship with students; the teacher is both in-charge and cooperative. Instruction Skills is what most people think of as teaching. Teachers need the skills to design and deliver engaging lessons, and the skills to monitor learning progress. Well-developed lesson plans help ensure effective instruction techniques are incorporated.

Topic- 183: Teaching in Cross-cultural Contexts

Examine Your Own Culture: The essence of cross-cultural understanding is knowing how your own culture is both similar to and different from the local or 'target culture'. For this reason, those who pursue cross-cultural knowledge must, sooner or later, turn their gaze on themselves.

What is Your Cultural Intelligence? It is the sum of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which enables a volunteer teacher to work successfully with students, fellow teachers, administrators, and parents at a host school. You are not born with cultural intelligence, nor is it acquired overnight.

How do You Gain Cultural Intelligence? First -- Increase your awareness of your own cultural values, beliefs, traditions, and norms and how they affect your behavior.

Next -- Appreciatively observe everyday school life and ask non-judgmental questions. Make tentative assumptions about the culture. Check your assumptions through additional observations and/or discussions with individuals familiar with the culture. Learn from your mistakes. Study and practice the language. **Finally** - Adapt some behaviors that enable you to function in the culture.

An Activity to Gain Insight into a School Culture: A cultural interview activity -- Encourage students or teachers to think about school culture and share their thoughts with the teacher.

Following questions can be helpful in such interviews:
- What would your friends tell a new student about this school?
- What is the one thing your friends would most like to change about this school?
- Who is a hero at this school? Why?
- What is your friends' favorite thing about this school?
- What do your friends think a new teacher should know about this school?

Topic- 184: Strategies for Classroom Management

1. **Create an Effective Learning Environment**
- Arrange the room to facilitate your proximity to students and your mobility.
- Greet students at the classroom door and tell them what to do when they enter the classroom.
- Learn every student's name and something about each student.
- End class with a routine that summarizes the day's accomplishments, reminds students what they need to do to prepare for the next day, ensures materials are put away, and leaves the room clean.
- Develop a set of written behavior expectations (rules and procedures) with the class.
- Make parents your allies.

2. **Establish Classroom Procedures**

3. **Create a Motivational Environment**
- Create an attractive, enriched environment by asking students to decorate their own classroom.
- Develop lessons at a level that challenges students.
- Give clear directions.
- Demonstrate consistently that you believe all students will learn.
- Make learning interesting by relating lesson content to the students' life and society.
- Use vivid, novel, or different attention getters at the beginning of the lesson.

4. **Make Every Minute Count - Begin on Time**
   - End on time.
   - A few minutes of class time saved every day could add up to hours of additional academic instruction.
5. **Keep Everyone Engaged:** Both low and high achievers to participate in discussions and answer questions.
6. **Teach Life Skills and Good Learning Habits:** To create an organized learner-centered classroom
7. **Be Creative:** Find resources such as pictures, maps, activity ideas, arts and crafts instructions, and free, downloadable materials.

Topic- 185: Managing Disruptive Behavior

Teaching Expected Behaviors: Teachers usually have a clear vision of how students are expected to behave, but many teachers forget to share that vision with their students.They should be clear with students from the start about their expectations.

Reinforce Appropriate Classroom Behavior: Reinforce positive student behavior outside of the classroom by sharing student's accomplishments and positive behavior with his or her parents. catch students "doing something right" to reinforce good behavior.

Implementing Discipline : What is considered inappropriate behavior and how should you manage it? The answer depends on: the teacher's tolerance for certain student behaviors; the teaching situation (e.g., talking is fine during group work, but not during a written test); and the school's cultural norms.

Consequences and/or Punishment: Punishment is a penalty imposed for wrongdoing .**Consequence** is an act or instance of following something as an effect, result, or outcome. It will have greatest impact when it is immediate, consistent, respectful, and seen by the student as being reasonable.

Behavior Tickets
- Every time a student is disruptive, write him or her a "ticket".
- Consequences?
- Three tickets might require the student to prepare and give a class presentation on a lesson related to the weekly topic.

Discipline Ideas
Competent teachers use a variety of discipline tools such as: put on your business face, stand still for at least 10 seconds and look at the misbehaving student. This gives time for you to think and to get the student's attention - then speak softly and slowly.(Peace Corps, n.d.)

	Student Action	Consequence
Natural/logical consequences bear a direct relationship to the inappropriate behavior. This should be the first choice	Throwing trash on the floor	Pick up trash/ clean classroom
	Late to class	Stay after school to make up work
	Name Calling	Apologize to the person
Unnatural consequences do not logically relate to the behavior, nor do they promote the desired behavior. They may cause emotional or physical pain. (Peace Corps, n.d., p. 77)	Throwing something at another student	Leave the room
	Talking at the same time the teacher or student is talking	Slap student
	Not doing homework	Write 100 times, "I will always do my homework."

Topic- 186: Assessment, Grading, and Cheating

Assessment and grading are essential tasks for all educators. Whether you share assessment and grading tasks with a team teacher or have sole responsibility, you are likely to encounter cultural differences that are challenging. You can make daily learning objectives clear, and use a variety of assessment tools to ensure that all students have an opportunity to demonstrate mastery of the material. Students will learn more and produce better results and teachers will have an easier time managing the daily life of the classroom. Observe other classes and watch how teachers and students behave.

Assessment Tools and Strategies
- Pre - assessment (gather baseline data)
- Monitoring progress (formative assessment)
- Post - assessment (evaluation)
- Tools to assess and measure learning (or gather evidence) are:
    o Tests (national, local, teacher made)
    o Quizzes and worksheets
    o Performances (skits, role plays, etc.)
    o Projects and presentations etc
    o Grading -- an evaluation process to make judgments about the value of a student's work and points or grades are assigned

Cheating - How does Cheating Affect Individual and Group Learning?
Students do not remember when they copy from others when they do their own work.
Students are aware when cheating is allowed to occur - the teacher's credibility is diminished, honest students are disadvantaged, and they may feel compelled to cheat just to keep up. Unchecked cheating can erode students' motivation to learn.

Ideas to Prevent Cheating

- Make sure that your test accurately represents what you have taught.
- Define what cheating is before the first quiz or examination.
- Discuss what you consider cheating, what is unacceptable, and what you expect from your students. (Peace Corps, n.d.)

Topic- 187: Checking Your Progress

- Pause periodically to monitor your classroom management skills and encourage your counterparts or team teachers to do the same.
- A possible tool which may monitor your progress throughout the year.
- Complete the exercise by considering each element and mark your score on the graph.
- Repeat several times during the first year to see how you are doing.
- The list may help you isolate classroom management issues on which you could improve.

Managing My Classroom

Analyze your use of classroom management practices by placing a check in the appropriate column after each item. Then add your checks in each column (e.g., score four points for each "usually," two points for each "sometimes," and zero points for each "never"). Enter the date you did the analysis and your score on the chart.

1. I get students' attention before giving instructions. Usually   Sometimes   Never
2. I wait for students to pay attention rather than talk over chatter. _____
3. I quickly get students on task. _____
4. I give clear and specific directions. ___
5. I set explicit time limits for task completion. _____
6. I circulate among students at work. ____
7. I hold private conversations/ conferences before or after class. _____
8. I model courtesy and politeness. _____
9. I use a quiet voice in the classroom. _____
10. I teach students my cues. _____
11. I use a variety of cues to remind students of expected behavior. ____
12. I enrich my classroom (with posters, visual aids, etc.) to improve students' motivation. ____
13. I remove distractions from my classroom to improve attention. _____

Total score (enter on progress chart)
        (Peace Corps, n.d., p. 119)

Lesson-35

SKILLS AND ROLES OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Topic- 188: Introduction

A certain level of language ability is required to teach language effectively. However, minimum level required depends on the teaching context and language levels of the group of learners. Each teacher progress through the stages in individual and unique ways to achieve the level of ability.

In recent years, humanistic and communicative theories put great emphasis on learner-centered teaching that is teaching which makes the learner need and experience central. The measure of a good lesson is the student activity taking place not the performance of the teacher. It is suggested that teachers in such learner- centered classrooms need special qualities including maturity, intuition, educational skills, an openness to student input, and a greater tolerance for uncertainly. These qualities are marked in contrast to more traditional teacher behavior.

- A language teacher should make their lessons interesting.
- A teacher must love his/her job because that will make the lesson interesting.
- A teacher should have skills which can draw out the quiet students and control the more talkative ones.

Class Management: The ability to control and inspire a class is one of the fundamental skills of teaching.The way the teacher talk to students is one of the crucial teacher skills and demand technical expertise.

Topic- 189: Language Knowledge and Awareness

Following are the factors a language teacher should know before he/she starts teaching.

1. **Linguistics Factors**
- Teacher needs to understand the system and function of the second language and the differences between L1 and L2 of the learner.
- A teacher should know how to speak and understand a language. He/she should attain the technical knowledge required to understand and explain the system of that language - its phonemes, morphemes, words, sentences and discourses structures.

2. **Learning Processes**
- How can a person ensure success in language learning?
- What cognitive processes are utilized?
- What kinds of strategies are available to a learner and which ones are optimal?

3. **Age and Acquisition**
- To know about differences between children and adults' learning process. It is a common observation that children are better language learners than adults.

4. **Instructional Variables**
- What are the effects of varying methodological approaches, textbook, materials teacher styles and institutional factors?

- Consider the amount of time spent in classrooms learning a second language.
- Is there an optional length of time required for successful mastery?

5.   Context
- Are the learners attempting to acquire the second language within the cultural and linguistic milieu of the second language?
- Or they focusing on a foreign language context in which the second language is heard and spoken only in an artificial environment.
- How socio-political conditions of a particular context affect L2 learning?

6. Purpose
- Why are learners attempting to acquire the second language?
- Are they motivated by the achievement of a successful career or by passing a foreign language requirement?

Topic- 190: Learning and the Learners

Learning is acquiring or getting knowledge of a subject or a skill by study, experience, or instruction. **Teaching** is showing or helping someone to learn how to do something, giving instructions, guiding in the study of something - causing to know or understand.

Breaking down the components of the definition of learning we get that:

- Learning is acquisition
- Retention of information or skill
- Relatively permanent subject to forgetting
- Involves some form of practice perhaps reinforced practice

A Change in Behavior

A current SLA research has revealed that socio-psychological factors affect success in learning an L2. This domain covers teacher knowledge about

- Differences among language learners
- Their levels of socio-cultural awareness

Individual differences, such as motivation, attitudes, anxiety, identity, learning styles, pedagogical beliefs, socialization patterns, learning and communicative strategies affect success in learning an L2. E.g., motivation has a positive effect on L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005). While learners with high levels of anxiety do not seem to be successful language learners (Horwitz, 2008). Competent L2 teachers know about the role these factors might play in L2 attainment and plan the learning experience for their students accordingly.

Topic-191: Professional Development and Values

Teachers are generally motivated to continue with their professional development. In an educational institution, there are teachers with different levels of experience, knowledge, skills and expertise. Knowledge about language teaching and learning is in a tentative and incomplete state, and teachers need regular opportunities to update their professional knowledge. Mutual sharing of knowledge and experience is a valuable source.

Classrooms: Classrooms are not only places where students learn, they are also places where teachers can learn. It is the responsibility of educational institutions to provide opportunities for continued professional education and to encourage teachers to participate in them. In order for such opportunities to take place, they need to be planned, supported and rewarded.

Foundation Level: It is some awareness of institutional issues and of different roles within their institution. Who fulfills job-related responsibilities developing level and has started to develop understanding of institutional issues, and awareness of roles and responsibilities within their institution.

Proficient Level: Good understanding of issues and professional, social and moral responsibilities. Who demonstrates good professional conduct, and is involved in supporting the development of other teachers, either formally or informally, and contributes to the development of the institution.

Topic- 192: Teacher as a Resource, Controller, and Prompter

Teachers use many metaphors to describe what they do. Within the classroom, teacher's role may change from one activity to another. If they are fluent at making changes, the effectiveness as teachers may greatly enhance. Teacher's role such as prompter, resource, or tutor may well fulfill this concept.

Resource

Students do not know everything so they need the teacher's help as a resource. Teachers give information, such as teaching grammar, explaining vocabulary, showing how to write essay or how to prepare a presentation and equip them for creative writing tasks. Students might ask how to say or write something or what a word or phrase means. They might want to know information in the middle of an activity or they might want information about where to look for a book or a website. This is where a teacher can be one of the most important resources they have.

Controller

They are in charge of the class and of the activity taking place. Controllers take the role, telling students things, organize drills, read aloud, and exemplify the other qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom.

Prompter

When students are involved in a role play activity and lose the thread of what is going on and may not be quite sure how to proceed:what should teachers do in these circumstances? They should hold back and let the students work things out for themselves or instead nudge them forward in a supportive way. Controller makes announcements, orders to be restored, provide explanations in a question and answer session. If we opt for the latter we are adopting some kind of a prompting role.Being a prompter, teacher will occasionally offer words or phrases, suggest that the students say something, or what could come next in a paragraph. E.g., often they can prompt students in monolingual groups to speak English rather than using their mother tongue.

Topic- 193: Assessor, Organizer, Participant, Tutor

Assessor

As an assessor, they have to offer feedback and correction and grading students in various ways. Assessment allows the teachers to know where students are having problems with their learning or not. E.g., When teachers find that students have problems with something, they point it, may be at that time, especially when the students are focused on accuracy, or may be later, for example in a fluency activity.

Organizer

One of the most important roles is to organize students for various activities, giving information, Telling them how they are going to do the activity, putting them into pairs or groups, and finally closing things. The first thing a teacher needs to do when organizing something is to get students involved, engaged and ready.

Participant

They are participants to do things better from inside instead of always having to prompt or organize from outside the group. There are times when teacher might want to join in an activity not as a teacher but also as a participant. When it goes well, students enjoy having the teacher with them, and for the teacher, participating is often more instantly enjoyable.

Tutor

When students are working on longer projects such as pieces of writing or preparations for a talk or a debate, working with individuals or small groups pointing them in directions that have not yet thought of taking. In such situations, we are combining the roles of prompter and resources acting as a tutor. However, being a tutor, when students are working in small groups or in pairs, teacher can go round and stay briefly with a particular group or individual and offer general guidance.

Lesson-36

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)

Topic- 194: What is CALL?

The acronym CALL appears to have been coined at the beginning of the 1980s. To Levy it is, 'the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning'. To find ways for using computers for the purpose of teaching and learning the language. Computer technologies promote educational learning, including word processing, presentation packages, guided drill and practice, tutor, simulation, problem solving, games, multimedia CD-ROM, and internet applications such as e-mail, chat and the World Wide Web (WWW) for language learning purposes.

Why CALL?

It offers great flexibility for class scheduling and pacing of individual learning, choosing activities and content to suit individual learning styles (Oxford, et. Al, 1998). It allows us to incorporate multimedia applications, video, sound, and text. CALL widened its scope, embracing the communicative approach and a range of new technologies. It allows the learner to interact with both the program and other learners (Felix, 1998). It is no longer one subject - division between computer mediated communication and CALL. In the past, teachers had to book computer rooms or language labs to go with their learners and allow them to use CALL software with mostly drill-type exercises. Today, technology has become integrated into the classroom physically and pedagogically rather than being an ad on. Computers particularly have come to be seen and used as a tool to accomplish certain tasks or to communicate. Therefore, Garrett (2009: 719) defines CALL now as 'the full integration of technology into language learning' with its three elements of theory, pedagogy, and technology, playing an equally important role.'

Topic- 195: Software Design and Pedagogy

Butler-Pascoe (2009: 2–3) lists14 advantages of technology for ESP. Some of them are the following:

1. Provides sheltering strategies for language development and content-specific understanding (modelling, bridging to students' background experiences, contextualizing, metacognitive activities, etc.).
2. Uses task-based and inquiry-based strategies.
3. Uses authentic materials from specific disciplines and occupations.
4. Supplies authentic audiences, including outside experts.
5. Supports cognitive abilities and critical thinking skills required in the disciplines.
6. Uses collaborative learning.
7. Facilitates focused practice for the development of reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills across the curriculum and disciplines.
8. Meets affective needs of students: motivation, self-esteem, and autonomy.
9. Provides appropriate feedback and assessment of content knowledge and English skills.
10. Different technologies are successfully used in ESP courses from the traditional tape recorder or CD player to interactive whiteboards, ICT, Web 2.0 tools, mobile technologies and 3D virtual environments.
11. There are many online voice-over internet protocol (VoIP) services and Skype is one of the better known examples.
12. Allows users to make telephone or video calls and conduct group conferences.

13. It also allows screen sharing, which means that the teacher or students can show Word documents, slide presentations, or websites on their screen to the other participants in a Skype session, to talk about or explain them.

14. Skype is used for formal and informal language learning and teaching. Skype community platform may show how many language courses, language chat groups or conversation clubs there are. Many teachers also offer online courses via Skype, which are often individually bookable lessons.

Topic- 196: Use of Internet

Computers can be connected to the internet and incorporate interactive multimedia: text, graphics, audio, video, and animation. The explosive growth of the internet has given new life to interactive media and CALL. The teacher and learner need to use "Web browser" software. Many English teachers use the internet in their courses, set online homework, and use it to find materials and ideas. Some have become online teachers, others use it for their own professional development as a 'virtual staffroom' to connect with colleagues, share ideas, participate in webinars or conferences, or write and read blogs. The following internet applications may be used for language teaching:

The File Transfer Protocol (FTP): A facility for transferring files over the internet.

World Wide Web (WWW): Teacher and learner can search for texts, pictures, audio/ video files, chat/voice chats, teleconference. Today's technology makes it further possible for teachers to create more sophisticated and professional looking (multimedia) materials and online or blended courses. Current needs analysis in EAP reveals that, along with linguistic demands, many academic tasks involve the use of technology. Many English teachers use the internet in their courses, set online homework, and use it to find materials and ideas. Some have become online teachers; others use it for their own professional development as a 'virtual staffroom' to connect with colleagues, share ideas, participate in webinars or conferences, or write and read blogs.

Electronic Mail (e-mail): In an ever-faster changing world, up-to-date information is important, however, course books take several years for publishing. By then, the information, vocabulary, expressions contained in the chosen texts is outdated. The internet can close this gap - complement course book with online reading material.

Generally speaking, in our professional life, the internet has taken center stage and allows fast and efficient communication and collaboration, information generation, exchange, and management. The professional world today would, in most cases, not be possible without information technology.

Topic- 197: Corpora and Concordances

Language corpora are collections of spoken or written text, created for the purposes of linguistic analysis or description. Specially designed software along with digitalized corpora can allow researchers, materials developers, classroom teachers, and language learners to examine English closely in a range of contexts. Concordances are software programmes which allow users to search thousands, and in some cases millions, of words of a corpus for in-context occurrences of particular morphemes, words, or phrases.

A typical search returns a series of text lines, aligned to allow for user analysis of how the inputted text (keyword in context, or KWIC) is used. Concordance can support language learning in several important ways: for both teachers and learners. For teachers, concordance can offer input for materials development and classroom teaching, and provide a source of lexico - grammatical information

about naturally occurring language. For learners, it can provide opportunities for inductive learning, a resource for error analysis and correction, and opportunities for 'serendipity learning'. Further, concordance tools may help us investigate lexical and grammatical patterns of academic language as it is actually used in written and spoken forms. Moreover, concordancing is an alphabetical list of words.

It displays, in context, all occurrences of words, phrases, etc. from a database of text. Teachers and learners can use concordancing software to search large databases to find all the uses of a particular word. It might be confusing for ESL/EFL beginners. An important concordance for ELT teachers and students is Oxford MicroConcord. The software includes a total of about 1,000,000 words from British newspapers.

Topic- 198: Virtual Worlds

Virtual worlds (VW) are three dimensional environments in which you can interact with others and create objects as part of that interaction. How do you do that? --You appear as an avatar in the virtual world: an avatar is a virtual representation of you (a 'virtual ego') which can take on any shape or form as you so wish. There are a range of virtual worlds to choose from which include fantasy, sport, historical and science fiction.You can communicate with another person using text, sound, graphical images and gesture. Some of the more advanced worlds allow you to use voice or touch. For the purposes of language teaching, VWs are 3 Dimensional, web-based, network-based, simulated worlds. In order to learn a second language (L2), learners need to become proficient in four areas of language:

Reading (interactions with objects and text chat), writing (text chat and object creation), speaking (voice chat), and listening (interactions with objects, voice chat). Dervin (2008) suggests the following types of activities, which can be assigned to students:

- Observing other people's behavior in various spaces within SL (without spoken communication).
- Discussing various issues with other users.
- Interviewing others about their appearance.
- Comparing SL with the real world.

In order to design such a language activity, a number of questions should first be answered (Dervin, 2008), such as:

- What is the linguistic-communicative aim?
- What is the aim regarding inter-cultural sensitization?
- What kind of activity might best achieve the above purposes?
- In which SL space is it most effective to carry out the activity?
- How would the activity be evaluated?

Lesson-37

LEARNERS MOTIVATION AND INTEREST

Topic- 199: What is Motivation?

Motivation involves the factors behind human actions; 'why people think and behave as they do' (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 1). Dörnyei, et al. (2006, p. 9) further elaborate that motivation deals with 'the direction and magnitude of human action, that is, the choice of a particular action, the persistence with it and the effort expended on it'. It arises from a purpose and then guides human actions.The concept of motivation seems to be a difficult and complex area to define. The multi-dimensional nature and wide range of motives for human behavior make it impossible to develop a comprehensive theory of motivation. A kind of cognitive stimulation, which encourages somebody to make 'sustained intellectual and/or physical effort' in order to achieve a goal (Williams and Burden, 1997, p. 120). Similar to its important contribution in influencing human behavior, motivation also plays a key role in successful educational learning.

Effects of Motivation on Students' Learning Ability and Behavior

1. It can positively influence the 'cognitive processing' of students, which helps them to understand information quickly.
2. It improves the performance of students in terms of achievement.
3. Motivation enhances 'initiation of, and persistence in activities.'
4. It leads students to put more effort and energy into the learning process, which results in enthusiastic learning behavior.
5. It guides the behavior of students toward certain learning goals they have set for themselves.

It helps learners to focus on potentially more rewarding outcomes and helps researchers to understand the L2 learning phenomenon because it is a central component of successful learning (Dörnyei, et al., 2006). 'If only we could get the students to be motivated, then they learn successfully' (Schmitt, 2002, p. 172).It is an interesting area of inquiry in various EFL/ESL contexts.

Topic- 200: Factors Affecting L2 Motivation

There are multiple factors interfering learing L2 motivation:

Attitudinal Factors

1. **Cultural Interest**

L2 learners are represented important aspects of the socio-cultural attributes of L2 community. It was observed that the awareness about the cultural items of an L2 community influenced L2 attitudes of the learners. Even where direct contact with the native speakers TL is rare, cultural products, such as books, media and music provide L2 learners with the opportunity to be familiar with L2 community.

2. **Attitudes Towards L2 Community**

Successful L2 learning is largely driven by learners' attitudes towards L2 community. It focuses not only on learners' attitudes towards L2 community and its ethno-linguistic vitality but also on their desire to meet with this community and travel to the countries that belong to it.

3. Integrativeness

Learners may want to integrate into the L2 culture and become similar to the L2 speakers (Dörnyei et al., 2006).

4. Instrumentality (Promotion and Prevention)

It is one of the most important and widely accepted aspects of motivational research in L2 settings. A significant motivational factor in the previous Pakistani studies.Utilitarian value of the target language serves as an important incentive for the learners.

5. International Posture

A tendency to see oneself as connected to the international community. It concerns for international affairs.The readiness to interact with the people other than those from the local context (Yashima, 2009).

Socio-contextual and Relational Factors

1. National Interest

Learners' perceptions of the benefits of English for the progress and healthy reputation of their country. Emerging and perceived national and collective uses of English in various global contexts including Pakistan. Popular belief in various developing nations where English is seen as a potential force of change.

2. Milieu

The influence of 'significant others' (e.g., friends and family including parents) present in the 'immediate learning environment' (Dörnyei et al., 2006).

Criterion Measure

- Intended learning efforts
- Perceptions regarding on-going as well as anticipated future efforts to learn L2.

Topic- 201: L2 Motivational Self System

It aims at refining the L2 motivation, understanding, and research by applying the 'psychological theories of self' (Dörnyei, 2009) and answers some theoretical concerns (e.g., re-interpretation of Integrativeness). It makes it harmonious with the changes occurring in many EFL contexts in the contemporary world and focuses on the multi-faceted aspects of an L2 learner's identity which has always been central to L2 research.

Components of L2 Motivational Self System

1. Ideal L2 self
- Portrays a range of qualities and aspirations one would like to own.
- Underlines the L2- related image of one's ideal person.
- Can be an influential motivating factor provided the person one inspires to become is proficient in L2.
- Relies on 'the desire to reduce the discrepancy between [their] actual and ideal selves' (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29).

- The promotion of a hoped-for future self' (MacIntyre et al., 2009, p. 195).
- Includes both 'integrative and internalized instrumental motives' (Dörnyei, 2009)

2. Ought-to L2 Self

- One's inclination to develop certain qualities or skills to prevent negative and feared outcomes in the future (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009).
- Primarily extrinsic and preventional in nature.
- It also incorporates those aspects of an individual's future self which other people (such as parents, family, friends) are perceived to desire for her/him – e.g., obligations.
- May play a more prominent role in Asian L2 contexts.

L2 Learning Experience

- Attitudes towards 'immediate learning environment and experience' (Dörnyei, 2009).
- Students' motivational orientation varies according to their experiences of learning conditions.
- 'The impact of teacher, the curriculum, the peer group or the experience of success' (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011, p. 86).

Topic- 202: L2 Learning Anxiety

Learning anxiety is an important affective factor. It reflects 'negative emotional reaction' (MacIntyre, 1999, p. 27) of learners towards the learning or use of English in the immediate learning situation. The emotional disturbance related to anxiety may have negative effects on foreign language learning process or success. 'Does not allow a learner to understand 'language input' properly' (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). However, Scovel (1978) provided an interesting categorization of anxiety; 'Facilitating' and 'Debilitating' anxiety. The facilitating anxiety may have positive effects on learning as it encourages learners to fight learning tasks. Debilitating anxiety induces them to run away from tasks and follow 'avoidance behaviour'.

There are three performance-based anxieties (Horwitz et al., 1986).

1. Communication Apprehension

Some kind of reticence to communicate with others, especially groups, and may become severe in classroom interactions.

2. Test Anxiety

May be caused by the 'fear of failure' to achieve exalted or impossible targets students set for themselves in relation to their test/examination performance.

3. Fear of Negative Evaluation

May emerge from the apprehension/suspicion of being evaluated negatively by others. It is a broader form of anxiety and may include a fear of micro level evaluation (by a teacher within classroom, test evaluation) or of a macro level broader social evaluation by others – e.g., peers, significant others. Discrepancies between a person's actual self and ought-to/ feared self. Ought-to L2 selves considerably increase anxiety. It helps conditioning in childhood.

How to Reduce Anxiety?

- Examine the thoughts that cause the fear.
- Exhibit genuine concern for your students.
- Provide a relaxed, reassuring classroom atmosphere - Use humor.
- Positive learning experiences may reduce L2 anxiety (Papi, 2010).

Topic- 203: Teachers and L2 Motivation

The issue of teacher motivation had received rather little attention in educational psychology. The teacher's level of enthusiasm and commitment is one of the most important factors that can affect learners' motivation to learn. It is a bi-directional relationship between teacher and student motivation (e.g., Martin, 2006).

Characteristics of Teacher Motivation: Teacher motivation can be best understood in the light of various theories (e.g., expectancy-value, goal-setting, goal-orientation, self-determination) and social contextual factors.

1. A prominent intrinsic component
2. Closely linked with contextual factors
3. Temporal axis (career structures and promotion possibilities)
4. Fragile - exposed to several powerful negative influences (Dornyei & Ushioda, 2011)

Intrinsic component of teacher motivation is most important. Teaching has always been associated with the internal desire to educate people, to impart knowledge and values, to advance a community or a whole nation.

Intrinsic Rewards

- The educational process itself (i.e. changes in the students' performance and behavior attributable to the teacher's action).
- The subject matter (i.e. continuously integrating new information, increasing one's own level of professional skills and knowledge).
- Sense of efficacy: 'their belief in their ability to have a positive effect on student learning' (Ashton, 1985: 142).
- Teaching efficacy - possibility of producing student learning in the face of multiple obstacles (e.g., unsupportive home environment).
- Personal efficacy - teacher's personal appraisal of his or her own effectiveness.
- If 'it's not fun for you, you really should get out of it because it's not financially rewarding' (Doyle and Kim, 1999).
- 'A one thousand per cent plus of the job is that it's your class. It really is your class, right? I feel like this is my class.'
- Teacher motivation has a direct impact on student motivation and achievement.

Lesson-38

CULTURE, IDENTITY, AND ELT

Topic- 204: Education, Language and Development

Language can be defined as a shared set of verbal codes and as a generic, communicative phenomenon especially in descriptions of instructions. In ELT, teachers and students use both spoken and written language to communicate. Students learn to read and write - learn the discourse of academic disciplines (academic literacies). When it comes to the discussion of language and education, both definitions are important.

Relationship Between Language and Education

Halliday divided language learning into three heuristic categories relevant to ELT:

- Language Learning
- Learning Through Language
- Learning About Language

Language, education and development are interrelated in language acquisition.

1. Language Learning -Children develop use of complex grammatical structures and vocabulary; communicative competence i.e. comprehension of both spoken and written forms. Teacher helps his student in learning a language -methodology that is different on different levels. For instance, young children are taught with the help of curriculum and the instructional programs. At secondary and post-secondary level, they must learn how to read, write or argue in discipline-specific ways. Moreover, instructional programs may focus on specific language needs -create a student centered environment.

2. Learning Through Language -Learning in classroom is primarily accomplished through language. A teacher may impart a Lesson, ask questions, orchestrate discussions, and assign reading and writing tasks. A teacher can adopt different techniques to help his students 'learn through language' e.g., Scaffolding

3. Learning About Language -The teaching of foreign language or second language in ELT always includes the coverage of vocabulary, grammar, history of language and its other components. The ultimate goals of language education for both learners and instructors revolve around the acquisition of competency.

Topic- 205: Ideology, Language Varieties, and Culture

Simpson (1993, p. 5) defines ideology as "assumptions, beliefs, value- systems which are shared collectively by social groups". These concepts are dependent on language, because it is with the help of language that people express everything. The relationship of language and ideology has been explicitly studied in CDA. To Fairclough (1995), ideologies are acquired, expressed and enacted with the help of language. He further contended that any variable structure of language is ideologically 'marked'. When it comes to ELT, an understanding of the relationship between language and culture is important for language learners, users and for all those involved in language education.

Language is formed by culture, while culture is influenced by language. Without language, culture cannot be completely acquired nor it can be effectively expressed and transmitted and without culture, language cannot exist. Thus, culture shapes languages and language is also formed by it. Language is the medium of culture. Thanasoulas (2001) stated: "Language does not exist apart from

culture, that is, from the socially inherited assemblage of practices and beliefs that determines the texture of our lives. In a sense, it is 'a key to the cultural past of a society' -a guide to 'social reality' (Sapir, 1929, p. 209, cited in Salzmann, 1998, p. 41).

Example: This is clearly seen in immigrant societies, for example, in America. These immigrants are accustomed to a certain language, and therefore, despite the assimilation, will continue to use it and keep it alive, creating different and cultured societies in this foreign land to keep the language alive.

Topic- 206: Identity and ELT

There is a lot of interest in language and identity in the field of language learning and ELT. If we want to understand the relationship of language and identity, we need to understand what identity actually is? To Norton, identity is "how people understand their relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how people understand their possibilities for the future". West (1992) further explained Norton's idea of identity and asserted that identity is related to a desire to be recognized, affiliated, and the desire for safety and security. These desires are realized with the help of language. In this regard, Bourdieu (1997) postulated that we cannot deny the relationship between identity and symbolic power. He said that the value ascribed to speech cannot be understood apart from the person who speaks, and the person who speaks cannot be understood apart from larger networks of social relationships. The debate on language and identity generate a new debate on the ownership of English Language.

Topic- 207: Ownership of English Language

Ownership of English language has become a matter of great contestation in the field of English linguistics and English education. The question arises: does the ownership of English belong to the native speaker, or does English also belong to non-native speakers? To Pargmegiani (2010), the ownership of English in a multilingual setting is multifaceted and complicated issue. Similar studies were conducted across the globe highlighting that English is used by speakers from people of different nations, races and cultures and viewed as an IL. However, students of English Language also feel that it is a language owned by its native speakers.

A study in Japan found that students believe that it is wrong to devalue any variety and English and compare it to the language of native speakers. In this debate, several studies have challenged the ownership of English because with the expansion of speaker non-native speaker demonstrate their ownership of English. However, language and identity are closely related and person's first language has a stronger impact on his identity as compared to an L2. Some linguists suggest that second language learners of English face difficulty while learning the language because of these notions. They are limited to a prescriptive interpretation of the language and how they can use it, especially when it comes to attaining native speaker like fluency.

Topic- 208: Linguistic Imperialism

Linguistic imperialism means the transfer of dominant language (and all the aspects of its culture) to the speaker of other languages. For instance, the transfer of aspects of English language to Urdu. Linguistic imperialism lingers not only in cultural spheres, but in ideological, social, political and economic practices as well. To Phillipson (1992) "Linguistics imperialism assumes the 'active promotion' of the language by the dominant class as an active expression of power of the powerful over the powerless". It is closely related to cultural imperialism, because it is language which acts as a tool to mediate or permeate imperialism. Linguistic imperialism is concerned with the study of 'linguistic hierarchizations'. It addresses the issues of why some languages come to be used more and others less. It

also studies what structures and ideologies facilitate such processes, and the role of language professionals in it.

In Pakistani context, we can assume that there is an asymmetrical relation between West South Asia. In linguistic imperialism, a language interlocks with the dimension of second or foreign language in terms of culture, ideology, social, political and economic factors. Linguistic imperialism can both be overt and covert. It can take place consciously and unconsciously, but the end result always reflects hegemonic beliefs, dominant attitudes, and values. It is also concerned with the identification of covert links which exist between ELT and broader societal developments.

<div align="right">**Lesson-39**</div>

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND TRENDS IN ELT

Topic- 209: Introduction to Research in ELT

Research is a process of constant exploration and discovery. It is a systematic study of materials and sources in order to establish facts. McMillan and Schumaker (1997) defined research as it is a systematic process of collecting and analyzing information (data) for some purpose. Research is the careful investigation of a given subject, field, or problem, undertaken to discover facts or principles. We carry out research when we have a query or a problem we want to resolve by going through a rigorous scientific scrutiny to find an answer.

Research Process

1. Asking the question
2. Identifying important factors
3. Formulating the hypothesis
4. Collecting relevant information
5. Testing the data
6. Working with the hypothesis
7. Working with the theory
8. Back to new questions

Research in ELT

It is a rapidly growing field of study. Research in ELT has gained significant importance across the globe for several reasons:

- Key to teacher development.
- Potential areas for research in ELT are becoming broader and new areas are emerging.
- Conducting research increases the professional skills and competence of ELT teachers.
- Has a direct relationship with both policy and practice.
- Policy makers and practitioners are usually seen as consumers of research - the generation of policy and the implementation of more effective practice.
- The performance of ELT has remained below satisfactory in many EFL/ESL contexts including Pakistan.

Topic- 210: Scope of Research in ELT

In recent years, there has been a dramatic change in the scope of English language teaching worldwide and an increasing demand for competent English language teachers, as well as for language programmes. Its focus is on English language skills and competencies needed by today's global citizens. The teaching of English consumes a considerable portion of available educational resources in many countries. English is not necessarily a neutral commodity offering equal opportunities for all. English teachers need to appreciate the special status English has in modern life. Research has gained significance in ELT and the façade of research has also changed tremendously over the last decade. It subjects to numerous changes, innovations and perspectives. The global spread of English and its impact.is a major reason of increasing research trends in ELT.

What other benefits do you think your learners perceive in learning English? All factors promoting the use of English around the world and factors responsible for the growth of English are also a major cause of the growth of research in ELT.

Historical Factors
1. Globalization
2. British empire, American expansion
3. Economic and national development
4. Business and entrepreneurship
5. Education
6. As a school / university subject and MOI
7. Travel and popular culture
8. The media
9. A global English language teaching industry
10. Symbolic and social value of English

Topic- 211: Enhancing Research Culture in ELT in Pakistan

Education is a key to success. Higher Education has attained a central role in the process of prosperity. Research is the essence of higher education and is given prime importance across the globe. All the prosperous nations have developed a 'research culture'. When it comes to research, Pakistan is far behind and up till now unsuccessful in developing an inspiring research culture in various disciplines including ELT. For successful survival, Pakistan's education system needs to develop a healthy research atmosphere. However, the question arises, how can we promote or enhance 'research culture' in Pakistan. There are a few ways:

1. Practical Application of Knowledge

We need to change the way in which we teach. This is the high-time for practical application of knowledge. Mostly we teach our students that 'knowledge is power', but what about utilizing that power?

2. Funding in the Field of Research

Good researches require surplus flow of funding. The recent economic crises in Pakistan pushed the government to cut the budget of universities in Pakistan. Our educational institutes need to invest on the research needs of their students. Most of the students or even teachers don't know how to avail HEC's research grants. There should be trainings to spread awareness about HEC research grants or foreign research grants.

3. Changes in Syllabi

It may help students to conduct contextualize research.

4. Need to Introduce Modern Methods

It must be done to overcome the deficiencies in the field of research.

5. Time to Make our Students Independent

It is done to inspire them to come up with their own research queries and topics.

Topic- 212: Recent Trends of Research in ELT I

Lists of areas of research which have become very prominent in ELT and most of the recent trends have focused on these areas.

1. English Language Curriculum, Assessment, and Reform

What should be taught to students on different levels? How can school/university programs be organized to optimize the English Language Learning development of students?
What processes can be employed to enable teachers and policy makers to understand the strengths and weaknesses of schools?

2. Individual Differences

L2 Motivation, anxiety, attitudes, aptitudes are powerful contributor to the learner's ability to learn a language.

3. Learner Autonomy and Self Efficacy

The learner's autnomy is very much important to make him a successful learner.

4. Course and Material Development

It is according to the needs of students and changing trends of the use of English in various social and Academic fields. Not only development but the division is also a popular area of research.

5. Learning and Teaching Strategies

They are also very much important in various contexts.

6. Error Analysis

It includes systematic methods to analyze learners' errors. It also includes identifying, describing, and explaining student's errors.

7. Bilingualism and Language Teaching

It comprises code switching, bilingualism in education – e.g. use of L1 in the teaching of L2.

8. ELT Teacher Training

It helps to find new ways to improve teaching skills.

9.   The role of Educational Institutions in ELT in Various EFL/ESL Contexts.

Topic- 213: Recent Trends of Research in ELT II

Teaching Methods and Their Effectiveness: Comparative studies of methods.

English as an International Language (EIL): The features of EIL and implications for ELT in various EFL/ESL contexts.

World Englishes: It covers the existence and features of WE; political and academic debates about Wes; WE and learners' identity.

Critical Discourse Analysis: It studies and analyzes both spoken and written texts in order to investigate the discursive sources of power, dominance, bias and inequality, which govern language. CDA studies are becoming very popular.

Conversational Analysis: It is about analyzing speech exchange in both spoken and written interaction.Researchers concerned with the analysis of 'talk-in-interaction', recurring patterns, sequence of utterances, turn-taking, allotment of turns, etc.

Corpus Linguistics: The study of language based on the collections of 'real life' language use which is stored in the form of 'corpora'. It helps teachers of all levels study language from 'bottom up' approach.

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL): Its about use of computer for teaching, presentation, reinforcement, and assessment of material to be learned.

Contrastive Analysis: It deals with the comparison of languages that are 'socio-culturally linked', i.e. languages whose speech communities overlap in some way. Input to applied disciplines (e.g., Translation studies).

Lesson-40

ELT IN PAKISTAN

TOPIC 214: ELT in Pakistan: Issues and Challenges

1. History of ELT in Pakistan. (Please, give us a brief overview of the history of ELT in Pakistan?)
2. Issues and challenges of ELT in Pakistan. (What are the major Issues and Challenges of ELT in Pakistan?)
3. Institutional Performance. (How far academic institutions have been successful in disseminating the knowledge and skills of English Language in Pakistan?)
4. Role and Performance of Teachers. (Please, tell us something about the role and performance of ELT teachers in Pakistan?)
5. Standard and Quality of ELT Textbooks. (Please, comment about the quality of ELT textbooks in Pakistan)
6. Future Prospects of ELT in Pakistan. (What are the future prospects of ELT in Pakistan?)